The Asian EFL Journal

December 2018

Volume 20, Issue 12.2

Senior Editors:

Paul Robertson

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Foreword

The second issue of Asian EFL Journal's December Edition presents approaches in teaching the different areas of English. It covers studies on classroom practices, language competence, teaching modalities, student performance and also includes studies on discourse analysis.

With pressure coming from the school, family and friends, students who are about to take one of the standardized tests that assesses language skills, the IELTS, are driven into utilizing a popular platform to collaborate with peers. William Pearson investigated how students are using social media platforms like Facebook, in discussing test uncertainties, preparation and administrative aspects. Also, it was known that students use Facebook to collaborate with peers to obtain feedback on their performances in the different skills included in the test.

Luanganggoon's study on the use of CLIL in a public university in Thailand proved that this approach has its advantages and disadvantages to undergraduate and graduate students. This approach focused much on research-based learning thus affecting the effectiveness in developing individual communicative skills of students. It was further known that due to Thai students' level of competence in the English language, CLIL practice should allow more learning objectives developing communicative competence and capability.

Alfehaid looked into the experiences of students and the implications of the use of English as a medium of instruction in the classroom. It was found that students and instructors favored the use of EMI and it made a significant development in student's proficiency yet problems on language proficiency is still affecting lecture comprehension, academic writing, lexical resource, and grammar.

China's recent national education reform on the development of key competencies in all subjects prompted Dianping Liu to explore the gap in the process of putting the reform into practice. The current exam-centered and knowledge-centered education in China is seen as a stumbling block in developing the key language competence of students thus the reform will eventually put the missing link into these areas.

This interplay between language and culture gave Malinee Prapinwong motivation to study how intercultural awareness develops language proficiency through the use of a blended course design. The integration of technology in the classroom accelerates acquisition of both language

and culture and Prapinwong was able to maximize students' learning time through the use of this design. Also, her introduction of activities such as E-pal writing partners and exchange student interaction provided a better avenue for students to understand culture and how culture affects the language.

Choi's study identified the correlation among temperament factors, academic engagement and speaking and listening performance in young EFL learners. It was found that academic engagement accounts for part of their tasks orientation and speaking and listening performance; kids who are more pro-social were likely to show higher level of academic engagement and better performance in listening and speaking activities.

The highest-ranking bureaucrat in the Philippines is gaining popularity because of his language and his style in discourse. This led Sabio and Lintao to investigate the stylistic and reasoning strategies imbedded in the Philippine president's speeches. This discourse study explains his use of language as a tool for persuasion and as representation of himself to others.

Students in an EFL classroom sometimes experience fear, reluctance and negative self-perception during oral assessment thus contributing to this debilitating factor affecting their performance, anxiety. It was found that psychological and physiological anxieties in direct oral assessment are more obvious than in a semi-direct assessment, but it didn't affect the assessment scores. It was suggested to use semi-direct oral assessment as a practicable way to simulate speaking.

Listening should not be ignored as an important macro skill to develop. Karimi, Chalak and Biria studied the impact of using pre-listening activities to enhance listening skills. It was further noted that vocabulary preparation and content related support as kinds of pre-listening activities improved the listening comprehension performance of the students.

There should be no debate regarding native speakers and non-native speakers in teaching English. Almudibry investigated EFL learners' perceptions of native and non-native English teachers in a university setting and found that students favor NESTs over NNESTs in terms of teaching reading, listening and speaking yet NNESTs were favored in the area of teaching writing and gained positive perception in the areas of identification of learner's difficulties and understanding learner's culture.

Mu'in, Al-Arief, Amelia and Fadilla looked into the problem of professional development for teachers in Indonesia. Teachers spend most of their time in the classroom teaching, yet we can't

deny the fact that they too, should grow professionally by receiving an upgrade in their instructional knowledge and skills through TPD programs.

A descriptive qualitative study on the levels of competency in pedagogy for TEYL was done by Imaniah and Nargis to assess the skills of soon-to-be teachers. They concluded that most of trainee students are effective in planning and preparation for learning, classroom management, and delivery instruction but need improvement in doing monitoring, assessment and follow up during the teaching simulation.

Esmero, Gador and Sumabon analyzed the Porohanon dialect spoken by the people in the island of Poro, Camotes Cebu Philippines. The study focused on phonetic changes and dominant syntactic patterns of the dialect as they tried to posit that is it indeed a variation of the Cebuano language.

Women studies in the area of political discourse and CDA is not as populated as their male counterpart. Malimas, Carreon and Peña investigated how Filipino women politicians construct their campaign speeches in order to gain public support in the lens of CDA. The study revealed that these women politicians utilized all the six parts of the speech outline of Sharndama and that super polite forms of language prevailed among the linguistic features used.

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Utilising Facebook Community Groups for IELTS Preparation: A Thematic Analysis

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Abstract

Meeting the required linguistic standards through performance in the IELTS (International English Language Testing System) test is vital for many individuals' academic or work ambitions in English-speaking environments. As such, many thousands of prospective test-takers utilise social media, and in particular Facebook, to engage in collaborative test preparation with like-minded peers. However, the online preparation practices of students have yet to receive scholarly attention in the form of ethnographic observation, unlike the teacher-led IELTS preparation classroom (see Hayes & Read, 2008; Mickan & Motteram, 2008; Pearson, 2018). The present study addresses this omission in the literature by employing thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) of 2,030 documented posts in five public peer-driven IELTS support and preparation Facebook community groups. The study generated six superordinate themes from the qualitative data concerning how the subjects employed the platform as well as their test preparation priorities and concerns. The most notable findings that emerge were that IELTS-orientated Facebook community groups were important locales for individuals to obtain feedback on written practice compositions, discuss uncertainties and confusions surrounding administrative aspects of the test and approaching test tasks and preparation, and share preparation content. The implications of these and other findings are discussed, and recommendations made.

Keywords: IELTS, language testing, test preparation, test wiseness, social media, washback

Introduction

For many individuals around the world, the prospect of tertiary study in a foreign country, particularly an English-speaking one is increasingly desired and achievable (Green, 2007; Ramia, Marginson, & Sawir, 2013). Concomitantly, the legal emigration of skilled

workers to English-speaking countries, particularly Canada, Australia, and New Zealand is an attainable reality. Ambitions in either area are usually contingent on the provision of valid evidence of sufficient English language ability (Green, 2007), often obtained by undertaking a formal language test such as IELTS or TOEFL-iBT. One test in which candidates aim to demonstrate their English proficiency is the International English Language Testing System (IELTS). IELTS is an internationally-recognised gatekeeping test whose primary purpose is to aid in the decision-making of organisations in assessing the readiness of a non-native speaking (NNES) individual to operate in an English-speaking environment (Moore & Morton, 2005; Uysal, 2009). It is a unitary test administered to all candidates regardless of ability, with performance measured in nine criterion-referenced bands (from band 1.0, 'non user' to band 9.0, 'expert user'). It is not a pass/fail test. Rather, test-takers seek to achieve a band score set by a particular organisation or higher education institution (test user) to which they will or have applied (Uysal, 2009).

As with other tests, prospective candidates engage in preparation for IELTS to try to improve their test scores, and hence to better enable them to fulfil their important life ambitions. Preparation may encompass learning either of the English skills directly measured by the test, or awareness-raising in relation to the specific facets unique to the test's design (test familiarity or 'test-wiseness'). Research into the preparation practices of IELTS candidates has tended to focus on the formal classroom environment as the primary locus of investigation (see Brown, 1998; Green, 2007; Hawkey, 2006; Issitt, 2008; Mickan & Motteram, 2006, 2008; Pearson, 2018). Research has provided growing insights into the nature and effectiveness of teacher-led IELTS preparation. Nevertheless, the autonomous preparation practices of individuals outside of the classroom or those utilising peer-to-peer social media environments, absent from the knowledge and scaffolded facilitation of teachers or experts, remains unexplored. As such, little is known about what candidates do outside of the classroom in order to improve their prospects in IELTS, and whether such activities are effective. Many candidates utilise social media in their preparation activities, which represents an observable, naturalistic realm in which the preparation practices of candidates can be observed and documented (Moreno, Goniu, Moreno, & Diekema, 2013).

Digital and communication technologies are deeply ingrained in the lives of students of contemporary times (Ahern, Feller, & Nagle, 2016). Consequently, students employ technology, particularly social media in learning situations, which has led to the creation of new online international communities and the democratisation of learning and learning

materials (Ahern et al., 2016; Pi, Chou, & Liao, 2013). In an international test such as IELTS, social media has enabled the development of global communities on Facebook that exist to enable peer-based preparation for the test. The present study employs online ethnographic observations, termed 'netnography', of individuals (Schutt & Chambliss, 2013), who are preparing for the IELTS test in Facebook community groups.

The study documents the online, public practices of IELTS preparation candidates by generating data that is analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively for complementary insights. First, by analysing group members' utterances using thematic analysis, the paper explores the priorities and activities of IELTS test candidates in terms of six superordinate themes and 19 main themes. Second, by looking at the qualitative data in the main themes more closely, it seeks to explore the nuances of candidates' preparation priorities as well as uncovering how individuals utilise the functionality of Facebook community groups in their preparation efforts. The investigation is largely framed through the theoretical lens of test-wiseness (Cohen, 2006; Rogers & Yang, 1996; Winke & Lim, 2014), the notion that test-takers can improve their prospects by increasing their familiarity with the facets of a test and the testing method (Bachman, 1990). The findings are discussed in the context of current research into IELTS preparation; particularly what is presently known about IELTS preparation in classroom contexts covered in the academic literature.

Review of the Literature

Background to the IELTS Test

IELTS is a unitary test of English language proficiency that takes both Academic and General training forms. The test is comprised of four sub-tests for each of the skills; speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Performance is measured in bands, underscored by ontologically realist descriptions of second language proficiency (Fulcher, 2014). In listening and reading the band score result is determined by the total number of correct responses to the questions, with minor variations in band allocations according to the Academic or General training module. For speaking and writing, bands are allocated in four assessment sub-criteria by the examiner through a system of criterion-referenced descriptors (IELTS, n.d.). These four sub-bands are integrated into a single overall performance band. A test-taker's result serves two general purposes. First, it provides a reliable, measurable indication of a candidate's English proficiency (IELTS, 2014), which can be generalised to other situations and contexts (Fulcher, 2014). Second, and more importantly, results are used in test-users' decision-making

concerning a candidate's readiness to operate in English-speaking environments, most often the academy (Daller & Phelan, 2013; Dooey & Oliver, 2002; Hyatt, 2013; Ingram & Bayliss, 2007). While the literature on IELTS' predictive validity appears to be mixed (see Daller & Phelan, 2013; Dooey & Oliver, 2002), studies into test-users' practices and perceptions suggests lecturers, university administrators and immigration officials place considerable confidence in the predictive validity of IELTS, interpreting test scores in largely 'pass/fail' terms (Coleman, Starfield, & Hagan, 2003; Hall, 2009).

Stakeholder perceptions that IELTS provides reliable indications of an individual's English proficiency has led to a burgeoning in test utilisation. Currently the test is accepted by over 20,000 organisations internationally (IELTS, 2017). For admission to English-medium programmes at tertiary level institutions in English-speaking countries, evidence of sufficient English ability measured via IELTS is essential for non-native English-speaking candidates (Dooey & Oliver, 2002). With students' increasing willingness to carry out higher education abroad (Green, 2007; Ramia et al., 2013), particularly in institutions in English-speaking countries or through transnational education partnerships in their home country, the number of IELTS test-takers has mushroomed in recent years. In 2016, there were approximately three million IELTS test-takers (IELTS, 2017). This represents a substantial rise from the 500,000 test-takers in 2003 (Davies, 2007). As such, IELTS has become firmly entrenched as a high-stakes gatekeeping test with considerable reach as well as influence over the life ambitions of millions of people globally (Hamid & Hoang, 2018).

IELTS Test Preparation

The nature of test preparation. The quintessential purpose of test preparation is the improvement of test scores (Liu, 2014). This can be achieved through test coaching, which is defined by Messick (1982) as "any intervention procedure specifically undertaken to improve test scores, whether by improving the skills measured by the test or by improving the skills for taking the test, or both" (p. 70). Implicit in the notion of classroom coaching for language tests is the role coach or instructor, usually an expert who supports candidates with "test familiarization, drill-and-practice with feedback, motivational enhancement, training in strategies for specific item formats and for general test taking (including advice on pacing, guessing, and managing test anxiety), subject-matter tuition and review, and skill-development exercises" (Messick, 1982, p. 70). Outside of classroom settings for optional language tests such as IELTS, individuals must take personal responsibility for these activities, though they

may also employ the support and facilitation of peers, particularly in managing affective responses to a test. Anastasi (1981) groups test preparation activities into a typology featuring: (a) orientating test-takers to the test procedures and overcoming affective barriers, such as anxiety; (b) short and intense practice activities under simulated test conditions; and (c) training in the relevant cognitive skills to enhance cognitive ability. Consequently, test preparation ought to enable candidates to become more confident in the test, be less prone to anxiety, prepared for the types of tasks, experienced in undertaking the tasks in the likely test conditions, and more cognitively-adept at the tasks.

Test preparation for test-wiseness. An explicit outcome of test preparation is test-wiseness, which Bachman (1990) refers to a variety of general strategies that aid efficient test-taking. As such, test-wiseness involves a heightened awareness of the particular facets of the test, which is utilised by a candidate with the aim of enhancing test performance (Rogers & Yang, 1996). There is a notable division in the literature concerning whether test-wiseness incorporates awareness and strategies dependent or independent of those being assessed by the test (Rogers & Yang, 1996). The consequence of the latter perspective is that test-wiseness is associated with 'tricks' employed by test-takers to circumvent the methods in which the test designers envisage candidates are assessed (Cohen, 2006; Tavakoli & Samian, 2014). Under this view, test-wiseness is a source of test invalidity (Tavakoli & Samian, 2014). On the other hand, as test-wiseness is associated with preparedness for and prior experience of the test format (Bachman, 1990), it may appear a legitimate and valid test-taker strategy. Similarly, it has been shown test-wise candidates tend to be more "thoughtful, logical and less random" when approaching items (Cohen, 2006). In the context of IELTS, test-wiseness is explicitly built into the design of printed preparation materials, including course books (Winke & Lim, 2014) as well as the content of preparation courses. As a result, test-wiseness can be considered as the utilisation of valid strategies in the test based on a heightened familiarity with the facets of the test.

Classroom-based IELTS preparation. Some candidates invest time and money in teacher-led IELTS preparation course to improve their prospects in the test. Such programmes are often short and offered either intensively or extensively by language teaching centres or universities. Often, candidates enrol on bespoke IELTS courses centred on "exam technique and practice" (Hayes & Read, 2008, p. 110). The simulated practice of test tasks has been found to constitute a major part of many commercial IELTS preparation courses (Green, 2007; Hayes & Read, 2008; Mickan & Motteram, 2008). Such tasks have the propensity to generate much

feedback on task performance from the teacher (Y. Yang & Badger, 2015). Descriptive studies of IELTS preparation have been undertaken to reveal the types of activities and the proportion of class time involved. Hayes and Read (2008), observing IELTS preparation on a bespoke IELTS course delineated classroom activities into the scheme in Table 1. It is apparent that the most overt type of activity involves tasks undertaken under test conditions, accounting for nearly half of all class time. While this is insightful, the idiographic nature of the data mean that these findings cannot be generalised to other classroom preparation contexts.

Table 1

Breakdown of IELTS Classroom Preparation Activities by Class Time (Hayes & Read, 2008)

Activity	Class time hours
Teacher gives the students tasks under test conditions	15.90
Teacher gives the students the test to do at home (self-timed)	1.02
Teacher gives feedback on student performance item by item	5.09
Teacher identifies answers in a text and explains	4.05
Teacher asks students to consider their strengths and weaknesses with respect to the test requirements	1.41
Teacher sets tasks under strict time pressure	4.00

*Total course time equalled 32 hours, with 22.1 hours observed.

Rather than ethnographic observations, Hawkey (2006) used a questionnaire to detail teacher and candidate perceptions of prominent IELTS preparation activities by focus, illustrated in Table 2. Yet, it is unclear from Hawkey's (2006) study if the survey respondents were selecting learning activities from predetermined categories, or whether the assembled responses were obtained from an open-ended instrument. His study revealed similarities as well as mismatches between what the student thought the focus was and the teacher. This may be explained by inadequate signposting by the teacher or students' inability to grasp the purpose of what they were studying. The activities listed in Table 2 feature more explicit training and input in IELTS test tasks, over the simulated practice uncovered by Hayes and Read (2008). While in classroom preparation the teacher is likely to be at the centre of such learning, it is

unclear how IELTS task input is featured on online peer-to-peer environments, where there are less likely to be teachers or experts present.

Table 2

Breakdown of IELTS Preparation Activities According to Student and Teacher Perceptions (Hawkey, 2006)

Activities identified as IELTS preparation	Percentage of students who identified this	Percentage of teachers who identified this
Reading questions and predicting listening text and answer types	89	86
Listening to live or recorded talks and note-taking	83	63
Analysing text structure and organisation	74	90
Interpreting and describing statistics/graphs/diagrams	74	90
Learning quick and efficient ways of reading texts	73	93
Reading quickly to get main idea of text	77	96
Learning how to organise essays	82	99
Practising making a point and providing supporting examples	78	88
Group discussion/debates	83	76
Practising using words to organise a speech	74	83

Prospective test-takers may be motivated to enrol on a commercial IELTS preparation course for a number of reasons. These include the high-stakes and potentially life-changing nature of the test, the need for a satisfactory test result to be obtained within a narrow window of time, and the high cost of undertaking the test (around USD 200 in most countries). Nevertheless, not all candidates possess the financial means and time to enrol on such a programme. While IELTS preparation courses at private language centres have been reported as popular (Hawkey, 2006; Hayes & Read, 2008), no research could be uncovered to ascertain

the proportion of candidates who opt for this particular route. As the test is taken by millions of candidates around the world every year, it can be assumed that the majority of test-takers assume personal responsibility for their own preparation (Mickan & Motteram, 2006). No uncovered research could be located exploring the preparation practices of IELTS test-takers beyond the preparation classroom. This is no doubt due to the difficulties involved in sampling candidates who are undertaking test preparation in private settings beyond the reach of researchers. However, it is feasible that the candidates who engage in autonomous test preparation utilise some of the vast array of free online or invest in commercially-provided printed materials that have burgeoned in popularity (Green, 2007).

     IELTS preparation utilising Facebook community groups. One setting in which concentrations of individuals preparing for IELTS are present is on social media. The plethora of current platforms, especially Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, Reddit, and Whatsapp have allowed international and diverse communities to form, constituted by test-takers who are united by a shared purpose of enhancing their IELTS test scores. On Facebook, a multitude of IELTS-orientated community groups exist, with membership figures often running into five figures. General research into the utilisation of Facebook community groups for educational purposes has shown they are employed by users to seek out and share information (Park, Kee, & Valenzuela, 2009; Pi et al., 2013). Unlike online learning environments formally controlled and driven by institutions, Facebook groups are "created by students for students" (Ahern et al., 2016, p. 47). As such, they embody learning environments where learners voluntarily self-assemble and contribute to personal and group effort without formal management (Ahern et al., 2016). Their closed nature promotes the development of a community spirit and sense of belonging; key motivators for users to share information in lieu of monetary rewards (Chai & Kim, 2012; Pi et al., 2013). In IELTS preparation, it is likely such groups are utilised by individuals to connect with other candidates-in-preparation for the purposes of test-wiseness awareness raising. Given that much of the IELTS test preparation published materials appears focused on test-wiseness (Winke & Lim, 2014), it appears unremarkable that prospective test-takers would employ digital services in which to obtain, request, and share information, specifically tips, content, and strategies regarding test-wiseness. Similarly, group users may participate in learning in these settings, instead of the classroom, out of a lack of time or money to invest in classroom-based preparation.

Research Aims

This research aims to explore how individuals preparing for the IELTS test utilise social media in order to enhance their prospects in the test. Specifically, the research seeks to generate data, analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively, concerning the preparation activities of candidates taking place in closed, public Facebook community groups. As such, the study will address the following two research questions:

1. What are the IELTS preparation priorities and behaviours of candidates utilising five Facebook community groups to prepare for the test?
2. How do individuals utilise the functionality of Facebook community groups in their preparation activities for the IELTS test?

The present study utilises thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Terry, Hayfield, Clarke, & Braun, 2017) to identify a range of superordinate themes and main themes in users' utterances which shape and orientate the discourse in peer-to-peer IELTS preparation in Facebook community groups. The first research question is concerned with investigating the focus of test-takers' individual behaviours (wall posts, replies and sub replies) that constitute learning in an interactive peer-driven IELTS preparation environment. It will generate knowledge relating to the priorities, worries, interests, and challenges of candidates preparing for IELTS and carrying out the test itself. Research question two will involve investigating the particular ways in which the functionality of Facebook community groups is employed by its users for the purposes of IELTS preparation. This includes the use of wall posts, replies, sub-replies, link sharing, etc. As such, the research offers fresh insights into how candidates preparing for IELTS outside of the classroom engage in preparation and perceive preparing for this high-stakes, life-changing test. The selected research context is also an extremely popular one with users, with several IELTS-related Facebook community groups consisting of five-figure memberships. As such, the research will explore what it is about the platform that attracts the thousands of users which are drawn to it in their search for success in IELTS.

Rationale behind the research. There are a number of motivations underlying this study. First, as previously alluded to, the membership figures of many of the Facebook groups devoted to IELTS preparation indicate that this setting is a popular. Yet, the present author could locate no published studies featuring candidates-in-preparation operating on Facebook or another social media setting. Indeed, the vast majority of studies into IELTS preparation take place within the classroom preparation or university context (see Green, 2007; Hawkey,

2006; Hayes & Read, 2008; Mickan & Motteram, 2008). As such, the research is valuable in that it generates insights into the activities of prospective test-takers in a prevalent, contemporary, but yet unexplored context of IELTS preparation. Second, by documenting the concerns and interactions of IELTS candidates through public wall posts, replies, and link sharing, insights can be garnered into how candidates perceive IELTS and what test-wiseness concerning IELTS means. Similarly, the natural and informal settings of social media provide evidence of what preparation candidates outside of the classroom really do. This contributes a much-needed voice to the under-documented perspectives of test-preparation candidates (Coleman et al., 2003; Elder & O'Loughlin, 2003; Hamp-Lyons, 2000). Finally, in documenting how candidates perceive test-wiseness in a preparation environment that is peer driven, possible shortcomings in test awareness and preparation can be revealed. This includes certain myths surrounding IELTS, such as penalties for writing using a pen. As such, it is hoped this research can benefit candidates by leading to the dismissal of such faulty presuppositions, in order to enhance candidates' awareness of IELTS.

Method

The method of data collection in the present study is online ethnographic observation, termed 'netnography' (Kulavuz-Onal & Vásquez, 2013; Schutt & Chambliss, 2013), 'virtual ethnography' or 'online ethnography'. Netnography involves researcher observation (either overt or covert) of an online community in their natural settings. As with 'offline' ethnography, the researcher is concerned with understanding the shared culture, behaviours, beliefs, and values that characterise a group in a particular 'place' and time (Kulavuz-Onal & Vásquez, 2013). In social media settings, these are manifest in users' public behaviour, set within the functionality limits of a particular platform and the content of their communicative exchanges. The proliferation of social media technologies has resulted in the creation of new and diverse online international communities. This has resulted in a reduction in the importance of a specific geographic locale binding an ethnographer's group together. Observing users on social media provides for a wealth of data on human behaviour (Wilson, Gosling, & Graham, 2012), as such, it represents a suitable context in which to observe how individuals prepare with the support of their peers for a major test such as IELTS.

Settings and Subjects

The focus of the present study is on exploring the public IELTS preparation activities of candidates readying themselves for the test using semi-public Facebook community groups.

These settings were chosen for a number of reasons. First, Facebook is a popular and prominent social media tool (Wang, Woo, Quek, Yang, & Liu, 2012), with a global membership of many millions of individuals (Manca & Ranieri, 2013). Thus, it is likely to offer internationally-representative settings where IELTS candidates can be located. Most important is the platform's community group functionality, which allows users of similar interests to come together, exchange ideas, participate in discussions, and share information (Manca & Ranieri, 2013; Pi et al., 2013) 24 hours a day, seven days a week (Ahern et al., 2016). Groups can be set up to constitute an online LMS, perhaps a constitutive element of a blended learning programme (Wang et al., 2012). Alternatively, and importantly for the present study is that groups may be created by learners, for learners, and feature as a locale of learning independent from any classroom or institutional learning programme. Such groups are likely to be thematically-based and feature a large, transient membership, and no obvious form of direction or control from the moderators. IELTS-orientated preparation community groups are popular with pre-test candidates, with membership numbers running into the thousands. This makes them suitable locations in which to locate test preparation candidates, as well as being representative of the general behaviours, priorities, and concerns of test-takers, since individuals undertaking classroom preparation courses are likely in the minority (Mickan & Motteram, 2006), and to have experienced a very different form of test preparation.

The researcher joined five Facebook Community groups to observe the activities of its members. The groups were closed, yet also public. The process of joining the groups was simple and efficient, and consisted of completing a short form. The five groups are outlined in Table 3 with their respective membership sizes at the time of the study. Most of the groups featured a subsidiary focus within IELTS, reflected in the name of the group. Yet, this was not always indicative of the purpose or direction of the interactions, particularly in the group IELTS Preparation 9.0. What is strikingly apparent from Table 3 is the high number of individuals who, at face value at least, are involved in some form of IELTS preparation. This provides evidence in accordance with the figures published by the co-owners of IELTS that the test is extremely popular around the world (IELTS, 2017). However, it became apparent from observing the interactions that there were far fewer individuals engaged in interactive preparation using the observable means of forum posts, replies, and sub-replies. In fact, public discussions were generally driven by a smaller, dedicated cohort of enthusiastic members, or the one-off posts of newcomers. Whether the other members can be regarded as 'wallflowers'

or 'lurkers', paying attention to the threads but remaining silent, or whether they have abandoned the group altogether cannot be assuredly known.

Table 3

IELTS Preparation Community Groups on Facebook with Approximate Population Sizes

Name of the community group	Approximate population size
IELTS MOOC Study Group	250,000
IELTS Free Preparation 9.0	156,000
IELTS	133,000
IELTS Writing Correction Service	32,000
IELTS Tips and Tricks	16,000
Total	587,000

The IELTS preparation community groups primarily consisted of prospective test-takers, whom are considered the main 'participants' of this research. Yet, there were also a handful of (usually) native-speaker IELTS experts, who were interactively involved with the participants on occasions, often in the role of 'expert' or provider of some commercial service vis-à-vis IELTS. The utterances of both these sets of users are incorporated into this research. Also present as participants in a few interactions were the group moderators. Their public posts consisted mainly of the sharing of links to useful content and appeals for users to abide by the groups' terms and conditions, and are included in the analysis. As international community groups, membership was theoretically open to any individual with access to the Internet and a Facebook account. As such, individuals from countries where Facebook is currently blocked (e.g., People's Republic of China and Iran) were notably absent from the groups. While no data collection on the participants was undertaken, many users revealed their country of origin in the interactions or via their public profile. As such, it was possible to glean that a number of the participants came from Asia, particularly India, Bangladesh, Indonesia, and Vietnam. The motivations of the participants engaged in this form of preparation will be explored in the Results and Discussion sections.

Data Collection

In this study, data was gathered by systematically documenting users' public textual utterances ('posts') in five IELTS-orientated Facebook community groups over several weeks. A textual utterance was defined as any comment made by an individual in the public sphere of the group, i.e., the public wall. These could be single word exhortations or a longer string of discourse. Likes and emojis were excluded from the data collection and analysis. Textual utterances were either stand-alone (e.g., the sharing of links) or constitutive of interactive events with other participants (e.g., thread discussions). A realist interpretation of individual's use of language in utterances was assumed (Roulston, 2010; Terry et al., 2017). This refers to participants' linguistic artefacts as embodying a direct conduit to participants' authentic selves (Roulston, 2010; Terry et al., 2017). Deeper analysis into the meanings of the language used and how this emerged from interactions between peers, associated with symbolic interactionism, was beyond the scope of the study.

Collecting the data involved copying each utterance into a spreadsheet in preparation for coding and analysis, until an arbitrary figure of approximately 500 utterances had been obtained per community group. 500 utterances was selected as a reasonable number in order to provide a balanced representation of candidates' behaviour at different stages of the IELTS test cycle. As IELTS test are held almost every week in some countries, this was possible to achieve through a few hundred utterances. Yet, for the two most interactive community groups, 500 utterances were accumulated over a week of activity only. For the less popular groups, the utterances were spread over a longer period of time. For 'IELTS Writing Correction Service' and 'IELTS Tips and Tricks', interaction was of a sufficiently low level that the extent of wall post duplication meant that it was decided to document fewer utterances (271 and 250 respectively).

Data Analysis

Coding of the data. Thematic analysis (TA) was employed in the coding and analysis of the data (Braun & Clarke, 2006; Terry et al., 2017). TA is not one approach, but many (Terry et al., 2017). The present study adopts a procedure of moving from descriptive codes, through thematic coding to the development and refining of superordinate themes (Langdridge, 2007). First, the transcribed utterances were read and re-read in order to ascribe meaningful codes to the units of discourse. At this stage, a code was selected that best captured the nature, purpose, or meaning of each utterance, and, as such, were not restricted to a finite typology. The text

(and codes) were then re-read and a series of themes were developed and attributed to the utterances. A theme was considered a patterned response that held significance to the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The author then attempted to find common links between the themes, developing superordinate themes and dispensing with marginal themes (Langdridge, 2007). This resulted in six superordinate themes and 19 themes that accounted for over 90% of users' posts, replies, and sub-replies. While this analysis offers insights into the commonality of particular themes in the discourse, it must also be borne in mind that the 'keyness' of themes were also determined partly by their importance in relation to the research questions (Braun & Clarke, 2006).

In terms of the functionality, utterances could be subdivided into three types. The first was public wall posts. These were posts which a user would write and share with the rest of the group's membership. In most of the groups, posts needed to be vetted by the administrators prior to being published on the group's wall. The second type of utterance was a reply to a wall post. This is when users responded to the original poster (or an earlier reply). Further, sub-replies were also possible. These consisted of exchanges at one hierarchical level below a reply, and were hence, more interactive in a two-way or three-way sense between peers. A key difference between wall posts and replies/sub-replies was that wall posts tended to be written with a wide audience in mind, whereas replies were more interactive, often targeted at a particular individual (usually the originally poster). This profoundly affected both the function and nature of the utterance. The platform tended to show only the two or three most recent replies, with the rest being obscured in a clickable drop-down menu. Similarly, lengthy exchanges using sub-replies also tended to be obscured. The significance of these aspects of the platform is organic discussions that veered away from the initial topic of the wall-post were not immediately visible to users scrolling down the main wall.

Analysis of the data. The data were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. First, main and superordinate themes for each group were tallied to provide sum totals. Simple statistical tests were then undertaken to establish the percentage of each main and superordinate theme as a proportion of all utterances. This enabled a quantitative picture of each group's activities to be created, in which utterances of a certain focus were calculated to account for a specific proportion of both the group's focus and all five groups' foci overall. The data was also analysed qualitatively in order to obtain detailed and nuanced understandings of participants' priorities and behaviours. In the presentation of the results, reformulated first-hand quotes are used to provide users with an authentic voice (Krumer-Nevo & Sidi, 2012).

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Quoted extracts are employed both illustratively and analytically (Terry et al., 2017). In TA, the former denotes the use of quotes to provide examples of the established themes. In contrast, illustrative quotes are also employed to explore the qualitative data in more detail, forming the basis for the researcher's interpreted knowledge claims (Terry et al., 2017).

Reliability. Given the quantitative analysis of the themes, reliability was a concern in the approach to thematic analysis adopted (Terry et al., 2017). Owing to logistical constraints, a second rater was not available to ensure reliable thematic coding of the utterances. In order to enhance the reliability of coding, a blind intra-rater approach by the current author was adopted. This involved selecting a random 10% of the utterances and re-coding them after a three-month interval. Both the original and re-coded data was input into a statistical software package. A Cohen's Kappa test was used to calculate intra-rater correlation between the coding of both superordinate and main themes. Concerning the superordinate themes, intra-rater reliability was established as .812, with S.E. = .031, while for main themes Cohen's Kappa was found to be .734 (S.E. = .035). This indicated a strong level of agreement between the coding and re-coding of the utterances over the three-month interval. The primary variances in coding concerned incidences where summative and formative feedback were difficult to disentangle, where discussions concerning approaching test preparation generally overlapped with advice on specific aspects of the task, and the intersection between discussions concerning preparation materials and the sharing of online hosted materials or links. After undertaking the reliability analysis, other similar incidences were located in the data and checked for consistency.

Confirmability of the qualitative analysis. Integral to the design of the present study was the desire for the researcher to perceive the phenomenon of IELTS preparation in Facebook community groups through the eyes of the individuals who engage in it. This raises the issue of the extent to which the interpretation and discussion of results are grounded in the perceptions and sense-making of the participants (Jensen, 2012). This is referred to as confirmability of the truth value of qualitative data or analysis and is considered the qualitative alternative to 'reliability'. Various facets of the research design enhanced the truth value of the qualitative analysis. First, unobtrusive data collection measures were adopted (Miles & Huberman, 1994). As such, the researcher had no impact on the behaviour of the participants. Second, the researcher employed data collection from five groups in order to obtain a more balanced and inclusive representation of perceptions and behaviours. Third, the researcher was present in the research environment for several months prior to the data collection (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This allowed for the gradual acclimatisation to the typical practices and

behaviours in these settings. Finally, the data presented itself in informal settings and was characterised by permanency associated with its written nature (Miles & Huberman, 1994). This allowed the data to be capture accurately first-hand in contrast to ethnographies in which spoken data is captured.

Ethical Considerations

Observational research via social media poses a number of notable ethical uncertainties that have yet to be satisfactorily resolved (Moreno et al., 2013), and may never be in the guise of uniform guidelines (Jankowski & van Selm, 2005). As researchers remain unseen, lurking in the background collecting data, netnography using social media can be compared to covert research through group infiltration. A notable fissure facing researchers observing ethnographically online is whether data gathering is conceived of as a process of 'documentary research' or 'human subject research' (Willis, 2017). This conceptualisation has ramifications in terms of informed consent, privacy and confidentiality (Wilkinson & Thelwall, 2011). Some argue collecting data from individuals on social media, especially in public spheres, is more akin to documentary research as it involves amassing textual evidence (Gaiser & Schreiner, 2009; Markham, 2003). As such, individuals being researched are conceived of as authors, not participants (Willis, 2017), therefore the principles of informed consent and confidentiality are diminished in importance (Wilkinson & Thelwall, 2011; Wilson et al., 2012). Nevertheless, the opposing view holds that researchers, especially those observing interactions and activities as they unfold in real time, are participating in human subject research (Willis, 2017). Here, scholars draw comparisons to an individual peering in on an interaction, with the ethical problem of concurrently remaining unseen. In this research project, it was decided that the data would be obtained retrospectively, by scrolling back several weeks in time on the group's main 'wall'. This was a conscious decision to approach the research as documenting textual evidence, which allowed the time and opportunity for individuals to delete potentially compromising posts. This would not have been possible if the data had been collected in real-time.

Concerning participant anonymity, one argument put forward in the literature is a researcher would not be breaching anonymity by transferring information posted by an individual in a public social media setting to the context of an academic publication (Wilkinson & Thelwall, 2011). However, this could be regarded as researcher violation of the privacy of individuals who use social media, particularly if a priori assent was not obtained (Wilkinson &

Thelwall, 2011). As such, it is common practice for researchers gathering public data from social media settings to paraphrase quotes in addition to anonymising subjects (Wilkinson & Thelwall, 2011). This is in order that the identity of the participants cannot be discovered through online search (Dawson, 2014; Ess, 2007). Testing prior to the gathering of data for this project ascertained that the direct quotes of participants could reveal their identities through the search function of the relevant community group. Consequently, it was decided that direct quotes from subjects would not be used and be paraphrased instead.

Results

Overall Findings

The study captured 2,030 utterances in total. Among this figure, there is notable variety in how the utterances were distributed among the three public communication types; wall post, reply, and sub-reply. These are illustrated in Table 4. The groups 'IELTS Free Preparation 9.0', 'IELTS MOOC Study Group', and 'IELTS' evinced a low number of wall posts as a composite of all utterances overall. In these groups, the majority of the utterances were replies or sub-replies to the original poster. This suggests these three groups were the most interactive. In contrast, the two smaller groups contained noticeably higher proportions of wall posts, indicating fewer replies, and subsequently, fewer sub-discussions and a lower interactivity.

Table 4

Breakdown of Utterances in the Five Group According to Utterance type

IELTS Facebook community group	Total posts captured	Wall posts (%)	Replies (%)	Sub-replies (%)
IELTS Free Preparation 9.0	507	16.8	61.7	21.5
IELTS MOOC Study Group	503	12.3	51.5	36.2
IELTS	499	11.4	53.1	35.5
IELTS Tips and Tricks	271	32.5	38.4	29.2
IELTS Writing Correction Service	250	27.6	46.8	25.6
Total	2030	17.8	52.1	30.1

The thematic focus of all utterances was identified where possible. The results of all five groups are broken down in Table 5, which shows the overall frequencies (and percentages of the total) of the six superordinate themes (plus 'other') that emerged, as well as the numerous main themes. Overall, discussions involving advice on the test itself formed the bulk of the interactions (37.7%), followed by exchanges based around feedback on sample writing tasks (20.7%). Somewhat less common were interactions centred on users locating study partners (13.3%) and communicating about preparation materials (12.6%). Off-topic discussions were relatively uncommon (9.0%), along with users sharing their experiences of the test (3.5%). Some posts, owing to a lack of clarity in meaning or purpose, could not be attributed to a superordinate and main theme. These were classified as 'other'. The results shown in Table 5 will be presented and discussed in detail with reference to the qualitative data that the study generated. Selected reformulated quotes from the participants will be employed to explore the deeper meaning of the utterances and interactions.

Table 5

Breakdown of Thematic and Sub-Thematic Utterances as a Percentage of the Total

Themes	Sub-themes	Total utterances	Percentage of total
Test advice		765	37.7
	Discussions on approaching test preparation generally	300	14.8
	Discussions on test administration	195	9.6
	Discussions on specific aspects of IELTS test tasks	171	8.4
	Unprincipled activity	71	3.5
Task feedback		422	20.7
	Formative feedback on an IELTS Writing practice composition	356	17.5

	Summative feedback on an IELTS Writing practice composition	63	3.1
Test experiences		71	3.5
	Pre-test experiences	34	1.7
	Insider information from a test experience	28	1.4
	Personal experiences of the test	9	0.4
Study partnerships		271	13.3
	Arranging a speaking partner	166	8.2
	Arranging tutoring	82	4.0
	Arranging a general study partner	20	0.9
	Arranging a writing feedback partner	7	0.4
Content and materials		256	12.6
	Preparation materials	147	7.2
	Sharing links to online content	115	5.7
	Sharing online hosted materials	25	1.2
Off-topic		183	9.0
	English grammar and vocabulary	94	4.6
	Advice on studying abroad	73	3.6
Other		62	3.1
	Other	72	3.5

Test Advice

The most common superordinate theme underlying the interactions in the groups encompassed advice about approaching IELTS (37.7% of all utterances). This included discussions concerning approaching IELTS preparation generally (14.8%), test formalities that were not related to particular sub-components or tasks (9.6%), and facets of tasks specific to the IELTS test (8.4%). Generally, such units of discourse were situated within the interactive structure 'question and answer', with answers (in replies and sub-replies) outnumbering questions (usually wall posts). Also included here are a relatively small number of discussions that pertained to certain kinds of unprincipled activity (3.5%), which will also be discussed. Most commonly, these involved users proffering illegitimate means for candidates to obtain IELTS test results and users' responses to such conveyances.

Approaching IELTS preparation generally. Results of the thematic analysis indicated that 14.8% of utterances were centred on advice concerning test preparation. It was evident from wall posts that some users were new to IELTS preparation and were thus unsure of how to begin their preparations. One user appealed for help on how to begin preparations: "Hi, decided to attempt IELTS, but can't find a way how to start. Please help me how to get started". For another user, the fragmentation of IELTS into four discrete skills tests was a source of confusion in where to start: "Which module do I have to start first, and please tell me and how many hours I have to spend?" Given the generality of these initial requests for advice and individuals' likely idiosyncratic approaches to test preparation such candidates received varied but quite unspecific responses, including: "Study, practise and book your exam", "start from reading", and "first you need to learn basic English". Specific, detailed advice was relatively rare and tended to reflect the advice-purveyor's own test preparation experiences or idiosyncratic perceptions:

> First start with listening sample papers from YouTube...then you will get an interest to do more...slowly move to reading, writing and then speaking. Once you start, it will become a habit...you better do a group study which helps you more and is interesting. I used to practice in a group.

Such calls for help may indicate candidates new to IELTS perceive test preparation as potentially intimidating and overwhelming. It also raises questions concerning the quality and scope of initial information provided by test centres upon candidate registration.

A lack of knowledge about the investment of time required in IELTS preparation occurred relatively frequently in the observed data on test advice. Often, users had specific band score goals in mind but had little idea of the time investment required to achieve their target, as with one user who asked, "is it possible to get band 7 after 2 months of studying for one hour each day?" and another who asked, "how long will it take to confidently write a 7.5 paper". One user sought feedback from their colleagues on how much time is needed for IELTS preparation: "Please tell me how much preparation time you are spending to give the IELTS exam?" Unfortunately, there were not many responses to this question, although one user did reply: "A 15 day approach can help you to score target provided that you plan well and completely dedicate those 15 days to preparation of IELTS". Nevertheless, it was unclear what this approach precisely entailed. In a different thread, another user asked:

> Can Cambridge 1-11 be finished in 17-18 days? I started my preparations on 27th of April and I have booked my IELTS for 7th of June. My aim is to score overall 7 or 7.5 bands but not less than 6.5 in any section.

Such utterances seem to suggest that IELTS test-takers may only become aware they need to take the test a few months prior to when they need their result. Alternatively, it may be indicative of perceptions that IELTS preparation consists of 'top-up' test-wiseness training alone, rather than a need to invest in improving English skills generally.

It is also evident that candidates in this preparation context may be setting themselves unrealistic targets for IELTS preparation. It may take up to 200 hours for test-takers to raise their IELTS band scores by 1.0 band (IELTS, 2002). Nevertheless, IELTS subsequently removed this advice, most likely due to the complexities in providing simplistic guidelines which could be interpreted by candidates as always true. In the absence of official guidelines, the present study found that IELTS preparation candidates in this setting appeared to lack an awareness of the preparation time and effort required to progress up the IELTS band scale. The issue of time investment is complex and determined by a plethora of individual candidate factors, notably the band score gap that needs to be closed, previous experience of the test, the approach to learning adopted by the candidate, the materials available, and other extant commitments (particularly family and work). Test-takers should not assume that successful IELTS preparation is purely a matter of investing their time. Rather, the aforementioned factors are likely crucial in enhancing test-preparedness.

Advice on approaching IELTS tasks. In comparison to general test preparation approaches, there were notably fewer discussions (8.4%) related to the specific nature of IELTS test-tasks. Most utterances on specific task types concerned users asking and responding to queries on the IELTS Writing test. This is perhaps not surprising considering the Writing test features certain opaque task and genre expectations which candidates' must conform to, e.g., the requirement to take a discursive position on a topic (Moore & Morton, 2005). Queries articulated in wall-posts varied from the general to specific. Concerning the former, several candidates sought help on how to achieve their target band score, but evinced a lack of awareness in how to do this: "Please help me to improve writing because I got just 5.5 in this module and my requirement is 7.5". According to the data, the writing band score requirements for many candidates were high by IELTS admission standards, such as 7.5 or 8.0. Few peers were able to provide the likely simplistic answer the original poster was seeking, while users who submitted practice tasks to the group for feedback (with their desired band score) often received more detailed and helpful advice on how to close the extant performance gap. Specific inquiries on test tasks were rarer: "In Discuss Both view and give your Opinion Essay, if we state our supporting opinion in Introduction, will it affect the score? Please clarify". These inquiries also tended to be more trivial, such as: "Will my handwriting affect the band score?". In most cases peers acted to clarify and provide support: "as long as it's legible there will be no problem".

After the Writing module, queries about the question types in the Listening and Reading test were common. Some users indicated a perception that a specific question type was problematic for them. Of particular note here is multiple choice, which appeared as the most common challenging question type: "How many MCQ can come in IELTS listening part? I am very weak in this part. How can I overcome this problem?". For another candidate, it was the interaction between the text and the question type that was the source of difficulty: "I am facing issue with IELTS map completion and multiple-choice questions. Can someone help me or provide some tips???". Discussions rarely centred around the sub-skills of listening and reading, suggesting candidates were more preoccupied with the nature of the questions. Like with Writing, there was a tendency for task-specific questions to encompass relatively trivial matters, such as "Listening Section...will my answer be correct if I write North West instead of North-West?" and "in reading sections, could i answer true, false, not given in capital or small, particularly the instructions in capital". Such responses may be suggestive of candidates'

anxieties that minor errors matter in IELTS, or of the general worries test-takers experience while they wait for their results.

Users appeared uncertain about how to approach preparation for the Speaking test. A typical post read: "Can anyone help me to improve in speaking section???" Generally, such open-ended posts tended to garner fewer replies than the more focused questions concerning Writing, perhaps owing to the complexities of preparing for the speaking component of the test and the lack of information about the personal context of the original poster provided. Users tended to offer practical suggestions involving practice, such as "you should build a practice of listening to BBC radio as much as you can on a daily basis", or "visit the nearby library where you live and join the speaking club there". Other individuals recommended users to practise by finding a speaking partner in the community group. There appeared a conspicuous absence of detailed discussions of test-wiseness awareness and strategies that commonly feature in the printed test preparation literature on IELTS. Such information concerns the nature of the tasks, what is required from candidates during the different tasks, the typical topics, and how the test is assessed. This would suggest most users of these platforms are not test-wise when it comes to speaking in perhaps the same way as candidates who undertake a classroom preparation course, where the teacher is present to deliver relevant input and scaffolded practice activities.

Test administration. A separate sub-theme that encompassed 9.6% of all discussions concerned users' questions, answers, and discussions over certain administrative aspects of IELTS. This theme usually manifested itself in overt user anxieties on mundane test facets or an array of misperceptions that users held concerning the test. Yet, as uncovered by Rasti (2009), candidates take administrative matters seriously, and perceive them to impact on test performance. The most common administrative confusion related to the length of time needed to wait for the publication of results: "Guys, how long should I wait for the IELTS result?" The question was usually met with a plethora of responses from users, most of whom gave an accurate response: "13 days". Another candidate expressed concern that a simple error in the test would have negative repercussions for their result: "After the test the supervisor said that if u write in pen for writing task 1 its wrong. I'm afraid of that because I wrote in pen". This question was similarly met by a chorus of replies in which the myth of writing in pen was debunked, to the relief of the original poster. Worryingly for the co-owners of IELTS, there was evidence of confusion and perceptions of an imbalance in fairness in the test's administration:

Please help me out. I need quick help. I couldn't get desired band score in my very first attempt with IDP. Went for second attempt with IDP again and it's been almost but I haven't gotten my result yet. Now I'm going to reschedule my exam for 3rd attempt and I'm confused between choosing councils. Please help me should i go for IDP or BC? Thanks

The lack of a representative from the co-owners of IELTS in these groups meant that more substantive queries that peers may not have been equipped to address adequately were either responded to inadequately or not at all.

A sensitive area in which a number of users sought the advice of their peers was the issue of whether to apply for a re-check of their results (officially, Enquiry on Results (EOR)). Briefly, IELTS' EOR policy states that test-takers who believe their score is not accurate can request a remark of their test within six weeks of the result in one or all of the four skills. Test-takers pay an administrative fee (generally, around GBP 60 at UK test venues), which is reimbursed should the band score be upgraded. Users posted their test results on the group walls often with limited or no contextual information, asking for their colleagues' views on applying for an EOR. Generally, peers performed a supportive role, with most encouraging the original poster to apply for an EOR: "I would suggest you go remark...there are chances that your writing score might get increased by 0.5 band". This was particularly the case when one skill was scored much lower than the other three: "Your other points are high enough to be sure that you deserve 7 in writing". Nevertheless, not all candidates perform consistently across all four skills, and 'jagged profiles' among test-takers are not uncommon. A few users were sceptical of the benefits of EOR, sometimes from their own previous experience: "I don't know anyone in the past 7 years who got a score increase from recheck...including my own experience…I submitted eor twice and received same result...". For other users, the inconvenient waiting time of six weeks versus retaking the test much sooner was decisive in their recommendation: "Just re-take again with more practice".

Candidate enthusiasm for and scepticism of EOR reveals their beliefs in the reliability of how IELTS is marked. One user shared their experience of obtaining an EOR: "I got my writing section changed from 5 to 6 just within a week after an enquiry. So don't hesitate to require re-grading if you feel the score is not right". It was not explained how or why the test-taker's original score was upgraded by a whole band, although it can be speculated to have occurred in speaking or writing, the more subjectively marked components. Such declarations

could be potentially damaging to the reputation of IELTS if they contribute to a culture in mass online communities of test mismarking. Uysal (2009) has suggested that the IELTS Writing test be marked by two assessors to enhance the reliability of the score. The same could be said for the Speaking test, which is always recorded. However, the increase in administrative and staffing costs likely mean the co-owners of IELTS are not enthusiastic about embracing double marking. Evidence from this study suggest the cost of an EOR appears to act as a barrier: "I do not advise you to go for recheck. It is a waste of money and time unless you do not mind losing the money to get ascertained of your score". Yet, if IELTS were to remove or lower the cost, this could lead to a flood of rechecks from disgruntled candidates. The issue of candidate lack of trust in their band scores is not likely to disappear, although the provision of qualitative, formative feedback would help candidates better understand why they were assessed in the way that they were.

Unprincipled activity. One pernicious phenomenon which was apparent in this IELTS preparation sphere was the presence of shady individuals making claims that they could provide users with authentic test certificates for a fee. Typically, a user would post something on the wall like the following: "We are group of teachers working in collaboration with [organisation's name]. We offer IELTS certificates for sale to people who are unable to sit in the classroom and take this exam. Contact us on E-mail". Perhaps to avoid the monitoring eye of the moderator, such posts tended to be inserted as replies during a discussion rather than as more visible wall posts. Direct user engagement with such individuals revealed a scepticism of such claims, with replies such as "scam", "fake", and "notice this is a scam and illegal - even the names don't match… admin please block them". It was evident from at least one group, that the moderators were aware of such fraudulent acts: "WATCH OUT for some serious scams/fraudulent parties hanging around in this group confirming to provide IELTS certification effortlessly, which in turn could lead to some serious consequences".

Nevertheless, it was also apparent from some exchanges that a number of users were either contemplating utilising such services or had already utilised them: "Some people ask me that if I will pay them they can give me my desire scores but I have no idea if this is fake or what please tell me thanks a lot". Respondents strongly dissuaded the user from following this course of action: "First, it's most probably fake, second, you are proving yourself weak and nobody will ever trust your capability once you choose that path". Another user indicated knowledge how the scam operated: "It's purely fake they will take money and when the result day comes... there will be no online results... they can make fake IELTS certificate by

Photoshop and other software but they can generate online results". Yet, there was no public rebuke of the user or moral outrage as could be expected given that most candidates exhibited trust in IELTS. Rather, a shared sense that such services were obviously illegitimate and an easy way to defrauded an individual was apparent in users' responses. Clearly, continued monitoring and post deletion from the administrators of such groups is required in order that such posts are removed and users blocked. Moreover, the co-owners of IELTS themselves may need to invest resources to ensure that such individuals are investigated and prohibited from proffering such services.

Feedback on IELTS Practice Tasks

One popular use (20.7% of utterances overall) to which all five of the Facebook groups were put was the request and provision of feedback on users' IELTS Writing Task 1 and Task 2 practice compositions. There was a tendency for responses to Task 1 to occur in equal measures to Task 2, while tasks emanating from the Academic module proliferated, reflecting the higher level of challenge in academic Writing Task 1. Exchanges usually began with a request submitted to the group in the form of a wall post, to which feedback-providing users would reply to: "Please evaluate my text and let me know my mistakes" accompanied by either an image of the handwritten practice task or the copy-and-pasted text (and the rubric). Surprisingly, it was atypical for feedback seekers to include the specific band score they wanted to achieve in their request, such as the user who stated: "Hi everyone! I am aiming for band 7. Dear friends and mentors, I would really appreciate it if you could kindly give me some feedback on my essay". Such information aids in providing a frame of focus to text's readers. This information would likely contribute to more informative and insightful feedback, encouraging peers to provide information that could bridge the gap between current performance and goals (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Formative feedback on written practice compositions. Feedback that was provided with the aim of modifying a user's thinking for the improvement of learning was labelled as formative feedback (Shute, 2008). This accounted for most feedback occurrences (17.5%). Formative feedback response to the original poster in the majority of incidences emanated from peers, rather than teachers or other experts operating in the communities. As such, the nature, quality, and quantity of the responses varied enormously. The following represents a more detailed peer response:

Try and give real, specific examples as opposed to the general "Some people...". Be specific or you will not get very high marks. Be careful with errors too, especially "the" as you are missing quite a few of these here.

The motivation for peers to intercede with a feedback response may have been motivated by a belief, well-founded in the academic literature, that peer feedback benefits the reviewer as well as the receiver (Lundstrom & Baker, 2009; Yu & Lee, 2016). Alternatively, there might have been more altruistic or community-inspired motivations involved (Chai & Kim, 2012; Ma & Chan, 2014). In contrast to the previous quotation, formative feedback tended to be briefer and more ambiguous. The following excepts were typical: "Write in a clear order. Avoid many repetition. Best regards", "Kindly avoid the unnecessary punctuations... there are few grammatical errors... try to write the words completely without shortening it. eg: country's - country is…", and "Too long maximum limit 280 words. ielts is all about rules". In many cases, formative feedback addressed low-level grammatical issues, such as: "It should not be I am writing.. should be I have written this letter..". Few users, as candidates-in-training, provided feedback targeted at the assessment criteria of IELTS Writing, especially Task Response and Coherence and Cohesion. These findings suggest users may lack of knowledge of how IELTS Writing is assessed, as well as the complexities and challenges inherent in teaching and learning the skill of writing (Uysal, 2009).

For some fortunate users, detailed, formative feedback from an IELTS instructor or expert present in the community was provided in the replies to a feedback wall post request. One candidate received the following detailed response:

Overall, you did a good job. Your response was well-answered, with a clear opinion throughout. However, your introduction is way too long though. You could cut the last two sentences of the introduction as the examiner knows what you will do in the essay. You argue both sides well. Your opinion is clear, but your conclusion is too long and therefore weak. Just re-state your opinion.

Such feedback was met with genuine gratitude from the original poster. Nevertheless, as wall posts are public, a few users became aware of such feedback provided by the small number of experts present. Subsequently, these users tagged the experts in a wall-post or reply using the expert's name to get their attention. This was for the purposes of requesting the expert to evaluate their practice composition. Such requests were not always fulfilled. One reason for this is likely because experts in this context had little incentive to invest their time in providing

assessment of users' texts for little or no personal gain (Ahern et al., 2016). In a number of cases, requests for feedback, particularly in the group, IELTS Writing Correction Service, went unanswered by the other members. Feedback requests that went unanswered were often consecutive compositions posted by the same user, who may have been perceived as being too demanding on the group. Nevertheless, as was referenced by the moderator in one group (in the context of seeking study companions): "it's quite selfish of people to fill the newsfeed with 'I want....' posts". This suggests a key challenge of moderating IELTS preparation on closed Facebook groups is encouraging an appropriate balance of interactions between 'give' and 'take' among users.

Summative feedback on written practice compositions. Less commonly, feedback was delivered as a summative judgment on what was done well in the text and what was not (3.1%). Feedback providers proffered general summaries of textual quality often framed positively, such as: "I liked the 2nd paragraph. The 1st paragraph could have been better. Otherwise its a nice essay though" and "U used good vocabulary as well and that too topic based, which is a good idea to get high score". Summative feedback responses tended to converge on issues of textual mechanics and grammatical accuracy in particular: "grammar and vocabular are both excellent", "please note your use of articles needs more care", and "your style of writing is excellent, and so is your vocabulary". This may reflect users' familiarity with grammatical and lexical requirements generally and a lack of awareness of the more nebulous and complex Task Response and Coherence and Cohesion criteria in IELTS.

Surprisingly, few feedback-seekers requested or delivered feedback information in the form of a predicted IELTS band overall for the four assessment criteria. While explicit requests for band score feedback were evinced in wall posts, such as "please score this essay" and in replies to providers who offered no band score information, "Could you award a band?", a general request for feedback was interpreted as a request for formative information to aid learning. Yet, some feedback providers were happy to provide their own band score predictions, sometimes with justification:

I am not an IELTS expert, I am a student like you. You might get: TR: 6 (many irrelevant information and ideas are mentioned) CC: 6 (many simple sentences, which could easily be converted into complex sentences. Mechanical use of connecting devices - Firstly, secondly, thirdly), GRA: 6 or 6.5, LR: 7, Overall 6-6.5....

On other occasions, providers gave limited or no justification behind their scores: "In my own opinion, TA 8, c&c 8 Gr. 8 ,vocab. 8 all =8.. i think it may achieve more .. good job". The provision of band score predictions was a potentially risky endeavour for feedback providers, as there occurred incidences where feedback recipients felt underwhelmed, confused, or even undermined by the feedback: "With all due respect, why do you personally think? if you are an expert then you may please evaluate fully including all the four criteria. Otherwise it is unethical to throw bands if you are not a mentor". A lack of justification behind unsubstantiated summative comments intensified the possibility of misunderstanding, with recipients often seeking clarifying information on predicted scores or summative information in general: "Thanks a lot. Could u tell me where are the spelling mistakes to correct them!?" and "Thank you [NAME], can you please specify are you referring to how I overextended the housing problem?"

Both formative and summative feedback on practice compositions extended beyond the exchange of information, leading to discussions and disagreements between participants, much of which was centred on the notion of 'correct' interpretations of the IELTS assessment criteria. These usually utilised the less public sub-reply functionality of the platform. One user exclaimed, "Thanks for pointing out but this is certainly not a reason for giving a student 6.5" in response to feedback which suggested a spelling error at the beginning of a text would establish a negative examiner disposition towards their text. Another user who posted suggested band scores for one composition was met with the following response:

> Nope not at all. Look at the way she has used her connectors since etc. Not one mistake of word. The relevant support of information with examples. U might want to check the ielts elaborate band structure for writing. This is fine for 7 bands for sure. Firstly, secondly is acceptable till 7 band. For 8 of course u need a more subtle way of introducing your sentences in paragraphs =. Those IELTS examiners are not checking a PhD thesis anyways.

Both these episodes raise the issue of feedback credibility, an issue in peer corrective feedback (Ferris, 2011; M. Yang, Badger, & Yu, 2006; Yu & Lee, 2016) that is exacerbated in this setting where users are largely unknown to each other. One explanation behind this low-level conflict is a concern among users that false or misleading IELTS task advice is spread among members. This was explicitly stated by one individual in a heated exchange over the role of pausing in the Speaking test: "What you say is dangerous to other students who might believe what you

say. You need to be sure of your facts instead of sprouting your opinion until you have made sure of what you are saying".

Study Partnerships

Arranging speaking partnerships. For many users, the community groups were not ends in themselves, but a platform for meeting individuals in a similar situation to arrange face-to-face contact through other mediums for practice purposes (13.3%). The most common form of behaviour was a user adding a wall post to find potential partners for speaking practice (8.2%). The following requests were very common: "I am looking for a speaking partner. I want to sit for exam next month. So please message me if you are free now". In nearly all instances, users explicitly sought colleagues to practise their speaking using closed WhatsApp groups. Consequently, there existed many wall posts with dozens of replies containing the phone numbers of a raft of users, with privacy ramifications for those users. As the actual speaking practice sessions took place beyond the medium investigated in this study, no conclusions can be drawn concerning the nature of such interactions. Nevertheless, these results indicate that IELTS-orientated community groups serve an important purpose in bringing together users, not just for asynchronous learning using written posting, but for synchronous face-to-face videoconferencing-based skills practice.

Arranging other forms of study partnerships. Rarely, users sought out study partners among their peers that did not centre on Speaking (1.3%). Where a specific focus for the study partnership could usually be ascertained, this usually related to a study partnership centred on IELTS Writing (0.4%): "I am searching for a serious partner to check out each other's writing part regularly (target score 7+). If Interested please text". Another user sought peers to form a study group on the general training module: "I am looking IELTS general module group for girls only if any one already created pls add me too". More often, users were seeking study partnerships that had no particular focus (0.9%). Closer examination of the data revealed some of these users were seeking to track down high performing IELTS candidates to act as general study partners or for test advice: "Hi, Enthusiastic people. Here, has anyone whose band score in IELTS is 8 or 9. It's important, I am searching for those person. if anyone has here. please, Comment below or if u know mention here". This was likely due to the specific insights into achieving these higher band scores that such candidates might be able to offer.

Arranging tutoring. It was evident from a number of interactions that requests and offers for IELTS preparation support constituted tutor/student study partnerships (4.1%). One

candidate sought a tutor to support them with the IELTS Writing test: "First attempt at the Academic Test. I have to retake it unfortunately. Does any of you know someone who corrects Essays?". Another utilised the platform to try to solicit tutoring from a peer who they perceived as an expert: "Do you have paid correction service?" However, offers of tutoring were more common than requests. Tutors themselves did not usually employ wall posts, the most visible type of communication, to bring attention to their services, instead preferring replies or sub-replies to a post where the original poster requested support. Tutors' credentials were often explicitly stated in posts, with a number appearing to be current practising teachers:

> I am a qualified and practicing IELTS teacher offering some free Q and A time for the next week for all those that have urgent IELTS questions they want to ask. Please feel free to ask me about Writing, Speaking, Reading and Listening and I will do my best to answer :) Have a lovely day.

In other cases, it was evident successful IELTS candidates were monetarising their recent exam success by offering their services as successful candidates:

> "Hi guys! I am looking for online students to teach the IELTS. Moreover, I can check your speaking and essays to evaluate your level. My own IELTS result from 8th of August W:8.5, R:8,L:9, S:7.5. If you have any questions please send me message. Please notice it's not free you need to pay small amount of money!"

The motivations of tutors are speculated to be twofold. Individuals may see financial reward as the primary motivator. In the current era of electronic payment gateways and cryptocurrencies, international financial transactions online has enabled individuals to efficiently and easily pay for and accept money for online services. For other tutors, altruism or perceived attachment to the community may have been the main motivation (Ma & Chan, 2014).

Preparation Content and Materials

The online platform was naturally conducive to the discussion and sharing of IELTS preparation content and materials among peers (12.6%). Nevertheless, this figure appears relatively low, particularly given the integrity of online and printed materials in test-wiseness awareness raising (Winke & Lim, 2014). Utterances on the topic of materials could generally be divided into three different types: 1) discussions regarding the content of and nature of materials themselves (7.2%), the sharing of links to other web content (5.7%), and the

uploading and hosting of content on the platform (1.2%). Common sub-themes that permeated discussions were recommendations on suitable materials for IELTS preparation, the quality of specific materials, and what materials to utilise as a starting point for preparation. Such discussions covered a gamut of materials, including text books, practice tests, grammar and vocabulary references and activities: "Can anyone suggest me a book for IELTS general reading" and "Hello friends. How are you all. I need some listening practice test, so please can anybody provide me. Thanks in advance". Such interactions did not always concern books: "Hello guys! Can anyone recommend me some good websites where I can find articles and topics to improve and expand my vocabulary for IELTS reading? Thank you".

Such requests seldom went unanswered, and one series of books dominated discussions concerning printed material content. This was referred to by most users as the "Cambridge books". These are a series of (currently) 13 printed books that contain four mock academic IELTS tests (with answer keys) and two general training tests. Many users evinced a need to obtain one or more of the books in this series: "I need IELTS Cambridge books 12 and 13 please help me" and "Can anyone help in telling me the link for free download of Cambridge IELTS book 13 ? Thanks in advance". In addition, general requests for recommendations were often met with responses such as the following: "Cambridge series will be better" and "Always practice on official material. Cambridge 1-13, Cambridge IELTS trainer, Official test material 1, and Official test material 2. These are the official books". As such, it was apparent that users saw value in test content that provided them with realistic practice of test tasks, as well as content produced by one of the co-owners of IELTS, Cambridge English.

Sharing links to online content. Unsurprisingly, the groups were utilised for the sharing of links to online preparation content, and less commonly, materials uploaded to the Facebook groups themselves. Much of the content shared by hyperlinks to outside websites appeared in the form of unsolicited wall posts, particularly to videos hosted on YouTube. A great many of these resembled the advertising of commercial content rather than peers sharing resources they found useful: "Do you have a speaking exam coming up soon? Check out our latest video for some useful tips! [link] Then click here for lots more great advice and practice [link]". The same IELTS-related websites or YouTube videos were sometimes shared repeatedly: "So i will recommend you a magnificent link [link]". It was noticeable that wall posts were not employed for spamming, as these posts were usually vetted by moderators. Instead, they appeared in the replies to a thread. More personalised peer sharing of links took the form of replies and sub-replies to users' questions and requests for content. In terms of

online content, the YouTube videos produced by IELTS Liz proved popular with many users: "Watch IELTS videos by Liz on paraphrasing and practise more".

In contrast to the highly-regarded Cambridge series of practice tests, users' perceptions of the quality of online content appeared less certain. Some users employed the community groups to seek feedback from their peers concerning the merit of commercial online IELTS preparation facilities: "Hello everyone, I need feedback from people who have subscribed to IELTS advantage VIP course which is priced at 500$ Is the course worth to spend such a huge amount?". Here, the group served the function of providing individuals with feedback on an online service and personal contact with those who utilised this service:

> This is one of the best websites regarding IELTS preparation. It isn't a scam. If you can pay, there are some teachers to correct your essays. There are free things but the best result is paying. Time to time you can apply to watch videos for free with really good materials and clues.

Nevertheless, there was a lack of consensus or effusive recommendations for many other online materials. This is likely due to the plethora of content, much of which is from an unofficial source, of dubious presentation, or spammed at users.

Content hosted online. Rarely, users employed the groups to discuss or share uploaded IELTS preparation content along with descriptions of the materials (1.2%). Most of the time, users were concerned with copies of official IELTS printed materials, particularly the aforementioned Cambridge series of practice tests: "Dear all, Does anyone suggest me how I can download free cambridge book 12, PDF and audio. Thanks in advance". If materials were not hosted online, conversations concerning obtaining such content moved from online to private: "Thankyou...Do u have 12 in pdf?". Clearly, violation of international copyright takes place in such online communities. While one answer would be for the co-owners to crack down on such violations, the popularity of this series evinces the fact that there are few reputable and representative online IELTS tests with thorough answer keys and commentary. Not all of the uploaded content consisted of printed materials produced by Cambridge University Press, the only publisher institutionally-linked to IELTS:

> It is advanced test-taking manual for the IELTS. The goal of this book is to seek and exploit specific weaknesses in the IELTS assessment, and then share those secrets with others. The product is much more than a study guide, it is a tactical weapon designed to

exploit weaknesses in the test itself, and help you avoid the most common errors students make when taking the IELTS.

Yet, some users were sceptical of shared online content that appeared to have been produced by an unknown or unofficial source:

But who is this book for? I skimmed it for a few chapters and it is, in my view very academic and the language used is certainly not aimed at learners of English. It would take them ages to get through each page. It would be more beneficial be aimed at teachers in my honest opinion.

Finally, it is worth emphasising that one of the Facebook community groups not documented in the present study was entitled 'IELTS books'. It is therefore possible individuals may have gravitated to this or other online sources in order to share and obtain online content.

Test Experiences

The international nature of the platform lent itself to users exchanging and discussing their experiences of undertaking IELTS. Nevertheless, interactions featuring this focus were quite rare (3.6% for the theme overall and 0.4% for actual personal experiences of the test). This may reflect the public nature of the platform, which may discourage users from sharing personal and intimate test experiences with a large and mostly anonymous community. The interactions of this focus that did occur involved the subjects revealing the taxing emotional experience of doing IELTS:

Yesterday was my Speaking test. I was continuously answering the question in long sentences. However, did not use much difficult vocab. In one question at the start, I took some seconds to think and answer. More of personal experiences was shared by me while answering. the time was up while speaking for cue card, so examiner asked me again the skipped question form cue card will that affect the score :(wish to get 7

While some users responded sympathetically, others used this and other posts as an opportunity to try to obtain insider information to aid in their own preparations: "What was your writing tasks. Please share in detail".

Sharing insider information. Inevitably, test-takers ended up sharing information about their test that could be deemed 'insider information', although this was a rare type of

utterance overall (1.4%). This behaviour concerned sharing or inquiring after the topics or even questions posed in the speaking or writing section:

> Just took the test , the writing topic was "the Internet is not a necessity to live life to the fullest" what is your opinion , and I am still unsure what they meant by living life to the fullest, I talked about how the Internet can make us depressed and lower the life's quality on the one hand and on the other hand how the Internet can facilitate our life by its tools like Email, am I off topic? is it related to having a better quality of life?

The motivation for this candidate was peer re-assurance that her/his approach had been relevant. On the other hand, other users proactively shared insider information owing to a communitarian approach to learning:

> Dear everyone, my speaking test was today and I want to contribute to this enormously supportive group… and part 2 was What you have not learned at school which u Learned out side school What you learnt How you learnt it How difficult was it to learnt Difficulties which come across. Thanks guys. i hope we all do well in the exams.

It is evident this user clearly felt they were supporting their colleagues' preparations for the test, particularly those taking the test on the same day. Yet, ultimately, the sharing of such information undermines the validity and integrity of IELTS, and the resulting trust in its predictive validity. In the age of social media, it is increasingly difficult for testing organisations to keep test information – rubrics, questions, topics – confidential to test-takers. It is all too easy for such information to be shared to an international audience. Consequently, the IELTS co-owners must ensure that its test materials contain sufficient variety, particularly in the topics and questions for Speaking and Writing, that such disclosures do not unfairly advantage users who are party to that information.

Pre-test experiences. Some subjects even used the forums to engage with users prior to their test (1.7%), often for the purposes of tapping into the groups' confidence-building, supportive network: "Hi people am waiting to do my speaking test in a few minutes time, wish me well". Such posts would not go ignored, providing the original poster in the unenviable situation of waiting for their test or their result with an instant and understanding support network. There was also trend for some users to utilise these groups in order to locate users around the world who were in the same position as themselves vis-à-vis IELTS. This concerned mostly administrative matters such as, "12 March I'm appearing [in the IELTS test]", or, "Who

are waiting for tomorrows test?" The motivations for such behaviour is not immediately clear from the individual utterances or communicative exchanges.

Off-Topic Discussions

Finally, it should be emphasised that not all interactions in the five groups were strictly IELTS-related. The subjects utilised the groups to query other users concerning facets of the English grammar system, for example: "When I was a child, I used to play cricket. When I was a child, I would play cricket. Do you find any error in the above sentences?" Other users appeared to enjoy contributing grammatical or lexical multiple-choice quiz questions or conundrums to the groups, such as: "She tried ___ carrot jam, but she didn't enjoy it A. eat B. eating C. eaten D. to eat" and "Let's eat Grandma. Is this sentence correct? And give reason" Such wall posts were often met with responses from a plethora of users, even if an initial respondent had already provided the correct answer. As such, they provided an outlet for users to demonstrate their knowledge of the language, perhaps to compensate for deficiencies in current levels of language proficiency or because of a lack of test-wiseness. On other occasions, discussions of feedback on IELTS Writing tasks evolved into disagreements over the accuracy of specific grammatical structures, as in the following extract:

> I am writing is correct. Present continuous is write tense type while you are writing something. I have written should be used if in conclusion you want to tell someone but even than have written is illogical due to present perfect (use to shows completion of something)"

Occasionally, these disputes featured more overt conflict between users, perhaps suggesting the candidates in this setting who got involved in such debates perceived accuracy as important, while also wanting to demonstrate their grammatical prowess to the group.

Discussion

Research Question 1

Test-wiseness. The present study sought answers to the following research question:

1. What are the IELTS preparation priorities and behaviours of candidates utilising five Facebook community groups to prepare for the test?

A key finding of this netnography study is that familiarity with the testing system is a considerable concern for candidates-in-preparation, likely owing to a perception that literacy

in the various facets of the testing system will enhance overall test prospects. This mirrors the findings of (Rasti, 2009), who utilised questionnaires and interviews to explore Iranian candidates' attitudes towards IELTS. Test-wiseness of IELTS was broken down into three broad composite aspects: 1) approaching test preparation in general; 2) handling specific test tasks; and 3) administrative uncertainties. Yet, within these general categories a complex array of issues and concerns that confused, and even mystified candidates were exhibited. This contrasts with the list of activities IELTS preparation is reduced to by Hawkey (2006) and Hayes and Read (2008). While many were trivial, others, including how to bridge significant gaps in band score performance and approaching preparation were more serious. As such, IELTS test-wiseness is suggested to be challenging for learners, particularly owing to linguistic barriers resulting from the preparation literature that is mostly in English and a lack of detailed feedback information provided to learners undertaking the test (Hamid & Hoang, 2018).

The view that test-wiseness is essential for success in IELTS is ingrained in the test preparation literature produced by the co-owners of IELTS (Winke & Lim, 2014), as well as being the cornerstone of many IELTS preparation courses. This raises uncomfortable ethical issues for the co-owners of IELTS. If test-wiseness is perceived as essential for test performance by both test developers and test-takers, learners who do not invest in officially-sanctioned preparation literature or a taught course could be disadvantaged (Winke & Lim, 2014). Similarly, through the purveyance of commercial preparation materials and taught IELTS preparation courses, the co-owners could be guilty of claims that the testing system advantages candidates who can pay more (Winke & Lim, 2014).

The present study revealed that candidates perceived test-wiseness as knowledge to be utilised for (mostly) legitimate gain in the test. As such, within the context of IELTS, it would appear that knowledge of how to approach the test tasks and the typical activities to engage in as preparation are not sources of test invalidity (Cohen, 2006; Tavakoli & Samian, 2014), but rather, integral to preparations for the test. Nevertheless, for some candidates, test-wiseness was perceived as a 'quick-fix' strategy that required a mere investment of their time or a 'bag of tricks' to manipulate weaknesses in the test. Additionally, the overall occurrences of sharing insider information, an obvious source of test invalidity, were low given the international nature of the platform. This was probably due to the lack of perceived individual gain from sharing information, particularly the topics and the questions, as well as the practical difficulties of remembering them in the pressurised situation of the test. Nevertheless, the potential of social media to enable test-takers to share insider information and subvert the testing system should

be taken seriously by major test developers such as the co-owners of IELTS and ETS, who own and manage TOEFL-iBT.

Focus on task practice and feedback. The present study revealed test-takers who utilised this platform for test preparation purposes were concerned with undertaking simulated practice tasks and, importantly, receiving feedback on tasks to enhance performance. Thus, in this regard, preparing for IELTS utilising Facebook community groups resembles the emphasis on simulated practice exhibited in much of the classroom IELTS preparation literature (Green, 2007; Hayes & Read, 2008; Mickan & Motteram, 2008; Y. Yang & Badger, 2015). Most evident online was the widespread sharing of written practice compositions for group peer feedback, and the desire of candidates to connect with potential partners for speaking practice (likely of simulated practice test tasks). This suggests candidates value peer feedback on their written compositions, a finding present in the literature on written corrective feedback in general writing settings (Yu & Lee, 2016). Yet, the study also suggested evidence that candidates-in-preparation in this setting value the feedback of experts more, particularly through the seeking out individuals offering paid corrective services and the tagging of experts in feedback request posts to get their attention. These findings appear to have notable consequences for practitioners of IELTS training as it appears likely candidates in the test preparation classroom would respond positively to the plentiful use of peer feedback and structured practice tasks with peers.

IELTS Facebook preparation groups as peer support networks. Cutting across the superordinate themes was the role of the community groups as an informal supportive network for candidates preparing for the test. As revealed in the data concerning test advice particularly, users displayed a number of anxieties relating to test preparation or certain choices they made in the test. Many of these points were likely trivial and carried minimal or no bearing on a candidate's results. This likely serves as evidence of the pressure IELTS exerts on candidates (Green, 2007; Hayes & Read, 2008). In most groups, there appeared to be a cadre of active users who tended to contribute most towards public discussions, acting in the role of feedback providers or test advice purveyors. This underscores the usefulness of Facebook community groups to preparation candidates, who may be spread out across the world, for emotional support, test preparation advice, and opportunities for informal learning beyond the Facebook platform (Ahern et al., 2016). It must be noted that few conflicts between users escalated from disagreements in the interactions (Willis, 2017), a feature that can arise from misunderstandings in large, diverse online groups, especially where communication takes place

through writing and learners are developing writers (Hyland & Hyland, 2006; Nelson & Carson, 1998). Where disputes did occur, these were often due to differing interpretations of the assessment criteria used in the Writing test and the grammatical accuracy of certain English structures, removed from the context of IELTS.

Research Question 2

The study also set out to answer a second research question:

2. How do individuals utilise the functionality of Facebook community groups in their preparation activities for the IELTS test?

While primarily a social network, it is clear Facebook performs a role as a learning technology for educational purposes (Ahern et al., 2016). The Facebook community group settings afforded opportunities to gather a wealth of concrete and observable data (Wilson et al., 2012) on the practices and concerns of candidates preparing for a major life-changing test. The present study offers fresh insights into how individuals go about preparing for IELTS both independently and with the support of a peer network, beyond the traditional classroom settings of IELTS preparation (Green, 2007; Hayes & Read, 2008) or tertiary programmes (Coleman et al., 2003; Hawkey, 2006). As such, the settings provided access to participants who were not able to rely on the expertise of a tutor (although a number of self-appointed experts were present) or who had already achieved their goals in the IELTS test by virtue of being enrolled at a university in an English-speaking country. Independent test-preparation candidates have been woefully under-represented in the literature, likely reflecting the practical difficulties in sampling such learners in sufficient quantities. This is has been an understandable, if concerning oversight from researchers, given as it is probable only a minority of the some 3 million global IELTS test-takers have the time and financial resources to invest in classroom-based teacher-led preparation (Mickan & Motteram, 2006).

Socially-constructed peer learning in community groups. The platform's capabilities served to create a facilitative socio-interactive environment (Hu & Lam, 2010), centred on learning as a series of written exchanges between users. Learning appeared to be socially and collectively constructed (Yu & Lee, 2016), with peers the main sources of information. This reflects the problematic fact that IELTS provides very limited feedback information to candidates (Hamid & Hoang, 2018), while individual test-taker reflection may not be enough for candidates to provide insights into what they need to do to improve (Mickan & Motteram, 2006). IELTS preparation as a form of social constructivist learning was

particularly evident in writing practice composition feedback, where a formative or summative response was received from multiple sources and there was the direct negotiation of meaning between feedback seeker and respondent(s). Depending on the quality of the feedback, such responses and their follow-up interactions have the propensity to contribute towards enhanced awareness, both for the feedback seeker and the respondent, the latter acting as reviewer and evaluator of student texts (Yu & Lee, 2016). Yet, with dozens of textual models uploaded to these groups' walls with peer feedback, framed as public announcements (Wang et al., 2012), there is great potential for a wide audience to benefit in terms of enhanced test-wiseness, particularly in terms of awareness-raising of task expectations, rubrics, and the assessment criteria.

One notable caveat here is that much peer feedback appeared incomplete, of limited quality and relevance, and focused primarily on local textual features. This is probably due to a lack of scaffolding to the feedback, exacerbated by posters who do not provide the target band score they seek. The finding that peers provide feedback mostly on surface-level features stands in contrast to the study by C. W.-Y. Chen (2010), who found EFL learners in a postgraduate context tended to provide more feedback on global textual concerns. This difference can be explained by a lack of candidate familiarity with how IELTS compositions are assessed by examiners, and in particular a limited awareness of the band descriptors, of which even teachers of IELTS preparation have been shown not to utilise in feedback (Pearson, 2018). Nevertheless, it was beyond the scope of the present study to more fully examine the efficacy of the peer feedback encountered on this platform, owing to the difficulties in investigating the extent such feedback is interpreted and taken up.

The varied nature of interaction patterns across groups. The functionality specific to the Facebook community group platform employed by individuals preparing for IELTS was investigated. Overall, it was uncovered that the public wall post served to generate and shape learning on a range of priorities and concerns. Exchanges tended to follow two types of format, the 'question-and-answer', centred around test advice and tips, and 'request-and-offer' involving mainly feedback on writing tasks and the seeking out of reliable speaking partners. Where wall posts were of approximately equal number to the other two forms of interactive functionality, it was found that the overall communicative and interactive nature of the group was lower. IELTS Tips and Tricks was especially acute in this regard, with many wall posts remaining unresponded to. This contributed to a sense of group impoverishment, which may have acted as a barrier for new members joining (Ahern et al., 2016). In contrast, the groups

'IELTS' and 'IELTS MOOC Study Group' featured a great many spontaneous, compelling, and detailed discussions. Hence, these groups were characterised by many active users who took an interest in IELTS as seekers or contributors of test advice, feedback, and information.

　　　Utilising the functionality of Facebook groups for materials sharing. Finally, some users undertook content sharing in this IELTS preparation setting, which was greatly enabled by Facebook's functionality. In particular, it was common for individuals to share links to preparation content hosted on external websites, to host content directly on the group's page, and to utilise more discrete approaches to obtaining preparation materials, the latter approach likely favoured of fear of over copyright violation. These three forms of behaviour appear to constitute learning that contrasts noticeably with classroom-based test preparation, where the teacher has authority and control over content and materials (Estaji & Tajeddin, 2012; Hamp-Lyons, 1998). Yet, in both contexts materials featuring practice tests are popular (Estaji & Tajeddin, 2012), providing further evidence for IELTS preparation pedagogy heavily featuring simulated practice tasks (Green, 2007; Hayes & Read, 2008; Mickan & Motteram, 2008). In the settings of the current study, IELTS preparation materials are democratised, leading to enhanced choice for candidates and opportunities to obtain much free content, which may remedy some of the ethical discomfort spawning from the commercialisation of IELTS test preparation materials (Winke & Lim, 2014). Nevertheless, the ease of sharing hyperlinked content also led to spamming by a small number of individuals as well as causing difficulties and uncertainties for candidates in interpreting the quality of such content. This may explain the pervasive support for the Cambridge series of authentic test practice text books, which predominantly featured in candidates' perceptions of quality content.

Conclusions

　　　The present study consisted of a netnographic investigation of the IELTS preparation activities of individuals participating in five large online Facebook community groups. The researcher documented 2030 public wall posts, replies, and sub replies for a plethora of users over the period of several weeks (varying according to the popularity and interactivity of the groups). This provided fresh insights into IELTS preparation as a peer-driven and international endeavour. The qualitative data was analysed using thematic analysis to generate knowledge addressing two main aims. The first concerned the priorities and behaviours of IELTS preparation candidates. It was revealed that individuals employed these settings to enhance their test-wiseness, particularly in the realms of how to approach test preparation, individual

task advice, and coping with test administration. Additionally, candidates in this context were keen to seek and give feedback concerning written practice compositions, which provided insights into their perceptions of the IELTS Writing tasks and how they are assessed. As a global platform, the community groups enabled the instantaneous sharing of suggested preparation materials and the tracking down of willing and able speaking partners. The peer-driven nature of the activities in these settings was reflected in the generally supportive and encouraging atmosphere, which served to assuage the confusions and anxieties of many candidate-in-preparation. Nevertheless, limitations in the awareness of the IELTS testing system were exhibited, particularly how the Writing test is assessed. As such, these settings are noteworthy as they enable individuals with limited test-wiseness and confidence to tap into the knowledge and experience of other test takers or even experts, of which there are few comparable settings, except for the preparation classroom.

The second aim of the research involved exploring how users employed the functionality of the Facebook community groups in order to facilitate their personal preparation practices (as well as support other learners). It was revealed that the more populous groups served as lively, busy exchanges of information, ideas, and opinions between individuals preparing for IELTS, while others were much quieter and impoverished of more detailed or meaningful interactions. In all five groups, public interactions revolved around the wall post, which was utilised mainly to seek information about the IELTS test or feedback on a written practice composition. Less commonly, wall posts were employed to share information, links, ideas, and even test experiences. The other major form of interaction type was the reply and sub-reply. Replies centred on answering the users' queries, providing feedback, and contributing points to a discussion. Sub-replies often featured a more detailed level of discussion, often between two users alone. These settings, while sharing some similarities with classroom IELTS preparation, differ in most regards, particularly in their peer-orientated nature, and the primacy of the individual user to shape the nature and focus of the interactions. It is concluded that this context serves as a vital setting to bring IELTS preparation candidates together into a communitarian and socially-constructivist learning environment.

Implications

The implications of this study for pre-test IELTS preparation candidates as well as the co-owners of IELTS are varied. One implication of the awkward ethical dilemma faced by the IELTS co-owners, who serve as both test designer and purveyor of commercial preparation, is

how to reduce the impact of claims that IELTS favours test-takers with financial resources (Winke & Lim, 2014). The present study explored the limits of peer support in a learning context in which many aspects of test-wiseness are complex. As such, the co-owners of IELTS could explore the possibility of launching an official IELTS Facebook community group, managed and monitored by their own administrative staff. The purpose of this group could be to support candidates around the world with their preparations for the test, and could mainly address the practical and pedagogical test queries that arise frequently. Administrative staff, working as the group's admin, could provide unequivocal answers to users' questions about test administration, tackling the uncertainty conveyed by the inconsistencies in and lack of authority of peer support in test-wiseness. This would also take the pressure off local test centres who currently handle most candidates' questions and queries. Additionally, the co-owners could employ online moderators in other community groups in order to monitor suspicious and unprincipled activity that currently continues largely unchecked.

Requests for formative feedback on Writing Task 1 or 2 practice compositions were one of the main purposes individuals utilised Facebook community groups for IELTS preparation. Yet, as was revealed, feedback responses were often incomplete, inaccurate, or insufficient. This issue is compounded by the lack of formative feedback (or detailed summative feedback) received by candidates undertaking the IELTS Writing test (Hamid & Hoang, 2018). As such, unvetted private tutors and online commercial writing feedback services fill the void. One implication of the present study is that the co-owners of IELTS should consider launching their own online feedback service in lieu of integrating more detailed candidate feedback into the Writing test, which appears unlikely in light of security and confidentiality concerns (Hamid & Hoang, 2018). An IELTS writing feedback service could provide officially-sanctioned feedback featuring detailed comments on the four assessment criteria and a predicted band score for a modest fee. While this would further serve to underscore the importance of financial resources in IELTS preparation and would be unlikely to extinguish the requests for free feedback on social media, it may offer an important service to preparation candidates who mainly require help with writing or who see no benefit in undertaking a costly preparation course just for written feedback.

Limitations

A number of limitations concerning the study must be outlined, along with their impact on the knowledge claims. First, while a learning platform was chosen to document the priorities

and practices of a large, international cohort of candidates, no claims of an ontologically objective or epistemologically positivistic sample are made (Hyatt, 2013). Instead, the idiographic nature of the knowledge generated from the particular users in particular settings must be emphasised. For example, Chinese students, who represent the most sizeable cohort of foreign students in UK higher education institutions (Y. Yang & Badger, 2015), and thus likely to be a numerous and notable IELTS test-taker body, were massively under-represented. This is due to current prohibitions on Facebook in the People's Republic of China. Similarly, the platform featured both public and private sides, with the researcher only party to the utterances and exchanges that were posted to public wall pages. As such, the private, unobservable aspect of this platform, specifically the exchanges across the Facebook Messenger application and the Speaking practice partnerships mostly located in WhatsApp groups went wholly unobserved. As such and in spite of the extent of the findings, the present study only provides partial insights into how individuals utilise Facebook community groups for IELTS preparation.

A number of methodological limitations are present in the current study, a description of which may benefit future researchers. The research utilised thematic analysis to code utterances in the entire data set of over 2000 utterances (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Yet, given the high volume and variety of exchanges, it was not always possible to generate main or superordinate themes to describe all interactions. The nature of the settings and users' priorities meant that there was too much variety to be adequately described by less than six main themes and 19 sub-themes. As such, some simplification of the activities and concerns of users was employed out of data coding necessity. It must also be recognised that the focus of the reformulated participant quotes, while selected as representative of the themes, were not necessarily proportional to their numerical presence in the data. The analysis provided in the discussion is illustrative of the researcher's interests and priorities in the data, which are not neutral (Mauthner & Doucet, 2003). Unusual or idiosyncratic findings, such as the seeking and sharing of positive encouragement prior to the test, were selected owing to their interest to the researcher. As such, the research methodology, while replicable, would generate different findings depending on the diverging personal attributes, interests and priorities of the researcher (Seale, 2011). Finally it should be underscored that the work generates idiographic knowledge (Borgman, 2015), situated in the distinct time and 'place', purposively selected by the present author. It makes no nomothetic generalisable claims as to the representativeness of the themes and means used in the interactions.

Directions for Future Research

The present study has provided new empirical insights into how individual candidates prepare for IELTS in the naturalistic settings of an online social media environment. It has described how participants approached test preparation through the seeking and sharing of test preparation information, as well as providing insights into the impact of IELTS on the everyday lives of candidates-in-preparation (Mickan & Motteram, 2006). Deeper more nuanced insights into this form of IELTS preparation could be obtained by selecting and investigating one of the superordinate themes in more detail and across a longer period of time (Braun & Clarke, 2006). This could enable the generation of richer insights into how, for example, peers provide written feedback on IELTS Writing practice compositions in social media settings. Similarly, it was beyond the limits of the study to analyse the effectiveness of Facebook community groups for candidates' preparations. Given the high-stakes nature of the test (Uysal, 2009) and ethical ramifications of test-wiseness in IELTS preparation (Winke & Lim, 2014), more pseudo-experimental studies are required to investigate both the extent and in what ways classroom-based and independent IELTS preparation impacts on candidates' test prospects (Brown, 1998; Issitt, 2008). Similarly, future studies could explore candidates' perceptions of the utility of IELTS-orientated Facebook community groups by employing questionnaires or online interviews with users who are active in such settings.

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Exploring the CLIL Practices in a Thailand Public University:
A Comparison of Undergraduate and Graduate Classrooms

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Abstract

Current higher education institutions have their responsibility to cultivate and equip lecturers with skills to meet the international competitive environment in the closely independent economics, politics, culture, and global society. The Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is a dual-focused educational approach in which an additional language is used for teaching and learning of both content and language. In order to be competitive in the international arena, Thailand's Ministry of Education is encouraging and recognizing as an effective teaching approach to the exposure of utilizing English language to teach the content subjects. Therefore, the main aim of this research was to conduct a comparative study of the CLIL practices between undergraduate and graduate classrooms in a public university, Thailand. The Human Resource Development Center (HRDC) of this public university had provided CLIL professional development training to the selective faculties who are using English as the medium of instruction. The preliminary study was conducted utilizing a document analysis to review and evaluate the 25 course syllabus to select courses to investigate their CLIL practices for actual study. The two courses were selected based on the condition of volunteering as the purpose of selection and classroom observation was the method of data collection. The framework of the classroom observation composed of 'Language of Learning', 'Language for Learning', and 'Language through Learning'. Researcher compared an undergraduate class of 38 students and a graduate class of 15 students. The teaching topic for undergraduate students was 'Anxiety disorders and insomnia', followed by the game-based activities. Meanwhile, the teaching topic for graduate students was 'Seminar on Biochemistry', followed by the students presented evidence and lecturer acted as a moderator in each presentation. An analysis was made of the outcomes obtained in two competencies namely understanding and thinking skills. Results revealed that both classes were different in term of

'Language of Learning' while they were learning vocabularies related to the content of lessons. Undergraduate students learned important vocabularies through classroom activities such as lecturing, clarifying the meaning with examples, and having quiz to ensure their understanding. On the other hand, graduate students learned vocabularies through their presentation and explanation to questions raised from audience for clarification. However, both classes showed a similarity in term of 'Language for Learning'. Results indicated that both classes were not taught the language structure directly and expected students to learn by themselves. The 'Language through Learning' was focused on the correctness of the content. Finally, assessment results showed that students' understanding about the content and they can think critically due to their improvement in language competencies. The activities that concerning 'Language through Learning' include 'using feedback', 'dictionary skills', extending presentation skills', 'presenting evidence' or 'recycling discussion'. In conclusion, lecturers not only should blend the classroom activities and assessment utilizing CLIL approach but also should aware of the limitation of students' language competencies and classroom context.

Keywords: CLIL approach; Language of Learning; Language for Learning; Language through Learning

Introduction

One of the goals of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN) in accordance with Bangkok Declaration 1967 (ASEAN Secretariat, 1967) is to promote collaborative activities to achieve quality education in the region, particularly in term of professional development programs, educational research and other technical administrative support. Because of English is a formally adopted official working language, a lingua franca, it has become the medium for communication among the ASEAN countries. As a result, English language policies and language education programs were launched and implemented in the differently in ASEAN countries (Luanganggoon, Phantharakphong, Sae-Joo, & Huntula, 2018).

Thailand's Ministry of Education has embarked on educational policies and special programs to develop Thai teachers' English language proficiency in both basic and higher education in order to improve Thai students' English language proficiency (Luanganggoon et al., 2018). On this line of reasoning, Thailand Qualifications Framework for Higher Education (TQF: HEd) was developed and adopted to ensure Thai universities in fulfilling standards and award titles of higher education qualification consistently and to make clear the equivalence of academic awards with those granted by universities in other parts of the world such as the United

Kingdom and ASEAN University Network Quality Assurance (Thailand Higher Education Commission [TOHEC], 2006). The TQF classifies the desirable learning outcomes of university students consisting of five domains namely ethical and moral development, knowledge, cognitive skills, interpersonal skills and responsibility, and analytical and communicative skills in Thai and English languages. Learning outcomes are directly related to the specialization undertaken and should be specified in the program and course documents particularly in the knowledge and cognitive skills domains. Meanwhile, the basic mathematical and statistical technique, effective communication in both oral and written forms as well as the use of information and communication technology are also including in the generic learning outcomes significantly and should be contextualized in all the programs and courses of the universities.

This research university (KKU) was established as a public university in the Northeastern part of Thailand in 1964 and gradually developed to be one of the top universities in Thailand now. KKU not only is one of the nine national research universities but also is an educational center in the Mekong sub-region. The major mission of KKU is preparing future global citizen to work in a continually changing world with its strategic goal as a leading research university both regionally and internationally. Currently, KKU is made up of a variety of institutions, including 23 faculties with a full range of academic departments which are organized into three divisions, namely social sciences, health sciences, and sciences. KKU has more than 40,000 students and provides 43 international or English programs with a wide coverage of various disciplines. Besides, KKU has excellent facilities that providing conducive learning environment and academic supports for students to achieve their academic success. In addition, KKU also takes an investment-minded approach in education by providing funds for students to further study at postgraduate level and be researchers.

In order to comply with the aim of the TQF as mentioned above, KKU offers three main activities to raise the English competencies of its students. There are four compulsory English language courses consisting of 12 credits provided to all the undergraduate programs. In addition, some additional language courses so called as English for Specific Purposes are offered in some faculties mainly focusing on content and vocabulary in that particular discipline. The most recent action of KKU is to promote the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) approach in many of the university programs. Regular professional development workshops were conducted mainly to train lecturers to implement CLIL approach in their instructional design and delivery processes (Luanganggoon et al., 2018).

The CLIL approach was introduced in English classes of Thailand since 2006 through the cooperation between Thailand Ministry of Education and British Council aiming to improve Thai educational outcomes (MacKenzie, 2008). This is because CLIL approach is able to meet the demands of Thailand context because it provides opportunities for the learners to expose to English communication in the classroom thus increasing their confidence of using English. Particularly, Thai university lecturers have to find a most effective teaching approach to assist their students to possess higher proficiency in their English language, sufficient knowledge in their subject matter, critical thinking, good communicative skills, and intercultural competency skills besides encouraging students to use English as a medium of communication (Suwannoppharat & Chinokul, 2015).

Conceptualization of the Study

Researcher utilized CLIL approach and 4Cs framework by Coyle, Hood and Marsh's (2010) as well as Taxonomy of Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) to conceptualize the study.

CLIL approach

The CLIL approach is a dual-focused educational approach adopted from MacKenzie's (2008) study in which an additional language is used for the teaching and learning of both content and language. This means that the teaching and learning process is not only focus on content but also on language. Therefore, CLIL model is considered as an innovation blending of both language and content of that particular subject. In this case, English language was used as the medium of instruction instead of Thai language which is generally considered as the domestic language. Besides, this study was conceptualized according to Hood's (2005) four potential approaches emerging in the United Kingdom from an analysis of case studies as below.

Surface cross-curricular linking (MFL Approach: Modern Foreign Languages)

Both language and subject lecturers are participated in lesson planning together across a curricular project.

Integrating language and recycling/deepening content

Topic or syllabus of the subject are adapted in teaching the targeted language that is English language in order to explore the subject from different perspectives and at the same time students improve English language skills.

Integrating language and new content

An integrated way to re-conceptualize curriculum using CLIL model whereby the identical topics are studied by students from various countries using different languages then the results are compared among the participating countries.

Immersion (Content Approach)

Language lecturers develop a more content type approach to a theme. This may include taking a typical topic and carrying out a comparative study between two different countries such as a non-English speaking eastern country and an English-speaking western country.

The 4Cs Framework

The 4Cs Framework integrates four contextualized building block namely (i) content (subject matter); (ii) communication (language learning and using); (iii) cognition (learning and thinking processes), and (iv) culture (developing intercultural understanding and global citizenship). By doing so, it takes into account of integrating content learning and language learning within specific contexts and acknowledging the symbiotic relationship that exists between these elements. In addition, Coyle et al. (2010) suggest that effective CLIL takes place as a result of this symbiosis through:

- Progression in knowledge, skills and understanding of the content;
- Engagement in associated cognitive processing;
- Interaction in the communicative contexts;
- Development of appropriate language knowledge and skills;
- The acquisition of deepening intercultural awareness, which in turn bringing about the self and 'otherness' position.

Context

Culture   Culture

Content   Communication

Context   Context

Cognition

Culture

Context
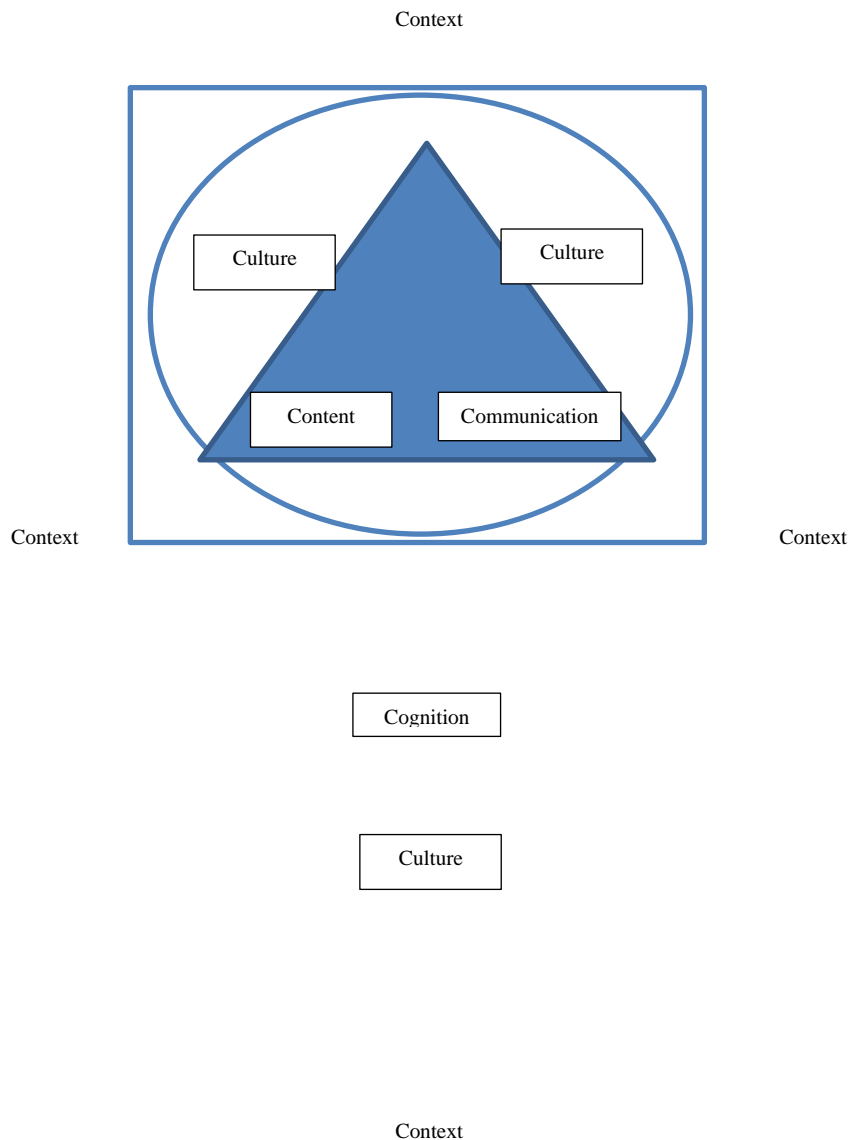
Fig. 1 The 4Cs Framework

Taxonomy of Anderson and Krathwohl

Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) published an updated version of Bloom's taxonomy by adding a 'knowledge' dimension to Bloom's 'cognitive process' dimension. This transparent connection of thinking process to knowledge construction resonates with conceptualizing content learning in the CLIL setting. The cognitive process dimension consists of lower-order thinking (remembering, understanding and applying) and higher order thinking (analyzing, evaluating and creating), both of which are integral to effective learning. The knowledge dimension provides a framework to explore the demands of different types of knowledge that is conceptual, procedural and metacognitive (Coyle et al., 2010: 30).

To conclude the above concepts in CLIL settings, students have to progress systematically in both language and content learning and usage, as argued previously. Both learning processes are equally important namely 'using language to learn' and 'learning to use language', these requirements are indicated in the following as language of learning, language for learning, and language through learning.

Language of learning

Language of learning refers to an analysis of language needed for students to access the basic concepts and skills that related to the topic or theme of a subject. For example, new knowledge of keywords or phrases will help students to deal with the related content. Meanwhile, lecturers should consider simultaneously in what way the students will need to use them to learn.

Language for learning

Language for learning focuses on the type of language needed to operate in a foreign language environment. Learning to use English language is challenging for lecturers and students as both parties have to play their roles. Students need the strategies to enable them to use English language effectively such as writing a research project report and presenting their research findings.

Language through learning

Language through learning means the principle that effective learning may not take place without active involvement of language and thinking. While students are encouraged to convey their understanding, a deeper level of learning is expected to occur. On the other hand, lecturers are challenged on how to capitalize on, recycle, and extend new language or so called as language progression. For example, students need language to express their new ideas and data from their group discussion outputs. Nevertheless, students need dictionary skills to read some academic articles and review the past research literatures when they are doing their research. This is supported by Coyle et al. (2010: 35-37) who emphasized that CLIL model demands a higher level of interaction and dialogue activity which is totally difference from the traditional language or content instructional approach.

Literature Reviews

Alcaraz-Mármaol's (2018) carried out a survey in bilingual education in Spain. Alcaraz-Mármaol found that those participants who have received specific methodological CLIL

training makes significant differences in terms of the teachers' opinions on CLIL and practice of using bilingual practices in their classrooms, making use of a wider variety of activities and resources. Differences were also found in the way they see their own teaching, their use of their learning content, materials in the classroom, and the variety and type of activities they develop with their students.

Graham, Choi, Davoodi, Razmeh, and Dixon (2018) indicated that language teachers are shifting to content-based instruction as a way to teach English, most commonly in the form of CLIL or English-medium instruction. Graham et al. used a systematic literature review approach to examine the current literature on the effect of content-based instruction on language and content outcomes. Their results showed that majority of the 25 examined articles indicating positive or neutral effects of CLIL approach of content-based instruction on student outcomes when compared with non-CLIL classrooms.

Luanganggoon (2017) examined on how authentic assessment techniques utilizing CLIL approach in a Thailand public university. There were 25 lecturers who attended the CLIL professional training and their course syllabuses were evaluated using content analysis. The Pharmaceutical Practice II course was selected for further investigation. Data was collected through classroom observation. Results of her study showed that the lecturers not only focused on the content learning but also on language learning. Besides, Luanganggoon found that the lecturers use multiple forms of assessment that reflecting student learning achievement, motivation, and attitudes on instructional relevant activities. The authentic assessment was designed to blend language and content learning as the overall students' learning process. The interactions between lecturer and students, students and judge, and among students were found to be very good. Luanganggoon concluded that lecturers should blend the classroom activities and assessment in CLIL classroom.

Luanganggoon et al. (2018) investigated the implementation of the CLIL approach focusing on the speaking skills in a purposely selected single graduate class in Biochemistry classroom. Their results showed that speaking skills of the students are improved after attending the instructions using CLIL approach. The key success factors are including well-designed classroom activities, moderate class size, and special attention to assessment. Luanganggoon et al. concluded that lecturers should be aware of the limitation of students' language proficiencies, classroom context and culture while implementing CLIL approach for language development.

Pérez-Vidal and Roquet (2015) utilized pre-test versus post-test longitudinal design to study two groups of bilingual Catalan/Spanish participants and English is their third language. The total number of each group is 50. The experimental group had formal instruction plus CLIL approach in the Science subject while the control group only had formal instruction. Results of their study confirmed that larger relative gains are possessed by the experimental group but not all the domains showed the same degree; relative higher gains accrue in reading not listening. Similarly, their writing ability particularly in term of accuracy, showed a higher relative gain and so do their lexico-grammatical abilities. In sum, reading and grammar aspects seemed to be mostly benefited using CLIL approach.

Research Aim

Based on the literature reviews above, researchers would like to analyze the application of CLIL model in university courses which using English as a medium of instruction. There is no suspicion that learning a language and learning through a language are coexisting processes, but implementing CLIL requires a reconsideration of the traditional concepts of the language classroom and the language lecturer. Therefore, main aim of this research was to conduct a comparative study of the CLIL practices between undergraduate and post-graduate classrooms in a public university (KKU), at Khon Kaen province, Thailand

Method

The preliminary study was conducted utilizing a document analysis to review and evaluate the 25 course syllabus to select courses to investigate their CLIL practices for the actual study. These two courses were selected based on the condition of volunteering as the purpose of selection and classroom observation was the method of data collection. This may be followed by interviewing the lecturers if the observation data is ambiguous.

A total of 38 undergraduate students from the Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences were purposively selected and represented undergraduate group. Classroom observation was employed to collect qualitative data. The classroom activities composed of two parts namely lecturing and game-based activities. A teaching team comprised of a professor and three mentors were involved. Research instrument used was an observation form composed of three sections: Language of learning, Language for learning, and Language through learning.

Meanwhile 15 post-graduate students who were taking Seminar on Biochemistry course and they represented graduate group. Teaching team of graduate group composed of 10 Thai

lecturers and one foreigner as an expert. Each student was assigned to prepare and present two papers orally. The expert would help in editing their papers. The audience had to ask at least two questions in each presentation.

Research design and samples

The methodological approach consisted of three phases to outline the strategy namely documentary study, classroom observation, and interviews if there were needed. Qualitative research design, specifically multiple case studies (Yin, 1994), was employed. Data were collected through three methods namely document analysis, classroom observations, and in-depth interview. All the lecturers who had voluntarily participated in the initial professional development program on CLIL from year 2015 to 2016 were having the same opportunities to be selected as the samples of the study. The 25 selected lecturers submitted their course syllabus and a rubric based on 4Cs framework (Coyle et al., 2010) was used to collect data according to the Content (subject matter), Communication (language learning and usage), Cognition (learning and thinking processes), and Culture (developing intercultural understand and global citizenship).

Document analysis was used in this study as a form of qualitative method in which the documents were interpreted by researcher to give voice and meaning around the preparation of CLIL in course syllabus and the related theories. Analyzing documents incorporates coding content into themes were analyzed (Administration methods, 2010). A rubric was used to score the documents. There were two primary types of documents used in this phase:

i. Theory-based documents about CLIL model were selected from textbook, scientific academic journal manuscripts in relation to CLIL approach.
ii. Physical evidences including the 25 course syllabus which were taught using CLIL model and categorized as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Course syllabus taught by using CLIL model

Categories (N)	Faculty	Name of courses
Sciences (3)	Faculty of Science	Dissertation Seminar on Biochemistry
		Quantity Theory and Application
		Biology of Amphibians

Health Sciences (6)	Faculty of Veterinary	Veterinary Micro-anatomy and Physiology 1
	Faculty of Public Health	Application of Epidemiology in Health Education and Health Promotion
	Faculty of Pharmacy	Pharmaceutical Practice
		Pharmaceutical Practice 3
		Pharmaceutical Practice 2
		Pharmaceutical Chemistry
Social Sciences (16)	Faculty of Education	Introduction to Listening and Academic Speaking 2
	International College	English for Communication in Multicultural Societies
		Academic English
		University Study Skills in English
		Mathematics 1
		Aesthetics for Life
		Wellness Dimension
		Information Literacy
		Human Relations & Communications
		Global Business Management
		Introduction to Sociology
		Academic Year: First Term
		International organizations
		International Law
		International Communication Arts for Tourism
	Graduate College of Management	Human resource Economics

The second phase is the classroom observation. Operational constructivism in the classroom was observed in order to view the learning process of CLIL teaching practices. As this point of operational constructivism, methodological sight was displaced from consideration on how the lecturers can be observed and thus what rules of procedure have to be applied to generate scientific recognition to analytical strategies of how the research process makes it possible to observe the learning process can point towards a number of CLIL instructional practices. This is done by an explicit description of themes for observation that also is used for the interpretation of observations. Classroom observations were conducted to two classes from the two groups, namely undergraduate and post-graduate groups as indicated in Table 2. Then three cycles of classroom observation were planned to find out how the lecturers implemented CLIL teaching model.

Classroom observation generally provides a limited view of the classroom situation because it only shows one aspect of a much larger picture. As a result, researcher will interview the related lecturers immediately after the lesson if there is a need. Researcher discussed further on the collected observation data using non-evaluative and non-judgmental method.

Table 2 Classroom observation

Categories	Course name	No of learners
Sciences	Dissertation Seminar on Biochemistry	15 graduate students
Health Sciences	Pharmaceutical Practice 2	38 undergraduate students

Data collection techniques

Document Analysis

KKU emphasized the outcome-based design across the current curricula or program which requires the learning objectives that must be identified with learning activities, materials, and assessment. The course syllabus was analyzed according to the domain of learning from TQF: Higher Education and, in particular focusing on the 4C Framework consisting of *Content, Communication, Cognition,* and *Culture*. The rubric based on 4Cs framework (Coyle et al., 2010) was used to analyze the data.

Classroom Observation

The classroom observations had been carried out for three cycles of each class from March to May in 2016. The framework of observation was included three major components as Language of Learning, Language for Learning, and Language through learning. Meanwhile, in-depth interviews would be carried out with the related lecturers for clarification purpose.

Data analysis

Content analysis was utilized in this study to analyze all the obtained qualitative data. In the Phase 1, content analysis was used to study and retrieve meaningful information from documents which including written texts. In Phase 2 and 3, content analysis was used to study the oral text provided either from classroom observation or interviews.

Content analysis is a research tool used to determine the presence of certain words or concepts within texts and sets of texts. Researcher quantifies and analyses the presence, meanings and relationships of such words and concepts, then make inferences about the messages within the texts. Firstly, the researcher would transcribe all the data collected from the document analysis; field notes, classroom observation rubric and checklist, and interviews to get a general sense of the whole and ideas presented. To conduct a data analysis on such text, the text is coded, or broken down, into manageable categories on a variety of levels, i.e. word, word sense, phrase, sentence, or theme, and then interpreting the meaning of themes/descriptions (Creswell and Creswell, 2018).

Findings

Preparation of CLIL in course syllabus

The preparation of CLIL course syllabus would be presented in four aspects namely learning outcomes, classroom activities, teaching materials, and assessment. Outcome-based curriculum is the current practice in this public university according to TQF: HEd. Therefore lecturers have to design the learning activities, materials and assessment based on the identified learning objectives, which in turn rely on learning outcomes in domain of learning as required in TQF: HEd. In order to analyze the learning objectives of each course, researcher used both domain of learning (Ethical and moral development, knowledge, cognitive skills, interpersonal skill and responsibility, and analytical and communication skills) of TQF and 4Cs framework (content, communication, cognition, and culture) of CLIL.

Findings of classroom observations

A total of three cycles of classroom observation were conducted to each undergraduate and post-graduate classroom respectively. The implementation of CLIL approach was justified from the integration of content and language and can be accessed from the learning outcomes, classroom activities, and assessment. Therefore, the classroom observation findings of this comparative study were presented in accordance with learning objectives, classroom activities, and diverse uses of language. The diverse uses of language were examined in three aspects, namely Language of learning, Language for learning, and Language through learning.

Learning objectives

The findings of learning objectives for undergraduate students showed that lecturers focused on content, cognition, and communication equally. The undergraduate students were expected to:

a) Explain the meaning of Anxiety disorder…

b) Explain the treat of…

c) Plan for tapering of Benzadiazepine…

d) Explain about sleep hygiene…

e) Comparison of anti-anxiety and hypotics…

On the other hand, findings of learning objectives for post-graduate revealed that lecturers were mostly focused on content and cognition rather than communication. Even if the vocabularies and patterns of language were provided but the opportunities for the students to practice their communication skills were very limited. However, there were a few learning objectives were focusing explicitly on communication such as:

> *The aims of this course are to enable students to apply research principles and design a concept paper on biochemistry.*

Classroom Activities

The teaching topic for undergraduate classroom was 'Anxiety disorders and insomnia'. The lecturer provided a lecture then followed by the game activities. English language was used primarily to conduct classroom activities for instructional purposes and more often for management than for feedback purposes. In brief, findings from the direct observation showed

that content and language were equally and dominantly used for all learning objectives, this seeming to reflect the reality of authentic CLIL classroom.

The teaching topic for post-graduate students was 'Seminar on Biochemistry'. The findings indicated that post-graduate classroom activities generally consisted of lectures, group discussion, laboratory, research-based learning, presentations and critique, and seminars. There were some examples where the lecturers specifically integrated content and language in their teaching. For example, students had to take turns in preparing and presenting their research manuscripts. A visiting professor and the course lecturers would edit their manuscripts and comment on their presentations.

Diverse uses of language

Findings from the classroom observation in terms of diverse uses of language indicated that the CLIL approach were evaluated in three aspects, which were *language of learning, language for learning, and language through learning* as follows

(i) Language of learning

Language of learning theme encompasses 'key vocabulary/phrase' and 'language of describing or defining'. Findings of the undergraduate classroom indicated that authentic learning and assessment in key vocabulary/phrase as such:

a)   The lecturer used power point presentation as a media of instruction.

b)   The lecturer explained the definition of each word and gave the related examples.

c)   The lecturer highlighted key words then used questions and answers to check the learners' understanding.

d)   The lecturer used word comparison in order to clarify the meaning of the word.

e)   The lecturer used Diagram or Table to check the learners' understanding.

For example:

The lecturer explained about five types of anxiety

a)   GAD (General Anxiety Disorder)

b)   PD (Panic Disorder) - *The lecturer explained the meaning of panic, "Panic is the feeling of fear of something."*

c)   SAD (Social Anxiety Disorder)

d)   OCD (Obsessive Compulsive Disorder) - *OCD is "something do something again and again like locking the door."*

e) PTSD (Post Traumatic Stress Disorder) - *Traumatic means mind, physical. PTSD means cannot separate the real lives from the experience, like the soldiers who were back from the war.*

Findings revealed that authentic learning and assessment in language of describing or defining the vocabulary as follow:

a) The lecturer marked the circle round the important vocabulary on the slide and explained.

b) The lecturer used Diagram to explain the process of…something…

Longterm Tx of GAD

Lecturer: You've learned from lecturer Supinya. How many weeks you have to wait for…?

Students: 2 to 4 weeks

c) The lecturer gave the information in the Table as the situation then the students had to make the decision under that situation.

"The research findings showed that the effect of using sleeping pill may cause attempted suicide in patients."

On the other hand, findings from post-graduate classroom revealed that students explained the operational definition by focusing on the language of describing and discussing phrases during their presentation. For example, students started their introduction sentence in this way:

"Today, I would like to present the content which composed of Introduction, Hypothesis, Conceptual Framework and Conclusion."

Moreover, some students chose several different ways to begin their presentation, for example:

"I am going to talk about…."

"I'd like to talk about…"

"The main focus of my presentation is…"

Findings also found that students were shown different ways to order their presentation, for example, the students used:

"Next, I would like to…"

"I will show the evidence that…"

"Moreover, they take a …"

"So…"

"Then we go to analyze…"

In addition, students were found able to do transition to order their ideas such as:

"First of all…"

"Then…"

"Secondly…"

"Lastly…"

"To sum up…"

Findings also revealed that the students still mixed between present tense and past tense in their presentation reflecting their weaknesses in terms of grammatical progression. Noticeably, one of the major weak points of Thai students is to pronounce ending sound. Students were not aware of the mistake in using tenses.

    (ii)   Language for learning

Language for learning aspect composed of 'asking and answering question evidence'. Findings from undergraduate classroom indicated that authentic learning and assessment in asking and answering question evidence are found as below:

a) The lecturer posed questions then encouraged the learners to answer orally.

b) The lecturer designed the assignment that students needed to fill in the form.

What's the differences between

'Advice means give advice'

'Counselling means try to find individual problem and you fix it'

Buspirone Therapy

BZP discontinuation

What's the difference between rebound and recurrent

Rebound means the patient has the symptom more than last time

Recurrent means the patient has the symptom many times

Findings from post-graduate classroom indicated that students were able to use language for asking and answering questions or inviting for further clarification to provide evidence during their interaction in the group activity. For example, the following questions were found rather commonly used by lecturers and/or students:

"Could you please explain…?"

"My question is…?"

"What does it mean…?"

In this context, the researcher noted that there are some differences between how such requests were used by the lecturers and students. A native speaker, or a well-verse speaker, both in English and Thai languages, would use indirect requests with a tone of voice that shows respect to the person being addressed. In contrast to the lecturers' perception on students' requests that sometimes were more direct, and what could be at that point had been misinterpreted as abrupt commands. It is worthy to note that such practices were modeled by the lecturers' speech but not directly discussed in classes.

(iii)   Language through language

Language through learning aspect covers 'using feedback', 'dictionary skills', 'extending presentation skills', 'presenting evidence' or 'recycling discussion'. Findings from undergraduate classroom revealed that lecturers used almost every element through game-based activities. This indicates that authentic learning and assessment in using game-based activities as follow:

a) Learners were divided into 4 to 5 learners per group. As it was a computer-based, each group had to go to Socrative.com Room pcothers2. Each group had to fill their responses into the computer program. Then presenting their responses to the class. (*Dictionary skills, extending presentation skills, presenting evidence).*

b) The lecturer invited another three more mentors to give the score (*Using feedback*).

c) The lecturer provided the Situational Analysis Task so that the learners had to use their critical thinking skills during their group discussion (*Recycling discussion*).

d)The lecturer explained the Scoring Criteria and how to fill the response in the computer (amount of ml. per dose, number of times per day, number of days per week).

e)There was a time keeper bell.

The given situation:

There is a patient with Insomnia come to see the pharmacist.

As the pharmacist, how could you diagnose and make a decision.

- *Photo of drugs*

- *Sleep cycle*

- *Types of Insomnia: Onset insomnia, maintenance insomnia, terminal maintenance insomnia, and non-restorative.*

- *Calculate by divide 7 days per week, divide 3 meals per day.*

Findings from post-graduate classroom showed that the teaching team gave systematic reflection and evaluation on students' content knowledge, presentation, and responses to comments and questions which were reflected in their seminar evaluation form. Comments and suggestions were provided to the students for further study. There was a rubric scoring used by the teaching team to evaluate their students' papers and presentations. Thus, the students learned from the provided feedback and learned to present better in the future. The students learned the vocabularies used in the presentations, from which might be inferred that the students used dictionary or had dictionary skills.

In addition, the coordinator of this teaching process acted as a moderator to help students' presentation skills and be able to present evidence as well. It was their thesis advisors' responsibilities to correct the content of the presenting paper. Each student had to present the literature reviews and progress report. After the students submitted the abstract on a week before, the expert who is a visiting professor would edit the manuscript and the advisor commented on the content if any. Then, the students had to practice their presentation with their advisor. There were at least two students would be the audiences who prepared questions to ask about the presentation in each presentation period. This was designed to recycling discussion purpose.

Assessment

Assessment in CLIL context needs to reflect both content and language development of students. This was reflected in the classroom observation. The lecturers used many techniques to assess the undergraduate students learning through the five learning objectives which were;

- Explain the meaning of Anxiety disorder…

- Explain the treat of…

- Plan for tapering of Benzadiazepine…

- Explain about sleep hygiene…

- Comparison of anti-anxiety and hypotics…

He mostly used the assignment during the classroom activities. To fill in the form after reading the given data. To response the lecturers' questions. To response in the computer-based assessment which were evaluated by the judge.

At the same time, to assess the students' Oral presentation for the Seminar Course, the course team designed the evaluation form. The form provides a 60:40 proportion between 'assessment for learning' and 'assessment of learning'. In other words, the lecturers gave priority to the learning process rather than learning output. Focusing on the learning objective, it was recognized that assessments were highly emphasized on applications of higher order thinking such as applying, analyzing, evaluating and creating rather than lower order thinking including remembering and understanding only. Even though the speaking and listening skills assessments were restricted by the nature of each course and the class size, in this case, speaking and listening skills were explicitly assessed.

Summary of the Findings

Results revealed that both classes were different in term of 'Language of Learning' while they were learning vocabularies related to the content of lessons. Undergraduate students learned important vocabularies through classroom activities such as lecturing, clarifying the meaning with examples, and having quiz to ensure their understanding. On the other hand, post-graduate students learned vocabularies through their presentation and explanation to questions raised from audience for clarification.

However, both classes showed a similarity in term of 'Language for Learning'. Results indicated that both classes were not taught the language structure directly and expected students to learn by themselves. The 'Language through Learning' was focused on the correctness of the content. Finally, assessment results showed that students' understanding about the content and they can think critically due to their improvement in language competencies. The activities that concerning 'Language through Learning' include 'using feedback', 'dictionary skills', extending presentation skills', 'presenting evidence' or 'recycling discussion' are found to be helpful in order to improve English language competencies.

Discussion and Conclusion

The aim of this study was to conduct a comparative study of the CLIL practices between undergraduate and graduate classrooms. It was found that the key success factors in implementing CLIL including well-designed classroom activities, the class size, and the assessment method. These factors were in line with Chostelidou and Griva (2014) findings. Chostelidou and Griva found that both groups of students were positively oriented towards English given its instrumental value at the pre-intervention. The process in developing the draft before the presentation was very important as it needed supports from the course team or external expert. Post-graduate students showed a more positive attitude towards the CLIL approach, which considered both content and language goals and aimed at a full integration of learning both language and the subject-specific content of the lessons. Such intensive use of the language of instruction in university of Thailand can be regarded as having been very effective for the development of the students' understanding the content of lessons. Moreover, it should be noted that CLIL approach to be more efficient in terms of promoting the students' comprehension abilities rather than their production abilities in both undergraduate and post-graduate classrooms.

In addition, Luanganggoon et al's (2018) found that this CLIL approach is able to focus more on research-based learning, critique and presenting in seminar course. However, the opportunity to practice individual communicative skills was found very limited even though the vocabularies and patterns of language were provided to the students. This is because of majority of Thai higher education students still possess low English language communicative capabilities. This implies that lecturers should create more learning objectives relating to communication in the future. Consequently, lecturers also need to take into consideration about students' language background, classroom context and culture.

In conclusion, students not only challenged to think critically and engage the material dialogically but they themselves were challenged by both the language and their ability to communicate effectively through CLIL approach. CLIL approach is not about the transfer of knowledge from lecturers to students but also allow students to construct their own understanding on the content of lesson. From the findings, researcher concludes that lecturers adapted their teaching style to negotiate their students' language capability is the major concern.

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Acknowledgements

Using English as a Medium of Instruction in a Saudi University: Experiences and Implications

Abdulaziz Alfehaid

Abstract

This study investigated the issue of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in the Preparatory Year Program, Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University, Saudi Arabia. It was meant to explore particularly the experiences of students and instructors concerning this instructional methodology. A mixed method approach consisting of a combination of questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and classroom observations, was employed to gather the empirical data. The collection of this data was obtained at two separate time periods that took place during the first and second semesters of the academic year 2017-2018. The findings suggest that both students and instructors had a favorable attitude towards EMI, both in terms of ability and use. Students self-reported an overall improvement to their linguistic skills and more particularly receptive skills. Yet, the study found that despite this claim, students had to contend with language-related challenges that impacted negatively on their disciplinary learning. In a number of instances, the relatively inadequate language competence of some instructors, with its knock-on-effect on their teaching practice, were also to blame for the difficulties faced by students during their learning process. The study concludes with some classroom implications and suggestions for further avenues for research.

Keywords: English medium instruction, experiences, challenges, students, instructors

Introduction

One of the salient manifestations of globalization is the rapid widespread use of English as a medium of instruction (henceforth EMI) in a diversity of educational settings. The move to embrace EMI, as a methodological approach to teaching disciplinary content, has witnessed an unprecedented evolution in recent decades across various regions in the world. Even though the use of this instructional language spread to all educational cycles, one must admit that it is within the tertiary sector, or higher education, that the bulk of this expansion has occurred. European universities were by far the pioneer institutions to have adopted and implemented

EMI policy. Evidently, the continent has, with varying degrees, witnessed considerable growth in terms English medium programs; a process that has come to be recurrently branded as the internationalization of higher education. Outside the European geographical context, EMI has also known significant development, particularly in diverse regions in Asia. Amongst the countries that have known a relatively rapid development is the Arabian Gulf region, including Saudi Arabia. With the teaching of English made a mandatory subject in all Saudi higher education establishments, its use as an instructional medium for teaching subject content has also expanded. Within the framework of higher education, this policy commitment for 'Englishization' has encompassed various programs of tertiary education, including the preparatory year program.

In the case of the preparatory year program at Imam Abdulrahman Bin Faisal University (henceforth IAU), EMI was partially implemented across the Health (I and II), Science and Engineering Tracks. Then it was extended to cover the entire subjects taught in these tracks, such as Research and Learning Skills and Communication Skills. In view of that, it is opportune to take stock of this experience in order to highlight not only the possible opportunities engendered but, by the same token, the challenging issues encountered by stakeholders, students and instructors. In many other similar contexts, issues related to the teaching quality of the EMI program and the learning barriers are regularly investigated, and thus understanding the key players' perspectives of the EMI courses, in particular, would contribute to the enhancement of the teaching practices and effectiveness of EMI (Huang, 2015). Therefore, the present empirical study deals with students' and instructors' respective EMI experiences in the preparatory year program.[1] It is fundamentally an exploratory research whose primary aim is to gain insights into the practice of learning and teaching through this instructional methodology. Given its exploratory nature, this type of research is commonly intended to uncover the nature of the problem and provide a better appreciation of it.

Literature Review

Before surveying the relevant literature, this section attempts to convey a definition of EMI— as an approach to teaching and learning in English as the medium of instruction—along with its distinctive attributes in comparison to other types of pedagogical approaches, such as content and language integrated learning (CLIL) and content-based instruction (CBI). This is

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[1] The expression 'instructor' is used in this study as a neutral one, and applies to all members of staff who are using English as an instructional medium for teaching science subjects.

followed by a discussion of the relevant literature by reviewing a number of studies focused on students' and/or instructors' perceptions of their respective EMI experiences in a range of higher education contexts.

Defining EMI

The phenomenal spread of English, as a 'global language', concurred with a range of approaches to language teaching and learning. Evidently, it is not the remit of this study to provide a comprehensive account of the different approaches and the debate surrounding them, but merely an attempt to shed some light on EMI by identifying a number of its characteristics in comparison with other approaches to education, notably CLIL and CBI. As pointed out by Brown and Bradford (2017, p. 328), 'a shared understanding of the sometimes-overlapping goals and outcomes of each approach has yet to emerge, and universally agreed-upon definitions of the terms EMI, CLIL, and CBI have not been adopted by educational stakeholders. In a more-or-less similar vein, Aguilar (2017, p. 723) maintains that 'More often than not, CLIL and EMI are used indistinctively to describe HE [Higher Education] learning settings, wrongly assuming that it is only a question of diffuse labeling'. On the whole, it is clear that there is an abundance of descriptions and definitions which, in large measure, reveals the existence of blurring boundaries between these approaches. Also depending on considerations such as pedagogical needs and contexts, these approaches can serve as umbrella terms for diverse variants.

One of the most recent working definitions in the literature considers EMI as 'The use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions in which the majority of the population's first language is not English' (Dearden, 2014, p. 4). As an instructional approach, EMI, with its focus predominantly on content learning, differs from CLIL which tends to focus on learning content and language together. Coined by Marsh (2002, p. 2), CLIL 'refers to situations where subjects, or parts of subjects, are taught through a foreign language with dual-focused aims, namely the learning of content and the simultaneous learning of a foreign language'. EMI is essentially about teaching academic subjects using the medium of the English language in a context where there are no explicit language learning aims and where English is not the national language (Madhavan & McDonald, 2014). It is worth noting that even though teaching via CLIL is supposed to be in any foreign language—and not necessarily only English per se—the reality has hitherto proved that the prevalence of English is overwhelming, leading Dalton-Puffer (2011) to advocate CEIL (content-and-English

integrated learning) instead of CLIL. Moreover, CLIL is originally rooted in the 'European ideal of plurilingual competence for EU [European Union] citizens' whereas EMI does not have a 'specific contextual origin' (Dearden, 2014, p. 4).

The difference between EMI and CBI commonly lies in their primary focus, which is content and language respectively. A definition that is often cited refers to CBI as the 'concurrent teaching of an academic subject matter and second language skills' (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 2003, p. 2). Even though this dual emphasis is also found in CLIL, Brown and Bradford (2017) contend that a number of authors, who adopted this approach in defining CBI, have tended to marginalize the role of content learning by shifting their focus on language learning.[2] In this way, CBI disciplinary content serves as a medium to learn the target language, principally in EFL contexts. This is in comparison to EMI where English acts as a tool to subject matter acquisition. In a nutshell, EMI can be given a variety of labels, and its definition is subject to variations. Nonetheless, for the purpose of this study, an updated definition of EMI as put forward by Brown and Bradford (2017) is adopted:

> EMI entails the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in countries or jurisdictions where the first language (L1) of the majority of the population is not English. It may or may not include the implicit aim of increasing students' English language abilities. (p. 330)

With respect to the case study under investigation, it is not explicitly asserted whether, by using English as a medium of teaching subject content, there is also an objective to ameliorate the students' command of the English language. Yet, it is argued that often EMI courses tend to equip students with academic skills, of which English is a part (Bradford, 2015). In other words, improving English linguistic skills is expected while disciplinary learning takes place. And this may plausibly be the case in relation to the students of the preparatory year program at the IAU where one of the institutional policy aims for delivering academic subjects in English in this EFL context is to enhance the students' language proficiency, that is 'two goals by one policy' (Shohamy, 2013, p. 201).

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[2] Brown and Bradford are alluding to researchers, such as Stryker and Leaver (1997).

EMI Research Literature

The rationale behind the introduction of EMI within the establishments of higher education is commonly associated with the perceived benefits of this instructional methodology to disciplinary learning and teaching. As referred to in the previous section, the driving forces for EMI growth tend to vary depending on the context. Yet, it is worth reiterating that there are also common factors, such as enhancing institutional ranking and global competitiveness, improving graduates' English proficiency and attractiveness in the global job market, and increasing income from fee-paying students, to name but a few (Dimova, Hultgren, & Jensen, 2015).

There is an important body of literature that has explored students' and instructors' perceptions of EMI. Carried out by the Centre for Research and Development in EMI at the University of Oxford, a recent systematic review of this research literature found that both students and instructors have, in the main, portrayed a positive attitude towards EMI (Macaro et al., 2018). In spite of that the relevant literature has reported mixed results. These reflected differing views on the effectiveness of EMI programs in improving students' English proficiency and the adequacy of students' and instructors' language ability for learning and teaching through English. As Byun et al. (2010) argued, 'The assumed premises of EMI are that the more exposure students get to English the better they will acquire the language, and yet they will learn the particular academic subject being taught at the same time' (p. 440). Hence, what follows is a brief survey of a number of these studies.

In her research survey on students' (n=203) perceptions of studying through the medium of English at Çukorova University in Turkey, Kirkgöz (2005) found that, besides their positive stance towards English for instrumental and integrative reasons, 'the vast majority of students assessed themselves as fair and good in all general and specific skill areas with the exception of speaking' (p. 117). Apart from this fairly positive self-assessment, the researcher reported students' main concern regarding 'the detrimental effects of learning subjects through another language such as a feeling of being distanced from their native language and culture' (p. 101). This concern about the risk of marginalizing the mother tongue was, to varying degrees, echoed in other similar studies, some of which related to the Arab world, including Saudi Arabia (see for instance, Al-Jarf, 2008; Al-Kahtany, Faruk, & Al-Zumor, 2016; Belhiah & Elhami, 2015).

The study by Karakaş (2014) on lecturers' (n=33) perceptions of EMI at three Turkish universities (Fatih University, Boğaziçi University, and Middle East Technical University) reported that almost all of them, that is 94 per cent (31 lecturers) rated their overall English competence as either 'good' or 'excellent'. The author asserted that 'Turkish lecturers ... felt capable of lecturing through EMI, without any obvious language-related obstruction' (p. 122). With regard to their perception of students' English language ability, Turkish instructors viewed the Non-Turkish students' English proficiency to be much better than that of the Turkish students. This self-perceived lack of proficiency in English may resonate with what Huang (2015) reported about the perspectives of local and foreign students (n=93 and n=64 respectively) at Southern Taiwan University of Science and Technology. She found that local students had 'higher learning anxiety, but lower motivation and achievement' (p. 77) whereas foreign students showed 'lower learning anxiety and higher self-confidence in EMI courses' (p. 75).

Employing a mixed methods approach, the study by Floris (2014) sought the views of both students (n=400) and teachers (n=13) regarding the use of EMI in a large private university in Indonesia. Like several other studies, her findings suggested that both of them acknowledged the importance of English in today's global world. However, many students admitted experiencing difficulties to understand the course material—and even teachers' explanation in certain instances—because of their low proficiency in English. The students' language level was, indeed, reported by teachers as being the main problem in their EMI classes. In their attempt to surmount this problem, a number of teachers admitted 'they would code switch [between English and Indonesian] frequently in order to facilitate their students' understanding of the concepts' (p. 54).[3] While recognizing the need to improve their communication skills, the teachers felt linguistically proficient enough to teach their subjects, something which the researcher confirmed when assessing some aspects of their classroom performance (fluency and coherence, lexical resource, grammatical range and accuracy, and pronunciation). All in all, she observed that the 'teachers have sufficient competency and proficiency in English [and] had mastered the contents of their subjects' (p. 54).

In the United Arab Emirates, Belhiah and Elhami (2015) conducted a research on students' (n=500) and teachers' (n=100) perceptions about the effectiveness of using English to teach

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[3] Within the context of the current study, code-switching can be defined as a language practice involving alternation between two languages (English and Arabic) in a classroom interaction.

subject matter at six universities. Relying on survey questionnaires and structured interviews, the results obtained showed that EMI seems to be providing some advantages as the vast majority of students and teachers reported noticeable improvements in students' four skills of language learning. This was made clear by the researchers who averred that 'there is a general consensus among instructors that students' overall proficiency in English has improved thanks to instruction in the English medium' (p. 11). In spite of this apparent gain in linguistic abilities, students found it difficult to learn disciplinary subjects on account of their low English proficiency. As an alternative to this situation, 'a large majority of students and teachers were in favor of the use of Arabic conjointly with English for instructional purposes' (p. 20). The authors concluded by championing this predilection for bilingual education in which 'English neither displaces the mother-tongue nor poses a threat to national identity and heritage' (p. 21).

In Taiwan, Chang (2010) used a questionnaire and interviews to investigate students' (n=370) perceptions of EMI courses at a private university. The study looked at students' reactions to EMI programs and the impact these programs had on their academic performance and language proficiency. The students reported difficulties in understanding lectures; a fact they imputed to their English ability, principally their limited vocabulary. Even so the respondents showed favorable attitudes towards EMI courses, with most of them acknowledging that their English proficiency improved as a result. Such improvement was more perceptible in their receptive skills, notably their listening ability. All things considered, Chang's research endorsed the assumption that the teaching of disciplinary content through EMI provides opportunities for the development of English language skills.

There are also other studies which questioned the positive correlation between EMI learning and language proficiency. Chapple (2015), employing a mixed-method approach, investigated local and international students' (n=115) and some teachers' attitudes towards EMI courses at two private universities in Western Japan. Its main focus was on 'whether the growing trend to offer more classes in English in Japan really can lead to improvements in Japanese students' English skills' (p. 2). The study found that the principal reason behind Japanese students' (n=89) enrollment in EMI programs was to improve English ability. Yet, over a third of enrolled students dropped out of the courses more likely because of inadequate language ability. Like many other EMI taught courses in diverse contexts, this research revealed a lack of teachers 'willing and able to teach EMI classes effectively' (p. 6). Additionally, watering-down curricular content and simplifying assessments, with recurrent recourse to Japanese language, impacted on any linguistic gains to be made. The study stressed that 'the idea that

merely taking a content class taught in English will lead to substantial linguistic gains is dubious' (p. 4) and concluded by advocating greater language support activities. In their study, involving interviewing students (n=10) and teachers (n=4) at a Chinese university, Hu, li and Lei (2014) reported that 'language practices of the EMI teachers and EMI students were greatly constrained by their inadequate command of English for academic purposes' (pp. 35-35). To cope with this situation, students and teachers had recourse to different coping strategies, including reduced content learning and code-switching. The language difficulties experienced by both meant that opportunities for classroom interaction—obviously contributing to language learning—were practically not present within the EMI classroom discourse.

By and large, it is clear that the above studies—concerned with students' and instructors' perceptions of EMI and carried out in a variety of tertiary EFL environments across the world—underlined these key stakeholders' overall positive attitude towards EMI. However, they also pointed to the challenges encountered in EMI implementation, something that affected the teaching and learning process occurring through a non-native language. Most prominent of these challenges is the perceived low level of proficiency in English language affecting students, instructors or both. This linguistic inadequacy has had undesirable repercussions not only on students' learning experiences and academic achievement but also on instructors' teaching practice as well.

Saudi Context-Based Literature

In the context of higher education in Saudi Arabia, published research focused on students' and/or instructors' perceptions of EMI remains scarce. Among such few studies, one can cite Al-Jarf's study (2008) which investigated female college students' (n=470) views of the status of English and Arabic and attitudes towards using English and Arabic as a medium of instruction at the university level. Based on the use of open-ended interview questions, her study showed that 96 per cent of the participants considered English a superior language due to its global status, and 82 per cent believed Arabic is more appropriate for teaching social and human sciences. The research also highlighted the threat posed to Arabic by the dominant status of English in Saudi higher education sector.

Al-Kahtany et al. (2016) used a questionnaire-based survey to explore the attitude of students (n=702) and instructors (n=162)—from science disciplines at King Khalid University—towards English as a vehicle of instruction along with Arabic as an alternative. Their findings revealed considerable attitudinal differences between the two stakeholders, with students more

favorable to Arabic as a medium of instruction than their instructors who 'want English as the sole MOI [medium of instruction], and do not want to use Arabic even though they admit that it is difficult to communicate with students using English only' (p. 54). The authors contended that the 'natural proficiency in their mother tongue along with religious and emotional responses to it' (p. 55) might well explain the students' preference for Arabic as a medium of instruction. For the authors, the instructors' attitude was greatly affected by what they branded as the linguistic hegemony of English.

Employing a two-part questionnaire and involving female nursing students (n=78), Suliman and Tadros (2011) explored the strategies used by these students at the King Saud Bin Abdulaziz University College of Nursing to cope with English as a foreign language medium of instruction. Their small-scale study showed that nursing students resorted to a variety of strategies which changed over time as they coped with English. Yet, the study considers that the responsibility for coping with English, to avoid stress and frustration and facilitate meaningful learning in English rests with the collective efforts of the student, teacher and management.

The research by Shamin, Abdelhalim and Hamid (2016) may be the first to look into teachers' and learners' experiences and perceptions about the use of EMI in a PYP setting (Taibah University). Consisting of a small number of participants, teachers (n=7) and students (n=19), their study found that, for instrumental reasons, 'the majority of teachers and the higher proficiency level students in the PYP showed a positive attitude towards EMI' (p. 40). Nonetheless, the study pointed to the challenges faced when teaching-learning of science subjects, particularly the students' inadequate English language proficiency. In many instances, this compelled teachers to simplify learning content through the use of Arabic instead of English. Moreover, with curriculum content similar to the one studied in high school, learners were not gaining any new knowledge. Consequently, the research concludes that the strategies used to cope with those challenges adversely affected both 'the quality and amount of learning taking place in the PYP' (p. 43).

In fact, there is a paucity of research exploring the use of English to teach academic subjects in Saudi universities. In addition to this fact, the afore-mentioned studies suffer from some limitations affecting their respective findings. For instance, most of them involved small samples, consisting of a limited number of participants and relied on a single and/or a combination of two research methods for collecting data. Moreover, whilst they provide a

foundational understanding of learners' and instructors' perceptions of EMI, their findings are solely based on respondents' self-reported accounts. Thus, what distinguishes the present study from existing literature is its use of a large sample of participants composed of male and female students and instructors. This study also resorts to the use of mixed methods—often known as methodological triangulation (questionnaire, interview and observation)—to gain greater insight into the phenomena under scrutiny. Actually, there is a large consensus amid researchers that methodological triangulation has the potential to provide more comprehensive data and enhanced understanding of the issue(s) investigated.

It is fair to acknowledge that there is a dearth of research appraising the use of English to teach academic content in the context of Saudi universities. In view of that, this research is meant to fill a gap in the existing literature on EMI. Even though the research interest in EMI phenomenon is widespread and growing, it is, on the whole, deemed to be still in an adolescent stage (Macaro et al., 2018). More importantly, while these authors' recent systematic review has identified the rising research on student and/or instructor beliefs and attitudes towards EMI in the tertiary sector, it has similarly drawn the attention to the need for further investigation of whether these beliefs and attitudes change over time or over the course of a program of study (Macaro et al., 2018). It is precisely what the present study proposes to accomplish by investigating these issues over the course of one academic year. Moreover, what makes this study a timely one is the fact that there seems to be a broad consensus amid researchers about the need for further scholarship on this topic. Their argument is that there is an immense variety of EMI experiences (Doiz, Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2013), and each EMI context in each country is potentially different (Dearden, 2014). Bearing in mind these widely differing characteristics of EMI contexts, the idea of considering EMI as just one type is a monolithic fallacy (Knagg, 2014). In consequence, it is obviously this diversity of EMI experiences which provides the rationale for further academic investigation, including the present research. As far as the preparatory year programs in Saudi universities are concerned, Shamin et al. (2016) asserted that 'little is known about teachers and learners' perceptions and experience of teaching-learning of science subjects through EMI' (p. 37).

Last but not least, this research is undertaken in response to a call emanating from the Ministry of Higher Education, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (2014). Due to the polarized debate between proponents of EMI on the one hand and those advocating a return to mother tongue-based education on the other, this call recommended further academic investigation into the viability of each alternative.

Given the afore-mentioned considerations, this research seeks to explore students' and instructors' experiences of EMI in the preparatory year program at IAU. It sets out to address the following research questions:

1. What assessment can be made of students' experience of EMI?
   - How is students' linguistic ability perceived over the course of their learning practice?
   - What are the hindrances to students' disciplinary content learning and strategies employed to cope with them?
2. What evaluation can be made of disciplinary content instructors' experience of EMI?
   - How are their English proficiency and teaching practice perceived?
   - How do they view their students' English language competency?

Methodology

This section is concerned with introducing the methodological approach adopted in the conduct of this study. It starts with defining the target population and the criterion used to determine the study sample. This is followed by a depiction of the various instruments employed for the collection of research information along with data procedure analysis. Also, as a final point, ethical considerations related to the undertaking of this research are outlined.

Setting and Participants

The study population concerned by this research was composed of students and instructors within the preparatory year (IAU). First, all students and subject content instructors were selected to participate in the questionnaire-based surveys. Their number came to 3,202 students (1,514 males and 1,688 females) and 158 instructors (74 males and 84 females). The questionnaires were completed and returned by 646 students and 103 instructors, which comes down to response rates of roughly 20.2 per cent and 65.2 per cent respectively.

Second, a sample consisting of 120 participating students was chosen to take part in the interview. The approach used for the selection these participants was a purposive sampling based on criteria specific to the case under study. They were firstly selected on the basis of a key criterion which was the students' English language proficiency. This language level is determined following a pre-entry test which the students have to take before starting their course in the preparatory year. Table 1 presents the test results for the current academic year, 2017-2018. Another criterion used was to ensure that the students' sample involves male and

female participants from all tracks (Health, Nursing and Public Health, Science and Engineering).

Finally, with respect to instructors, 30 male and female members of staff were selected on the basis of the academic subjects (Biology, Chemistry, Communication Skills, Computer Skills, Mathematics and Statistics, Physics, and Research and Learning Skills) taught in each track of the preparatory year to participate in the interview. Also, 90 male and female instructors took part in the observation-based study. The English language level of the classroom and the disciplinary content taught in each track were the two criteria used for their selection.

Nearly all of the teaching staff (n=158) originated from countries where the first language is not English such as Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, and Tunisia. They had a teaching experience in higher education ranging from 2-30 years, with almost 84 per cent of them having between 2 to 15 years teaching experience in the tertiary sector. The majority (over 61 per cent) of these participating instructors had a doctoral level, and the overwhelming majority (almost 91 per cent) of them holding the academic rank of assistant-professor (n=82) and lecturer (n=61).

Table 1: Students' English levels at the start of preparatory year program (2017-2018)

Levels Tracks	Beginner		Intermediate		Advanced	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Health	77	0	155	161	248	154
Nursing and Public Health	76	0	98	120	0	41
Science	147	287	234	546	85	233
Engineering	111	36	192	39	88	73
Total (all Tracks)	411	323	679	866	421	501
Total (Male and Female)	734 (22.9%)		1545 (48.3%)		922 (28.8%)	

Source: calculations based on data provided by the Deanship of Preparatory Year and Supporting Studies, IAU.

Data Collection and Analysis

The data collection for this longitudinal study was obtained at two separate time periods that took place during the first and second semesters of the academic year 2017-2018. The empirical data was gathered through a combination of three research instruments: questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. Called methodological triangulation—at times referred to as mixed methods—this blended research design is known in the literature as 'a systematic approach to addressing research questions that involve collecting, analyzing and synthesizing both quantitative and qualitative data in a single research project' (Davidson, 2009, p. vi). Its main merit is that it enables to obtain more wide-ranging data and a much greater insight into the phenomenon under study.

It must be pointed out that before undertaking the present full-scale research, a pilot study was conducted on a small sample of the relevant population (students and instructors). In general, as explained by Van Teijlingen and Hundley (2001, p. 1), this type of study 'refers to mini versions of a full-scale study (also called 'feasibility' studies), as well as the specific pre-testing of a particular research instrument such as a questionnaire or interview schedule'. The pilot study that preceded this research was primarily carried out with a view to testing data collection instruments, particularly the questionnaires which were tested for validity and reliability. This process permitted to identify possible problem areas and limitations related to these instruments and provided the opportunity to make the necessary amendments. In this regard, it must be remembered that 'Conducting a pilot study does not guarantee success in the main study, but it does increase the likelihood' (Van Teijlingen & Hundley, 2001, p. 1).

The mixed design approach, opted for in this study, involved the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data. On the one hand, as far as the quantitative data is concerned, two five-point Likert-scale—*strongly disagree*, dis*agree*, *undecided*, *agree, strongly agree*—closed-ended questionnaires (in Arabic and English) were elaborated: one for students and the other one for instructors. Questionnaires are viewed as one of the key research instruments for finding out about people's thoughts, experience, and attitudes (Bulmer, 2004). For both groups of participants, each questionnaire comprised an initial section requesting some informational background from the respondents such as gender, study track, native language, English proficiency level, and the subject taught (for instructors); 15 statements (items) to measure the extent/degree of agreement/disagreement about learning-teaching experiences within EMI context; and an open-ended question provided at the end and intended to elicit additional

comments and suggestions in relation to these experiences from both groups of respondents. Once put into the QuestionPro survey program, these questionnaires were sent by email to students (n=3,202) and members of the teaching staff (n=158) in the different study tracks. The data gathered via these instruments was analyzed statistically with a view to determining averages and percentages.

On the other hand, the qualitative data was collected by means of semi-structured classroom observations and semi-structured interviews. As a research tool, observation 'takes place in natural settings to capture behavior as it occurs in the real world' (McKechnie, p. 573). Within the classroom setting, the observation process made it possible to get direct information about the teaching and learning practice that included, amongst other things, recording participants' behaviors and interactions, classroom atmosphere, and providing personal reflection. The second instrument used consisted of two interviews, one intended for students and the other for instructors. Edwards and Holland (2013) asserted that 'A key purpose of a qualitative interview broadly is to elicit the experiences, perceptions and feelings of the research participant/s' (p. 53). Put differently, interviews permitted to obtain in-depth answers from respondents to get a more profound understanding of the participants' own experiences and to probe into specific questions of research interest (Huang, 2015).

For purpose of analysis, the narrative data obtained from participants via observations and interviews was manually coded. The procedure followed is the one advocated by Creswell (2012). Initially, the text content was carefully and reflectively read through several times, that is a 'preliminary exploratory analysis'. This allowed to identify text segments and assign appropriate labels to them. Then, these labels/codes were reviewed to reduce instances of redundancy or overlapping. The codes emerging following this examination process were clustered to form broad themes for discussion.

Last but not least, this study relied on data collected from students and instructors through questionnaires, observations and interviews. With due regard to ethical issues when carrying out research, these participants were, prior to embarking on this study, made aware of its objective and given assurances that their contributions (responses) are used exclusively for research purposes and the production of a final report. As such they were notified that all information collected is kept confidential and their identity would remain anonymous—with access to information identifying them restricted to members of the research team only. In this regard, it has been contended that 'The essence of anonymity is that the information provided

by participants should in no way reveal their identity' (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 64).

Results and Discussion

The analysis that follows in this section is primarily based on the research findings gathered through questionnaire-based surveys, observations and interviews. It presents and discusses the data collected, concentrating on the main themes/issues uncovered following its examination. It is structured into two sub-sections which concentrate on students' and instructors' experiences of learning and teaching through EMI respectively. It is the case that these sub-sections contain instances of overlapping themes/issues.

Students' Experience

The students' demographic characteristics derived from the questionnaire-based survey data are illustrated in Table 2. Female students, with 66 per cent (n=426), represented the largest proportion of respondents, compared to male students with 34 per cent (n=220). The breakdown by academic track indicates that the largest percentage of participating students originated from Health (I and II) Track with 49 per cent (n=316), followed by the Science Track with 39 per cent (n=250). The Engineering Track accounted for only 12 per cent (n=80). With the exception of two students, all respondents (n=644) were native speakers of Arabic.

Table 2: Demographic profile of participating students (n=646)

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	220	34
	Female	426	66
English Level	Beginner	131	20
	Intermediate	313	48
	Advanced	202	31
Track	Health I	237	37
	Health II (Nursing and Public Health)	79	12
	Science	250	39

	Engineering	80	12
Native Language	Arabic	644	99.7
	Non-Arabic (English and Tagalog)	2	0.3

Source: Based on data derived from questionnaire for students.

In terms of linguistic competence, the quantitative data from the questionnaire-based survey reveals that out of 646 student respondents, 48 per cent (n=313) and 31 per cent (202) rated their level of ability in English as intermediate and advanced respectively (Table 2). The remaining 20 per cent of participants considered their English skills to be at a beginner level. In the same context, when asked whether they feel their English proficiency is not adequate enough to study science subjects (item 6), 51 per cent (n=332) of student respondents (55 per cent male, 50 per cent female) expressed their disagreement with this statement whereas 30 per cent (=191) agreed with it (Table 3).[4] Put differently, the majority of students believed to be sufficiently proficient in English to follow their course. Furthermore, when interviewed if their English language proficiency has improved after joining the preparatory year program, most of the students admitted that, during the course of the year, their English has improved in overall language skills in general and in receptive skills in particular. The majority of students (69 per cent, n=443)—that is 66 per cent male and 70 per cent female— considered that the delivery of science subjects in English has helped them improve their listening skills (item 5). This is predictable since, as Galloway (2017) indicated, 'Bigger gains have been reported in students' reading and listening proficiency, but this is unsurprising, seeing as EMI involves a lot of listening to lectures and reading texts' (para. 9).

As a matter of fact, it is interesting to highlight that the vast majority of students showed a positive attitude towards using English to acquire academic knowledge. This engagement with the English language, primarily for instrumental motives (needed in their field of study and future career), is more perceptible in the interview comments of students. To illustrate the level of satisfaction with EMI classes, a number of interview excerpts are mentioned below:[5]

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[4] Statistical data from Table 3 and cited in the text consists of merging points 1 and 2 (strongly disagree and disagree) and 4 and 5 (agree and strongly agree).

[5] All excerpts from interviews are italicized in this section (4) of the research.

Actually, I do not have a lot of experience of using English in studying because most of my subjects were in Arabic. However, I think that it will be better for me if I study my subjects in English.

I feel that it is better for me to study for my academic subjects in English as I will need that later in the job market.

It will help us a lot after we finish the preparatory year program.

When studying academic subjects in English, I feel more confident to express my knowledge and deal with formal situations. I also feel more prepared when I will make use of it in my future career.

The large picture is that respondents reported an overall improvement to their English language proficiency level as a result of being taught via English medium—this is concurrent with English language taken as a subject (additional language support). Clearly, in an EMI context, English serves as a vehicle through which content subject knowledge is delivered, and this would ideally enable students to develop their English language proficiency. In their most recent systematic review of EMI literature, Macaro et al. (2018) have come to the conclusion that, overwhelmingly, students reported insufficient levels of proficiency. Moreover, as Galloway (2017) pointed out, 'There is little research into EMI's impact on how much English students learn' (para. 7). With regard to this study, the extent to which there has been evidence of improvement in students' English proficiency is principally reliant on stakeholders' own evaluation. Also, the observation process, conducted at two separate periods of time, point to an amelioration in the students' English linguistic abilities as they have progressed in their preparatory year program. It is obvious that the level of English proficiency impacts on students' learning ability. And because of their language competency, students still have had to face certain challenges in the course of acquiring disciplinary content.

Disciplinary Learning Difficulties

In their learning practice, students claimed that there has been notable progress in relation to English use in their studies. What transpired from their interview comments during both phases, at least for a large number of them, is that their use of English language steadily increased as they progressed in their academic year. Also, as already mentioned above, the majority of students (51 per cent) also declared facing no problems in studying science subjects because of their English-language ability. However, this does not suggest that there were no issues

regarding what could be academically achieved by students while taught through the medium of English language. Even though not a prevailing tendency, the difficulties faced are aptly hinted at in a student interview comment, 'I know that studying science subjects in English is an important thing. Nevertheless, it is not fair that students are taught all subjects in Arabic at school and then in English at the university'. It is clear that these remarks reflect a state of apprehension the students, or at least a number of them, experience as they embark on their English-taught course during the preparatory year.

Table 3: Students' views of and reactions to EMI

Statements/Items *(To what extent do you agree with the following statements?)*	S. Disagree (1) N	(%)	Disagree (2) N	(%)	(1)+(2) N	(%)	Undecided (3) N	(%)	(4)+(5) N	(%)	Agree (4) N	(%)	S. Agree (5) N	(%)	Total N	(%)
1.I do not feel any anxiety when I speak English in science subjects classes	71	11	124	19	**195**	**30**	147	23	**304**	**47**	183	28	121	19	646	100
2.I rarely participate in class because of the fear of making mistakes in speaking English in front of my classmates	149	23	178	28	**327**	**51**	90	14	**229**	**35**	149	23	80	12	646	100
3. Sometimes I do not understand what teachers say in science subjects classes	111	17	190	29	**301**	**47**	98	15	**247**	**38**	175	27	72	11	646	100
4. I make notes in English easily during science subjects classes	73	11	109	17	**182**	**28**	129	20	**335**	**52**	218	34	117	18	646	100
5.My listening skills have improved because all science subjects' classes are delivered in English	31	5	57	9	**88**	**14**	115	18	**443**	**69**	245	38	198	31	646	100
6.I feel that my English language is not good enough to study science subjects	148	23	184	28	**332**	**51**	123	19	**191**	**30**	106	16	85	13	646	100
7. I ask my friends to explain what I do not understand about what the teachers say during science subjects classes	94	15	133	21	**227**	**35**	85	13	**334**	**52**	233	36	101	16	646	100
8.Teachers of science subjects re-explain if students do not understand	13	2	18	3	**31**	**5**	61	9	**554**	**86**	293	45	261	40	646	100
9. I need to translate many words into my mother tongue to understand the lectures lessons at science subjects	90	14	180	28	**270**	**42**	87	13	**289**	**45**	133	21	156	24	646	100
10. The teacher does not explain in English in science subjects classes	198	31	272	42	**470**	**73**	101	16	**75**	**12**	56	9	19	3	646	100
11.I have difficulties in following up the teacher when he/she speaks English in science subjects classes	160	25	216	33	**376**	**58**	125	19	**145**	**22**	87	13	58	9	646	100
12. Teachers of science subjects spend a lot of time explaining vocabulary	105	16	283	44	**388**	**60**	160	25	**98**	**15**	76	12	22	3	646	100
13.I try to guess the meanings of words from the context without translating them into my mother tongue in science subjects classes	26	4	54	8	**80**	**12**	107	17	**459**	**71**	342	53	117	18	646	100
14.The subject content teachers help me improve my writing skills by correcting my writing mistakes	109	17	126	20	**235**	**36**	139	22	**272**	**42**	176	27	96	15	646	100
15. Sometimes, I cannot answer correctly because I do not understand the question in English in science subjects classes	65	10	135	21	**200**	**31**	106	16	**340**	**53**	155	24	185	29	646	100

Source: Based on data derived from students' questionnaire.

The evidence, derived from collected data, reveals that students experienced lecture comprehension difficulties, of which limited vocabulary (general and subject-specific) was perceived as one major hurdle. This appears to have occurred despite the fact that the overwhelming majority of students, 86 per cent (n=554), recognized that their instructors of science subjects spared no effort in re-explaining for them in case they did not understand the lecture (item 8). By gender, this proportion was 83 per cent for male students and 87 per cent for female students. In their attempt to overcome or deal with these lecture comprehension difficulties, students tended to recourse to some coping strategies. First, 52 per cent (n=334) of the students (55 per cent male, 50 per cent female) sought the help of their classmates/peers to explain to them what they could not understand from the lecture (item 7). With regard to this matter, a student stated, 'I ask the teacher whenever I do not understand. If I do not find the opportunity to ask our teacher, I ask my classmates to explain to me'. However, asking the instructor is not always the case bearing in mind the feeling of anxiety and/or fear to make mistakes when speaking in English that over a third of student respondents seemed to experience. Next, 45 per cent (n=289) of student participants (48 per cent male, 43 per cent female) acknowledged translating many words into the mother tongue to understand the lecture (item 9). A third way consisted of guessing the meaning of expressions/words from the context without translating them into mother tongue, and this appears to be the most frequently used learning strategy by students, 71 per cent (n=459), of which 66 per cent were male students and 74 per cent female students (item 13). Similar learning difficulties are reported to have also been experienced in other EMI contexts as well, such as in Norway where the population has a reputation for English proficiency. The main finding in Hellekjær's (2010) study is that 'Norwegian students in higher education experience comprehension difficulties when English is used instead of the L1 [mother tongue]' (p. 249).

The difficulty stemming from limited subject-specific terminology also seems to have had an effect on the understanding of examination questions. Indeed, quantitative data from the questionnaire-based survey indicates that 53 per cent (n=340) of student respondents (54 per cent male, 52 per cent female) admitted facing difficulties in comprehending examination questions, against 31 per cent (n=200) who alleged having no concern relating to this issue (item 15). The interviews comments made by the students also corroborated this finding. For a number of student respondents, the difficulties experienced have to do with the way examination questions were formulated. As such, this might have led students to give an

incorrect answer because of the complicated questions. For others, the problems resided in the use of new vocabulary in examination questions:

> *I understand most of the exam questions. However, I sometimes get stuck with new vocabulary.*

> *I usually face problems with new vocabulary that I have never come across.*

> *Sometimes, I cannot get the meaning of some new words which could make a difference to my answer.*

Regarding the issue of taking notes in the classroom, the quantitative survey shows that 52 per cent (n=335) of student participants (47 per cent male, 54 per cent female) presumed encountering no difficulty in this respect (item 4). On the other hand, though, 28 per cent (n=182) of the respondents (32 per cent male, 26 per cent female) held a different view. Even if the majority of students did find undemanding the fact of taking notes on lectures, it is unavoidable that this would affect their level of comprehension of lectures in the classroom. In their study of undergraduate physics students (n=22) attending courses in English and Swedish at two Swedish universities, Airey and Linder (2006), stated that students reported spending more of their time 'concentrating on the process of writing rather than understanding lecture content' (p. 556). Thus, according to the authors, 'when the students took notes in a lecture given in English, they found they typically had to do more work outside class than when the lectures were given in Swedish', and the reason is that 'when they took notes in a lecture given in Swedish they were better able to simultaneously follow the thread of that lecture than they were when taking notes in a lecture given in English' (p. 557).

In the area of writing, the interview participants admitted facing a number of difficulties when assigned writing tasks. Amongst the problems encountered, one can cite insufficient vocabulary, grammar and spelling weaknesses. Even with that students acknowledged the support provided by their instructors when necessitated. In fact, 42 per cent (n=272) of the questionnaire-based survey respondents (36 per cent male, 45 female) stated that their subject content instructors helped them improve their writing skills by correcting their mistakes—by contrast, 36 per cent (n=235) of student participants (40 per cent male, 35 per cent female) had a divergent opinion (item 14). Having said that, the great majority of student interviewees recognized having been getting feedback from their subject content instructors. For instance, a student said, 'My instructor gives me a great deal of support. She shows me my mistakes and helps me to write correctly'. This study's finding about instructors' feedback does not replicate

that of other previous studies. For instance, Airey (2011, 2012) examined in his two studies the experiences of Swedish university instructors at two different higher education settings. His findings show that most of these instructors were not feeling comfortable to provide feedback to students by correcting their English.

Airing their views about their instructors during the interviews, students expressed their overall satisfaction about their instructors' ability to use EMI and the latter's positive impact on their academic performance. Despite that, some instructors, in student interviewees' opinions, had relatively insufficient language ability to deliver the content. Yet, they made no indication of instructors not mastering the content of their subjects. Rather students pointed to peculiar accent or, more precisely, occasional problems with comprehensible pronunciation. In some instances, certain instructors were found to be struggling with delivering the lecture in understandable English language, something that might have compelled them to use Arabic as an alternative. The students' view seemed to be in line with the instructors' perspective where a low number of these instructors (4 per cent, n=4), that is 7 per cent male instructors and 2 per cent female instructors, claimed having to struggle with pronunciation, fluency and intonation during content delivery (item 7). In contrast, the vast majority of them (80 per cent, n=82), consisting of 70 per cent male instructors and 88 per cent female instructors, reported experiencing no problems with these language-related issues.

Instructors' Experience

As shown in Table 4, the background information gathered by the first part of the questionnaire-based survey reveals that the majority of respondents are female members of staff, representing 55 per cent (n=57) of all participating instructors. In terms of academic tracks, staff teaching in the Science Track accounts for 48 per cent (n=49) of total respondents, followed by the Health I and Health II (Public Health and Nursing) Tracks with 39 per cent (n=39) and Engineering Track with 14 per cent (n=14). Most of the instructor respondents (male and female) are involved in teaching the following science subjects: Mathematics and Statistics, Computer Skills and Physics.

English Language Competency

Indubitably, the instructors' language competence is acknowledged as crucially important to their teaching practice. In point of fact, it can have significant implications on their teaching performance; an issue that would unavoidably influence the quality of learning taking place. With regard to this particular aspect, all participating staff (47 male instructors and 56 female

instructors) generally rated their English proficiency level much more favorably (Table 4), with 80 per cent (n=82) judging their level advanced and the remaining 20 per cent (n=21) rating their level intermediate. Also, the remarkable trend emerging from the questionnaire-based survey data is that the first set of items (1-8)—focusing on instructors' overall English language ability—received higher proportions of disagreement. These proportions, ranging between 71 per cent and 97 per cent, indicate that the instructors believed that they have had no major concern about preparing, organizing and delivering their lectures in English (Table 5).[6] Thus, unsurprisingly, they felt quite confident about their English proficiency from both questionnaire and interviews. A reflection of this perception was plainly made by a computer skills instructor who asserted, 'I have had teaching experience in English for the past five years. I have not faced any problem [of any kind] in preparing material in English language or using it to teach'.

In teaching their subjects in an English-medium instructional setting, the overwhelming majority of instructors claimed that they usually used English as a medium of instruction. They asserted that they regularly used academic English in all teaching activities—direct instruction, guided practice, group project and so forth. Still, a minority of them acknowledged that, under certain circumstances, they might have used informal English or Arabic. They self-confessed that, contingent on the lesson objectives, they generally used a variety of teaching methods and learning activities. During the classroom observations, it was noticed that the majority of instructors tended to diversify their ways of teaching with a view to boosting up students' learning. In addition, 83 per cent (n=86) of the instructors (80 per cent male, 86 per cent female) rejected the statement that lecturing in English hindered them from going deeper into the content of lessons than Arabic (item 8). An instructor expressed this rejection by stating that 'It is not true. In my subject, I think teaching in English is more effective in explaining scientific ideas and technical concepts'. Another instructor supporting this belief stated, 'Yes, I agree with them [some of the instructors] since this is not our native language, and the environment is not completely ready to use English in all daily activities'. In terms of language-related skills, they stated not to have any problems with writing whether for teaching or research purposes. The following quote from an instructor sums up the extent to which most of the teaching staff considered themselves as regular users of English, 'English is the language used by [x] in all

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[6] Statistical data from Table 5 and cited in the text consists of merging points 1 and 2 (*strongly disagree* and *disagree*) and 4 and 5 (*agree* and *strongly agree*).

his academic activities, including writing reports, publishing research papers, preparing presentations, and communicating with students and colleagues'.

With regard to preparation time for teaching materials, 78 per cent (n=80) of instructors (70 per cent male, 84 per cent female) disagreed with the statement that this task takes longer time in English than in mother tongue (item 9). In other words, instructors believed they did not find the process of preparing material for lectures very demanding; a process that would have required more time in case of linguistic difficulties in particular. Whilst there is nothing unusual with this perception, other studies have found that, despite instructors' belief in the adequacy of their English proficiency, they did point to the need for increased time to prepare lectures (Vinke, Snippe, & Jochems, 1998). These researchers argued that the need for more preparation time can, to a certain extent, be justified by their limited vocabulary and flexibility in English, and thus the necessity for these instructors to search for the relevant vocabulary required for their teaching. In the case of this study, a plausible explanation for not finding the preparation process arduous may well have to do with the fact that these instructors have been teaching the same curriculum content over an extended period of time.

Table 4: Demographic profile of participating instructors (n=103)

Variables	Categories	Frequency	Percentage
Gender	Male	46	45
	Female	57	55
English Level	Beginner	0	0
	Intermediate	21	20
	Advanced	82	80
Track	Health I	35	34
	Health II (Nursing and Public Health)	5	5
	Science	49	48
	Engineering	14	14
Subject	Physics	15	15

	Chemistry	8	8
	Biology	12	12
	Research and Learning Skills	4	4
	Communication Skills	10	10
	Computer Skills	23	22
	Mathematics and Statistics	31	30

Source: Based on data derived from questionnaire for instructors.

Table 5: Instructors' views of and reactions to EMI

Items/Statements (To what extent do you agree with the following statements?)	S. Disagree (1)		Disagree (2)		(1)+(2)		Neutral (3)		(4)+(5)		Agree (4)		S. Agree (5)		Total	
	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)	N	(%)
1. I have difficulty in organizing the lessons content clearly in English	69	67	31	30	100	97	1	1	2	2	2	2	0	0	103	100
2. I face difficulty in lecturing and teaching in English	56	54	37	36	93	90	6	6	4	4	4	4	0	0	103	100
3. Sometimes terminology concepts are difficult for me to explain in English	49	48	42	41	91	88	9	9	3	3	3	3	0	0	103	100
4. Sometimes, I struggle to arrange my sentences when I explain something in English	45	44	42	41	87	84	12	12	4	4	3	3	1	1	103	100
5. I have to stop to search for the right word when teaching in English	43	42	46	45	89	86	7	7	7	7	7	7	0	0	103	100
6. I am afraid of not using correct grammar when I speak to the students	31	30	42	41	73	71	19	18	11	11	10	10	1	1	103	100
7. In English, I struggle with pronunciation, fluency and intonation	37	36	45	44	82	80	17	17	4	4	3	3	1	1	103	100
8. Lecturing in English hinders me from going deeper into the content of scientific lessons	51	50	35	34	86	83	6	6	11	11	11	11	0	0	103	100
9. It takes longer time to prepare teaching materials in English than in my mother tongue	58	56	22	21	80	78	8	8	15	15	15	15	0	0	103	100
10. The students' low English proficiency is a problem when teaching science subjects	5	5	10	10	15	15	12	12	76	74	44	43	32	31	103	100
11. My students do not understand fully the content of the lectures and lessons in English	10	10	31	30	41	40	12	12	50	49	29	28	21	20	103	100
12. My students do not understand my teaching and explanation in English	33	32	49	48	82	80	15	15	6	6	6	6	0	0	103	100
13. Sometimes, I have to switch my language from English to Arabic when students do not understand what I say.	51	50	28	27	79	77	7	7	17	17	14	14	3	3	103	100
14. My students do not participate actively in the classroom discussion due to their lack of proficiency in English	8	8	40	39	48	47	15	15	40	39	36	35	4	4	103	100
15. I face difficulty in getting students to respond in English	10	10	44	43	54	52	18	17	31	30	30	29	1	1	103	100

Source: Based on data derived from instructors' questionnaire.

On the whole, instructors perceived their experience of using English in teaching science subjects as an effective and rewarding one. In one of the interviews conducted with members of staff, an instructor gave the following description:

> *The experience has been a wonderful one … Initial few days are extremely tough for both students as well as me. Students hesitate to answer questions posed to them in class. But with some encouragement and constant prodding, they are able to overcome their inhibitions/shyness and begin to talk in broken English and, finally, by the end of the semester, they acquire decent English speaking and understanding skills.*

Instructors' feeling of having sufficient English language proficiency and satisfaction with its use in their teaching practice is similar to the findings by Floris (2014) and Karakaş (2014). However, other findings claiming that more studies reported instructors as identifying that they have language difficulties than those that do not (Macaro et al., 2018). Moreover, it should be borne in mind that the instructors' (non-native speakers) level in English is a global issue which is still being debated because 'currently there does not seem to be a standardized English proficiency benchmark test for subject teachers teaching through EMI' (Dearden & Macaro, 2016, p. 471). Therefore, in the absence of well-established standards that define an appropriate proficiency level to teach through English, the instructors' self-assessed ability remains an arguable matter. The reason is that instructors tend to have divergent appreciations of the level required, depending on the subject taught in certain cases. For instance, when asked about their competency in using English in teaching, an instructor said, 'I do not have any problem while teaching Math in English. For me, it is better than using Arabic'. It is plausible that the instructor meant teaching this subject does not require high level of language competency; a situation echoing Dearden and Macaro (2016) when they cited an instructor who claimed that they are saved by the formulae in mathematics, denoting little language needed beyond the mathematical code.

Parallel to this self-reported satisfaction about the ability to use the English language for teaching, communication and related academic work, a significant number of instructors have voiced some concerns relating to both students and themselves. These concerns revolve around the necessity to provide opportunities for suitable and regular training for staff development as well as to design strategies intended to support below-average students in English language. The issue of providing training opportunities for instructors was raised in previous research

literature (Bradford & Brown, 2018; Barrios, López-Gutiérrez, Lechuga, 2016; Floris, 2015; Yeh, 2014).

Views on Students' English Ability

It comes as no surprise that one of the concerns most often expressed in a multitude of studies is that of student English language proficiency (Macaro, Seiter, An, Pun, & Dearden, 2018). In the questionnaire-based survey, statements (10-12) solicited instructors' views about their students' language ability in English. Most of these instructors (74 per cent, n=76), that is 80 per cent male instructors and 68 per cent female instructors, agreed that the major difficulty when teaching science subjects is students low level in English (item 10). Students' linguistic insufficiency, as reported by instructors, is also a common phenomenon in other countries branded as pioneers in implementing EMI programs, such as Sweden, where the population is overall reputed for having a good command of the English language (Airey, 2011).

Be that as it may, 80 per cent (n=82) of instructors (72 per cent male, 86 per cent female) disagreed with the statement that students had a problem understanding fully the content of their lectures in English (item 12). In other words, this implies that most of the students did not experience listening comprehension difficulties in the classroom setting. However, in the interviews conducted with the instructors, they mentioned certain problematic situations where some students—largely students with beginner-level English—encountered comprehension-related problems. As pertinently pointed out by Yeh (2014), 'From students' perspectives, comprehending lectures in a second language has consistently been a tremendous challenge' (p. 307). Obviously, this is a fundamental learning issue because 'English comprehension ability is crucial to the learning success of professional knowledge' (Huang, 2015, p. 76).

Within the context of this study, instructors avowed checking students understanding, typically through informal assessment by asking them topic-related questions as a routine practice. To deal with their students' difficulties in understanding, they admitted having resorted to a variety of coping/didactical strategies, such as simplifying language, providing examples, using drawing, resorting to cooperative learning, and translating from English into Arabic. These difficulties are related to unfamiliarity with general and subject-specific vocabulary; a situation that is causing problems in the target language (Tzoannopoulou, 2017). It can be argued that, in certain cases, one may well point the finger at some instructors who might not be prepared to recognize that, because of a language-related hindrance, they occasionally tended to experience difficulties to explain in English aspects of their lecture in different ways.

As already stated earlier, the limited vocabulary knowledge also had a bearing on students understanding of, and inevitably performance in, exams/tests. In their interview answers, instructors singled out beginner level students as being more affected than their peers of intermediate and advanced levels. An instructor remarked that 'Exam and test questions are in English. Most of the time the questions are written in a simple and clear format as much as possible. Nonetheless, some students who are below average in their English ability may struggle in understanding some words'. Students reported that the difficulties they faced in understanding examination questions in English prevented them from answering correctly.

Given students comprehension difficulties, for the most part caused by limited terminology knowledge, about 17 per cent (n=17) of instructors (26 per cent male, 9 per cent female) admitted using code-switching from English to Arabic (item 13) occasionally. Indeed, decreasing the frequency of code-switching, or the resort to Arabic in classroom interaction, was noted during the two phases of classroom observations.[7] During this process of classroom observations, certain instructors had to code-switch to provide explanations/clarifications in Arabic in situations when students experienced lecture comprehension difficulties. On the other hand, students also alluded to instances where certain instructors' use of Arabic had to do with their relatively insufficient English language ability. The tendency was observed across all the three tracks (Health I and II, Science and Engineering). The subsequent passages from instructors' interviews provide an illustration of instances when there was recourse to code-switching:

> *It depends on the groups, but I usually [use] English, and I sometimes switch to Arabic if I feel that some students did not get the information.*

> *Rarely [I use Arabic], unless I need to emphasize something and make sure all students understand the instruction.*

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[7] Recorded instances of using code-switching in classrooms went down from 37 in phase one to 31 in phase two (for instructors) and from 33 to 19 (for students).

> *When the topic contains difficult terminology that is very hard for students to understand, I explain it first in English, and then I tell the students what it means in Arabic.*

Nevertheless, there were also instances where instructors alleged or reported to have used English only. When interviewed, for instance, one instructor said, 'I never use Arabic language during the lecture'. On another occasion, during classroom observations, it was reported that 'although the teacher was a native Arab and the students were beginners, he did not have to code-switch at any point during the lecture. Students were comfortable with the lecture and the English'.

By and large, it is worth noting that the practice of code-switching to Arabic, as a characteristic of limited language, tended to vary amongst instructors and class levels they taught in different tracks—its use was much more noticeable in classes for beginners. For instance, during the second phase of classroom observations, it was noticed that the frequency of code switching was more pronounced within female classes (21 instances) than male ones (10 instances). These recorded instances are not consistent with previous claims made by the instructors in the questionnaire-based survey (see item 13). More importantly, though, is the extent to which there was a pedagogical effort by the instructors to favor the use of English within the context of teacher-student interactions. Evidently, it is primarily the instructor who is in a better position when judging of the usefulness of using the mother tongue in EMI classroom. For instance, in their recent study on EMI in China and Japan, Galloway, Kriukow and Numajiri (2017) contended:

> Although they agreed that English should be the primary language used in EMI classrooms, teachers saw an occasional use, or the use of the mother tongue 'in extreme cases', as beneficial, due to it being a 'good resource for students' and a tool for 'clarifying points'. They praised the benefits of a 'bilingual environment' and of the use of their mother tongue to help them acquire difficult concepts in English and 'to scaffold and assist understanding'. (p. 19)

As regards the present study, the use of code-switching may well reflect instructors' understanding of the learning needs of their students. Thus, it is regarded as a teaching strategy 'when teachers switch between languages in order to maximize their instruction, code-switching can function to enhance students' understandings and provide students with opportunities to take part in the discussion' (Cahyani, de Courcy, & Barnett, 2018, p. 466).

Additionally, it is worth noting that this study's finding concerning code-switching, even if not a common occurrence, is consistent with the findings of previous studies, such as Floris (2014), Hu, Li and Lei (2014), and Shamin, Abdelhalim and Hamid (2016).

On the subject of engaging students in the classroom (items 14-15), 47 per cent of instructors (30 per cent male, 60 per cent female) seemed satisfied with students' level of participation in English language classroom. Conversely, 39 per cent (n=40) of instructors (52 per cent male, 28 per female) claim that the students did not take part actively in the classroom discussion because of insufficient English proficiency. Furthermore, 52 per cent (n=54) of instructors (39 per cent male, 63 per cent female) reported facing no difficulty getting students to talk in English in the classroom—this was at a time when 30 per cent (n=31) of them (35 per cent male, 26 per cent female) found it rather challenging to engage and motivate students. On their part, 51 per cent (n=327) of students (57 per cent male, 47 per cent female) stated having no fear of making mistakes when participating in English in front of their classmates (item 2), and 47 per cent (n=304) of them (54 per cent male, 44 per cent female) reported feeling no anxiety speaking in English in classroom (item 1). There is no doubt that students' low proficiency in English engenders reduced levels of participation in class. For example, the research by Yeh (2014) revealed that, even with a fairly good understanding of lecture content by the students, the medium of instruction (English) might have acted as disincentive to their class participation. This and other studies—that attempted to explain students' reluctance to participate in EMI classes—correspond to what Lee (2014) characterizes as the deficit approach.[8] This perspective is inclined to consider the students' low level of English language ability as the major reason for their non-verbal participation in EMI courses. It also puts the blame on the instructors' deficit of language competency for students' limited interest in taking part in classroom interaction. Though there are other considerations to explain students' level of participation, this deficit view is quite relevant to the situation in the preparatory year.

Nonetheless, this cannot solely be imputed to students' limited linguistic ability since instructors have also their share of responsibility. In fact, during both phases of classroom observations, it was generally noticed that considerable efforts were made by instructors to promote adequate levels of participation between students and instructors or among students. Whilst these efforts are laudable, there were also instances of instructor-centered lectures with high instructor talk time and less room for classroom interactive practices. In many cases, this

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[8] See Lee (2014) for account on these studies.

resulted in students getting bored and completely losing interest in the lecture. Thus, enhancing students' participation and giving them the opportunity to use English are contingent on, amongst other things, the promotion of a positive classroom atmosphere and the adoption of an appropriate teaching method or style.

Notwithstanding the issues raised above—also confronted by a myriad of EMI settings elsewhere—almost all instructors interviewed believed that EMI has, in the main, had a positive impact on the students' learning experience during the preparatory year. The following are two excerpts from their recent interview comments:

> *It is a transforming experience. The students who are good in their English do better in class. They are more confident and more willing to participate and answer questions or present to the class. The students who are less than average in their English, they do not do well. Mostly they neither ask nor answer questions during class. However, generally, most students show progress with time as they learn more lessons in English.*

> *There is an initial struggle and it makes some impact on their academic performance. But, in the long run, it is going to be very beneficial. It will prepare students to perform better both academically as well as in their careers. I have taught in this university for seven years, and my students have never complained about the medium of instruction being English. In fact, they are happy to learn in English as they feel more confident.*

Conclusion

This concluding section summarizes the research findings, makes some recommendations to assist in the enhancement of EMI practice within the preparatory year program and suggests potential avenues for further research. First, this study addressed the use of EMI within the preparatory year program at the IAU. Similar to several other Saudi universities, the adoption of English as a language for teaching academic content was, in essence, spurred by instrumental motivations. After a number of years of EMI implementation, this timely study sought to take stock of the effectiveness of this instructional approach through the learning and teaching experiences of students and instructors respectively. The data analysis in this study indicates that this teaching methodology has, in the main, engendered mixed outcomes. In terms of attitude towards the use of EMI, the overwhelming majority of students and instructors were found to be favorable to and supportive of EMI. Besides holding positive views of this experience, they also deemed it beneficial to their learning and teaching practices as well. In their learning process, the students perceived the use of EMI valuable both linguistically and

academically. The majority admitted that their English language improved in overall skills and, more particularly in receptive skills because of exposure to English in the course of academic content learning—yet not exclusively when considering the contribution of the concomitant English language support program. As regards the instructors, the vast majority of them claimed having sufficient English language proficiency and being subjected to no difficulty using it as a medium for delivering disciplinary content. In addition, they reported self-satisfaction about the ability to use the English language for communication and other related academic activities.

On the other hand, the findings of the study reveal certain challenges faced by both stakeholders in the learning and teaching of academic content. Despite recognizing the positive impact of EMI on their language skills, students experienced content learning difficulties—low levels of lecture comprehension, struggle with academic writing due to limited vocabulary, grammar and spelling weakness, and problems with understanding examination questions. From the instructors' perspective, these were in large part attributed to students' lingering problems with language proficiency. In addition to their major concern about below-average English language ability students, instructors resorted to a variety of coping strategies—such as code-switching and translating—intended to facilitate students' understanding of lectures. Due to relatively insufficient linguistic ability, some of the instructors were also found to be struggling with delivering lectures in understandable English language. A situation that led them, in certain instances, to revert to Arabic to compensate for their English language deficiency. By and large, one must not lose sight of the fact that numerous experiences of EMI in an EFL environment across various geographical areas have encountered diverse challenges, the most common of which is the critical issue of language proficiency and its implications on the learning/teaching practice.

Second, besides the positive impact induced by EMI implementation in the preparatory year program, it is clear that this study unveiled a number of issues that have been affecting the learning and teaching outcomes. Surely, the students 'expect to learn the content…and they expect their language competence to improve; they expect the content staff to speak and write reasonably good English' (Wilkinson, 2013, p. 16). Thus, enhancing EMI learning quality requires adequate attention from the educational institution. Students' academic performance—especially their ability to comprehend academic lectures—depends, to a certain extent, on their linguistic proficiency in English. Even with the parallel English language program that is currently dispensed by the English Department, there seems to be some

dissatisfaction about its content. Indeed, an initial examination of the syllabus followed by this Department reveals more emphasis being put on general English skills rather than on academic English skills.[9] In consultation with language and disciplinary content professionals, the education institution could incorporate a more academic-English based syllabus into the provided language support program (Karakaş, 2017). And in this regard, a collaborative approach between academic content and language instructors is considered necessary. Therefore, to support students' academic learning, language instructors are required to have 'sufficient knowledge of the content curriculum and thus collaboration with the content staff is essential' (Wilkinson, 2013, p. 16). This means that 'the disciplinary content information used in the language support will derive from collaboration with content staff' (Wilkinson, 2013, p. 16). Also, designing and running an intensive language program specifically intended for students with low levels of English could be contemplated. A program of this kind has the potential to raise their level of English to the level required in order to be able to follow the course. Another way of addressing students' inadequate language proficiency is to consider introducing or offering a bilingual method of instruction for students, as this was suggested by other studies (e.g. Belhiah & Elhami, 2015).

For instructors to be able to deliver teaching quality and respond to the students' learning needs, it is recommended that the educational institution makes provision for in-service professional development training opportunities, notably pedagogical and language trainings. Evidently, instructors' linguistic competence is a significant factor—as are the pedagogical skills— in the delivery of academic content through a foreign language. The contribution to the improvement of content instructors' language skills could be undertaken by means of English language sessions run by language instructors; sessions designed to help meet content instructors' most immediate needs in areas as diverse as grammar, fluency, pronunciation, and so forth. The education institution could also encourage and facilitate meetings or even discussion forums bringing instructors together to share experiences and raise issues that are of common concern to their teaching practices. The aim would be to promote efficient EMI teaching methods and, thus, benefit the students' learning experience positively. Organized on a regular basis, these opportunities require strong and sustained institutional support. Instructors, on their part, need

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[9] Throughout the preparatory year program, the contact hours for general English are as follows: 480 hours for beginner level, 420 hours for intermediate level and 300 hours for advanced level. As for academic English, it is 90 hours for each one of these levels.

to display not only a resolute commitment to these training opportunities but also an amenable approach to learning and sharing reflection within a teamwork environment.

Finally, this research was conducted in a small-scale higher education environment, the preparatory year program at IAU. It was carried out at a time when there has been a polarized or two-sided debate within Saudi Arabia between exponents of EMI on the one hand and those in favor of a return to mother tongue-based education on the other. Put differently, the undertaking of this study can be seen as a contribution to this ongoing debate about EMI effectiveness. The results obtained in this research study may well be common in other EMI settings, either within or outside the country. Still before any claims are made over EMI efficiency or practicality, in an Arab cultural context, further academic investigations are required. Conducting a large-scale study on EMI in preparatory year program encompassing several universities would enhance the generalizability and acceptability of the findings and, thus, allow for a broader evidence-informed policy decision to be made in relation to this instructional methodology. Potential research might include an in-depth examination of instructors' pedagogical skills/teaching approach with a view to improving good practice that is imperative for the effectiveness or success of EMI programs. Further research could also involve a thorough investigation of the learning difficulties faced by students—which this study has had the merit to lay bare a number of them. Another avenue for possible academic examination would be to explore EMI's impact on how much language and disciplinary content students learn.

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	Items/Statements	S. disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	(1)+(2)	Undecided (3)	(4)+(5)	Agree (4)	S. agree (5)	Total	Mean	S.D.
	QUESTIONNAIRE: STUDENTS (MALE AND FEMALE)										
1	I do not feel any anxiety when I speak English in science subjects classes	11%	19%	30%	23%	47%	28%	19%	100%	3.25	1.267
		71	124	195	147	304	183	121	646		
2	I rarely participate in class because of the fear of making mistakes in speaking English in front of my classmates	23%	28%	51%	14%	35%	23%	12%	100%	2.74	1.364
		149	178	327	90	229	149	80	646		
3	Sometimes I do not understand what teachers say in science subjects classes	17%	29%	47%	15%	38%	27%	11%	100%	2.86	1.296
		111	190	301	98	247	175	72	646		
4	I make notes in English easily during science subjects classes	11%	17%	28%	20%	52%	34%	18%	100%	3.30	1.262
		73	109	182	129	335	218	117	646		
5	My listening skills have improved because all science subjects' classes are delivered in English	5%	9%	14%	18%	69%	38%	31%	100%	3.81	1.111
		31	57	88	115	443	245	198	646		
6	I feel that my English language is not good enough to study science subjects	23%	28%	51%	19%	30%	16%	13%	100%	2.68	1.340
		148	184	332	123	191	106	85	646		
7	I ask my friends to explain what I do not understand about what the teachers say during science subjects classes	15%	21%	35%	13%	52%	36%	16%	100%	3.18	1.321
		94	133	227	85	334	233	101	646		
8	Teachers of science subjects re-explain if students do not understand	2%	3%	5%	9%	86%	45%	40%	100%	4.19	0.869
		13	18	31	61	554	293	261	646		
9	I need to translate many words into my mother tongue to understand the lectures at science subjects	14%	28%	42%	13%	45%	21%	24%	100%	3.13	1.412
		90	180	270(2)	87	289	133	156	646		
10	The teacher does not explain in English in science subjects classes	31%	42%	73%	16%	12%	9%	3%	100%	2.11	1.031
		198	272	470	101	75	56	19	646		
11	I have difficulties in following up the teacher when he/she speaks English in science subjects classes	25%	33%	58%	19%	22%	13%	9%	100%	2.48	1.247
		160	216	376	125	145	87	58	646		
12	Teachers of science subjects spend a lot of time explaining vocabulary	16%	44%	60%	25%	15%	12%	3%	100%	2.42	1.005
		105	283	388	160	98	76	22	646		
13	I try to guess the meanings of words from the context without translating them into my mother tongue in science subjects classes	4%	8%	12%	17%	71%	53%	18%	100%	3.73	0.985
		26	54	80	107	459	342	117	646		
14	The subject content teachers help me improve my writing skills by correcting my writing mistakes	17%	20%	36%	22%	42%	27%	15%	100%	3.04	1.318
		109	126	235	139	272	176	96	646		
15	Sometimes, I cannot answer correctly because I do not understand the question in English in science subjects classes	10%	21%	31%	16%	53%	24%	29%	100%	3.40	1.356
		65	135	200	106	340	155	185	646		

	QUESTIONNAIRE: MALE STUDENTS									
	Items/Statements	S. disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	(1)+(2)	Undecided (3)	(4)+(5)	Agree (4)	S. agree (5)	Total	Mean	S.D.
1	I do not feel any anxiety when I speak English in science subjects classes	7%	19%	26%	20%	54%	33%	21%	100%	3.41	1.215
		16	41	57	45	118	72	46	220		
2	I rarely participate in class because of the fear of making mistakes in speaking English in front of my classmates	27%	30%	57%	13%	30%	19%	11%	100%	2.58	1.361
		59	66	125	28	67	42	25	220		
3	Sometimes I do not understand what teachers say in science subjects classes	20%	24%	44%	15%	42%	26%	16%	100%	2.95	1.387
		43	53	96	32	92	57	35	220		
4	I make notes in English easily during science subjects classes	14%	18%	32%	21%	47%	31%	16%	100%	3.18	1.291
		30	40	70	46	104	68	36	220		
5	My listening skills have improved because all science subjects classes are delivered in English	5%	9%	14%	20%	66%	38%	29%	100%	3.76	1.115
		11	20	31	43	146	83	63	220		
6	I feel that my English language is not good enough to study science subjects	25%	30%	55%	15%	30%	15%	15%	100%	2.66	1.394
		54	67	121	33	66	32	34	220		
7	I ask my friends to explain what I do not understand about what the teachers say during science subjects classes	14%	19%	33%	12%	55%	35%	20%	100%	3.29	1.346
		30	42	72	27	121	77	44	220		
8	Teachers of science subjects re-explain if students do not understand	3%	4%	7%	10%	83%	48%	35%	100%	4.09	0.927
		6	9	15	22	183	105	78	220		
9	I need to translate many words into my mother tongue to understand the lectures at science subjects	16%	25%	41%	11%	48%	20%	28%	100%	3.19	1.479
		35	56	91	24	105	43	62	220		
10	The teacher does not explain in English in science subjects classes	31%	38%	70%	16%	14%	10%	4%	100%	2.17	1.095
		69	84	153	36	31	23	8	220		
11	I have difficulties in following up the teacher when he/she speaks English in science subjects classes	20%	31%	52%	20%	29%	18%	11%	100%	2.67	1.283
		45	69	114	43	63	39	24	220		
12	Teachers of science subjects spend a lot of time explaining vocabulary	15%	41%	57%	24%	20%	15%	5%	100%	2.52	1.066
		34	91	125	52	43	33	10	220		
13	I try to guess the meanings of words from the context without translating them into my mother tongue in science subjects classes	5%	10%	15%	19%	66%	51%	15%	100%	3.60	1.035
		12	22	34	41	145	112	33	220		
14	The subject content teachers help me improve my writing skills by correcting my writing mistakes	20%	20%	40%	24%	36%	23%	13%	100%	2.89	1.330
		45	43	88	52	80	51	29	220		
15	Sometimes, I cannot answer correctly because I do not understand the question in English in science subjects classes	11%	21%	32%	14%	54%	21%	32%	100%	3.42	1.414
		25	46	71	31	118	47	71	220		

	Items/Statements	S. disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	(1)+(2)	Undecided (3)	(4)+(5)	Agree (4)	S. agree (5)	Total	Mean	S.D.
	QUESTIONNAIRE: FEMALE STUDENTS										
1	I do not feel any anxiety when I speak English in science subjects classes	13%	19%	32%	24%	44%	26%	18%	100%	3.16	1.286
		55	83	138	102	186	111	75	426		
2	I rarely participate in class because of the fear of making mistakes in speaking English in front of my classmates	21%	26%	47%	15%	38%	25%	13%	100%	2.82	1.360
		90	112	202	62	162	107	55	426		
3	Sometimes I do not understand what teachers say in science subjects classes	16%	32%	48%	15%	36%	28%	9%	100%	2.81	1.246
		68	137	205	66	155	118	37	426		
4	I make notes in English easily during science subjects classes	10%	16%	26%	19%	54%	35%	19%	100%	3.37	1.243
		43	69	112	83	231	150	81	426		
5	My listening skills have improved because all science subjects' classes are delivered in English	5%	9%	13%	17%	70%	38%	32%	100%	3.83	1.109
		20	37	57	72	297	162	135	426		
6	I feel that my English language is not good enough to study science subjects	22%	27%	50%	21%	29%	17%	12%	100%	2.70	1.312
		94	117	211	90	125	74	51	426		
7	I ask my friends to explain what I do not understand about what the teachers say during science subjects classes	15%	21%	36%	14%	50%	37%	13%	100%	3.12	1.306
		64	91	155	58	213	156	57	426		
8	Teachers of science subjects re-explain if students do not understand	2%	2%	4%	9%	87%	44%	43%	100%	4.25	0.833
		7	9	16	39	371	188	183	426		
9	I need to translate many words into my mother tongue to understand the lectures at science subjects	13%	29%	42%	15%	43%	21%	22%	100%	3.10	1.377
		55	124	179	63	184	90	94	426		
10	The teacher does not explain in English in science subjects classes	30%	44%	74%	15%	10%	8%	3%	100%	2.08	0.997
		129	188	317	65	44	33	11	426		
11	I have difficulties in following up the teacher when he/she speaks English in science subjects classes	27%	35%	62%	19%	19%	11%	8%	100%	2.39	1.219
		115	147	262	82	82	48	34	426		
12	Teachers of science subjects spend a lot of time explaining vocabulary	17%	45%	62%	25%	13%	10%	3%	100%	2.37	0.970
		71	192	263	108	55	43	12	426		
13	I try to guess the meanings of words from the context without translating them into my mother tongue in science subjects classes	3%	8%	11%	15%	74%	54%	20%	100%	3.79	0.953
		14	32	46	66	314	230	84	426		
14	The subject content teachers help me improve my writing skills by correcting my writing mistakes	15%	19%	35%	20%	45%	29%	16%	100%	3.11	1.308
		64	83	147	87	192	125	67	426		
15	Sometimes, I cannot answer correctly because I do not understand the question in English in science subjects classes	9%	21%	30%	18%	52%	25%	27%	100%	3.39	1.326
		40	89	129	75	222	108	114	426		

	QUESTIONNAIRE: INSTRUCTORS (MALE AND FEMALE)									
	Items/Statements	S. disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	(1)+(2)	Undecided (3)	(4)+(5)	Agree (4)	S. agree (5)	Total	Mean	S.D.
1	I have difficulty in organizing the lessons content clearly in English	67%	30%	97%	1%	2%	2%	0%	100%	1.38	0.612
		69	31	100	1	2	2	0	103		
2	I face difficulty in lecturing and teaching in English	54%	36%	90%	6%	4%	4%	0%	100%	1.59	0.773
		56	37	93	6	4	4	0	103		
3	Sometimes terminology concepts are difficult for me to explain in English	48%	41%	88%	9%	3%	3%	0%	100%	1.67	0.759
		49	42	91	9	3	3	0	103		
4	Sometimes, I struggle to arrange my sentences when I explain something in English	44%	41%	84%	12%	4%	3%	1%	100%	1.77	0.843
		45	42	87	12	4	3	1	103		
5	I have to stop to search for the right word when teaching in English	42%	45%	86%	7%	7%	7%	0%	100%	1.79	0.848
		43	46	89	7	7	7	0	103		
6	I am afraid of not using correct grammar when I speak to the students	30%	41%	71%	18%	11%	10%	1%	100%	2.11	0.979
		31	42	73	19	11	10	1	103		
7	In English, I struggle with pronunciation, fluency and intonation	36%	44%	80%	17%	4%	3%	1%	100%	1.89	0.851
		37	45	82	17	4	3	1	103		
8	Lecturing in English hinders me from going deeper into the content of scientific lessons	50%	34%	83%	6%	11%	11%	0%	100%	1.78	0.969
		51	35	86	6	11	11	0	103		
9	It takes longer time to prepare teaching materials in English than in my mother tongue	56%	21%	78%	8%	15%	15%	0%	100%	1.81	1.094
		58	22	80	8	15	15	0	103		
10	The students' low English proficiency is a problem when teaching science subjects	5%	10%	15%	12%	74%	43%	31%	100%	3.85	1.115
		5	10	15	12	76	44	32	103		
11	My students do not understand fully the content of the lectures and lessons in English	10%	30%	40%	12%	49%	28%	20%	100%	3.19	1.329
		10	31	41	12	50	29	21	103		
12	My students do not understand my teaching and explanation in English	32%	48%	80%	15%	6%	6%	0%	100%	1.94	0.838
		33	49	82	15	6	6	0	103		
13	Sometimes, I have to switch my language from English to Arabic when students do not understand what I say.	50%	27%	77%	7%	17%	14%	3%	100%	1.93	1.174
		51	28	79	7	17	14	3	103		
14	My students do not participate actively in the classroom discussion due to their lack of proficiency in English	8%	39%	47%	15%	39%	35%	4%	100%	2.88	1.096
		8	40	48	15	40	36	4	103		
15	I face difficulty in getting students to respond in English	10%	43%	52%	17%	30%	29%	1%	100%	2.69	1.029
		10	44	54	18	31	30	1	103		

		S. disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	(1)+(2)	Undecided (3)	(4)+(5)	Agree (4)	S. agree (5)	Total	Mean	S.D
	QUESTIONNAIRE: MALE INSTRUCTORS										
	Items/Statements	S. disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	(1)+(2)	Undecided (3)	(4)+(5)	Agree (4)	S. agree (5)	Total	Mean	S.D
1	I have difficulty in organizing the lessons content clearly in English	67%	30%	98%	2%	0%	0%	0%	100%	1.35	0.526
		31	14	45	1	0	0	0	46		
2	I face difficulty in lecturing and teaching in English	50%	39%	89%	7%	4%	4%	0%	100%	1.65	0.795
		23	18	41	3	2	2	0	46		
3	Sometimes terminology concepts are difficult for me to explain in English	41%	39%	80%	15%	4%	4%	0%	100%	1.83	0.851
		19	18	37	7	2	2	0	46		
4	Sometimes, I struggle to arrange my sentences when I explain something in English	43%	39%	83%	15%	2%	2%	0%	100%	1.76	0.794
		20	18	38	7	1	1	0	46		
5	I have to stop to search for the right word when teaching in English	39%	50%	89%	9%	2%	2%	0%	100%	1.74	0.713
		18	23	41	4	1	1	0	46		
6	I am afraid of not using correct grammar when I speak to the students	33%	39%	72%	20%	9%	9%	0%	100%	2.04	0.942
		15	18	33	9	4	4	0	46		
7	In English, I struggle with pronunciation, fluency and intonation	39%	30%	70%	24%	7%	7%	0%	100%	1.98	0.954
		18	14	32	11	3	3	0	46		
8	Lecturing in English hinders me from going deeper into the content of scientific lessons	50%	30%	80%	4%	15%	15%	0%	100%	1.85	1.074
		23	14	37	2	7	7	0	46		
9	It takes longer time to prepare teaching materials in English than in my mother tongue	52%	17%	70%	13%	17%	17%	0%	100%	1.96	1.173
		24	8	32	6	8	8	0	46		
10	The students' low English proficiency is a problem when teaching science subjects	0%	9%	9%	11%	80%	48%	33%	100%	4,04	0,893
		0	4	4	5	37	22	15	46		
11	My students do not understand fully the content of the lectures and lessons in English	7%	30%	37%	7%	57%	30%	26%	100%	3.39	1.341
		3	14	17	3	26	14	12	46		
12	My students do not understand my teaching and explanation in English	24%	48%	72%	22%	7%	7%	0%	100%	2.11	0.849
		11	22	33	10	3	3	0	46		
13	Sometimes, I have to switch my language from English to Arabic when students do not understand what I say.	43%	24%	67%	7%	26%	22%	4%	100%	2.20	1.327
		20	11	31	3	12	10	2	46		
14	My students do not participate actively in the classroom discussion due to their lack of proficiency in English	4%	26%	30%	17%	52%	48%	4%	100%	3.22	1.031
		2	12	14	8	24	22	2	46		
15	I face difficulty in getting students to respond in English	7%	33%	39%	26%	35%	35%	0%	100%	2.89	0.971
		3	15	18	12	16	16	0	46		

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		QUESTIONNAIRE: FEMALE INSTRUCTORS									
	Items/Statements	S. disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	(1)+(2)	Undecided (3)	(4)+(5)	Agree (4)	S. agree (5)	Total	Mean	S.D
1	I have difficulty in organizing the lessons content clearly in English	67%	30%	96%	0%	4%	4%	0%	100%	1.40	0.678
		38	17	55	0	2	2	0	57		
2	I face difficulty in lecturing and teaching in English	58%	33%	91%	5%	4%	4%	0%	100%	1.54	0.758
		33	19	52	3	2	2	0	57		
3	Sometimes terminology concepts are difficult for me to explain in English	53%	42%	95%	4%	2%	2%	0%	100%	1.54	0.657
		30	24	54	2	1	1	0	57		
4	Sometimes, I struggle to arrange my sentences when I explain something in English	44%	42%	86%	9%	5%	4%	2%	100%	1.77	0.887
		25	24	49	5	3	2	1	57		
5	I have to stop to search for the right word when teaching in English	44%	40%	84%	5%	11%	11%	0%	100%	1.82	0.947
		25	23	48	3	6	6	0	57		
6	I am afraid of not using correct grammar when I speak to the students	28%	42%	70%	18%	12%	11%	2%	100%	2.16	1.014
		16	24	40	10	7	6	1	57		
7	In English, I struggle with pronunciation, fluency and intonation	33%	54%	88%	11%	2%	0%	2%	100%	1.82	0.759
		19	31	50	6	1	0	1	57		
8	Lecturing in English hinders me from going deeper into the content of scientific lessons	49%	37%	86%	7%	7%	7%	0%	100%	1.72	0.881
		28	21	49	4	4	4	0	57		
9	It takes longer time to prepare teaching materials in English than in my mother tongue	60%	25%	84%	4%	12%	12%	0%	100%	1.68	1.020
		34	14	48	2	7	7	0	57		
10	The students' low English proficiency is a problem when teaching science subjects	9%	11%	19%	12%	68%	39%	30%	100%	3.70	1.253
		5	6	11	7	39	22	17	57		
11	My students do not understand fully the content of the lectures and lessons in English	12%	30%	42%	16%	42%	26%	16%	100%	3.04	1.309
		7	17	24	9	24	15	9	57		
12	My students do not understand my teaching and explanation in English	39%	47%	86%	9%	5%	5%	0%	100%	1.81	0.811
		22	27	49	5	3	3	0	57		
13	Sometimes, I have to switch my language from English to Arabic when students do not understand what I say.	54%	30%	84%	7%	9%	7%	2%	100%	1.72	0.996
		31	17	48	4	5	4	1	57		
14	My students do not participate actively in the classroom discussion due to their lack of proficiency in English	11%	49%	60%	12%	28%	25%	3%	100%	2.61	1.082
		6	28	34	7	16	14	2	57		
15	I face difficulty in getting students to respond in English	12%	51%	63%	11%	26%	25%	2%	100%	2.53	1.054
		7	29	36	6	15	14	1	57		

A Survey Study on Secondary School Students' Key Competences in English in China

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Abstract

Recently China has begun national educational reform that focuses on the development of key competences in all subjects, including English. Based on a survey about secondary school students' key competences in English in Yanbian University in Jilin, this paper explores the gap in the process of translating national educational reform into local practice. The results showed that though cultivating students' general key competences has been legally set as the ultimate goal of basic education in China, the lack of empirical research has made the cultivation low efficient. The results also showed that high school English instruction is still mostly exam and knowledge-centered rather than key competence-centered. The four categories of key competences in English: students' language competence, thinking competence, learning competence and cultural competence haven't been developed in balance due to the influence of the current exam-centered educational system. It is concluded that the transition of the teaching concept, teaching mode and the combination between the concerns of the short term exam-oriented results and the long term lifelong development are the key points to develop students' key competences in English.

Keywords: key competences in English, language competence, thinking competence, learning competence, cultural competence, China, educational reform

1. Introduction

This paper explores the role of student and teacher attitudes in translating national educational reform into local practice. The specific focus of the paper is on Chinese student and teacher attitudes toward competence-based instruction in secondary English classes and students' current key competences conditions in English . As explained below, increasing competence-based instruction in all K-12 classes, including English, is a current focus of national educational reform in China.

Competence-based reform assumes that key competences in language include not only basic knowledge such as vocabulary and grammar, but also the capacity to understand and express meanings, emotions, and attitudes, to engage in critical analysis, and to otherwise participate in meaningful communication (Cheng & Zhao, 2016; Jiang, 2016). Although many factors have contributed to competence-focused reforms in China, an important influence is a document released by the Chinese Ministry of Education (MOE) in 2016 entitled "the Development of Chinese Students' Key Competences." This document is authoritative, in the sense that it conveys official national policy concerning competences that must be met through educational practices (Cheng, 2017; Jiang, 2016). All provincial and local educational systems are expected to comply with the legal mandate expressed in this document. For convenience, this document will be referred to here as the "MOE competence directive", or "MOECD."

The purpose of the MOECD is to describe policies and practices that promote reform toward more competence-centered rather than knowledge-centered instruction in all subjects, including English. In the first part of this Introduction, I describe some of the recent historical developments that gave rise to competence-related reforms in China, including the impact of EU and the dissemination of the MOECD. In the second part of the Introduction, I describe some of the known challenges that China faces in implementing the reforms described in the MOECD. In the final part of the Introduction, I describe the survey research conducted for this paper which sheds light on the role of student and teacher attitudes in implementing competence-related reforms based on my survey and empirical study. This research is based on the assumption that competence-centered reforms will be facilitated if empirical study on students' key competences in English in high school instruction can offer practical basis in translating national reform into local practice.

1.1 Recent impact of EU on Chinese educational reform

As the core concept in European Union's educational development in these two decades, key competences, has received more and more attention in international educational circle. With OECD launched a project named DeSeCo Project in 1997,the discussion about the definition and selection on

key competences has started. The most recent thorough exploration of the concept was undertaken by the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) in the DeSeCo Project in 2003. Drawing on this work, the term competence was defined by Rychen & Salganik (2003, p. 43) "as the ability to successfully meet complex demands in a particular context through the mobilization of psycho-social prerequisites."In December 2006, a recommendation of the EU working group on key competences for lifelong learning was adopted by Council and the European Parliament (European Council, 2006).It defined competence as a combination of knowledge, skills and attitudes appropriate to a particular context. Key competences are those which all individuals need for personal fulfillment and development, active citizenship, social inclusion and employment. It identified eight key competences:

- Communication in the mother tongue;

- Communication in foreign languages;

- Mathematical competence and basic competences in science and technology;

- Digital competence;

- Learning to learn;

- Social and civic competences;

- Sense of initiative and entrepreneurship; and

- Cultural awareness and expression.

The EU's work on key competences has sparked greater discussion at the UN and in countries such as the USA, Japan, Singapore and China (Tsai, 2016). Along with recent increases in China's globalization, the Chinese government has realized the importance of basic education that provides its younger generations with competences necessary to help them achieve their own potential, adapt to their environments, and contribute to the social good (Jiang; 2017; Xia, 2017). However, debates among Chinese experts on how to define these key competences have been spirited (Zhong, 2015), and these debates illustrate a challenge to implementing educational reform: Identifying the goals for reform and defining the key concepts on which those goals are based (Chen, 2016; Cheng, 2017; Xia, 2017).

1.2 Key competences in Chinese educational reform

In China, discussion on how to define key competences was heated. On one hand, experts gave their own understandings and definitions based on the definitions of OECD, the DeSeCo and other countries on key competences(Cheng&Zhao,2016,Zhong,2005, Li & Zhong,2005,Tsai,2016). Li Yi & Zhong Baichang(2005) classified key competences into the following three parts: double-based orientation, problem-solving orientation and scientific thinking orientation(Li& Zhong,2015). Tsai Qingtian(2016) identified that key competences consisted of knowledge,skills, attitude and emotions(Tsai,2016).Cheng Xiaotang & Zhao Siqi(2016) concluded that the essence of key competences should be able to answer the following question: "what kind of person should education cultivate" and he also emphasized that education should include not only the learning of knowledge and skills, but also the promotion of students' comprehensive development and lifelong learning capacity(Cheng & Zhao,2016), whose definition is similar to that of the OECD.

On the other hand, experts also had a discussion about how to connect key competences with China's own situation, how to promote the educational reform and to transfer the educational emphasis from knowledge-centered to competence-centered particularly within basic education so far. With the further opening-up policy in China and the strengthening of the globalization, Chinese government has realized the importance of occupying its young generation with the comprehensive competences to help them live up to their own potential, to adapt to the social development and to play their own roles in contributing to the social development, all of which leads to the more emphasis on developing its younger generation's key competences in its basic education. In sum, there is some discussion among experts in China about the nature of the competences that should be the focus of educational reform. Additional debates have concerned the routes by which emphasis can be shifted from knowledge-centered to competence-centered instruction (Chen, 2016; Ji, 2016, Xia, 2017a, Xia, 2017b).

1.3 Current study

As illustrated in the document released by Minister of Education of China named "the Development of Chinese Students' Key competences", developing Chinese students' key competences refers to "the necessary qualities and key abilities that students should have for their lifelong learning and adaption to the social development, which is the comprehensive expression relating to students' knowledge, skills, emotions, attitudes and values." Therefore, cultivating students' key competences has been legally set as the ultimate goal of the basic education in China. As a long term educational goal, cultivating students' key competences should be integrated into all subjects including English. Key competences in English is defined as the necessary qualities and key abilities that students should have

during the English curriculum education at different levels, consisting of language competence , cultural competence, learning competence and thinking competence. The acknowledgement of students' general key competences in English will offer the practical basis for its implementation. (the Curriculum Standards of Normal High School Education in China, 2016). However, the researches that relate to how to cultivate students' key competences in English in China based on knowing students' general conditions are far from enough. To this end, the research aimed to investigate the following two research questions:

1) What are students' attitudes toward the current teaching mode and evaluation system in secondary-level English instruction?

2) How much have students known about the key competences in English? What are students' key competences conditions in English, in the categories of language competence, cultural competence, learning competence and thinking competence?

2. Method

2.1 Subjects

The original sample consisted of 851 non-English major college freshmen who voluntarily completed surveys administered by their English instructors during a break in class. These students were drawn from a total of 24 classrooms. Survey administration took place during the academic year of 2017-2018 in Yanbian University, a comprehensive four-year university located in Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture in Jilin province, in the northeastern part of China. Convenience sampling was used in conjunction with purposive sampling (Dornyei, 2010); Students were eligible to participate if they were freshmen meeting the conditions described above, and were available to participate.

With respect to demographic background, 68% of the sample self-identified as Han Chinese, while 32% were Korean Chinese or some other ethnic minority. 42% of the students were male, 58% were female. 69% of the students came from Jilin province where the university is located, while 31% were from other provinces. The proportions of ethnicity, gender, and provincial background are consistent with those of the university overall.

the sampling was representative and presented the current high school students' general key competences in English provincially.

2.2 Procedure

The purpose of the study was explained to each of the instructors of the participants from the 24 classrooms, and instructors were given detailed instructions on how to administer the survey, including the use of student class registration numbers rather than names. The surveys were distributed during the break time of each class during the second week of their first semester in 2017. The purpose of the study was explained to students, and each participant's individual agreement was obtained before completing the survey. Students were asked to complete their surveys independently, without discussion with other students. Among the 851 participants, 835 surveys were fully completed and thus used for data analysis.

2.3 Measures

Based on the theories about key competences in English and the classification of key competences in English illustrated in the document named "the Curriculum Standards of Normal High School Education in China, Year 2016", I designed the survey. The survey was a self-report measure that relied on multiple-choice formats. The multiple choice options were informed by themes and concepts discussed in the MOECD.

The first part of the survey consisted of five questions on students' views of how English instruction should be carried out, and how it was actually carried out in their high school classes:

The second part consisted of thirty-six questions on high school students' conditions in key competences in English in the following four aspects: language competence, cultural competence, learning competence and thinking competence. The measures were measured with a Likert- type response scale with five response categories ranging from "mostly agree" to "mostly disagree".

3. Results and discussion

3.1 Students' views of how English instruction should be carried out, and how it was actually carried out in their high school classes.

3.1.1 How English instruction was actually carried out in their high school classes.

In this part of the survey, three questions on students' views of how English instruction should be carried out are consisted of:

1. "What purpose should high school English teaching serve?" (Response options: dealing with exams, meeting individual needs, meeting social needs, and promoting key competences.)
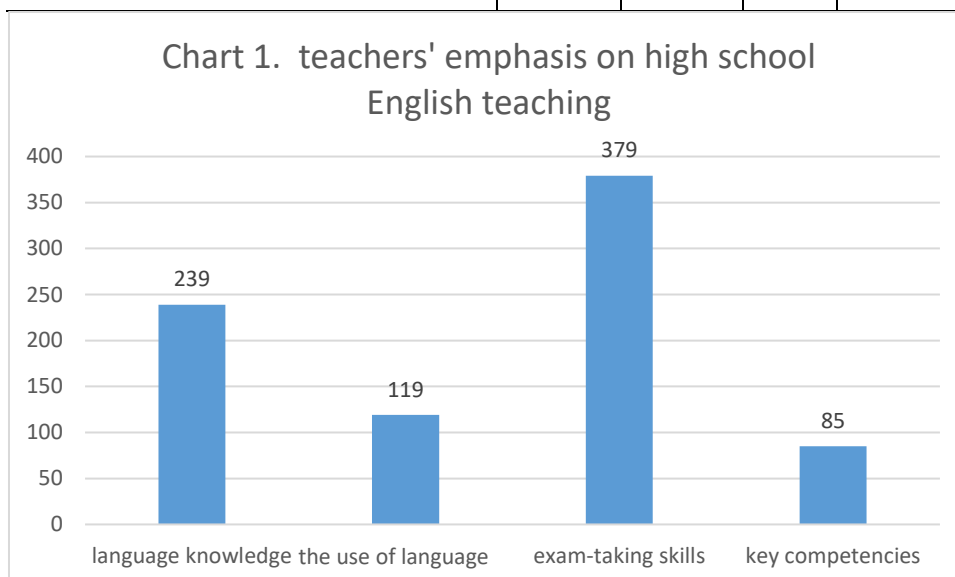
2. "What did your teachers emphasize in high school English classes?" (Response options: knowledge of language, use of language, exam-taking skills, key competences.)
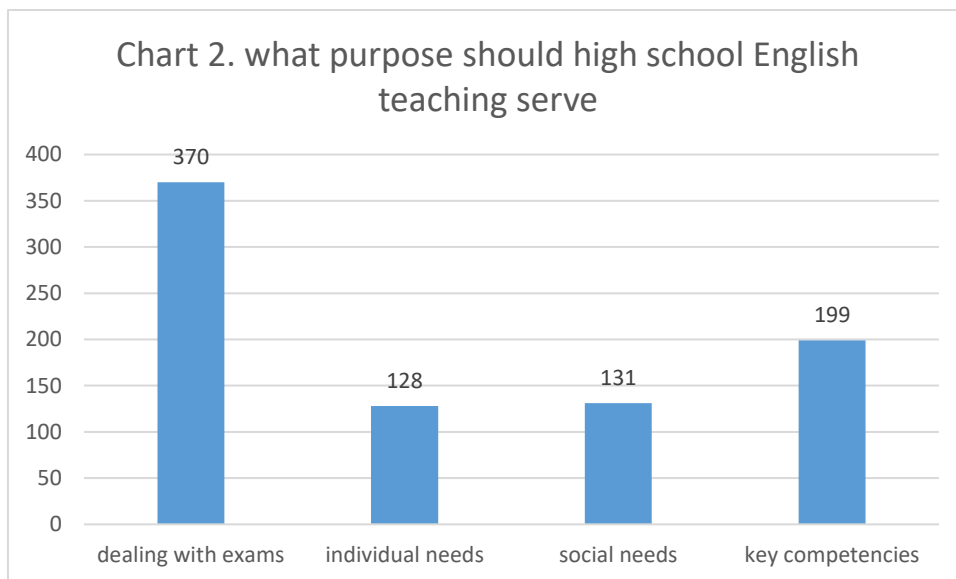
3. "What was the approach to instruction in your high school English classes?" (Options consisted of three statements: instruction was exam-knowledge oriented, instruction was teacher-knowledge oriented, instruction was student-competence oriented.

For each statement, responses were indicated on a Likert- type scale with five response categories ranging from "mostly agree" to "mostly disagree".)

Table 1. the approach to instruction in high school English classes

the approach to instruction	mostly agree	Basically agree	Uncertain	Basically disagree	Mostly Disagree
Exam-knowledge oriented	31%	48%	11%	6%	5%
Teacher-knowledge oriented	25%	48%	13%	10%	4%
Student-competence oriented	19%	35%	24%	16%	5%

Chart 1. teachers' emphasis on high school English teaching

Chart 2. what purpose should high school English teaching serve

The three questions in this part intended to identify Students' views of how English instruction should be carried out, and how it was actually carried out in their high school classes. According to the results in Table one, Chart one and two, affected by the pressure on exam-taking and getting the qualification to the entrance of higher education, high school education is still exam-teacher-oriented instruction though students thought that high school English education should also serve key competences in English, social needs and students' individual needs besides serving exams. Generally, high school English education lays more emphasis on knowledge than competences, more on short term higher education entrance exam passing percentage than students' long term and lifelong development.

Chart 3. students' experience with evaluation in high school English classes
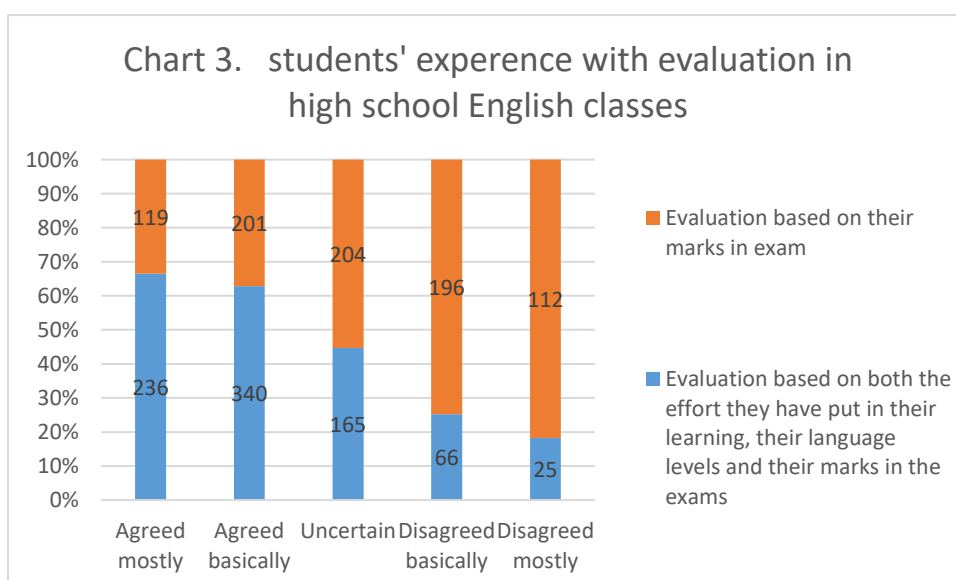
3.1.2 Students' experience with evaluation in high school English instruction.

This part of the survey consisted of two statements about students' experience with evaluation in high school English classes to identify the core characteristics of high school English evaluation system, which was about how students' performance were judged and assessed:

4. "Evaluation in high school English classes was based only on exam grades."

5. "Evaluation in high school English classes was based on a combination of effort, language level, and exam grades."

Responses to each of these two statements were indicated on a Likert- type scale with five response categories ranging from "mostly agree" to "mostly disagree".

As it is seen in Chart Three, approximately 70% of the students thought that their teachers gave them relatively fair evaluation on their performance based on both the effort they have put into their learning, their language levels and their marks in the exams instead of giving them evaluation which was just based on their marks in exams. Accordingly, evaluation in high school English classes has gradually tended to be more objective and reasonable through offering comprehensive evaluation based on both formative evaluation and terminal evaluation.(See Table 1, Chart 1, Chart 2,Chart 3)

3.2 Students' knowledge of key competences in English and their key competences conditions in English, in the categories of language competence, cultural competences, learning competence and thinking competence:

Chart 4. I know what the key competencies in English are
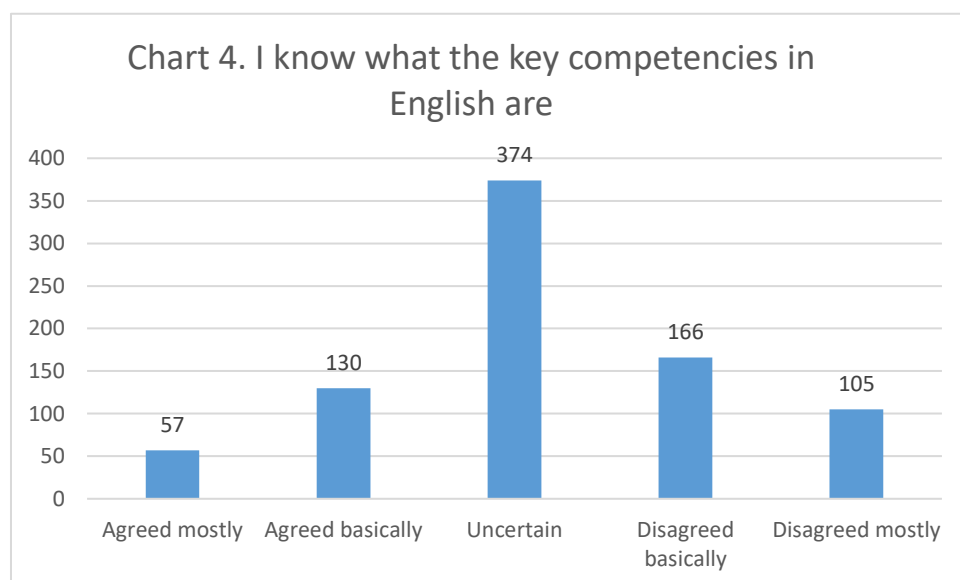
3.2.1 Students' knowledge of key competences in English.

One survey item simply pertained to students' knowledge about the competences as a whole:

6. "I know what the key competences in English are."

Responses to this statement were also indicated on a Likert- type scale with five response categories ranging from "mostly agree" to "mostly disagree".

According to Chart Four, most students chose the choice of "uncertain" to this survey item. Furthermore, there were more students chose "basically disagree" and "mostly disagree" than those who chose "basically agreed" and "mostly agreed", which shows that key competences in English is still a new concept to most students and its implementation in high school education has had no effect to be seen yet.((See Chart 4)

3.2.2 Students' key competences conditions in English, in the categories of language competence, cultural competence, learning competence and thinking competence.

3.2.2.1 Students' language competence conditions.

This part consisted of eight questions to identify students' language competence in categories of the understanding to the passages, the competence to express and the influence of students' mother tongue on their English learning. Responses to these statements were also indicated on a Likert- type scale with five response categories ranging from "mostly agree" to "mostly disagree".

7. "Article-learning is limited on the content understanding."

8. "Teachers guide you to think, judge and analyze independently what you have learned."

9. "Students responded in way of their mother tongue rules."

10. "Students knew how to communicate properly in English."

11. "Students used body language as assistance when communicating in English."

12. "There are cultural conflicts between students' mother tongue and English."

13. "Students would compare English with their mother tongue when learning new English knowledge."

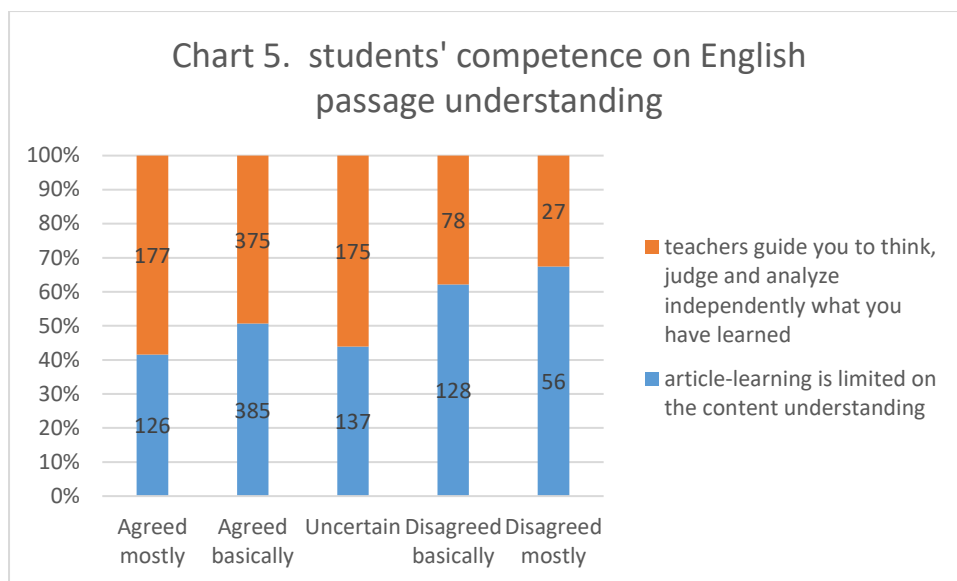14. "The differences between English and students' mother tongue make English learning harder."

Chart 5. students' competence on English passage understanding

Table 2. way of communication in English

Way of communication	mostly agree	Basically agree	Uncertain	Basically disagree	Mostly Disagree
Students responded in way of their mother tongue rules	36%	35%	18%	8%	4%
Students knew how to communicate properly in English	11%	25%	38%	18%	8%
Students used body language as assistance when communicating in English	19%	41%	21%	13%	6%

Table 3. the influence of students' mother tongue on their English

The influence of students' mother tongue on their English	mostly agree	Basically agree	Uncertain	Basically disagree	Mostly Disagree

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There are cultural conflicts between students' mother tongue and English	14%	26%	23%	21%	17%
Students would compare English with their mother tongue when learning new English knowledge	22%	36%	18%	15%	9%
the differences between English and students' mother tongue make English learning harder	20%	35%	21%	16%	8%

Teaching English as a tool of communication is the core content of foreign language teaching, which is accordant to students' learning principles. Therefore, cultivating students' language competence is the basic and core part in high school education. With the development of society and deeper understanding on the nature of foreign language teaching, the definition of language competence becomes more comprehensive and scientific. More and more researchers and experts regard language competence as the competence for language learners to use to understand and express their meanings, intentions, emotions and attitudes in ways of listening, speaking, reading, writing and watching in the social context. (Cheng, Zhao, 2016). Therefore, language competence include both the accumulating and teaching of language knowledge and using language to express meanings and to understand, to think, to analyze and to do judgment to the passages they learn.

As illustrated in Chart Five, Table Two and Three, the cultivation of students' language competence mainly focuses on the teaching and accumulating of English knowledge while no enough attention and enough training has been offered to the understanding, the using of language and students' communicative competence. As for the teaching content, it is still exam-oriented, focusing more on training students' reading and writing skills that are needed for taking exams, which has no close connection to training students' speaking and listening skills in real social communication contexts. Therefore, most students have no clear idea or are uncertain about the proper ways on how to communicate with others in English and rely more on the communication rules of their mother tongue and body language. According to Table Three, students' mother tongue plays more negative role in

their English learning. The percentage of the students who think that there are conflicts between their mother tongue and English is 40%, much more than those who think on the contrary. Furthermore, those who think that they compared their mother tongue with English when learning new English knowledge are 58% of the total population. The percentage of the students who think that the differences between English and their mother tongue make English learning harder is double more than those hold the opposite opinion. All these findings illustrate that students rely much on their mother tongue when learning English and their English language competence is not well enough for them to deal with real communication. (See Chart 5, Table 2, Table 3)

3.2.2.2 Students' learning competence conditions.

This part consisted of 15 questions to identify students' current learning competence conditions in the aspects of learning attitude, self-recognition and learning approaches. Responses to these statements were also indicated on a Likert- type scale with five response categories ranging from "mostly agree" to "mostly disagree".

Survey items on students' learning attitude are the following six：

15. "Students have correct recognition and positive attitude towards English."

16. "English course helps students set up lifelong learning consciousness."

17. "English course helps students set up lifelong learning consciousness."

18. "Students are anxious in English class."

19. "Students participate actively in English class."

20. "Students are anxious about taking English exams."

Survey items on students' learning approaches are the following five：

21. "Students know how to improve their English learning."

22. "Students know how to improve their English exam-taking ability. "

23. "Students have a frequent self-reflection on their learning strategies. "

24. "Students know how to plan their English learning time."

25. "Students have clear long term and short term English learning goals."

Survey items on students' self-recognition are the following five：

26. "English course helps forming good English learning habits."

27. "Teachers often adapt collaborative learning approach in class."

28. "Collaborative learning approach benefits students' English learning. "

29. "Students know how to collaborate with others."

30. "Students are able to fulfill their tasks in their collaborative learning teams."

Learning competence refers to the consciousness and competence that students have to make use of and adjust their learning strategies, to broaden their learning channels (High School English Curriculum Standards, Revised Version, Year 2016). Learning competence are the requirement for students to develop their key competences in English and its formation help students manage their learning well and form good learning habits, broaden their learning channels and improve their learning efficiency(Cheng, 2016).

Table 4. learning attitude towards English

Learning attitude towards English	mostly agree	Basically agree	Uncertain	Basically disagree	Mostly Disagree
Students have correct recognition and positive attitude towards English	22%	36%	24%	12%	6%
English course helps students set up lifelong learning consciousness	21%	35%	28%	11%	6%
Students are anxious in English class	12%	30%	21%	24%	13%
Students participate actively in English class	9%	25%	33%	24%	8%
Students are anxious about taking English exams	16%	24%	21%	26%	13%

The positive learning attitude is in proportion to learning efficiency and learning results. Therefore, knowing students' learning attitude can promote students' learning competence. Based on the 5 questions in this part, although 58% of the students thought that they held correct recognition and positive attitude towards English, only 40% of them took an active part in activities in class, while 40% of them were anxious in class and in exams. The percentage that agreed that English course helped them set up lifelong learning consciousness was 56% and those who were uncertain was 28%. And it reflected the tendency for the students' short-term learning goal, which also leaded to the obvious gap between students' learning attitude and real performance. Further research needs to be done to explore how to keep students' positive learning attitude and improve their learning performance.(See Table 4)

Table 5. self-recognition

Self-recognition	mostly agree	Basically agree	Uncertain	Basically disagree	Mostly Disagree
Students know how to improve their English learning competence	14%	34%	35%	13%	4%
Students know how to improve their English exam-taking ability	12%	39%	31%	11%	6%
Students have a frequent self-reflection on their learning strategies	13%	34%	32%	16%	5%
Students know how to plan their English learning time	9%	30%	35%	18%	9%
Students have clear long term and short term English learning goals	12%	27%	33%	17%	11%

Self-recognition is equal to students' meta-cognitive strategy, which refers to the strategies that students use in their learning process to do self-planning, self-supervision, self-evaluation, self-

reflection and self-adjustment in order to improve learning efficiency (Xia, 2017). As shown in Table 5, high school English learning is still a kind of passive learning focusing on dealing with exam-taking. Students' self-recognition level is low, with only 50% of them knowing how to improve their learning competence and exam-taking competence, 47% of them are good at doing self-reflection, 39% of them are able to plan their learning time and having clear short term and long term learning goals. Therefore, students rely more on their teachers' guidance and classroom learning, lack of clear learning purpose and goal, which leads to the situation that students' autonomous learning consciousness and competence are not strong enough for them to form good learning habits and lifelong consciousness. (See Table 5)

Table 6. learning approaches

Learning approaches	mostly agree	Basically agree	Uncertain	Basically disagree	Mostly Disagree
English course helps forming good English learning habits	22%	42%	20%	10%	6%
Teachers often adapt collaborative learning approach in class	19%	35%	22%	18%	7%
Collaborative learning approach benefits students' English learning	21%	38%	26%	9%	6%
Students know how to collaborate with others	15%	40%	29%	11%	6%
Students are able to fulfill their tasks in their collaborative learning teams	22%	47%	19%	8%	4%

The five questions, relating to learning approach are designed to identify students' collaborative learning consciousness and competence and their evaluation on collaborative learning approach. In Table 6, compared to the weak autonomous learning consciousness, students tend to be more willing

to accept collaborative learning approach and 60% of them think that they are able to fulfill their tasks in their collaborative learning teams. Though collaborative learning approach is more favored by students, the percentage of teachers who adapt this approach in teaching is quite low due to the influence of traditional teacher-oriented teaching concept. Teachers regard lecture-centered teaching approach as more effective and more efficient, unwilling to give students more chance to try student-centered approaches like autonomous and collaborative approaches, which shows that current English teaching focuses more on knowledge-teaching and pays no enough attention to cultivating students' autonomous learning and collaborative competence. In long term, what students grasp from English course will limit to knowledge only, which will make it hard to stimulate students' subjective dynamism, hard to cultivate students' collaborative competence.(See Table 6)

3.2.2.3 Thinking competence conditions.

This part consisted of three questions to identify students' current thinking competence conditions. Responses to these statements were also indicated on a Likert- type scale with five response categories ranging from "mostly agree" to "mostly disagree".

31. "Teachers are concerned about cultivating students' thinking competences."

32. "English course helps cultivate students' logical, critical and creative thinking competences."

33. "English course helps cultivate students' English thinking habits."

Table 7. thinking competences

Thinking competences	mostly agree	Basically agree	Uncertain	Basically disagree	Mostly Disagree
Teachers are concerned about cultivating students' thinking competences	16%	34%	30%	14%	6%
English course helps cultivate students' logical, critical and creative thinking competences	15%	34%	30%	15%	6%

English course helps cultivate students' English thinking habits	18%	37%	27%	12%	5%

English thinking competence is the mental development that students get through English course learning, which reflects the level and characteristics of students' logic thinking, critical thinking and creative thinking(Cheng,2017). Language is the reflection of thinking and foreign language thinking competence is essential when learning a foreign language. Based on the answers to the three questions in this part, only 50% of the students thought that teachers were concerned about cultivating their thinking competence, the percentage of students who thought that English course helped cultivate their thinking competence is even lower, just 49%. As having illustrated in part of the negative influence of students' mother tongue, the tendency of students' mother tongue thinking habit in learning foreign language is obvious and English learning has no obvious help for students' English mental development. The lack of cultivating students' thinking competence is not conducive to improve students' competences to analyze and solve problems, not conducive to observe and recognize the world and to do correct judgment in intercultural respect, not conducive to promote students' deep learning(Xia, 2017). (SeeTable7)

3.2.2.4 Cultural competence conditions

This part consisted of three questions to identify students' cultural competence conditions, among which four items were on their cultural consciousness and five items were on their cultural behavior. Responses to these statements were also indicated on a Likert- type scale with five response categories ranging from "mostly agree" to "mostly disagree".

34. "Multicultural and multilingual environment benefits students' English learning."

35. "English course helps students form their own cultural standpoint and cultural resolution competences."

36. "English course helps students understand other ethnics' emotion, attitude and value."

37. "English course helps students understand western countries' social phenomenon and cultural background."

38. "Students understand and tolerant different cultures. "

39. "Students get along well with classmates from other ethnics."

40. "Students prefer to be with their classmates from the same ethnic."

41. "Teachers are concerned about cultivating students' cultural competences and intercultural consciousness."

Table 8. cultural consciousness

The promotion on students' cultural consciousness	mostly agree	Basically agree	Uncertain	Basically disagree	Mostly Disagree
Multicultural and multilingual environment benefits students' English learning	38%	41%	12%	5%	4%
English course helps students form their own cultural standpoint and cultural resolution competences	16%	35%	28%	16%	6%
English course helps students understand other ethnics' emotion, attitude and value	18%	36%	25%	15%	6%
English course helps students understand western countries' social phenomenon and cultural background	17%	44%	21%	12%	6%

Table 9. cultural behavior

Cultural behavior	mostly agree	Basically agree	Uncertain	Basically disagree	Mostly Disagree

Students understand and tolerant different cultures	34%	40%	16%	5%	5%
Students get along well with classmates from other ethnics	35%	39%	13%	8%	5%
Students prefer to be with their classmates from the same ethnic	19%	34%	26%	13%	8%
Teachers are concerned about cultivating students' cultural competences and intercultural consciousness	19%	34%	26%	16%	6%

Cultural competences refers to students' understanding to their own culture and western culture and their recognition to excellent cultures, which presents students' cultural consciousness, literary accomplishment and orientation of conduct in global context. It also includes students' emotion, attitude and value (Cheng,2017). For Yanbian University, located in Yanbian Korean Autonomous Prefecture, featured in multilingual environment, the formation of international and intercultural understanding among different cultures is needed due to its multicultural and multilingual environment in particularly. In order to identify students' cultural competences conditions, students' cultural consciousness and cultural behavior are checked through 8 questions. From the perspective of cultural consciousness, 79% of students thought that multicultural and multilingual environment benefit their English learning while 61% of students thought English course helps them understand western countries' social phenomenon and cultural background. 54% of the students thought English course helps them understand other ethnics' emotion, attitude and value, while 51% of them thought that English course helps them form their own cultural standpoint and cultural resolution competences. Compared with other ethnics' emotion, attitude and value, which relating to the cultural understanding at a higher level, western countries' social phenomenon and cultural background belong to the cultural knowledge understanding at a lower level, about which the percentage of the students who thought positively is much higher than the former one. Similarly, students' own cultural standpoint and cultural resolution are formed on the basis of their intercultural understanding and transfer, which belongs to the highest level compared with the former two. However, the percentage of the students who thought positively about it is the lowest on the contrary.

From the perspective of students' cultural behavior, although the percentages of students who thought they understood and tolerated different cultures, while those who thought that they could get along well with classmates from other ethnics all reached to 74%, there were still 53% of the students prefer to be with their classmates from the same ethnic. Similarly,the percentages of students who thought that teachers were concerned about cultivating students' cultural competences and intercultural consciousness was only 53%.

All these findings showed that in high school education, the cultivation on students' cultural competences just limited on the level of superficial knowledge teaching. There is still a long way to improve to the level of cultural consciousness and the unity of knowledge and practice. It is still hard for students to connect their own culture with other nations' and the foreign culture they are learning to set up intercultural consciousness and objective behavior orientation.(See table 8 and table 9)

4. Conclusion Remarks

The survey findings suggest that although students 'general key competences in areas such as English have been legally set as the ultimate goal of basic education in China (Chinese Students' Development in Key competences,2016), the lack of empirical research has made the cultivation in students' key competences in low-efficiency.

In the Introduction it was noted that one obstacle to national educational reform, in the case of China's shift toward competence-oriented instruction in English and other subjects, is that experts may disagree about the nature of concepts fundamental to reform (Chen, 2016; Cheng, 2017; Ji, 2016, Xia, 2017a; Xia, 2017b). In China, experts are still debating the nature of key competences. The results of the present study suggest that another obstacle to reform is the attitudes arising from local educational practices that meet existing needs. The focus of high school English education is still on English knowledge teaching instead of the key competences in English. Students' language capacity, thinking competence, learning capacity and cultural competence (the Curriculum Standards of Normal High School Education in China, 2016) haven't been developed in balance due to the influence of the current exam-oriented educational system. The transition of the teaching concept, teaching mode and the combination between the concerns of the short term exam-oriented and the long term lifelong development are important to develop students' key competences in English.The key to achieve the transformation is to reform the evaluation systems, to change teachers' attitude and to improve their key competences in English. In teaching practice, firstly knowing the conditions of students' key competences in English through empirical study helps to teach students in accordance of their aptitude and to improve teaching efficiency. Secondly, teachers should have a definite object in view, focusing

teaching on the cultivating of students' key competences in English, regarding the four categories as an entirety and regarding students' comprehensive development and the lifelong learning consciousness setup as the final aim.

The present study is apparently the first to examine teaching practices with respect to key competences taught in high school English classes in China. The use of self-report surveys is a limitation of the study, as students may not be fully reliable sources of information about teaching practices. Future research into this topic should include classroom observations and/or teacher interviews as means of better understanding teaching practices in Chinese high school English classes. In addition, future research could probe student and teacher attitudes and practice in a deeper way through more extensive interviews and class instruction.

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Blended Learning Course Design and Implementation to Foster the Intercultural Awareness of Preservice Teachers in an EFL Context

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Abstract

In the digital society of the 21st century, the traditional language classroom is expected to be somewhat transformed into an ICT-enhanced learning environment. However, the transition to a blended learning environment can be a complex task. This study proposes a blended learning model using research and development methodology for a tertiary-level EFL course aimed at improving preservice teachers' intercultural awareness and communicative competence. The research findings showed how the blended pedagogy transformed a typical classroom into one that had the ability to achieve its goals in developing both linguistic and intercultural competence. The proposed blended pedagogy exemplifies ICT integration that supports the relationship between language and culture and the development of intercultural competence. The outcomes of the learning demonstrated that the participants made significant changes in their awareness towards different intercultural situations.

Keywords: Blended learning; Intercultural awareness

1. Background and Introduction

Since 2013, the Teachers' Council of Thailand (TCT) has implemented eleven standards for the knowledge and competencies of professional teachers (TCT, 2013). One of the standards is that the teacher education program must incorporate "language" and "culture" as a competency requirement to prepare all teachers no matter what subject area they are teaching. This reference to culture in the national policy reflects a perspective change and important recognition of the established connection between language and culture. One of the TCT standards also aims to promote the understanding of language and culture for the harmonious coexistence of diverse contexts. With this particular goal in mind, the course design approach is based on the notion that language learning is viewed a cultural process to educate learners for the intercultural citizenship (Baker 2012) and to have intercultural learning experiences in order to change their perceptions about themselves and others (Byram, 2008).

In addition to the provision of the TCT's requirement of competencies as the background of this study, the context of the Thai classroom in my teacher education program influenced the pedagogical design of this study. In my teaching context at a public university in Thailand, I experienced a high rate of absenteeism in my undergraduate classes, especially the absence of student athletes who often need to attend sports events or university-related activities. These students among others missed the chance to participate in a full learning cycle in the classroom. For this reason face-to-face class meetings alone cannot accommodate the students' time constraints. Moreover, it is a common phenomenon that students that manage to attend every class will soon forget the materials once the face-to-face class is over. The lack of constant skill practices can result in unsuccessful language and intercultural competence development. However, I believe that the advent of the new technology available today can create a variety of new pedagogies. I found that the blended learning approach offered a pedagogical solution to my situation. A number of studies have reported that blended activities can potentially enhance the students' learning experience (Clark, Human, Amshoff, and Sigg, 2001, Chansamrong, Tubsaree, and Kiratibodi, 2014). However, how to best design a blended classroom environment suitable for a particular context and a particular purpose can be a complex task when the technology needs to be effectively merged with learning principles.

2. The gap in the literature and the importance of the study

In addition to the pedagogical reasons for the present study, it was conducted because research on the effectiveness of blended learning in EFL classrooms has not been widely reported, even though blended learning practices have long been employed, particularly at tertiary level institutions. A few studies have explored the effectiveness of blended learning in terms of learner autonomy (Sanprasert, 2010; Snowdin, 2013) and regarding the learning of grammar (Chansomrong, Tubsree, and Kiratibodee, 2014). These studies however did not directly explore the intercultural awareness among Thai learners, except for Baker (2011), who studied how an online course was able to effectively deliver the materials with an orientation toward intercultural competence. The results showed that the online course led to the participants' changes of perceptions of intercultural communication—they were reported to have developed deeper knowledge of their own cultures and an awareness of stereotypical points of view. Nonetheless, the question of how best to design a blended learning environment and the development of intercultural awareness (ICA) needs further investigation. This study is built on the work of Baker (2012), who suggested ways to implement ICA in the classroom. The suggestions include investigating the relationships between culture, language, and communication through the following: exploring local cultures; exploring language learning materials; exploring media and arts both online and through more "traditional" media; making use of cultural informants;

and engaging in intercultural communication, both face to face and electronically. These suggestions still need to be made a reality and therefore it is hoped that the lessons learned from this study will add to the literature concerning what kind of local context-specific design principles can be considered to develop the language and intercultural competence of pre-service teachers to meet the local challenges in higher education classrooms.

3. Literature Review

In this section, I will describe the underlying principles that guide my course design. Two main areas of the literature, namely the concepts of language and culture and blended learning principles, were investigated, explored, and incorporated into the pedagogical design of the course. Priorities were given to the current concepts of language and culture.

The interconnectedness of language and culture has long been a common understanding in the field of language education (Baker, 2012; Kramsch, 2000; Kainzbauer & Haghirian, 2006). Language is used to express, embody, and symbolize cultural reality (Kramsch, 2000). Language skills require cultural and social perspectives as tools to understand how those skills can be put into use in the respective contexts. Before the focus on the interrelationship between language and culture can be thoroughly explored, the expanded meaning of culture needs to be first established. In recent years, culture has become well understood beyond a fixed entity to include socially-constructed beliefs, norms, attitudes, values, and practices (Käck et al., 2014). Culture is seen today an integral part of language and vice versa, so both language and culture are inextricably intertwined (Ho, 2009; Moran, 2001; Mitchell and Myles, 2004). Moran (2001) has stated that culture resides in persons and each person's identity is shaped by family values, social organizations (schools), and ethnic groups, and therefore the individual members of a culture have their own unique identities. It is important to make people aware of this cultural dimension because it reflects the complexities and multiplicity of the real world. Knowing about an individual's uniqueness makes people aware of when they are overgeneralizing or making stereotypical judgments about others. Consequently, it is not enough to accumulate the necessary facts about culture—the affective dimension, including empathy and respect towards other cultures, is also crucial (Käck et al., 2014).

Nevertheless, language and culture are often taught as two components and are even viewed separately (Drewelow and Mitchell, 2015). A study by Schenker (2013), for example, found that German language learners still perceive a culture as a static entity rather than "a social construct, a product of self and other perceptions" (p.499). As a result, literature courses and language skill courses have been developed as two components in the foreign language curriculum, where culture is usually

taught in upper-division courses while language skills are taught with the sole focus on linguistic development (Drewelow and Mitchelle, 2017). Consequently, the learners learn language and culture separately and only loosely connect the two concepts. It is the intention of my course to develop the students' language proficiency while emphasizing the interconnected roles of language and culture, for example how language plays a part in intercultural experiences and how culture shapes, expands, and limits linguistic expressions. Additionally, whether the development of cultural competence can be facilitated and enhanced through ICT-integrated lessons is an issue worth exploring.

3.1 Intercultural Awareness

According to Baker (2011), intercultural awareness can be defined in part as "a conscious understanding of the role culturally-based forms, practices and frames of reference can have in intercultural communication" (p.5). A person with ICA learns to adjust his or her own understanding of and expectations about how a particular intercultural interaction should proceed and to predict the possibility of miscommunication. The notion of ICA is very close in meaning to cultural awareness (CA), defined as the understanding and awareness of one's culturally-induced behavior and that of others from different backgrounds, especially in terms of beliefs, values, and perceptions (Tomlinson, 2002; Chutima, 2016).

Developing intercultural awareness involves an understanding of the broader meaning of culture, which includes beliefs, norms and values. For teaching, it is not enough to focus only on one aspect of culture because this may lead to superficial knowledge and oversimplified conceptions because it creates an idea of a fixed entity and a narrow meaning of the term "culture" (author, in press). For this reason, the culture taught in language classrooms should focus more on the expanded meaning of culture, especially the cultural aspects that are taken for granted. The approach to this pedagogical design treats all cultural values as something that is not fixed but is open to debate.

3.2 Role of English

Globalization has affected the role of the English language in the world. Due to the changing status of the English language today, the emergence of new areas of studies such as World Englishes, International Englishes, and Global Englishes, and English as a Lingua Franca, has given rise to the international role of English and explains the phenomenon of the pluralization of English nowadays. The pluralistic view of English has received attention and agreement when considering the undeniable fact that speakers of English whose first language is not English actually outnumber those for whom it is the mother tongue (Jenkins, 2009; Crystal, 2003; Graddol, 2006). English is used by nearly a third of the world's population and approximately 70 percent of them are not "native" English speakers

(Ahn, 2014; Jenkins, 2009), and the interactions mostly occur among "non-native" speakers of English (Jindapitak & Teo, 2010). Therefore, these changes in the international use of English have unavoidably affected the way in which English is and should be taught nowadays.

In practice, even though a number of studies have found that English language educators have a long-held belief and attitude that American English and/or British English are the "correct" norms of English (Bissett & Ma, 2015), studies have shown growing awareness of and advocacy for teaching varieties of English in many parts of the world (Ahn, 2014; Xu, 2006; Matsuda, 2003; Berniasch, 2012). This movement towards varieties of English has called for a critical reflection on current beliefs and practices in an EFL context like Thailand. A number of studies have shown that Thai learners' English performance is unsatisfactory because their English learning is neither related to their daily life, nor does it respond to their sociolinguistic needs (Kanoksilapatham, 2016). The predominant view of English lessons based on "Western" views and Anglophone materials is called into question and has been found to not be responsive to the sociocultural realities of local contexts (Jindapitak & Teo, 2010), especially when taking into account the inextricable link between language and culture. Language learners should be able to develop their linguistic competence based on a wider view of the cultural contexts in which the language they are learning is used (Laopongharn & Sercombe, 2009).

Therefore, the framework of the course design that I am suggesting must incorporate the notion that language learning can be used to foster intercultural awareness and global citizenship (Baker, 2012). The concept of global citizens touches upon such characteristics as respect for humanity, equality, appreciation for diversity and multiple perspectives, and conflict resolution and social justice. It is the very idea that TCT supports using language and culture to promote the peaceful and harmonious coexistence of people. Consequently, my argument is based on the perspective of global Englishes and the interconnectedness between language and culture. The course incorporates a diversity of languages and cultures so that pre-service teachers can develop a deeper understanding of the global social contexts where language and culture pedagogy draw on the complex relationships among language, culture, society, and the individual (Risager, 2007).

3.3 Blended learning principles

The blended learning concept incorporates instructional design in order to pragmatically respond to classroom needs. Blended learning in the narrowest sense is actually the convergence of two typical learning environments (traditional face-to-face instruction and the distance, or distributed, learning system) that were mainly separated in the past, but are being highly "*blended*" now and are likely to be in the future (Graham, 2004). This convergence has been accelerated chiefly

through technological advancement, and the trend is predicted to be so tremendous that the two learning systems are likely to become inseparable, and thus the word "blended" could be dropped (Masie, 2004; Massy, 2004). It is becoming more common for blended course design to have combined elements of F2F and online. Instead of viewing the two modes of learning according to two separate functions, it seems to be more sensible to make learning efficient with the abundant tools that are currently available.

Blended learning has many benefits, but an obvious advantage over conventional learning is that the instruction is not limited to the class time (Bonk & Graham, 2005). Additionally, due to the nature of online courses, teachers have time to prepare and reflect on the class structure and materials thoroughly before the class begins. Bonk and Graham (2005) have pointed out the key benefits of the blended approach that can be used to evaluate the effectiveness of blended learning, and these include expanded access to the course materials, improved quality, the ability to cater to diverse student populations, speeded up time for graduation, and addressing students' desire for technology in education.

Most people may assume that in the blended course design, a portion of the face-to-face instruction must be replaced by online instruction, but that is not necessarily the case. In fact, there are several models for blended learning, such as ICT/Web enhanced instruction, hybrid learning, and complete online instruction. In order to make clear the scope of each term, scholars in the field have attempted to define different types of blended learning. Smith and Kurthen (2007), for example, proposed that courses in which online learning occupies around 45 percent should be considered '*blended*' learning, whereas those with the online part being between 45 to 80 percent should be called *hybrid*, and those with an online learning part of more than 80 percent, *fully online*. However, those courses in which the online part is minimally used, for example, for course announcements or syllabus postings, should instead be called *Web-enhanced*.

The blended model that uses technology as a supplement to the traditional face-to-face (F2F) instruction seems to be more prevalent in the classrooms today as technology is regularly used to facilitate traditional F2F instruction. It is important to note that the allocation of percentages of online and face-to-face class time must take into account the goals of the teaching, the needs of the students, and the constraints of the context when designing a blended learning environment.

Regarding the effectiveness of blended learning in general, the results from a meta-analysis of the literature on a large amount of empirical research pointed out the overall effectiveness of blended learning. For example, Means et al. (2013) have done a meta-analysis of the literature on blended and online learning research. With careful and intricate screening criteria, 50 independent effect sizes were

identified (27 for fully online vs. F2F; and 23 blended learning vs. F2F) from 45 empirical studies (screened from 1,132 articles from the start), which were carried out between 1996 and 2008 in academic fields ranging from medicine and healthcare for the most part to education, social science, and business and science; and with the number of learners in all the studies ranging from 16 to 1,857. Based on their findings, online learning (both purely online and blended learning) in general created more positive learning outcomes than only using the traditional face-to-face approach, with the size effect for blended learning vs. face-to-face being significantly different, thus demonstrating that blended learning was more effective than instruction provided fully in a face-to-face manner. Moreover, they also found that the blended approach was more effective than the traditional face-to-face method when the "the online pedagogy was expository and collaborative rather than independent in nature; and when the curricular materials and instruction varied between online and face-to-face conditions" (p. 36).

It should also be noted that careful consideration should be made concerning the advantages of blended learning. A number of studies on blended learning generally indicated positive perceptions from the participants (Chansamrong, Tubsiree and Kirathibodi, 2014; Bishop and Verleger, 2013; Dennis, 2011; Larsen, 2012; Sajid et al., 2016), especially in studies on learners' attitudes toward the blends applied in instruction, which were largely done using the quantitative approach. Whittacker (2013; p. 19), for example, criticized findings from the studies done in a non-empirical fashion as '*impressionistic evidence*' in the favor of blended learning itself, calling for investigating the area using a more empirical approach. It is also equally important to consider the fact that blended learning has different models. Therefore, when discussing the effectiveness of blended learning, it is important to establish first what blended learning model is designed, implemented, with whom it is being used, and for what purposes.

4. Methodology

This section describes a blended learning environment that includes the integration of online and face-to-face activities in an "enabling blend" (Graham, 2005) learning system. The design and development research aims to "develop new or improved interventions or strategies to achieve well-specified learning goals or objectives, including the refinements on the basis of small-scale testing" (Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education, and the National Science Foundation, 2013, p.12). This study was conducted in a course called Languages and Cultures for Teachers, an undergraduate class in the Faculty of Education at a large public university in Thailand.

4.1 The blended course design development

The regular F2F course on Languages and Cultures for Teachers was redesigned to incorporate the digital technology based on main pedagogical principles. The instructional activities have been piloted and improved through two rounds of classroom experiments. The course was divided into a total of 20 hours of online activities and 30 hours of F2F activities. The class met F2F once a week for 120 minutes while the online portion was done through Edmodo which I used as an online platform to facilitate discussion and class management. The following table shows the instructional activities in the blended learning model used in this language and culture course. The online and F2F activities were designed to complement and build on the same content and purpose. The instructional activities are highlighted and demonstrated in Table 1 to include the main principles of blended pedagogy, and the content, modality, and pedagogical strategy of each module. Then a summary of the main principles used in the design and implementation is included.

Main Principles in Blended Pedagogies	Content Unit	Online Activities (20 hours)	F2F Activities (30 hours)
1. Accessibility to linguistic and cultural knowledge 2. Increased Participation and Discussions on Socio-Cultural Issues	• **Meaning of culture** • **Interrelationship between language and culture** • **Non-verbal communication**	• **Edmodo used as Course Management System** • **Video clips about body language across cultures** • **Online discussion**	• **Critical incidents** • **In-class discussions** • **Autobiography**
3. Expanding the Intercultural Experiences	• **Cultural beliefs, values, and norms** • **Religious beliefs** • **Sexism and equality** • **Prejudice**	• **Online discussion** • **Video clips/blogs about socio-cultural issues**	• **Role-play** • **Identity-tag game**
4. Increased exposure to the target language/culture	• **English pronunciations and English as a Lingua Franca (ELF)**	• **Video clips about different English accents** • **Telecollaborative project**	• **Invited guest speakers** • **Class presentation about local cultures** • **Class discussion**
5. Efficient Management of the course	• **Communicative language skills** • **Classroom language** • **Loanwords/ Borrowed words** • **Local cultures**	• **E-pals** • **Language learning Websites from various sources such as Facebook, YouTube, Khan academy, TedEd**	• **Communicative activities** • **In-class presentations**

Table 1 Summary of the instructional model for enhancing language and intercultural competence

The table shows how each content unit is designed to have both online and F2F activities by considering the main principles of blended pedagogy. The left column highlights the main principles of blended learning employed in the course design that enhance the content and interactive activities. Both modes of delivery shared the same contents. As a result, the course contains more varieties of activities than when using a single mode of content delivery.

4.2 The design principles

This section discusses the main principles used to design the course using blended pedagogy. These principles provide a guide for the kind of ICT-based tools to be used in the class and how they should be used. As the literature has suggested, the effectiveness of the use of technology does not depend on a particular tool, but how the tool is used for a specific purpose. The main principles for this study include the following.

4.2.1. Accessibility to linguistic and cultural knowledge. The online resources provide learners with the opportunity to gain entry to linguistic and cultural knowledge. A myriad of video clips of English varieties spoken in different parts of the world, English lessons, movie clips, blogs, forums, images about socio-cultural issues such as LGBT rights, immigrants' voices, different body language, and dialects among other examples provide rich learning resources to serve as authentic materials for language learning and to be used as a springboard for the discussion of socio-cultural and controversial issues. Additionally, the online resources offer learners the ability to constantly practice their language skills outside the classroom.

4.2.2. Increased participation and discussion of socio-cultural issues. Blended pedagogy increases the learners' equal participation and discussion of sensitive issues in the Thai culture, such as the exploration about immigrants and the university's initiation rites. The online chat tools allow learners to freely express their opinions in a democratic way. They can use their mobile phones to connect to websites using a pseudonym to post their messages for the whole class, and they can interact anonymously in class through the online chats. This helps to avoid confrontations concerning culturally controversial topics that could potentially lead to conflict. Without these tools, Thai learners would be shy in expressing their opinions publicly as they do not want to confront differing opinions.

4.2.3. Expanding the cultural experiences. The "E-pals Global Community© by Cricket media" is an example of a tool used to connect with educators around the world without having to physically travel outside the classroom. In my class, we collaborated with classes from Turkey and the U.S.

through the E-pals project facilitated by a website that allowed us to randomly match our students with their E-pal partners. The students communicated and exchanged their views on different topics such as cultural traditions, daily lives, and their schooling. The E-pals project placed the students in situations in which intercultural communicative skills were required. Learners need to know how to communicate effectively and appropriately using authentic writing tasks. Technology allows them to attach pictures or hyperlinks to the clips they want to introduce to their E-pal partners. Some of them continue to exchange their messages through online applications such as Instagram©, Facebook© through which they can exchange their pictures and video clips instantly.

4.2.4. Increased exposure to the target language/culture. Blended pedagogy offers professional development through platforms used in class, such as Edmodo©, Google classroom©. These tools deliver not only updated knowledge for content materials that can be used for class discussions, but also provide more channels to connect to other educators around the world about how to integrate technology in their classes.

4.2.5. Efficient management of the online course. Edmodo is used as a platform whereby the teacher can share class materials with students, between students, and with other classes. I usually put the class readings on Google sites, and the links can be easily posted on Edmodo so that the students that missed the class can always access and study the materials at any time. The students' assignments can be submitted via Edmodo, which functions as a course management system (CMS) in which the submitted files are time stamped, stored, graded, and recorded. The teacher can keep track of the learners' progress and the learners can monitor their own learning. The guest speakers' presentations are recorded and posted on Edmodo so that the students can view them at any time and as many times as they like. In this way, the learners can choose their own learning pace. Additionally, Edmodo is also a professional development tool that allows me to see materials that other teachers share. I can attend the webinars and learn to design different class activities.

4.3 Participants

The instructional design of the course was implemented with two groups of 76 pre-service teachers enrolled in the Languages and Cultures for Teachers course, as mentioned. The instruments used to collect the data to evaluate the students' intercultural competence and learning outcomes included a questionnaire, reflective journals, and interviews to determine whether the model effectively enhanced the students' intercultural and linguistic competence.

5. Results and Discussions

This section provides details of the results from implementing the instructional model, which was developed through the research and development cycle in order to enhance the students' ICA and language competence. The implementation of the model took place during the first semester of academic year 2017. The data were analyzed and organized into three aspects of the outcomes; namely ICA, linguistic knowledge, and perceptions of blended learning. The following are the details for each aspect of the learning outcomes.

5.1 Intercultural Awareness

Intercultural awareness is assessed by a situation judgement instrument that prompts the participants to respond to a hypothetical situation before and after the course. The intercultural awareness in this study was defined as understanding of the cultural dimensions that are not necessarily confined by national cultures or cross-cultural experiences. ICA rather focuses on the inter- or trans-cultural dimensions (Baker, n.d.) and to critically examine such socio-cultural values as race and gender. I developed six short scenarios based on the topics covered in the course, including the issues of race, gender inequality, world Englishes, and non-verbal communication. The students' answers were coded by following the coding scheme I developed based on the conceptual framework drawn from current perspectives on intercultural awareness. The following table shows the details of the coding scheme.

+1	-1
The response showed openness to and curiosity about new beliefs, values, and worldviews. (Byram, 1997)	Apathy, no curiosity
Self-awareness and internal transformation in the pursuit of intercultural competence (Furstenberg, 2010; Green, 1997; Kramsch, 2004)	Judgmental, showing signs of bias, prejudice
View the world from the perspectives of others	Self-centered perspectives
Ethno relativism	Ethnocentrism

Tolerance of ambiguity (Griffith et.al.,2016)	Intolerance of ambiguity

Table 2 The coding scheme for intercultural awareness

The coding was done by the two coders, who read and coded the students' responses separately. Then the codes were compared and revealed a small number of disagreements. The coders discussed the differences and recoded again. In the second round of coding, both coders reached 100% agreement.

Intercultural Situations	ICA Change (Pretest-Posttest)	ICA Total (N=76)	P Value
1. Different greeting customs	17 (22%)	41 (53.9%)	0.45
2. Gender issue (LGBT)	7 (9.2%)	62 (90.7%)	0.59
3. Race issue (Immigrants)	27 (35.5%)	46 (60.5%)	0.00*
4. Religious Custom	32 (42.1%)	36 (47.3%)	3.06*
5. EIL	24 (31.5%)	11 (46%)	0.06

Table 3 Changes in the Students' Level of Intercultural Awareness

Table 3 demonstrates the results for intercultural awareness in each situation. The ICA change (comparing the results of the pretest to the posttest) was calculated from the number of participants that had made progress in their intercultural awareness in each situation (from -1 to 1). The ICA total showed the number of all the participants that developed ICA at the end of the course. The p-value revealed which questions gained a statistical significance in the participants' ICA. The highlighted

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results were the gender issue (no.2) and religious custom (no. 4). The gender differences situation asked how the participants felt towards gender equality and LGBT. The majority of the students' responses in the pretest showed an awareness and acceptance of different genders. Therefore in the posttest, there was not much room for improvement. The ICA total in this situation showed the highest numbers of participants with ICA (90.7%). In terms of ICA change, situation 4 (religious customs) demonstrated the highest numbers of participants that positively changed their views from the pretest to the posttest (42.1%). The explicit instruction along with the multimodal tools such as video clips, pictures, Webboards, and face-to-face explicit discussion of the issue had an effect on the ICA level.

In addition to the pretest and posttest, I qualitatively analysed the data from the students' reflective journals. The main findings were organized by emerging themes relevant to intercultural awareness, namely the renewed understanding of culture, accepting multiple perspectives, and valuing the attitudes and beliefs of others. These four themes emerged from the students' reflections at the end of the course. The discussion was integrated into each theme.

5.1.1 Awareness of different cultural products and practices

After being exposed to different cultural products and practices, such as different ways of greeting, discussions on race issues through watching video clips and listening to guest speakers, the students expressed their awareness and recognition of those cultural practices that were different from their own: "Each country has a different norm so we need to be careful with our own actions," said one of the preservice teachers, and "It's important to learn different cultural norms so we have to adapt ourselves otherwise we will have difficulties traveling or living in other countries." The students were not aware of the importance of adapting themselves to another culture before.

5.1.2 Curiosity about new cultures

Before taking the course, the students often said that they were shy about communicating in English and did not have confidence in speaking or interacting with people from different cultural backgrounds. They never had any friends living in other countries. However, after having a chance to write letters to their E-pal partners in the U.S. and interacting with Japanese exchange students, these experiences provided them with new perspectives, as can be seen in the following passages:

"Going abroad may not be as scary as I thought because we will gain new experiences, meeting new places, and new people."

"I now became more open, more confident. I'm less worried about grammar accuracy."

"I used to be a bit laid back. I did not like to learn things by myself, but after this course, I learn to improve myself to be more autonomous, be more confident that I, too, can do it. I can communicate in English."

"I'm becoming more interested in things around me."

As can be seen, it is not just the new experiences that gave them confidence; they also learned that they could communicate with people by themselves. That also gave them a sense of autonomy in their learning and showed them that they can be successful if they try.

5.1.3 Developing non-judgmental attitudes toward others

The theme that came up in the students' journal most often was related to attitude change.

They became more open-minded and more empathetic of people from different cultures. The activity that they mentioned that changed their attitudes most drastically was the activity about Myanmar immigrants. I asked them to role play by demonstrating to them the voices of the immigrants, including the role of a Thai exchange student living in Myanmar as well as the voice from a Thai immigrant working in South Korea. Before the activity, they expressed a strong bias towards the migrant workers from Myanmar and neighboring countries and disagreed with the workers' demands for basic rights. However, after the role-play activity that considered the multiple viewpoints of the lives of these immigrants, they reconsidered their positions. They learned to "put themselves in other people's shoes," as can be seen in the following excerpts from their journals:

"When I look at the issue of immigrant from the immigrant's perspectives, I then realized that what they asked for was not too much. Their demands to be treated fairly are acceptable."

"My attitude and perception have been drastically changed from the beginning because I experienced the cruelty being done to other human beings because of prejudices and inequality. I wanted to make myself and society to be better."

"I now reconsider my views towards other people no matter they are gay, muslim to be humans just like us. Nobody wants to be judged unfairly."

"Everyone is equal. Nobody wanted to be an outcast."

Apart from recognizing their own biases, the students learned to accept different viewpoints. One student changed her view after engaging with activities through multiple perspectives: "I used to be a debate contestant, I tended to see things in two opposite points of view, it's either right or wrong and usually my view is the correct one, but after I learned in this course, I realized that the world is not

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consisted of only black and white. An action can be seen from other contextualized factors such as individual, social, and cultural perspectives." It can be seen that the students understood the importance of adopting multiple viewpoints. Once they took into consideration everyone's voice, they started to see alternative perspectives.

5.2 Language Development

Besides the ICA, two sources of data were used to measure the participants' language development in terms of the lexicon gained over the course of the semester. Lexical development was measured by 1) the average numbers of words being learned from the self-study; and 2) the scores from the pronunciation test). The increase in vocabulary was measured according to the number of words that the students recorded on their worksheet.

Over the course of the semester, the students were assigned to learn and record new words from the recommended web resources (YouTube clips, TedEd, blogs, movies, songs, podcasts, MOOCS etc.). The students had the freedom to choose which resources they preferred to use for their study. They had to record the new learned words/phrases and provide examples of the words in sentences. The results of the study demonstrated that each student (N=38) studied and recorded 166 words on average throughout the whole semester. The maximum number of words that the students recorded was 384 while the minimum was only 22. The main factor affecting the number of learned words was student autonomy. Most of the time throughout the semester, they had to manage their time outside the class to study from these online resources. They were told that the more words they put into their sheets, the higher the scores they would get. Some students reported not being used to this autonomous mode of learning, and therefore they kept postponing the assignment until the last minute.

Moreover, the English pronunciation test was analyzed in order to see the students' learning outcome. The pronunciation lesson aimed to give the students' knowledge of the English sound system that more strongly emphasized pronunciation intelligibility rather than accuracy. The teaching and the test did not emphasize the English pronunciation standards of native speakers, but only a set of pronunciation features that were essential for communication while emphasizing the different sounds between Thai and English. The analysis was done in order to compare the two groups of students learning using the different modes: the first group studied using blended learning (online and F2F) and the other group studied using the F2F situation only. The F2F lesson involved the teachers' model of sounds while the online one included the reading and video clips demonstrating different pronunciations. The results are shown in the table below.

Methods of Instruction	Mean Scores (Total 10)	SD	Max	Min.
Blended (n=35)	7.25	1.77	9.75	4.25
F2F (n=35)	5.20	2.44	9.75	2

Table 4 Results of the pronunciation test comparing the two groups

The findings indicated the higher mean score of the blended group than that of the F2F group. There was also a higher score difference among the individuals in the F2F group. The students that studied the material outside the classroom (blended group) clearly gained higher advantages than those that studied in the class alone because of the additional review of the materials.

5.3 Perceptions of Blended Learning

At the end of the course, the participants anonymously responded to the online questionnaire regarding their blended learning experiences. Besides the questionnaire, the interview gave a deeper understanding of their learning experience. The data were analyzed using content analysis techniques.

The results of the questionnaire showed that all of the students (100% n=76) indicated that the blended use of technology, such as Google form, etc., was useful for their learning.
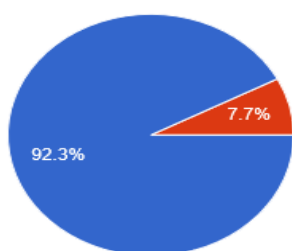

Figure 1 The percentage of students agreeing with Edmodo being used

Ninety-two point three percent of the students thought that Edmodo was a useful platform that could help them learn more about the contents and provide additional resources, while 7.7% of the participants did not feel that Edmodo was useful.
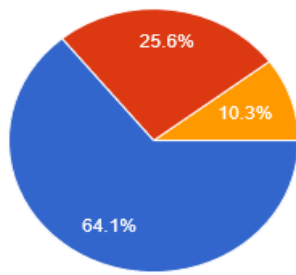
Figure 2 The percentage of students that supported online integration in the F2F classroom

Based on the questionnaire responses, 64.1% of the students thought that the course should continue to integrate the online portion. Twenty-five point six percent neither agreed nor disagreed, while 10.3% disagreed. The students that agreed with the use of online learning stated that the following:

"The online lessons helped me review the in-class lesson." "There are several resources online that we could learn from." "We can conveniently access the materials anywhere anytime." "Today's Meet helped us express our opinions." However, there were some disagreements mainly concerning the availability of the equipment and infrastructure, as can be seen in the following examples:

"I don't have cellular access on my phone, nor a computer notebook, so it was difficult for me to get the online materials." "I prefer the face-to-face method." "We sometimes forgot to log in and review the materials, so studying in class is better."

The comments regarding the limit of Internet access were the main issues regarding blended learning. Blended learning should not create or widen the socio-economic gap. Normally the university provides free a Wi-Fi network for all students, but some students were living in off-campus housing with no free wi-fi so the accessibility of the online materials was limited for some. In addition, the students felt that the course management systems, such as Edmodo, were not as convenient as other CMS tools. The students could not download the online materials conveniently if they were posted as attachments. For this reason the online links and video clip files were easier to access.

6. Research Limitations

Despite the best efforts in the blended design of the course, it is noteworthy that certain challenges must be overcome in order for blended learning to work effectively and sustainably, as discussed in the following three points.

6.1. The students' autonomy can really affect how successful the blended course can be. Some students did not do or fully engage in their online assignments. Therefore even though the circumstances and structure required them to work online, it still did not work with some students that were not used to an independent, self-directed mode of learning. The students' learning style was adjusted to meet the new course structure as other courses they were taking were only carried out on an F2F basis.

6.2. The intercultural exchanges that the students engaged in may not be sustained in the future. Projects such as E-pals may have ended after the students received their grades. It is important to realize that intercultural communicative competence needs to be constantly acquired, and long-term interaction needs to be fostered throughout the teacher education program.

6.3. The constraints of the blended learning implementation in this course included limited Internet infrastructure, inadequate facilities, technology downtime, and bandwidth problems (Aborisade, 2013), and these constraints can affect the effectiveness of blended learning. Therefore good pedagogical design needs to be responsive to the learners and the specific contexts in which it is implemented.

7. Conclusion

This study aimed to create a shift in the traditional mode of language instruction to the one that employs a blended approach: from traditional F2F to web-enhanced activities, from the focus on language or culture alone to focusing on language and culture together. The accessibility to the online class materials, the increased participation and engagement of the learners, the expansion of the intercultural experiences of the students, as well as effective class management can transform traditional instruction into multimodal modes of learning with the specific aims of enhancing intercultural awareness and linguistic ability. The results demonstrated higher progress in the students' learning with the blended mode of instruction, though the intercultural awareness may not be seen immediately nor changed entirely. As Byram (1997) suggests, skills in intercultural communicative competence (ICC) is a life-long process. A person can acquire this competence throughout his or her life. Within the scope of this study, the results showed positive learning outcomes regarding the development of IC and the blended mode of learning. With the advance technology, there are many more possibilities for integrating more appropriate, sustainable, and effective pedagogies for enhancing intercultural competence.

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The Mediating Effect of Academic Engagement on the Relationship between Temperament and EFL Speaking and Listening Performance

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Abstract

This study aimed to empirically identify the detailed relationships among temperament factors (i.e., task orientation, personal-social flexibility, and reactivity), academic engagement, and EFL speaking and listening performance in young children. It attempted to provide teachers with insights that enable them to help young children who have diverse temperamental traits enhance their EFL speaking and listening performance based on the empirical evidence. To achieve this purpose, a hypothesized mediation model was formulated based on the related literature, and then it was empirically tested. This study found that young children's academic engagement accounts for part of the relationship between their task orientation and EFL speaking and listening performance, but task orientation still predicts their EFL speaking and listening performance even when their academic engagement is taken into consideration. In addition, this study found that young children who have pro-social traits are more likely to show a higher level of academic engagement, which in turn might result in a higher level of EFL speaking and listening performance than their counterparts. However, young children's personal-social flexibility is not a significant direct predictor of their EFL speaking and listening performance.

1. Introduction

English is widely used by people around the world as a means of communication; thus, many non-native English speakers have taken considerable pains to acquire competitive communication skills in English (Crystal, 2003; Park & Abelmann, 2004). Although English as a foreign language (EFL) learners have spent considerable time and effort in English learning, quite a few of them tend to have only limited proficiency in English, particularly in oral communication skills (i.e., speaking and listening skills). This phenomenon seems to be much more remarkable in cases where there are great language differences between learners' first language and English in terms of the semantic, syntactic, and phonological systems (Chiswick & Miller, 2014). Some empirical studies have attempted to reveal the critical variables affecting EFL learning processes and outcomes in the context where considerable language differences exist between the students' first language and English (Carreira, 2006; Choi & Mantik, 2017; Ushida, 2005; Wu, 2013). However, there are few research studies that focus on the key variables affecting young children's EFL speaking and listening performance and assess the mediation in relation to the dependent variable. Accordingly, this study intended to identify the key independent variable and mediator related to EFL speaking and listening performance through the related literature review and then assess the indirect effect of the independent variable on EFL speaking and listening performance (i.e., the dependent variable) through the mediator amongst young Korean children.

2. Literature Review

Several researchers have identified the presence of foreign language anxiety, a complex psychological phenomenon creating feelings of tension, uneasiness, or nervousness related to

foreign language performance that can negatively affect learning (Akbarzadeh & Haddad Narafshan, 2016; Horwitz, 2001; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Young, 1991). According to Horwitz and his colleagues (1986), such feelings of tension, uneasiness, or nervousness are more closely related to performing speaking and listening tasks while learning a foreign language. As a component of foreign language anxiety, communication apprehension, which is "a type of shyness characterized by fear or anxiety about communicating with people", might be one of the most critical personality factors that has a detrimental effect on foreign language speaking and listening learning (Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128).

Communication apprehension can also be conceptualized as an individual's genetic temperament or innate personality trait that interferes with foreign language communication in various situations, including classroom settings (Daly, 1991; McCroskey, Fayer, & Richmond, 1985). In other words, communication apprehension is a kind of temperament, or a stable inborn behavioral style, tendency, or pattern of responding to various situations (Thomas & Chess, 1977). This implies that even young children might have certain temperamental characteristics that negatively affect foreign language speaking and listening. Temperament has been conceptualized by two core models. The first is the developmental model that Rothbart and Derryberry devised in 1981, and the other is the clinical model that Thomas and Chess developed in 1977.

Many studies related to temperament have tended to employ the clinical model based on Thomas and Chess' model as the theoretical framework. In particular, Keogh, Pullis, and Cadwell (1982) revised Thomas and Chess' model for convenient and proper use in educational settings. They classified temperament into three factors; namely, task orientation, personal-social flexibility, and reactivity by extracting those from the nine dimensions (i.e., activity, persistence, distractibility, adaptability, approach-withdrawal, positive mood, intensity, negative mood, and threshold). Each temperament factor embodies three dimensions; the task

orientation factor is composed of low activity, high persistence, and low distractibility dimensions, the personal-social flexibility factor consists of adaptability, approach-withdrawal, and positive mood dimensions as a pro-social factor, and the reactivity factor is comprised of intensity, negative mood, and threshold dimensions as a negative factor.

Some studies have empirically attempted to explore the relationship between students' temperamental characteristics and their foreign language learning. Most recently, Choi and Mantik (2017) found that temperaments of EFL kindergarteners are closely correlated with their English learning performance. Sun et al. (2014) revealed that Chinese preschoolers' temperamental traits are closely related to their foreign language learning behaviors. Salmani Nodoushan (2011) empirically found that sanguine students showed better EFL speaking achievements than choleric and melancholic students. Based on the aforementioned research findings, it can be inferred that young EFL learners' oral communication (i.e., speaking and listening) performance might be greatly influenced by their temperamental characteristics.

Meanwhile, young learners' academic engagement may account for the relationship between their temperament and EFL speaking and listening performance; the relationships between these variables were defined in previous studies (Alexander, Entwisle, & Dauber, 1993; Hughes & Coplan, 2010; Willingham, Pollack, & Lewis, 2002). According to Marks (2000, pp.154-155), academic engagement is "a psychological process, specifically, the attention, interest, investment, and effort students expend in the work of learning." In addition, Dotterer and Lowe (2011) conceptualized academic engagement as an inclusive construct that represents the quality of emotion and dedication that learners demonstrate toward their learning activities. Similar to Marks' definition of academic engagement, Coates (2010) also contended that the student learning dimension of academic engagement includes student attention, interest, involvement, and active participation in his or her learning, along with involvement in the design, delivery, and evaluation process of his or her learning. Although researchers have

conceptualized academic engagement in a variety of ways, it seems to subsume common salient components.

The following are the specific reasons why academic engagement explains the relationship between temperament and EFL speaking and listening performance. First, some empirical studies revealed the association between learners' temperaments and their academic engagement (e.g., Hughes & Coplan, 2010; Luo, Hughes, Liew, & Kwok, 2009; Rudasill, Gallagher, & White, 2010). For instance, Hughes and Coplan (2010) empirically showed that shyness as a temperamental trait in elementary schoolers was negatively correlated with their behavioral engagement in class. Second, some researchers have found that student engagement is positively correlated with academic achievement and behavior (e.g., Alexander, Entwisle, & Dauber, 1993; Fredricks, Blumenfeld, & Paris, 2004; Furrer & Skinner, 2003; Willingham, Pollack, & Lewis, 2002). In particular, Alexander et al. (1993) revealed that young children's behavioral engagement in the classroom can predict their test score gains over the next few years. Willingham et al. (2002) also found that students' academic engagement could be a robust predictor of their test scores and grades. Consequently, these empirical research findings imply that students' temperaments may influence their academic engagement, which in turn may affect their academic performance, including EFL speaking and listening performance.

In spite of this probable relationship between temperament, academic engagement, and EFL speaking and listening performance, it is very difficult to find empirical studies that explore the relationship between the three variables amongst young learners, especially in the foreign language learning context. Accordingly, this study intended to empirically investigate whether young learners' temperaments affect their EFL speaking and listening performance through its effect on their academic engagement. This study is meaningful because it was an initial attempt to empirically examine the mediating effect of academic engagement on the relationship between temperament and EFL speaking and listening performance amongst young children.

In addition, this study is significant since it can provide teachers with empirical evidence that will enable them to help young children who have diverse temperamental traits enhance their EFL speaking and listening performance.

2-1. Research Model

This study employed the mediation model shown in Figure 1. In the mediation model, a mediator (M; academic engagement) is proposed to explain the relationship between an independent variable (X; temperament) and a dependent variable (Y; EFL speaking and listening performance). More specifically, task orientation (X_1), personal-social flexibility (X_2), and reactivity (X_3) as a temperament factor are proposed to affect academic engagement (i.e., a_1, a_2, and a_3, respectively), which in turn would influence EFL speaking and listening performance (b).

Using this mediation model, the current study examined the following effects: The indirect effects of task orientation (a_1b), personal-social flexibility (a_2b), and reactivity (a_3b) as a temperament factor on EFL speaking and listening performance through academic engagement, the direct effects of task orientation (c'_1), personal-social flexibility (c'_2), and reactivity (c'_3) on EFL speaking and listening performance while keeping levels of academic engagement constant, and the total effects of task orientation (c_1), personal-social flexibility (c_2), and reactivity (c_3) on EFL speaking and listening performance when combining the indirect and the direct effects.
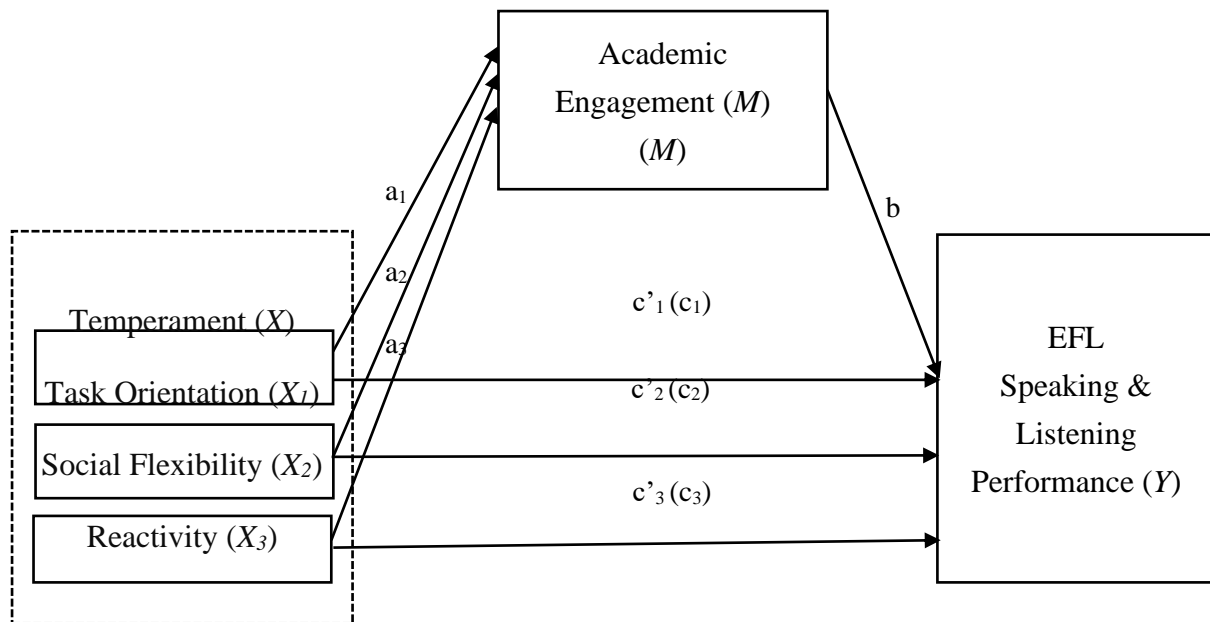
Figure 1. Hypothesized mediation model

2-2. Research Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were formulated from the hypothesized mediation model presented in Figure 1.

H1: Young learners' task orientation has a direct effect on their EFL speaking and listening performance.

H2: Young learners' personal-social flexibility has a direct effect on their EFL speaking and listening performance.

H3: Young learners' reactivity has a direct effect on their EFL speaking and listening performance.

H4: Young learners' task orientation affects their academic engagement.

H5: Young learners' personal-social flexibility affects their academic engagement.

H6: Young learners' reactivity affects their academic engagement.

H7: Young learners' academic engagement affects their EFL speaking and listening

performance.

H8: Young learners' academic engagement mediates the relationship between their task orientation and EFL speaking and listening performance.

H9: Young learners' academic engagement mediates the relationship between their personal-social flexibility and EFL speaking and listening performance.

H10: Young learners' academic engagement mediates the relationship between their reactivity and EFL speaking and listening performance.

3. Methods

3-1. Participants

The target population of the current study was young EFL children who attended a private academy providing a typical English immersion program located in the southern part of Seoul, South Korea. Parents who live in the southern part of Seoul tend to have an exceptional zeal for their children's English education. Thus, many young children living in the area have been enrolled in English immersion programs. The study participants consisted of 60 young students who were learning English as a foreign language through a typical English immersion program offered at a private academy in the southern district of Seoul, South Korea. Of the 60 students, 46.7% (28 students) were four years old, and 53.3% (32 students) were five years old. 26 students (43.3%) were male, and 34 students (56.7%) were female. All students' parents willingly consented for their children to participate in the study. In addition, two male and two female teachers in the English immersion program participated in the current study with their own consent. They all were native English speakers and had five or more years of experience in an English immersion program for EFL children.

3-2. Measures and Data Collection

The independent, mediating, and dependent (or outcome) variables subsumed in the research model are temperament, academic engagement, and EFL speaking and listening performance, respectively. Temperament, the independent variable, was measured with the Short Form of the Teacher Temperament Questionnaire (TTQ-SF) that many studies have adopted to assess students' temperaments (Keogh & Burstein, 1988; Klein, 1991; Mobley & Pullis, 1991). The TTQ-SF is made up of 23 six-point Likert scaled items ranging from "hardly ever" to "almost always." Each classroom teacher in the immersion program completed the TTQ-SF based on their daily observations of their students' behaviors at the end of the semester. In the current study, all Cronbach's alphas for the three temperament factors (i.e., task orientation, personal-social flexibility, and reactivity) of the TTQ-SF were above .80.

Second, academic engagement, the mediating variable, was assessed through teacher-reported student engagement. Each teacher assessed their students' academic engagement in terms of attention, interest, involvement through curiosity-inducing, and active participation in learning during the English immersion program. The five-point Likert scale measure focused on individual student behavior and consisted of four items that are directly related to the major components of engagement (i.e., attention, interest, involvement through curiosity-inducing, and active participation in learning) proposed by Coates (2010) and Marks (2000). Lastly, EFL speaking and listening performance, the dependent variable, was measured by classroom teachers' assessments. The teachers assessed their students' EFL speaking and listening performance based on their careful observations using a scale of one (unsatisfactory) to five (excellent) in speaking and listening domains at the end of the semester.

3-3. Data Analysis

For preliminary data analysis, descriptive statistics such as means, standard deviations,

skewness, and kurtosis regarding task orientation, personal-social flexibility, reactivity, academic engagement, and EFL speaking and listening performance variables and Pearson correlation coefficients among the five variables were calculated through the SPSS version 24.0. In addition, this study employed simple mediation analysis including a non-parametric bootstrapping procedure through the PROCESS macro for SPSS in order to test the research hypotheses (Hayes, 2013). This approach produces unstandardized estimates of the indirect and direct effects. In this analysis method, the indirect effect is assessed regardless of the significance of the direct and total effects. The effects are significant if zero does not exist between the lower and upper limits of the bias-corrected 95% confidence intervals (Preacher & Hayes, 2004; Hayes, 2013). More specifically, the mediation analysis, including the non-parametric bootstrapping procedure, was conducted with model four that Hayes (2013) has specified, along with 1,000 resampling iterations and a 95% confidence interval in order to verify the mediating effect of academic engagement on the relationship between temperament and EFL speaking and listening performance with small samples.

4. Results

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics such as the means, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis on young children's temperament factors (i.e., task orientation, personal-social flexibility, and reactivity), their academic engagement, and their EFL speaking and listening performance. West, Finch, and Curran (1995) proposed that the criteria of normality are skewness < 2 and kurtosis < 7. Accordingly, all the sample data for the five variables satisfied the normality assumptions.

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics

Variable	*M*	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis

Task orientation[a]	34.43	13.40	- 0.30	- 1.18
Personal-social flexibility[a]	35.50	9.24	- 0.66	- 0.81
Reactivity[a]	15.75	6.75	1.02	0.65
Academic engagement	14.86	4.40	- 0.86	- 0.56
EFL speaking and listening performance	7.43	2.02	- 0.74	- 0.44

Note. [a] temperament factors, *M* = mean, *SD* = standard deviation.

Table 2 indicates a correlation matrix of task orientation, personal-social flexibility, reactivity, academic engagement, and EFL speaking and listening performance variables. All five variables were significantly correlated with each other at the *p* < .01 level. Reactivity, consisting of intensity, negative mood, and threshold dimensions, was a temperament factor that showed negative correlations with four other variables (task orientation, personal-social flexibility, academic engagement, and English speaking and listening performance). On the other hand, four other variables indicated positive correlations with each other. Table 2 shows the specific results of correlations among all five variables.

Table 2

Correlations among Variables

Variable	1	2	3	4
1. Task orientation				
2. Personal-social flexibility	.668**			
3. Reactivity	- .656**	- .606**		
4. Academic engagement	.760**	.753**	- .513**	
5. EFL speaking and listening performance	.811**	.681**	- .461**	.862**

** *p* < .01.

This study employed mediation analysis in order to determine whether young EFL learners' task orientation (X_1), personal-social flexibility (X_2), and reactivity (X_3) showed statistically significant indirect effects on their EFL speaking and listening performance (Y) through their academic engagement (M). Table 3 shows that the six paths were statistically significant from task orientation (X_1) to EFL speaking and listening performance (Y), to academic engagement (M), and to EFL speaking and listening performance (Y) through academic engagement (M); from personal-social flexibility (X_2) to academic engagement (M) and to EFL speaking and listening performance (Y) through academic engagement (M); and from academic engagement (M) to EFL speaking and listening performance (Y). Consequently, hypotheses 1, 4, 5, 7, 8, and 9 were accepted whereas hypotheses 2, 3, 6, and 10 were rejected.

Table 3

Results of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis	Path	B	SE	t	p	LL 95% CI	UL 95% CI
H1	$X_1 \rightarrow Y$	0.068	0.016	4.273	.000***	0.036	0.100
H2	$X_2 \rightarrow Y$	0.011	0.022	0.501	.618	- 0.033	0.055
H3	$X_3 \rightarrow Y$	0.046	0.025	1.796	.078	- 0.005	0.097
H4	$X_1 \rightarrow M$	0.169	0.037	4.532	.000***	0.094	0.244
H5	$X_2 \rightarrow M$	0.228	0.051	4.426	.000***	0.125	0.331
H6	$X_3 \rightarrow M$	0.076	0.070	1.089	.281	- 0.064	0.215
H7	$M \rightarrow Y$	0.256	0.050	5.100	.000***	0.155	0.357
H8	$X_1 \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$	0.043	0.013			0.017	0.069
H9	$X_2 \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$	0.058	0.018			0.026	0.096

| H10 | $X_3 \rightarrow M \rightarrow Y$ | 0.019 | 0.022 | | - 0.030 | 0.061 |

Note. X_1 = independent variable 1 (i.e., task orientation), X_2 = independent variable 2 (i.e., personal-social flexibility), X_3 = independent variable 3 (i.e., reactivity), M = mediator (i.e., academic engagement), Y = dependent variable (i.e., EFL speaking & listening performance), B = unstandardized regression coefficient, SE = standard error, LL 95% CI = lower limit 95% confidence interval, UL 95% CI = upper limit 95% confidence interval, *** $p < .001$.

To be specific, regression analysis confirmed that task orientation (B = 0.169, SE = 0.037, t = 4.532, $p < .001$) and personal-social flexibility (B = 0.228, SE = 0.051, t = 4.426, $p < .001$) significantly affected academic engagement whereas there was no significant effect of reactivity on academic engagement (B = 0.076, SE = 0.070, t = 1.089, $p = .281$). In addition, academic engagement was a significant predictor of EFL speaking and listening performance (B = 0.256, SE = 0.050, t = 5.100, $p < .001$). The direct effect of task orientation on EFL speaking and listening performance was statistically significant (B = 0.068, SE = 0.016, t = 4.273, $p < .001$). On the other hand, the direct effects of personal-social flexibility (B = 0.011, SE = 0.022, t = 0.501, $p = .618$) and reactivity (B = 0.046, SE = 0.025, t = 1.796, $p = .078$) on EFL speaking and listening performance were not statistically significant. Lastly, there were statistically significant indirect effects of task orientation (B = 0.043, SE = 0.013, 95% CI [0.017, 0.069]) and personal-social flexibility (B = 0.058, SE = 0.018, 95% CI [0.026, 0.096]) on EFL speaking and listening performance through academic engagement. However, the indirect effect of reactivity on EFL speaking and listening through academic engagement was not found (B = 0.019, SE = 0.022, 95% CI [- 0.030, 0.061]). Based on these findings, academic engagement (M) partially mediates the relationship between task orientation (X_1) and EFL speaking and listening performance (Y) and completely mediates the relationship between personal-social flexibility (X_2) and EFL speaking and listening performance (Y).

Figure 2 graphically summarizes the results of the mediation model. All effects indicated below

are unstandardized; a_1 is the effect of task orientation (X_1) on academic engagement (M), a_2 is the effect of personal-social flexibility (X_2) on academic engagement (M), a_3 is the effect of reactivity (X_3) on academic engagement (M), and b is the effect of academic engagement (M) on EFL speaking and listening performance (Y). Furthermore, c'_1 is the direct effect of task orientation (X_1) on EFL speaking and listening performance (Y), c_1 is the total effect of task orientation (X_1) on EFL speaking and listening performance (Y), c'_2 is the direct effect of personal-social flexibility (X_2) on EFL speaking and listening performance (Y), c_2 is the total effect of personal-social flexibility (X_2) on EFL speaking and listening performance (Y), c'_3 is the direct effect of reactivity (X_3) on EFL speaking and listening performance (Y), and c_3 is the total effect of reactivity (X_3) on EFL speaking and listening performance (Y).
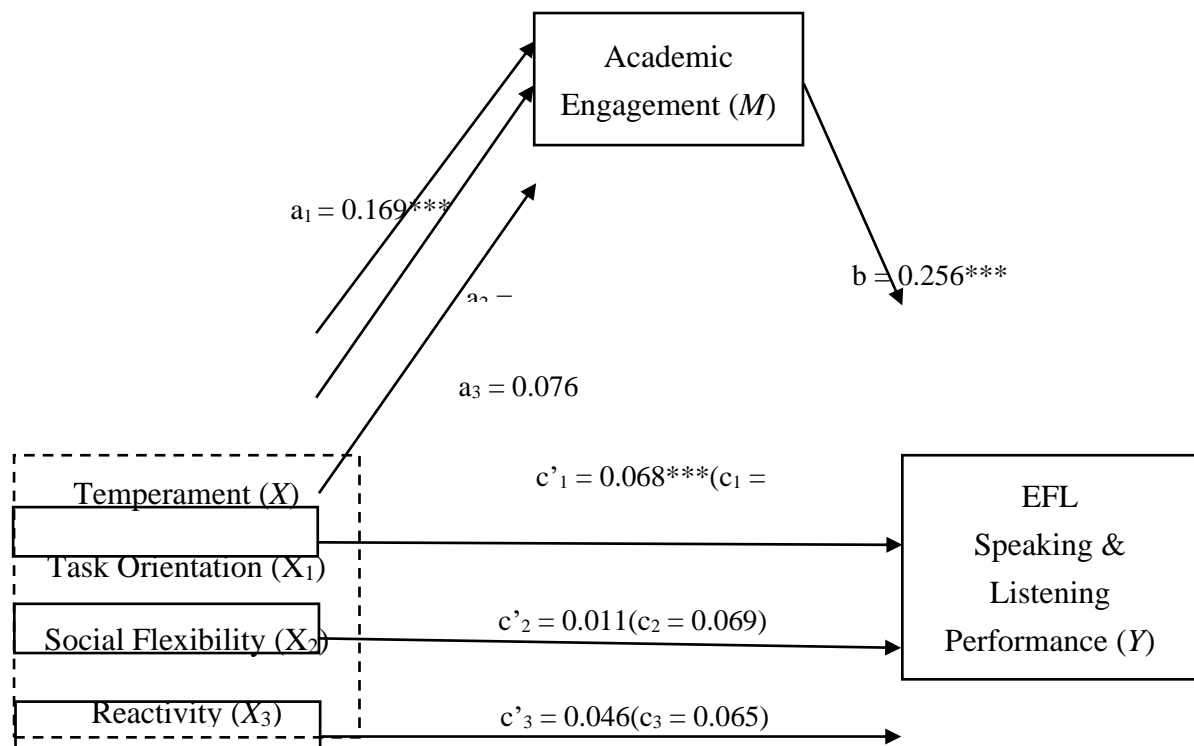

Figure 2. Results of the mediation model

5. Conclusion and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to empirically identify the detailed relationships among temperament factors (i.e., task orientation, personal-social flexibility, and reactivity), academic engagement, and EFL speaking and listening performance amongst young children aged four to five years old. To achieve this purpose, I formulated a hypothesized mediation model based on the related research findings and then empirically tested it. The results of this study identified the partial mediation effect of academic engagement on the relationship between task orientation as a temperament factor and EFL speaking and listening performance, and the complete mediation effect of academic engagement on the relationship between personal-social flexibility and EFL speaking and listening performance amongst young Korean children.

Specifically, all paths from task orientation to EFL speaking and listening performance, to academic engagement, and to EFL speaking and listening performance through academic engagement were statistically significant in a positive direction, whereas all paths from reactivity, a negative temperament factor, were not statistically significant. Of the paths from personal-social flexibility as a pro-social temperament factor, the two paths that led to academic engagement and EFL speaking and listening performance through academic engagement were statistically significant. However, the path from personal-social flexibility to EFL speaking and listening performance was not statistically significant.

The findings from this study indicated that young children's academic engagement partially mediates the relationship between their task orientation and EFL speaking and listening performance. In other words, their academic engagement accounts for part of the relationship between their task orientation and EFL speaking and listening performance, but their task orientation still predicts their EFL speaking and listening performance even when taking their academic engagement into consideration. These findings may be supported by previous empirical studies (e.g., Alexander, Entwisle, & Dauber, 1993; Choi & Mantik, 2017; Rudasill,

Gallagher, & White, 2010; Salmani Nodoushan, 2011; Sun, de Bot, & Steinkrauss, 2014; Willingham, Pollack, & Lewis, 2002). Choi and Mantik (2017) empirically found that young children who have a higher task orientation are more likely to show higher EFL learning performance. Rudasill et al. (2010) revealed that certain temperamental traits, such as high persistence and tendency for a long attention span, might help children meet the demands of a classroom that includes academic engagement. In addition, Alexander et al. (1993) found that children's behavioral engagement in the classroom is a significant predictor of their academic performance.

The results of the current study confirm that young children who have a temperamental trait consisting of low activity, high persistence, and low distractibility are more likely to show higher EFL speaking and listening performance than their counterparts. In addition, young children who have a high level of task orientation are more likely to show a higher level of academic engagement, which in turn are more likely to demonstrate more proficient EFL speaking and listening than their counterparts. These findings imply that teachers should pay attention to young students who have high activity, low persistence, and high distractibility traits and enable these students to actively participate in EFL speaking and listening learning activities with more attention and interest. For this, teachers need to provide young students who have a low level of task orientation with novel and various learning activities that can promote their motivation for EFL speaking and listening learning. These efforts might help young children who have a low level of task orientation enhance their academic engagement, which might contribute to improving their EFL speaking and listening performance.

This study also found the complete mediating effect of young children's academic engagement on the relationship between their personal-social flexibility and EFL speaking and listening performance. In other words, the effect of young children's personal-social flexibility on their EFL speaking and listening performance is entirely due to their academic engagement. This

indicates that young children who have pro-social traits such as a high level of adaptability, approach, and positive mood are more likely to be academically engaged, which in turn might result in a higher level of EFL speaking and listening performance. However, young children's personal-social flexibility is not a significant direct predictor of their EFL speaking and listening performance.

These findings complement and remedy the previous research findings of Salmani Nodoushan (2011) that sanguine students are more likely to outperform students who have other types of temperamental traits in EFL speaking achievement. Based on the findings of the current study, students who have pro-social traits such as a high level of adaptability, approach, and positive mood could have more proficient EFL speaking and listening skills only when they show a high level of academic engagement. This implies that teachers need to increase the academic engagement of students who have pro-social traits through the application of optimal interventions for the ultimate purpose of improving their EFL speaking and listening performance. The interventions for enhancing students' academic engagement might include attempts to improve student-teacher relationship quality, socio-emotional classroom climate, and instructional quality (Decker, Dona, Christenson, 2007; Dotterer & Lowe, 2011).

6. Limitations And Suggestions

Despite its significance, the current study has the following limitations. First, the findings of this study may not be generalized to all young children aged four to five years old because this study selected a sample only from those students who attend a private academy providing a typical English immersion program located in the southern part of Seoul, South Korea. Therefore, future research needs to be conducted that employs a more extensive and larger sample in terms of regional, socioeconomic, and cultural backgrounds in order to improve the generalizability of the findings. Second, future research may need to include additional mediating or moderating variables based on a more extensive literature review. These efforts

can help fortify the knowledge base regarding which variables account for the relationship between temperament and EFL speaking and listening performance.

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The Language of PDU30:

A Discourse Analysis of Selected Speeches of President Rodrigo Duterte

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Abstract

The study sought to investigate the stylistic and reasoning strategies embedded in Philippine President Rodrigo Duterte's speeches. Following a framework combined from the stylistic strategies model proposed by Benoit and Benoit (2008), Cutts (2011), Larson (2013), and Stapleton (2010); and from the reasoning strategies model proposed by Froemling et al. (2011), twelve (12) transcripts of President Duterte's presidential speeches retrieved from the official website of the Presidential Communications Operations Office (PCOO) were examined. The present study explained from a linguistic point-of-view how the Philippine President may be interpreted (or misinterpreted) through his choices in language use whenever participating in a public communication discourse. This paper argues that his use of ordinary words, metaphors, and arguments by cause is a tool for persuasion, and a representation of himself and of how he perceives reality.

Keywords: Political speeches, stylistic strategies, reasoning strategies, President Rodrigo Duterte

1.0 Introduction

Language is intrinsically essential in the administration of politics (Fairclough, 1989), in that it is the medium which politicians and those involved in politics use to actuate their political wills. In fact, several studies confirm that linguistic communication is paramount to successful leadership (De Vries et al., 2010; Den Hartog & Verburg, 1997; Riggio et al., 2003). Therefore, the goals of politicians would not be accomplished without the involvement and (proper) use of language (Partington, 2013; Schäffner, 1996). Politics and language are commonly intertwined through a politician's presentation (and therefore would often result in imposition) of ideas through various avenues, especially public speeches (Ferrari, 2007).

The success of the political speeches is not solely dependent on the content or message, on the context in which they were made, nor on the complexity of concepts found therein. Rather, success is determined by how the audience appreciates or receives the politician's statements. Therefore, the success of the speech in affecting the audience must be "worked for" (p. 29) by the speaker (McNair, 2007) and this can be done through an effective use of linguistic strategies incorporated in the speaker's words. Some of the possible linguistic strategies that public speakers, especially politicians, use in their speeches are stylistic and reasoning strategies, among others (Benoit & Benoit, 2008; Cruz & Bernardo, 2015; Larson, 2013).

Public speakers select several stylistic elements or strategies to accomplish stylistic goals such as "achieving clarity, increasing intensity, establishing rhythm, and creating humor" (Benoit & Benoit, 2008, p.120). These stylistic devices, in turn, help the speaker in capturing the audience's comprehension, interest, and mood.

Several studies present a variety of analyses in line with some politicians' use of certain stylistic devices or strategies to influence or convince their respective audiences. A significant number of these works highly focused on the use of *metaphors*, which are broad and widely-studied stylistic devices used in various contexts, especially in political speeches (Mio, 1996; Semino,

2008). Some studies dissected speeches made by US Presidents (e.g. George W. Bush) in the light of metaphor use. The findings on the contextual analyses of the speeches yielded that metaphors in the presidential speeches were used to induce emotions such as fear, hope, and anger. In a similar vein, Semino and Masci (1996) analyzed the effects of the metaphors used by Italian Prime Minister Silvio Berlusconi. In their study, it was revealed that the Prime Minister used a wide range of football, war, and Bible metaphors to produce a positive public image of himself, while gaining the approval of the people.

An effective political speech also necessitates a substantial expression of arguments regarding the speaker's chosen topic. It is also essential for speakers, especially if they aim to influence their audience's attitudes, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors, to present strong reasons (Andrews, 1987; Duck & McMahan, 2010; Tubbs, 2010; Tubbs & Moss, 2008; Wood, 2011) to support the actualization of their political wills. Thus, reasoning strategies are employed to produce effective arguments that can convince their audience.

A significant amount of studies on the reasoning strategies in political discourse commonly involve the existence of logical argumentation in the claims presented in debates (Knepprath & Clevenger Jr., 1965), and the use of reasoning schemes such as compare-and-contrast between abstract ideas and simpler ones (Simon-Vandenbergen, 2008).

Reasoning strategies are also observable in the privilege speeches of Philippine senators. Reasoning strategies are also observable in privilege speeches of Philippine senators, which Cruz and Bernardo (2015) investigated. Their analysis yielded results that highlight *Arguments by Authority* as the most commonly used technique by the selected Philippine senators, and with *Argument by Analogy* as the least used.

Then-Davao City Mayor Rodrigo Duterte decided to run for the Philippine presidency under the banner of PDP-Laban after much persuasion by key persons such as former Philippine

president Fidel V. Ramos (ABS-CBN News, 2016). In May 2016, the then-Mayor became President-elect Duterte (PDU30) after garnering over 16 million votes.

The former Mayor of Davao City gained much attention from the Filipinos since his campaign period, due to the controversies surrounding the speeches and statements he delivered, such as his remarks against Pope Francis's visit last January 2015 (Macairan & Visperas, 2015). At present, PDU30's speeches are still deemed interesting for these are often made spontaneously or deviating from a prepared script (Ranada, 2016), along with his continuous unique and aggressive use of language. These features have brought him varying reactions from the audience; he is praised for making his words more personal and more comprehensible to the masses (Macas, 2016), but he is also criticized by some for lacking structural organization and focus in presenting his ideas (Cayabyab, 2016), and for his remarks with demeaning implications towards various personalities and/or organizations (Bernal & Yan, 2016; McKenzie & Liptak, 2016; McKirdy, 2016; Samuelson, 2016), which he later regret (Joshi, 2016). Furthermore, his spontaneity in itself may also be a point of interest as speeches are rarely produced without sufficient preparation (Reisigl, 2008).

The controversies concerning how PDU30 delivers his speeches call for an investigation of not only his speech styles, but also the methods he uses to argue, so that there may come to be an understanding of what makes his speeches highly deviate from the norm, as compared to those of his predecessors. There is a need, thus, to somehow acquaint his audience with the tendencies in the language use of PDU30 because of its radical nature.

The implications rooting from the combination of the speech styles and reasoning strategies he applies can also be a foundation for the explanation in a linguistic point-of-view of how he uses language to affect the intended audience in certain ways that may result in either gaining support or disdain. As a public official whose words are paramount to the actuation of the

nation's interests, the analysis of language in the context of politics is, as Lakoff (1990) states, "a survival skill" (p. 7).

Contrary to other studies, this paper does not investigate the persuasive or emotional effect of his speeches to his listeners, but his actual use of specific strategies to serve as his identifier. This study therefore, is not about *how* the audience may be affected by President Duterte's words, but is a matter of *what* could possibly make other people perceive him as such. Therefore, the study aims to investigate the discourse features (i.e. communication strategies) by PDU30 in his public speeches. Specifically, the study aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What stylistic strategies are employed by PDU30 in his speeches in terms of the following?

   a. Clarity

   b. Intensity

   c. Rhythm

   d. Humor

2. What reasoning strategies or argumentations does he employ in his presidential speeches?

1.1   Stylistic Strategies

Specific stylistic strategies or devices are used by public speakers like politicians to achieve stylistic goals of clarity, intensity, rhythm, and humor. When these goals are met, the speaker's speech becomes more convincing, and could therefore make one's message be effective or accepted by the audience (Benoit & Benoit, 2008). In Benoit and Benoit's (2008) model, each stylistic goal encompasses specific stylistic strategies that further reflect the guides made by Cutts (2011) and Larson (2013).

Clarity is obtained whenever a speaker relies a message through a distinct and clear language use to avoid ambiguity, which can be achieved through the use of *ordinary words*. The use of words familiar to the audience makes them understand the speaker's statements better. Abstracts words and/or professional jargon, therefore, are used minimally. To further characterize words and/or statements as 'ordinary' this particular category relies on Cutts's (2011) Plain English Lexicon Guide.

In the Philippines, the language reading level of Filipinos in general is estimated to be equivalent to US grade levels 8 to 10 (Lintao & Madrunio, 2014). In his reference guide, indicates the corresponding US grade levels of words and phrases (legalese and otherwise) that commonly need a simpler term. This was labeled as the 'Living Word Vocabulary' level or the 'LWV' column in the following sample:

	Word	LWV	UK	%	BNC	LWV meaning or (maybe) plainer term	Commentary
							abandon – absorb
A	abandon	6	11	74	4254	give up	An easy word, as the scores show. No need to be wary of all 3-syllable words.
	abandoned	6	11	89	298	deserted	
	abate	12	17	69	219	decrease, lessen, reduce	'Abate' and 'abatement' are neither well known nor, as the BNC score shows, much seen. Even the Noise Abatement Society has changed its name, to Pipe Down. Local-council letters, though, still advise people to 'abate the nuisance' – strange language to many.
	abattoir	16	21	4	93	slaughterhouse	
	abbreviate	4	9	74	79	shorten	
	abbreviation	4	9	67	229	shortened word form	
	abdomen	6	11	77	296	where stomach is	
	abdominal	6	11	67	513	about the stomach	
	abet	13	18	68	151	assist, help	Rare and old fashioned. 'Aid and abet' is a legal doublet. 'Assist' or 'help' will do.
	abeyance	16	21	31	87	not being used, suspension, suspended	For a mass audience, best avoided or explained.
	abide	8	13	71	4	live (in a place)	BNC includes only the literal sense.
	abnormal	6	11	72	801	unnatural, not normal	
	abolish	6	11	85	1874	get rid of	
	abortion	8	13	69	1495	removal or loss of unborn child	
	abortive	13	18	32	250	stopped too early	
	abrasive [adj]	12	17	76	26	scratchy [material]	Sometimes seen in leaflets about asbestos in social housing. BNC also gives 22 occurrences of 'abrasives' [n]

Figure 1. Screenshot of Cutts's (2011) Plain English Lexicon Guide

Figure 1 illustrates how Cutts presented the commonly used words in various domains such as the legal and medical contexts, among others. The research is grounded on the same assertion made by Lintao and Madrunio (2014) that Filipinos generally have a reading level between LWV grade levels 8 and 10, which is also reflected in the comprehensibility level of Filipinos

in various contexts such as in legal texts (i.e. contracts). This study, therefore, investigates how President Duterte achieves clarity through his word choices; an English word is considered as *ordinary* or *clear* if it is listed not only under grade levels 8 to 10, but also under the lower levels (0, 4, 5, or 6), as it would be regarded as comprehensible by a wider range of audiences.

Intensity is another stylistic goal, which encompasses *Narrative, Personification, Hyperbole, Simile,* and *Metaphor* as stylistic strategies. *Narratives* are used in presenting a person's story relevant to the topic of the speech. *Personification* is used to attribute human qualities to a non-human entity. *Hyperbole* is the use of exaggerations in statements. *Similes* are employed to compare two or several concepts. Similarly, *Metaphors* involve the use of another word or phrase to substitute for another idea.

Next, **Rhythm** pertains to the flow of the whole speech through the use of *Repetition and Parallel Wording and Structure*. This strategy is characterized by the use of words, phrases, or sentence structure repeatedly within the same utterance.

Another stylistic goal is **Humor**, which may involve the use of *Satire* and/or *Irony*. The former is commonly regarded as offensive due to the use of mockery and sarcasm to insult the imperfections of others. The latter, on the other hand, is described as a humorous and interesting way of creating a discrepancy between what the speaker means and what he/she said.

Stapleton (2010) presents the linguistic practice of the use of *Expletives*, which may be a feature of various types of interactions. This strategy, however, was not part of the model presented by Benoit and Benoit (2008), but it can be considered as a strategy under *intensity* and/or *humor*. Swearing or a general use of profanity is widely considered as a forceful, aggressive, and often taboo linguistic activity, in that it goes against social or cultural norms (Gass & Seiter, 2011; Griffith, 1996, as cited in Stapleton, 2010; Stapleton, 2010). To further emphasize one's claims, a speaker's speech style may be embedded with expletives categorized as *excretory/scatological, sexual*, or *profanity*.

1.2 Reasoning Strategies

The following strategies are adopted from the reasoning or argumentation strategies proposed by Froemling et al. (2011).

Argument by Analogy employs the use of the figurative languages simile and metaphor, as the speaker compares or analogizes a certain issue to a similar one to support their claim about it.

Argument by Cause is characterized by the presentation of two or several phenomena that are discussed as connected through causation. It has two kinds: *cause-to-effect reasoning* and *effect-to-cause reasoning*, where the only difference between the two is the chronological order of the alleged cause and corresponding effect.

Next, the **Argument by Authority** is employed when a speaker strengthens a claim by citing an expert in the topic. The speaker subtly uses the influence or reputation of a certain person (an "authority") to validate his/her statements.

Argument by Example is the use of arguments through examples (or inductive argument), which entails the speaker's use of specific, smaller-scale examples to support a broader conclusion.

Meanwhile, **Argument by Deduction** is the opposite of inductive reasoning or argument by example, a speaker makes a general claim (major premise), before stating a more specific one (minor premise). A speaker's conclusion could convince his/her audience through the assumed validity of the two statements, and their relevance to each other.

Through these constructs on stylistic and reasoning strategies, an analysis of PDU30's speech style and argument techniques can be produced. The characteristics and/or categories presented may altogether be used as a guideline or list of criteria to examine and thus understand his speeches well.

2.0 Method

2.1 Study Corpus

The study analyzed the transcripts of selected speeches of PDU30 during his first six months in office, which were retrieved from the official website of the Presidential Communications Operations Office (PCOO). The following criteria were taken into consideration for the initial segregation of the speeches made by PDU30:

1. The speech was delivered during PDU30's period of presidency.

2. The speech was delivered anytime between July 1, 2016 (to include only the speeches made after his inauguration day) and December 2016.

3. The speech has 1,000 to 4,500 words.

4. English words should compose at least 75% of the whole transcript of the speech.

A random sampling method was then used to select two delivered speeches per month that satisfied the aforementioned criteria and were therefore isolated from the initial screening. The study corpus is thus composed of a total of twelve (12) speeches.

2.2 Research Procedure

PDU30 delivered a total of 153 presidential speeches from July 1 to December 31, 2016. The speeches were segregated, and those composing of only 1,000 to 4,500 words were separated from the original list. Then, the speeches that have a majority of English words (those that have at least 75% of the words in English, as calculated through the word count feature in Microsoft Office Word) were again isolated. This isolation scheme resulted to only 50 speeches satisfying the aforementioned criteria. Then, upon the recommendation of a statistician consulted for the study, a total of 12 speeches are sufficient to compose the corpus. To finalize the speeches to be used as the study corpus, two transcripts were randomly selected from each month starting from July to December 2016.

The 12 transcripts were qualitatively analyzed; each word, sentence, and even beyond were thoroughly investigated. The words and sentences embedded with the markers of stylistic strategies were categorized accordingly. In the case of a word, phrase or sentence falling under more than one category, all were considered regardless if the exact collocations were involved. The reasoning strategies were also investigated and were categorized accordingly. Sets of statements were categorized under only one classification, and there was no occurrence of (set of) sentences that could be qualified under more than one strategy.

Thereafter, the frequencies of each strategy – both stylistic and reasoning – were calculated to determine the most used techniques by PDU30.

MAXQDA, a program which electronically codes the words and phrases within the speeches and calculates the frequencies of the occurrence of each category discussed in the theoretical framework, was used to aid in the analysis of the transcripts. Moreover, an English language specialist, and a Filipino language teacher, who are both master's degree holders participated as intercoders in validating the analysis of least 50% of the study's corpus.

3.0 Results and Discussion

3.1   Stylistic Strategies

Table 1

Frequency of stylistic goals

Stylistic Goals	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Humor	19	3.50
Rhythm	54	9.94
Intensity	187	34.44
Clarity	283	52.12
Total	**543**	**100.00**

Table 1 presents the summary of the frequency of stylistic goals achieved by PDU30 in his speeches. His use of ordinary words (under Clarity) is the most prevalent stylistic strategy employed. His use of strategies to intensify his statements are also observed to be commonly occurring in his speeches. Clarity and Intensity, therefore, may be considered as the main features or characteristics of his speeches.

It is also noteworthy that there is a limited amount of frequency under the stylistic goal of Humor, as compared to the other goals. As Humor has two specific stylistic strategies under it, it can be assumed that the use of *satire* and/or *irony* is rare, and therefore the entertainment factor of PDU30's speeches is significantly lessened.

3.1.1 Clarity

Table 2

Frequency of comprehensible terms

LWV Level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Level 0	2	0.71
Level 4	63	22.26
Level 5	1	0.35
Level 6	109	38.52
Level 8	66	23.32
Level 10	42	14.84
Total	**283**	**100.00**

Table 2 presents the respective frequencies of each word or phrase level observable in the transcripts of speeches of PDU30. A total of 283 terms were categorized as *comprehensible* or

those that belong to LWV levels 10 and below. There is a notable abundance of words categorized under Level 6, yielding a total of 109 words. On the other hand, only one word was grouped under Level 5 (i.e. witness), making it the least level subscribed to by PDU30 in his use of words. Nevertheless, words and/or phrases under these two levels are considered *clear* and/or *ordinary* since these are *comprehensible* by a wider range of audiences. From the table, it can also be observed that there is an evident difference in the distribution of the frequencies of each level; words under level 6 occurred more than 100 times, while other levels such as 0 and 5 have frequencies that highly deviated from that of level 6.

Table 3

Frequency of less comprehensible terms

LWV Level	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Level 12	37	69.81
Level 13	7	13.21
Level 16	9	16.98
Total	**53**	**100.00**

Table 3 likewise exhibits the number of terms categorized as *less comprehensible* due to the need for the audience to have high reading/listening levels (i.e. levels 12-16) to fully understand the meanings of these words and/or phrases. A total of only 53 words were categorized as such throughout the analyzed speeches of PDU30.

PDU30 usually delivers his speeches to a specific set of audience, however, these are also easily heard even by those who do not belong to the intended receivers of his speeches through broadcasting channels such as the People's Television Network (PTV4), among others.

Therefore, these speeches are also received by numerous Filipinos, which may include the ordinary people with or without enough exposure to the English language. Nevertheless, he employed more ordinary or comprehensible words than otherwise in his speeches, thus providing sufficient access for a broader range of audiences.

Table 4

List of words with special cases in Cutts's (2011) Guide

Jargons (not included)	Without LWV Level
ex cathedra	adopt
staphylococcus	aspects
	bind, binding
	dictate
	engage, engagement
	historically
	mechanism
	protocol
	secure [v.]
	sustainable

There are special cases, however, when PDU30 uses words that can be less comprehensible to some members of the audience, and have unknown LWV levels. Table 4 lists certain scientific jargons such as *staphylococcus* and legalese lexical items such as *ex cathedra*. Neither of these terms was listed in Cutts's Guide, therefore, these have undeterminable reading/listening grade levels. However, attributing to the nature of technical terms that exist in the lexical bodies of

biology and law, these jargons may be considered as comprehensible only to those who belong to the aforementioned fields. Audiences from neither – whether they have an above average reading/listening level (above level 10) or not – may have difficulties in understanding what he uttered. The second column of Table 4 likewise lists some terms PDU30 used that have undetermined levels. Cutts nevertheless included these items in his Guide mainly due to their presence in the British National Corpus (BNC). All of these observations considered, the words used by PDU30 may be generally regarded as *ordinary*, but his use of certain key terms may also indicate that not all of the intended audiences of his speeches fully understand both the syntactic and semantic meaning of his words.

It should also be noted that the framework described *Clairty* as the use of straightforward and simple language to decrease the risks of ambiguity. This may be evident not only by using comprehensible terms, but also in his sentence construction and organization of ideas. The following excerpt from his July 18, 2016 speech to the Philippine representatives to the Rio Olympics presents how he tackled several ideas within one continuous utterance.

Mahirap 'yan (That's difficult). Everyday, all throughout the Philippines, we lose about 300 million a day in all ports, 300 million a day. If I can just collect it, one month, two months, ibigay ko sa inyo (I'll give them to you). Tapos na ang problema ko sa—at least, 'yung ating athletes (I'm done with my problem on – at least, our athletes), or for the poor and for everything there. That is why, you are to embark, be comfortable in the thought that in the coming days, you will have more support because I will collect taxes. At maasahan ninyo (And you can count on it) graft and corruption will stop right on its tracks. No more tax exemptions. No more rich people importing, 'yung mga oligarchs (the oligarchs). Nandiyan lang sila. They have the connections, they— sekretarya. Putang-ina, sipain ko kayong lahat (They're just there. They have the connections, they—secretary. Motherfucker, I'll kick you all).

In this excerpt, he briefly discussed the amount of losses due to tax evasion in ports ("Everyday…we lose about 300 million a day…"), then described his plan to collect taxes within a given time next ("If I can just collect it, one month, two months…"). Then, he suddenly introduced an idea about having one problem solved ("Tapos na ang problema ko sa—at least, 'yung ating athletes, or for the poor and for everything there…No more rich people importing, 'yung mga oligarchs.") Although the ideas presented with 'oligarchs' is related to the topic of graft and corruption in this utterance, he suddenly mentioned 'sekretarya' or 'secretary', which may have a direct connection with the subject of oligarchs or oligarchy. Its relevance to the subject(s), however, is not easily accessible or understood by the majority of the audience. Furthermore, the listeners may have to activate their schema relating to the topics of oligarchs and secretaries to arrive at a conclusion about the intended meaning of his utterance as a whole.

Another cause of ambiguity of his utterances is the constant instances of ellipses. In the same excerpt, there are two notable elliptical phrases: "Tapos na ang problema ko sa—" and "They have the connections, they – sekretarya." In the former, PDU30 notably did not complete the sentence he was uttering; he did not directly specify which problem was solved, and he may have also omitted a certain word or phrase. The latter also reflected the same. This statement has omitted words or phrases, making the sentence lacking sufficient information regarding the claim he made. In addition, the word 'sekretarya' was suddenly inserted into the utterance without an explicit presentation of its connection to the statement, which made the aforementioned word difficult to determine if it does belong in the same sentence that could be supplied to this otherwise incomplete utterance.

Therefore, PDU30 uses a significant amount of easily understood terms, which may be attributed to the clarity of his speeches even by those who do not have sufficient knowledge and/or skill in comprehending utterances in English. His overall sentence construction and organization of ideas, however, evidently needs further improvement. Otherwise, the lack of

attention paid to the coherence, cohesion, and/or completeness in his statements may be a cause for misinterpretation and lack of comprehensibility in the part of his intended audiences. This particular feature of his speeches is reflected on the observations made by Representative Edcel Lagman, where he stated that PDU30 employs "spontaneous and repetitive references on varied subjects and details, losing necessary focus" (Cayabyab, 2016) referring to the latter's first State of the Nation Address last July 25, 2016.

3.1.2 Intensity

Table 5

Frequency of stylistic strategies under intensity

Stylistic Strategies	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Hyperbole	8	4.28
Simile	8	4.28
Narrative	17	9.09
Expletive	19	10.16
Personification	35	18.71
Metaphor	100	53.48
Total	**187**	**100.00**

Table 5 lists the frequencies of each of the stylistic strategies that *Intensity* encompasses. As presented, the stylistic strategy of metaphor yielded the most number of instances throughout PDU30's speeches. The second most common strategy is Personification, which may be considered as another form of metaphor by other scholars (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003; Semino, 2008). From this observation, metaphor use may be interpreted as widespread in his speeches. Moreover, the number of metaphors in President Duterte's speeches highly deviates from the

number of occurrences of the other stylistic strategy, further implying that his tendency to use metaphoric language is an observable aspect of his speaking style.

A total of 53.48% of the analyzed stylistic strategies under *Intensity* were categorized as metaphorical. The metaphors that PDU30 used in his speeches can be further classified into several kinds, which have been elaborated by Lakoff and Johnson (2003) in their Conceptual Metaphor Theory and by Semino (2008) in her analyses of metaphors in discourse.

3.1.2.1 War Metaphor

Wars and Fights

Political speeches, are commonly embedded with the metaphor of war. Wars present the opposition or armed conflict of two (or more) parties to achieve a similar goal. The metaphors with references to war, thus, are commonly used by politicians to persuade their audience of the gravity of a concept, or even the dichotomy between one group and another (Semino, 2008). Upon the analysis of the war metaphors in PDU30's speeches, there seems to be a common occurrence of these whenever he discusses matters concerning illegal drugs. In the following excerpt from his speech on December 13, 2016, he mentioned his campaign against the proliferation of illegal drugs in the country. He used the term 'war against illegal drugs', and 'war on drugs' in the same speech to possibly characterize the problem as grave as a military activity against another country.

These include defense and security measures, bilateral trade and investments, law enforcement, and the war against illegal trade of drugs; the protection of Filipino and Cambodian migrant workers, and the cultural and tourism cooperation… Countering terrorism, violent extremism and radicalization will be the key areas of discussion as well as the war on illegal drugs.

These statements do not literally translate into to an armed conflict between groups or individuals. Rather, it simply compares the campaign to make the Philippines an illegal drug-free country.

Similar to *the war against/on drugs*, is the use of the war-related terms *fight*. President Duterte also used this term to refer to solving the drug problem in the Philippines. The following excerpts from his November 7, and November 17, 2016 speeches show the multiple instances of the use of the phrase *fight against drugs*.

Pati iyong mga—ang video karera, hinayaan ko na lang iyan for the moment (Even those – the off-track betting, I just let it be for the moment) because I'm busy really in the <u>fight against drugs</u>. <u>The fight against drugs</u> is actually a working network of the big ones…

Well, that is really the naked truth that I want to say to you now. We have to improve on our— However, we do it, we have to improve the country and I hope patapos na ang <u>fight against drugs</u>. There's now a lesser supply… Because all the while, when I was trying to explain that the 300 to 3,000 people who died in the <u>fight against drugs</u>, especially at the beginning of the first two months…

The *fight against drugs* does not mean that individuals or groups will combat drugs using physical conflict. The word fight simply relates to the plan(s) of action against the spread of illegal drugs, closely similar to the possible implication of the phrase *war against/on drugs*.

Friend-Enemy Dichotomy

Along with the comparison of problems to wars, or fights is the characterization of the dichotomy among poles. The war metaphor does not only pertain to the use of terms such as wars and fights in the discourse, but it also includes terms such as *friends* or *enemies* to distinguish the relationship between the participants of a certain event or issue. These two key terms are used to represent two parties, nations, or groups and their relationship with each other.

PDU30 has also used these terms to characterize some nations as his (or the Philippines's) friend. 'Enemies', on the other hand, was used to refer to those who antagonize him or those that are delaying or hindering the actuation of the nation's interests.

In the following excerpt, PDU30 used the word 'friend' in a way that it is described as someone who 'we do not pick quarrels with', which may be defined as someone who is on good terms with PDU30, or the Philippines.

<u>I would like to make it clear to everybody that we do not pick quarrels with our friends and neighbors.</u> But to me, it is high time that the President stands up to its dignity as a people…

O ngayon, <u>kaibigan ko na ang China (China is now my friend).</u> Now here comes an ex-general…

The second excerpt similarly described China as someone who has a harmonious relationship with PDU30. His use of the Filipino word 'kaibigan' imparts to the audience the renewed relationship between the Philippines and China as that of a more noble and beneficial connection.

Aside from the integration of the 'friend' metaphor, its opposite is also prevalent in President Duterte's speeches. In the following excerpts from his December 21, 2016 speech, 'enemy' was employed to illustrate the dichotomy between those that would serve the nation's interests, and those who would do the opposite.

<u>I scraped the barrel, the bottom of the barrel to come up with something for you, for everybody and for our enemies</u> because sabihin ko sa mga military camps, kayo hong sa Armed Forces (I'll tell the military camps, you from the Armed Forces)…

… This Republic of the Philippines has its own powers and prerogatives. None of it will be surrendered to the <u>enemies of the state</u> but I cannot for the life of me, be forever fighting…

Through the use of 'friend', PDU30 established to the audience that these particular individuals, organizations, or states are the ones that the Filipino citizens should accept with open arms. He had conveyed to them that these 'friends' have proven to provide support to PDU30 and his plans for the country. Meanwhile, he uses 'enemy' to create a border between him or the Filipinos and those that may possibly destabilize the country into the opposite of how PDU30 envisions it as.

By creating a separation between his 'friends' and 'enemies', PDU30's intended audience may become influenced by the set of outlook he has, especially in terms of who may be considered as beneficial to the development of the country's affairs, and those that do the opposite.

3.1.2.2 Path/Journey Metaphor One of the most common conceptual metaphors employed by politicians the use of *path or journey metaphors* (Semino, 2008). This type of conceptual metaphor activates the users' and audience's schema relating to directions and orientation, and their association with concepts such as progress, plans, and goals. Ideas that can be related to words pertaining to traveling or orientation may become a source for the use of path/journey metaphors in political speeches.

A common scheme for the use of journey metaphors is the attribution of the directional words *down, downward, bottom, back,* or *backward* to the negative concepts such as regression or failure. PDU30 used the journey metaphor of *down*:

… I said, sabi ko, 'do not ever commit the mistake of miscalculation.' <u>Kasi ako, if I go down, I will go down without regrets…</u>

… We are racked with so many problems: kidnapping in the South; terrorism; drugs, <u>which is really pulling us down</u>; and I can say that we would need time, I said, to put everything in order.

From these two excerpts, the use of the word *down* to demonstrate to the audience the concept of resignation or quitting, and regression or impasse of progress. In the first excerpt, President Duterte implied that 'going down' is a representation of resigning from his position. In the second, on the other hand, stating that the cases of kidnapping, terrorism, and drugs are 'pulling us down' is a representation of the adversaries that the Philippines currently face; the vision of the government for the country may not be met because of these hindrances that impede the country to achieve success, which is in turn, attributed to the words *up, upward, forward,* or *top.*

PDU30's use of the word *forward* is collocated with the word 'moving', thus establishing that he incorporated the source domain of traveling to a certain direction. Like the words *up* or *upward*, 'forward' similarly connotes success or progress. In the following excerpt from his November 17, 2016 speech, he used the phrase 'moving forward' to metaphorically state the entailed success or progress the APEC Economic Leaders' Meeting makes for the Philippines.

This will be an important opportunity for the Philippines to work closely with our economic partners in the region, to take stock of the efforts to facilitate economic growth and prosperity in the Asia-Pacific, and to determine ways of moving forward to achieve our shared goals.

Aside from the use of orientational metaphors such as the use of the up-down directions to represent various concepts (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003), Semino (2008) also discussed the use of concepts or ideas relating to traveling such as vehicles, among others. PDU30 also used journey metaphors in this light; he related the Philippines's economic state to the concepts associated with aviation. The following excerpt involved two journey metaphorical expressions that relate to traveling by air:

As I have said before, your government is working very hard to make sure that <u>our</u> <u>economy will finally take flight</u>. I really hope so. <u>Nasa runway lang tayo hanggang</u> <u>ngayon (We are still on the runway until now)</u>.

In the first instance, PDU30 described the economy as 'taking flight'. This phrase is compared to an airplane ascending to the skies. As *ascending* is synonymous to *moving upward*, the implicit integration of the orientational metaphor *upward* is thus detected in this example. Therefore, the phrase 'the economy will finally take flight', when rephrased, could be read as 'the economy [of the Philippines] will finally improve'.

On the second instance, President Duterte said 'nasa runway lang tayo hanggang ngayon'. In this particular sentence, there are three metaphors at work: 1) an airplane; 2) 'taking flight', which was exhibited by the first instance; and 3) a runway.

The whole excerpt is grounded on the representation of an *airplane*, although this word was never uttered in the example. From the conception of the idea of the state of the Philippine economy as 'taking flight', the association of this particular idea to an airplane becomes apparent.

In this excerpt, the Philippine economy was represented by an *airplane*, which would soon 'take flight' or 'ascend', but before doing so must first travel along a 'runway'. The metaphor of 'taking flight' or the 'improvement of the Philippine economy' was regarded as the 'goal' of PDU30. The 'runway' represented the progress itself, as a runway in an airport serves as the preliminary traveling space of an airplane before it is ready to ascend. Using these metaphors, PDU30 compared the current state of the Philippine economy to that of an airplane currently on a runway, and quite not ready yet to finally 'take flight'.

3.1.2.3 Health/Illness Metaphor. Health/Illness metaphors are primarily concerned with a connotation of a negative idea. Some negative issues or phenomena that transpire are

commonly regarded as *cancers*. PDU30, in one of his speeches, referred to illegal drugs as a kind of disease. The following excerpt illustrates such:

But the more, ika nga (as they say), and the word 'insidious' is really drugs. And it is a— sabi nila disease (they said disease), it is. But it is an acquired and willingly. It is a disease which you get with your free will. Sabihin nga nila eh, sakit iyan eh (The even say that it's a disease). Tama iyan magkasakit ka talaga (That's right, you'll really get sick) but it is an acquired disease.

From the use of 'disease', PDU30 has implied (and later on elaborated) to his audience that illegal drugs or advocating the consumption of illegal substances is an act that damages the physiological (and possibly psychological, mental, and emotional) well-being of its users. Therefore, he was able to impart to the audience the dangers of illegal drug consumption while describing it as a voluntary subscription to an 'illness', something that a user or victim may die from.

3.1.2.4 Metonymy. Metonymies are somehow similar to metaphors in that these both use another concept to refer to another. Their difference is that metaphors are not necessarily related to the idea being compared to or represented, while a metonymy is defined as the use of "one entity to refer to another that is related to it" (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p. 29). Aside from conceptual metaphors, President Duterte likewise incorporated metonymies in his speeches. These were further classified into the types of metonymies that Lakoff and Johnson (2003) elaborated.

Part of a Whole

PDU30 would sometimes represent a term using another that is characterized as a portion of a larger body, concept, and such. In several of his speeches, he used a body part to represent the whole body of a person. This type was best illustrated in his September 2, 2016 speech:

...dito 'yung horizons naka-set, 'yung mata ni Antonio Floirendo, Sr. So 'yun siya ang visionary talaga. Siya 'yung dapat naging gobernador dito sana. (...the horizons are set here – Antonio Floirendo, Sr.'s eyes. He is really the visionary. He was supposed to be the governor.)

From this excerpt, it can be observed that the use of 'mata' or 'eye' of Antonio Floirendo, Sr. does not literally pertain to his organ, but to his whole persona. Another interpretation of this passage is that the 'mata' or the 'eye' was used as a metaphor for the 'vision' of the person mentioned, since President Duterte notably indicated that Floirendo, Sr. is a 'visionary'. This term may also relate to 'vision', which in turn may mean the physiological sense activated by the eyes, or the goals and plans of a certain individual or group.

The 'part of a whole' metonymy may not only pertain to a body part. The parts of an object may also represent a related concept.

Controller for the Controlled

The controller for the controlled metonymy is a metaphor where a specific person or a name is used to represent the individual or group responsible for an act, event, or phenomenon (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). In the case of political discourse, this type is prevalent in the reports of plans and achievements of a particular politician, since it is used to hold someone responsible, despite him/her being indirectly the doer of an action.

The controller for the controlled metonymy that PDU30 employs in his speeches may be regarded as the source of some of his most controversial utterances. His infamous remark regarding the purging of three million drug addicts on one of his speeches while likening his plan to Adolf Hitler's massacre of the Jews during the Second World War (Tan, 2016) framed another remark he made on October 4, 2016:

And so true to my character actually. I am one who would never say 'no,' I am not that.
I just would ride and say, 'okay, <u>Hitler and I will slaughter this [sic] three million drug</u>
<u>addicts.'</u> But in doing so I mentioned the word 'Jewish' and that was what was terribly
wrong. And for that, I apologize. But I am never—

Some parts of this speech were made in response to the criticisms he faced when he dropped
the aforementioned controversial comment regarding Hitler and the Jews. Although the part of
the excerpt where the metonymy is contained is a quotation that he envisioned himself to say,
it is still evident that the controllers in the statement ('Hitler and I') represents the actual people
(the controlled) who will slaughter the drug addicts themselves.

Aside from the above example, the controversies revolving PDU30's distinct use of language
is also evident in his use of words that pertain to extreme violence such as 'kill':

…I warned them that <u>I will really kill you</u> if you do it. You continue with your
business, <u>I will kill you</u> because there is no other way to do it…if you're a drug lord,
if you are a for a kidnap for ransom, gun for hire, go out of the city because <u>I will kill</u>
<u>you</u>…

Again, in government operations on the eradication of illegal drug businesses, pushers, and
users alike, and of other crimes such as kidnapping and the like, PDU30 himself will not do
the 'killing' as he said. Rather, PDU30 will enact his plans of such elimination through persons
who are or will be assigned to do the duty (e.g. Philippine National Police). However, when
such results arise, the person who will be held responsible or is credited is PDU30.

His use of controller of controlled metonymies is observable not only in his radical use of
language, but also in his promises or plans for national issues such as tax collection. He
demonstrates such like other politicians or public speakers in general do:

That is why, you are to embark, be comfortable in the thought that in the coming days,
you will have more support because I will collect taxes.

In this extract, PDU30 declared that he 'will collect taxes'. Factually, the president of a country is not at whole responsible for collecting taxes from the citizens. There are special government agencies assigned to do the task. In the Philippine context, the Bureau of Internal Revenue (BIR) is the office in charge of taxation. In a more specific view, the BIR employees themselves are the ones who directly collect the taxes from the people.

Metaphors are defined as the phenomenon by which people "talk, and potentially, think about something in terms of something else" (Semino, 2008, p. 1), which are commonly used to compare an idea using a related, possibly similar concept. The formulation of metaphors may differ from person to person, as two concepts may relate or are similar to each other depending on how one would perceive his/her set of experiences (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003). According to Benoit and Benoit (2008), these are a stylistic strategy to achieve the goal of intensity in speeches. Upon the investigation of the variety of metaphors used by PDU30, however, it seems that these are not employed to merely obtain intensity nor simply to compare two ideas. Rather, numerous conceptual metaphors were used to simplify the otherwise abstract concepts that PDU30 discussed in his speeches. As a projected result, the audience thus would have more access to the intended meanings of his words because of the use of less complex ideas. The stylistic goal of clarity, therefore, could also be achieved through the use of metaphors, along with the goal of intensity.

Despite the possibilities of accomplishing clarity because of conceptual metaphors, PDU30's metonymies somehow cannot eliminate nor reduce the risks of misinterpretation of his utterances. As previously exemplified, the statements 'I will kill you' and 'Hitler and I will slaughter this [sic] three million drug addicts' may elicit negative reactions such as misinterpretations, and eventually, criticisms. In fact, his top critic Senator Leila De Lima labelled him as a self-proclaimed serial killer (Ager, 2016).

The stylistic goal of clarity, therefore, may not always be achieved because of the multiple meanings that his choices in metonymies may entail. These statements, however, achieved much intensity, and even contributed to his already colorful language.

As metaphors make PDU30's language more interesting, these seem to also be used for adding an aesthetic value to these speeches. Metaphors, although more commonly inherent in literary works to improve the beauty of creative pieces, speeches likewise would sometimes require such for a more effective and more enticing discourse. The speeches of PDU30 is embedded with numerous metaphors that contribute to the creativity of these speeches, despite being delivered spontaneously.

As dissected, the metaphors used by President Duterte are conceptual in nature. This entails that he has a certain understanding of reality that he, in turn, incorporates in his speeches through metaphors that compare to various concepts from numerous source domains like war, journey or traveling, and health. He activates his knowledge or perception on the association of one concept to another whenever presenting an abstract or complex idea with a simpler one. Therefore, his audience may have a preview of his perception of reality based on his metaphor use. As this perception of reality is implicitly revealed, a part of himself – his identity as a conceptualizer of ideas and reality – may also be uncovered.

3.1.3   Rhythm. The goal to establish rhythm in speeches involves only one stylistic strategy. One of the most used stylistic strategy employed by PDU30 is the use of repetition and parallel wording and structure, occurring 54 times (see Table 1). From the results, there is an observable trend in the repetition and parallelism in wording and structure that seem to be embedded in his speeches. As observed, this particular strategy may be further classified into three types of repetitive qualities such as lexical or phrasal repetition, sentential repetition, and parallel wording and (syntactic) structure.

Table 6

Types of repetition and parallel wording and structure

Type of Replication	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Sentential Repetition	7	12.96
Parallel Wording and Structure	22	40.74
Lexical or Phrasal Repetition	25	46.30
Total	**54**	**100.00**

Table 6 exhibits the frequency of cases of PDU30 replicating words, phrases, sentences, or structures. As illustrated, PDU30 has a strong inclination to repeat certain words and/or phrases in his speeches, while repeating sentences is an almost unlikely tendency.

3.1.3.1 Lexical or Phrasal Repetition. A Lexical or Phrasal Repetition involves the use of the same word and/or phrase within a sentence or an utterance. Only a part of a sentence is repeated in another. The following extracts from his August 15, 2016 speech illustrates lexical repetition, where the word *never* was repeated side-by-side:

So ang apparatus dito, iyong lieutenants lang, at iyong mga nasa—unless, I—talagang pipigilan ko itong nasa sidewalk, araw-gabi nandiyan iyan, peddling harap-harapan. Until I shall have destroyed them, we can never, never have peace in our land… Hindi naman ako nag-ano, I'm just warning people na huwag ninyong sobrahan because I would never, never, never allow my country to be destroyed by simply terrorism at itong droga.

(The apparatus here are only the lieutenants and those who are in – unless I will really stop those on the sidewalk who are there day and night to peddle without restrictions. Until I shall have destroyed them, we can never, never have peace in our land… I did

not really -- I'm just warning people to not overdo it because I would never, never, never allow my country to be destroyed by simply terrorism at drugs.)

In the first instance, he merely repeated *never* two times, and on the second use of this scheme, he repeated it three times. From these excerpts, it may also be interpreted that the strategy of lexical repetition is used for emphasis or even to intensify the message he is trying to convey.

The use of phrasal repetition can also be observed in his speeches. The repetition of a group of words or collocations within a single utterance demonstrate a purpose for emphasis and establishing rhythm. Like lexical repetition, only a part is repeated and incorporated in the following sentence or phrase; the only difference is that more than one word is repeated. The following are excerpts from his speech on July 18, 2016 which has occurrences of phrasal repetition:

Mahirap 'yan (That's difficult). Everyday, all throughout the Philippines, we lose about 300 million a day in all ports, 300 million a day. If I can just collect it, one month, two months, ibigay ko sa inyo (I'll give them to you)…

...At may dalawa akong pamilya, paghatiin nilang dalawa, pamilya ko, papaano iyan? Wala na akong allowance para sa akin. No more, no more happiness. Eh manghiram ka pa sa Presidential Security. Put yourself at ease, Ma'am… That is why, you are to embark, be comfortable in the thought that in the coming days, you will have more support because I will collect taxes. At maasahan ninyo graft and corruption will stop right on its tracks. No more tax exemptions. No more rich people importing, 'yung mga oligarchs (the oligarchs).

(…And I have two families who will divide it. What will happen? There will not be any allowance left for me. No more, no more happiness. And you'll also lend from the Presidential Security.)

The first excerpt shows the use of the phrase *300 million a day* in one sentence to emphasize the amount of losses the Philippines loses in taxes. Second, the use of *no more* occurred in more than one instance throughout the same speech; the first instance presented a loss of happiness, and the second presented the loss of tax exemptions and oligarchy.

These two excerpts both illustrated the use of repetition as a strategy to emphasize a point. As emphasis is established, intensity may also be achieved through it. As loss or 'non-existence' may be considered an extreme compared to the less extreme word 'lack (of)'.

3.1.3.2 Sentential Repetition. Aside from words and phrases, there are also instances when PDU30 repeats a whole sentence either through a verbatim process or through translation to or from the local language.

On his July 18, 2016 speech, he used the strategy of sentential repetition. In this excerpt, he repeated the whole sentence – whether it is in the English language or the local language.

… And so they say that they would not honor it but we cannot be, you know. <u>We can only take so much. We can only take so much</u>.

This illustrates that the sentence *we can only take so much* is an important point to impart to the audience, and therefore emphasize. Similarly, another type of sentential repetition used is the translation to the English language. The following extract presents such:

…Just ignore the politics in the national level, <u>pulitika lang talaga 'yan eh. It's all politics.</u>

In this instance, the Filipino *pulitika lang talaga 'yan eh* was repeated in another sentence, but in the English language (*It's all politics*). Translation may be a strategy to accommodate more diverse audiences who may or may not be able to comprehend a part of his speech. From this

example, however, it may be interpreted that this scheme may be used as a way to emphasize or to highlight the roles or effects of politics in the country.

3.1.3.3 Parallel Wording and Structure. The strategy to parallel the wording or structure of one sentence or phrase elevates lexical, phrasal, or sentential repetition to the repetition of the syntactic features of one sentence, and applied to another. The repetitive syntactic features include the word order, parts of speech, or even verb tenses. As a result, sentences or utterances considered to be embedded with parallel wording and structure may also be categorized as those that exhibit lexical, phrasal, or sentential repetition.

Basically, those that are analyzed to be embedded with parallel wording and structure repeats a certain word or phrase from a sentence and repeats it, but with an application of usually an object, or another concept which is commonly categorized as a noun.

In the following excerpts, these similarly involve a repetition of a phrase, but applied with an object. The following are excerpts from several of his speeches:

…But hindi ako aatras dito (But I will not back down). <u>Not by the Human Rights, not by the religious, not by anybody</u>, except my conscience and because I have to save my country.

In this example, the phrase 'not by' was repeated, but in every instance of use is integrated with the implied doer of a certain action. The noun or pronoun that follows the repeated phrase 'not by' was replaced every time.

I won the Presidency almost just… iyong aming partido (our party) that was very small. <u>We didn't have the money, we didn't have the machinery</u>.

This excerpt from PDU30's August 8, 2016 speech similarly involved the repetition of the phrase 'we didn't have' followed by the object, structured through the use of a determiner ('the'), then a noun ('money' and 'machinery').

Another example of parallel wording and structure is the use of the Subject-Verb-Object pattern in the English language.

… it's a criminal, you know. <u>You enjoy the blessings of prosperity. You enjoy the progress and the progressive peripheral provinces and cities</u>; you have the money; you get profits.

The above example shows how PDU30 employed the same structure in the underlined part; he used the Subject-Verb-Direct Object sentence pattern. In this excerpt, he repeated the phrase 'you enjoy', which is a combination of a subject ('you') and a verb ('enjoy') in two sentences. The respective *direct objects* of 'enjoy' in these two sentences differ, however. The first instance has the noun phrase 'the blessings of prosperity' as the direct object for 'enjoy', while the second has 'the progress and the progressive peripheral provinces and cities'. Although the second direct object involves two noun phrases, the similar pattern of S-V-DO still applied.

And from the sheer – ayaw ko kasi magyabang (I don't want to brag) – pero I'm reading the sentiments of the Filipino from the votes that they cast last election, there's a message. The <u>government should be accountable to us, the people. Government should serve the interest of the whole population not only to a few. Government must see to it that there is no wrong committed against the people.</u>

The above example does not manifest a direct parallelism in terms of sentence patterns, however, it shows the use of similar word and terms. First, all three sentences used the word

'government' as their subject. Second, all of these also used modals such as 'should' and 'must', which both entail obligation (Teschner & Evans, 2007).

The strategy of repetition and parallel wording and structure to achieve rhythm, from the observations of the excerpts, is not used merely to establish aesthetic features that are connected to the pacing, wording, and parallelism in a word, phrase, and sentence formation. In most instances, repetition of certain words could enlighten the audience about the possible points that they must concentrate on. Similarly, PDU30 also uses this technique or strategy to further emphasize what needs to be remembered by the audience. Although Benoit and Benoit (2008) did not characterize this particular strategy as a part of the stylistic goal to intensity, there are times when PDU30 repeated several parts of his utterance that may intensify his words. For example, the use of modals of obligation (e.g. should, must) could make the audience or any party concerned with this intended message feel a sense of urgency or need, compared to if he uses less obligating modals such as *may* or *might*, or perimodals like *ought to* or *would rather*.

Aside from modals, repetition may still entail intensity when used with words that connote extreme or polar meanings such as *never* or *always*. The use of these words repetitively could also make the audience detect the possible importance of the expressions or meanings PDU30 want to convey. As exemplified previously, he used *never* repetitively on two occasions – the first involved the use of the word 'never' twice, and the second time, he used 'never' thrice. This, therefore, could imply that he cannot totally entertain the possibilities of the ideas he presented in the said example.

Repetition of words or *rehearsal* is commonly attributed or correlated to recall, retention (Goldstein, 2015), and even learning (Jacoby, 1978; Murdock Jr., & Babick, 1961), like how advertisements use slogans to make consumers remember the brands more effectively (Musté, Stuart, & Botella, 2015; Pilcher, 2014). PDU30, thus, may consider these messages or keywords as important for him to share these to the audience in a repetitive manner. It can be

concluded from these observations that PDU30 need not to explicitly state that the members of the audience must remember the words he says, rather, he enables the audience to make them remember what he had said about a particular issue using words, phrases, sentence, or even structures that are repeated throughout his speeches.

3.2 Reasoning Strategies

Table 7

Frequency of reasoning strategies

Reasoning Strategy	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Argument by Authority	9	4.15
Argument by Analogy	11	5.07
Argument by Deduction	37	17.05
Argument by Example	37	17.05
Argument by Cause	123	56.68
Total	**217**	**100.00**

Table 7 presents the summary of the reasoning strategies adopted by President Duterte, and their respective frequencies. The frequency of *Arguments by Cause* shows a significant difference as compared to the other reasoning strategies, which did not have frequencies that deviated much from one another.

3.2.1 Argument by Cause

Table 8

Types and frequency of argument by cause

Type of Argument by Cause	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Effect-to-Cause	30	24.39
Cause-to-Effect	93	75.61
Total	**123**	**100.00**

Argument by cause is the most used reasoning strategy of PDU30, constituting 56.68% of the analyzed reasoning strategies throughout his 12 speeches. The argument by cause strategy may be further divided into two depending on its construction: effect-to-cause is characterized by the presentation of a claim, which is an effect of a certain issue, event, or phenomenon, which will be justified through the presentation of the causes that followed. Cause-to-effect, on the other hand, is the use of causes as claims, before transitioning to justifying these claims with the projected effects.

3.2.1.1 Cause-to-Effect. PDU30 can be observed as a speaker who presents a claim as a cause of certain issues. He therefore needs to enumerate the possible effects of a particular issue as the main tool to persuade the audience. The effect(s), therefore, is an essential part of the argument, not just for elaboration purposes, but to also somehow elicit emotion from the listeners. An example of presenting a cause as a claim is manifested in one of his statements regarding the China-Philippines territorial dispute in a speech delivered on September 2, 2016: But since <u>we are a small country, we cannot match the arms and armaments and the weaponry of China so at this time</u>, <u>take out war as an option</u>. If there is no war then there is only one thing that we can do. China says, it is not good to go to war because so many reasons. <u>But ours frankly, going to the brass tacks, going to the minimum. Ano 'yan? Hindi talaga natin kaya</u>. (What's with that? It's impossible to do it.) <u>It's going to be a massacre. So hold muna tayo</u>.

From this excerpt, PDU30 expressed that the Philippines do not have the capabilities to go into war against China ('Hindi talaga natin kaya') because of the conflict over territories. This example also shows PDU30's claim that the Philippines do not have the right amount nor quality of weaponry that can match China's ('we cannot match the arms and armaments and the weaponry of China'), as that of the Philippines is of minimum specifications, features, or

quality. He therefore illustrated that such military action would result to multitudinous deaths ('It's going to be a massacre').

PDU30 uses this reasoning technique not only to justify claims under his political agenda, but also to elaborate his set of personal values, in the light of cause-and-effect explanation. This may be observed in his speech on October 4, 2016, where he expressed his apology regarding the issue on his remark about Hitler and the Jews:

<u>Respect is important</u>. And that is why, I'm here. <u>I really came here to say, 'I am sorry' because I respect the Jewish people</u>.

He considers respect as an important aspect of a person's character (underlined once). Therefore, he justifies that he does have this particular value by facing the audience with an issuance of apology due to his remark that offended the Jewish people (underlined twice).

3.2.1.2 Effect-to-Cause. PDU30 also uses the effect-to-cause structure of his arguments by cause. Some causes of certain events or issues become the backbone of the justification of his claims.

Now, bakit? <u>Nakita niyo the dimension of it all. The widespread use.</u> Why? Because <u>government allowed it to be that big</u>. And sabihin mo, bakit <u>dumating naman ganito, dumating na ganitong karami at widespread, umabot ng thousands by thousands</u>? <u>Because government or people in government itself were into it also</u>.

(Now, why? You have seen the dimension of it all. The widespread use. Why? Because government allowed it to be that big. And you say, 'how did it turn out like this, how did it multiply and become widespread, reaching thousands by thousands? Because government or people in government itself were into it also.)

In this excerpt, PDU30 claims that illegal drug use and businesses have already become widespread ('dumating na ganitong karami at widespread'), which is a result of the (previous)

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government's complacency or indifference regarding this problem (underlined twice). He also added that the members of the government were also involved in the proliferation of the problem ('government or people in government itself were into it also') is one of the causes of such effect (underlined twice).

3.2.2   Argument by Example. Argument by example is defined as a presentation of a claim through the use of general statement, and justifying it using more specific instances or cases. This structure is commonly followed PDU30, along with the use of examples that would further elaborate or clarify his claims.

The following excerpt from his August 15, 2016 speech shows how he introduced the graveness of graft and corruption in the Philippine government agencies, followed by actual examples of these offices that could further support this claim:

…Itong minsan, magpapasyal-pasyal ako ng probinsiya, <u>endemic talaga ang graft and corruption</u> (…Recently, I went to the province, and graft and corruption were really endemic). I really do not know why other people would insist on doing it until now. Mayroon akong listahan diyan (I have a list here) but I want to add some more. <u>Itong LTFRB, pati LTO all over</u>, (This LTFRB, and LTO all over) they're still at it and to think that I placed there… I was meeting the businessmen of Cagayan De Oro, was it five nights ago? And the complaint was still there: <u>corruption ng LTFRB, pati LTO</u>. And I suppose that this is true…

In this example, he was not able to provide more details on the corruption scenes within the Land Transportation Franchising and Regulatory Board (LTFRB) and Land Transportation Office (LTO) to further exemplify his claim. Nevertheless, he was able to cite specific offices that have issues in governance.

There are also some instances in which he asserts a broad (and possibly metaphoric) claim, before further specifying or elaborating what makes the claims of such statement valid or true.

We are shrinking very fast. What's used to be one month to cross the Pacific, something like just about a matter of two weeks and—the boats are fast and the aircrafts have become high-tech and we are actually near to each other, even in a matter of state nations.

From this example, he claims that 'we are shrinking very fast' (underlined once), in relation to the international trading and transportation. As this statement is figurative, his audience may not understand what he is trying to relay. Thus, he immediately follows with statements that pertain to the accessibility of other countries due to the rise of technology in the field of aerial transportation. Furthermore, he did not just state that other states are easier to visit or access, but he also cited examples of specific instances (underlined twice) that would strengthen his assertion ('what's used to be one month to cross the Pacific, something like just about a matter of two weeks'). Thus, the possible question of the audience of 'what makes us shrink?' was answered by PDU30 through his presentation of an example.

3.2.3   Argument by Deduction. As stated in the framework (Froemling et al., 2011), this reasoning strategy commonly encompasses the use of a broad statement before transitioning to a more specific one. These parts were then referred to as a *syllogism*, which is composed of a major premise, a minor premise, and a conclusion based on the preceding assumptions and/or claims. In the case of this study, the assertions laid out by PDU30 in these statements may not be necessarily true nor valid; the pattern merely illustrates a logical transition to justify or to show how he arrived at his conclusions and claims.

All *vegetables* are *leaves.*

A *pumpkin* is a *vegetable.*

Therefore, a *pumpkin* is a *leaf.*

The example above shows the standard form of a syllogism where three key terms are used in two statements, and followed by a conclusion where two of these three concepts were also integrated. From this syllogism, the key terms are: 1) vegetable(s); 2) leaf/leaves; and 3) pumpkin. In PDU30's speeches, however, there are instances where he did not use the existing key concepts from the two previous statements to form his conclusions; the conclusions were coined mainly due to the implications that these premises possibly entail. The formation of the statements in the syllogisms he presented also do not reflect the convention of utilizing only three terms because his pattern in his use of arguments by deduction generally included more than three concepts. Furthermore, PDU30 usually do not transition from a general statement to a more specific one. There are instances when the statements he utters are already too specific, again deviating from the conventional structure of syllogisms.

The following example is embedded with the reasoning strategy of argument by deduction were further dissected to see the division among the first statement, the second statement, and the conclusion, since some of this extract did not explicitly use three sentences to represent those aforementioned.

Table 9

Extract 1 of argument by deduction

Extract 1	Statement 1	Statement 2	Conclusion	Key concepts
…drug money is still going around and the barangay captains most of them are really into it, they would just stay in power and this time, they have the money, and they will wield. So we will have a narco-politics on the lowest government unit, which is the barangay.	Drug money is still going around and the barangay captains most of them are really into it.	They would just stay in power and this time, they have the money, and they will wield.	(Therefore,) we will have a narco-politics on the lowest government unit, which is the barangay.	• Drug money • Barangay captains • (in) power • Money • Narco-politics • Lowest government unit (barangay)

Table 9 presents an extract of PDU30's use of argument by deduction. From the excerpt, the statements are related to each other, in that one of their key concepts is 'barangay captains' (or 'they' in the second statement). These statements, however, are both specific – a contrast to the traditional structure of a syllogism. The excerpt also has multiple concepts that were keys to decipher the intended meaning of the statement as a whole instead of comprising only three ideas. As such, this presents how radical PDU30's language use is in the light of the structure of presenting such arguments.

The key elements of the conclusion noticeably did not previously exist in either of the first two statements. 'Narco-politics' and 'lowest government unit' or 'barangay' were neither a key concept in statement 1 nor statement 2. The conclusion, thus, was coined because of the implications that statement 1 and 2 have presented.

Since PDU30 usually does not follow the general-to-specific flow of statements before stating a claim, his use of two statements – regardless of their specificity – before presenting a conclusion based on the assertions was also considered as a strategy of argument by deduction.

The excerpt above illustrates two related statements before ending with a conclusion. It can be noted that these statements do not necessarily follow the standard form of syllogisms where the conclusion incorporates the key terms discussed in the previous statements. It is evident that PDU30 made some assumptions and/or claims before arriving at a conclusion; these assumptions do not necessarily follow a general-to-specific transition, rather, these alleged facts were randomly inserted to justify or support the conclusions that followed. Since the last statement is regarded as the conclusion, an implied 'therefore', which is a "conclusion indicator" (Govier, 2014, p. 5), was inserted to show its relation to the previous ones. Thus, his use of the reasoning strategy of argument by deduction is based on his own formulation of an argument, which in turn is based on his own deductions rooting from the two statements he uttered.

Due to the significant deviation of the syllogism patterns in PDU30's statements, one may observe that these should not considered as syllogisms at all. These may not be defined as such if the characterization of syllogism is centered highly on structure. However, he still used two statements to support his conclusions and claims, in no way that these statements are examples, analogies, causes and/or effects, nor citations of an authority. It is undeniable that he still followed the content-based definition of syllogisms, where two related statements are used to formulate an assumption based on the implied meaning of the two ideas. This picture of his deductive reasoning patterns may not be holistically considered as a *syllogism*, but they can be regarded as a whole new structure of deductive reasoning that is representative of his unique language use – one that is truly *Rodrigo Duterte*.

President Duterte's arguments that he elaborated in his statements are the claims he made as he maps his visions and achievements as the president of the Philippines. These claims, for the audience to indeed be moved to action, need to be justified using a set of reasoning strategies. Therefore, the analyzed and categorized statements according to the reasoning strategy he used give a preview of his reasoning patterns throughout his speeches.

As presented, he has a strong inclination to use the strategy of argument by cause, along with argument by deduction, and example. This somehow illustrates how he wishes to justify his claims that may be controversial, confusing, or misleading if not accompanied by reasons, examples, or other related statements. The causes and/or effects, deductions, and examples he presented may have unproven veracity. Particularly, he may mention some arguments, claims, or assumptions that may be subject to his personal biases and are thus highly subjective. Nonetheless, his main concern is to justify his statements as much as he can using his assumptions based on his schema.

Speeches, especially those that are made by politicians, should at least have a high rate of truthfulness in the content. Since PDU30's reasons mostly center on personal assumptions, the validity of his words may not be readily accepted by the audience. The strategy of argument by authority is perhaps the most objective reasoning strategy there is, in that a speaker justifies his/her claims using information verified by an expert body on a given topic. Upon observation of PDU30's reasoning strategies, this strategy was used the least, occurring only nine times (see Table 7) out of the 217 coded statements. Therefore, the lack of adequate supporting details based on factual evidence may be one of the contributors of the misinterpretations he faced. Thus, from these observations, President Duterte may be revealed as someone who depends on examples, self-made conclusions, and alleged causes or effects rather than more objective supporting details such as a specialist's testimony.

Implications to Persuasion

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An explicit analysis of both the stylistic and reasoning strategies of PDU30 provides an overview of the general goal of the speeches he delivers. Upon observation, his speeches may be regarded as persuasive in nature more than informative. Following Aristotle's rhetorical triangle to persuasive communication (Larson, 2013), PDU30's speeches contain the three elements to persuasion called *artistic proofs* that Aristotle first introduced.

Ethos is defined as the speakers' appeal to his audience shaped by their credibility. As the credibility of speakers highly depends on how the audience receives them, this artistic proof is merely framed around the reputation of the presenters (Larson, 2013). This aspect was nevertheless achieved by PDU30 in his speeches, as he established his credibility as a speaker simply by being a former prosecutor of Davao City, and the current Head of the State (Presidential Communications Operations Office, 2016).

Pathos, on the other hand, refers to the emotional appeal of a certain statement. The audience is psychologically influenced by the words, patterns, and colorful language that the speaker employs, resulting to a possibly persuasive communication (Larson, 2013).

PDU30's use of metaphors, as one of the most used persuasive tools in political speeches (Mio, 1996), demonstrates such effect to the audience. Reflecting what has been previously discussed, the use of this stylistic strategy may elicit emotion-based responses from the audience. Due to the literal meanings of some metaphors that PDU30 used, the listeners may associate these denotations to the possible implications of the metaphor in action. For example, the use of the term 'war on drugs' as a type of war metaphor may impart that the campaign against illegal drug businesses entails violent military action, although that is arguably true to a certain extent. Thus, some may fear the effect of such move by the government against one of the main problems in the Philippine society today in the same way that they fear the emergence of wars between or among states. This assumption also corresponds to Ferrari's

(2007) conclusion that politicians can manipulate the audience by inducing certain emotions to them (e.g. fear) through the colorful use of language.

Logos, the last aspect of the 'triangle', is the presentation of the logical arguments of the speaker (Larson, 2013). The reasoning schemes used by PDU30 in his speeches, as previously stated, may not be fully credible and objective, as he rarely used the technique of argument by authority, which uses a specialist's testimonies. Nevertheless, he uses logic based on his own perceptions, specifically through the articulation of a claim as either a cause or an effect of a certain event.

As the stylistic and reasoning strategies used by PDU30 in his speeches were analyzed in this study, it can be observed that he somehow adheres to the pathos and logos aspect of persuasive communication through his use of metaphors and argument by cause. Thus, it can be assumed that these strategies are used to persuade his audience through either emotional appeal, logical appear, or even both.

Conclusion

The distinct language use of the current Philippine president induced much attention both in the local and international scenes. The controversies and organization of his utterances became a point of interest by political and speech analysts alike, as these were conceived as highly nonconforming to the norms of speech preparation and execution in the political arena. For a public servant whose one of his aims is to represent the country in and outside of the state, his unique and radical language use continues to be a focal point of local and international media outlets in the recent months. The study, thus, intended to analyze the language use tendencies of PDU30 in the light of his stylistic and reasoning strategies. These strategies, as observed, were both used by PDU30 as devices to persuade his audience.

Persuasion, however, is not the only feature that surfaced from the analysis of his communication strategies; his perception of reality and self-representation patterns also emerge through his use of these techniques.

The use of conceptual metaphors, for example, gives the audience a brief background of how PDU30 conceptualizes reality, which he would then use as a point of comparison between his experience of reality and another idea. As his 'train of thought' in relation to his perceptions is revealed, both the stylistic and reasoning strategies he used become an avenue for him to (unconsciously) represent himself.

One of the functions of language use is for an individual to express his/her thoughts and feelings (Joseph, 2004). PDU30, as a public speaker, expresses himself in front of the audiences that may reveal his emotions with utmost potential. He himself stated that he wanted to express his ideas as honestly as possible because he prefers the audience to somehow understand his feelings whenever he engages in public discourse. In one of his speeches, he was able to justify his refusal to refer to a prepared script in the light of authentic expression and representation of himself. He explained that "the problem with speeches that are prepared is that does not show the person. It cannot transmit the emotion which I would like to – you feel."

PDU30 has a set of knowledge, beliefs, values, and experiences of reality that are evidently manifested in his use of stylistic strategies such as ordinary words, metaphors, and repetition and parallel wording and structure. Through the use of these techniques, one may evaluate him as a speaker who is easily understood by his audiences through his word choice, while being able to activate his knowledge on technical terms that may be outside of his fields of expertise. In addition, his use of metaphors enables him to evoke emotions from his listeners by merely associating one idea to another. The multiple instances of repetition for emphasis also illustrates how he allows his audience to retain (and possibly recall) his words. His reasoning strategies, on the other hand, also shows that he prefers to present reasons and/or effects, to cite

examples, and to construct assertions from premises or claims he had mentioned, instead of opting to use reasons rooting from more objective sources.

Benjamin Lee Whorf once underscored that an individual's use of language influences the user's thoughts (Hoijer, 1954). This study, however, posits the opposite; it may also be possible that the way communicators think influences the way they use the languages in their repertoire. When speakers use their language(s) in the most authentic way possible, they are able to impart to their listeners their inner selves, emotions, and passions. As PDU30 himself said: "I am not into reading speeches…I always want…the inner core of my person, makita ninyo (to be seen by you)."

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Appendices

Appendix A

List of Speeches

Date Delivered	Title	Word Count	English Word Count
July 7, 2016	Press Statement on the Philippine Illegal Drug Trade	1,336	1,264 (87%)
July 18, 2016	Speech During the Send-off Ceremony for the Philippine Delegation to the Summer Olympics in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil	2,185	1,694 (78%)
August 8, 2016	Statement on his Visit to Catbalogan City, Samar; the Ongoing Peace Talks with the Communist Party of the Philippines; and Tax Evasion	1,225	1,014 (83%)
August 15, 2016	Speech During the Oath Taking of Newly Appointed Officials	1,598	1,311 (82%)
September 2, 2016	Speech During the Inauguration of Davao International Container Terminal	2,311	1,916 (83%)
September 18, 2016	Speech During the Presentation of the Norwegian Kidnap Victim to the Press in Davao City	1,283	1,242 (97%)
October 4, 2016	Speech During the Rosh Hashanah	3,062	3,061 (99.97%)
October 26, 2016	Speech During the Philippine Economic Forum	1,900	1,900 (100%)
November 7, 2016	Speech During the Oath Taking of the Newly Appointed Officers of the National Press Club (NPC)	2,901	2,182 (75.22%)

November 17, 2016	Speech on His Participation at the APEC Economic Leaders' Meeting in Lima, Peru	2,167	1,691 (78%)
December 13, 2016	Departure Speech on His State Visits to Cambodia and Singapore	1,544	1,266 (82%)
December 21, 2016	Speech During the 81st Armed Forces of the Philippines Anniversary Celebration	1,791	1,379 (77%)

Divergent Effects of Direct and Semi-direct Oral Assessment on Psychological Anxiety and Physiological Response in EFL College Students

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Abstract

Psychological sources such as negative self-perception, fear of taking risks, or negative experiences in speaking which support speaking anxiety as a debilitating factor affecting foreign language (FL) performance have been investigated; however, physiological factors have been ignored. Moreover, whether direct (public speaking) or semi-direct (recorded speaking) oral assessments result in different levels of FL anxiety and affect FL performance remain unknown. Psychological anxiety (STAI-S) and physiological cardiovascular responses (blood pressure and heart rate) to stressors were measured in 47 EFL College students without assessment, and with semi-direct and direct EFL oral assessment. Our results showed that blood pressure and heart rate in the recorded speaking assessment were significantly higher than those in no assessment and those were also significantly higher in public speaking assessment than those in no assessment and recorded speaking assessment. During direct assessment, heart rate increased markedly by about 28 beats per minute, without a gender difference whereas heart rate increased significantly 5 beats per minute in females during semi-direct assessment, but not in males. Anxiety in direct oral assessment was notably higher than in semi-direct assessment; however, no significant differences in standardized oral test scores were found between two assessments and no significant correlation was found between increased anxiety and grades. Our findings suggest that psychological and physiological anxieties in real-situation based direct EFL oral assessment are more obvious than in recording based semi-

direct assessment, but the increased levels of psychological and physiological anxieties in these two types of assessments didn't affect examinees' oral scores. Since the increased anxiety of these two assessments did not affect oral scores, our study might suggest the semi-direct oral assessment such as recorded speaking could be a practicable and complementary way to simulate public speaking.

1. Introduction

Anxiety, which is associated with a subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry (Shek, 1993; Spielberger, Gorsuch, Lushene, Vagg, & Jacobs, 1983), was one of the most well documented and significant affective and psychological factors in the context of foreign language learning (Aida, 1994; E. K. Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; In'nami, 2006; Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). This context contains three general types of anxiety: state anxiety, trait anxiety (Spielberger et al., 1983), and situation-specific anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994). They have been investigated from the following three aspects: cognitive, curriculum and cultural perspectives for looking into the interplay of anxiety and foreign language learning (Zheng, 2008). Moreover, both productive skills (speaking and writing) and receptive skills (reading and listening) in the context of foreign language anxiety have been discussed (Cheng, 2004; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994) . Among them can speaking foreign language be regarded as the most anxiety-provoking factor because it is the communication-oriented competence (MacIntyre, 1998)? If so, this can result more easily in state anxiety, a momentary and situation-related anxiety, because of the prompt responses required in oral communication.

Speaking a foreign language can be even more anxiety provoking when it comes to the testing of speaking. The state of speaking testing generates easily a status of an anxious feeling, which is associated with the state anxiety of speaking. Two common speaking test modes are direct and semi-direct assessments. Galaczi's study explored the features of these two modes and explained the differences in that the former one involves face-to-face testing with examiners, for example, one to one oral testing or public speaking in a classroom setting, while the latter one can be computer-based or CD-ROM-based, for which the test taker has to record answers to the questions delivered by the pre-recorded examiner (Galaczi, 2010). Moreover, the comparisons of these two test modes have been reported that examinees' speaking

performance in these two modes are highly comparable (Bernstein, Van Moere, & Cheng, 2010; Stansfield & Kenyon, 1992), but not interchangeable (O'Loughlin, 2001). Language test takers' anxiety was argued to be higher in semi-direct testing because of its one-way communication without chances of revision or repetition if errors were made (Shohamy, 1994). Also, from the discourse level, the language delivered would be less oral-like when compared with the reality-oriented communication.

Public speaking anxiety was defined as representation of "a cluster of evaluative feelings about speech making" (Daly, Vangelisti, Neel, & Cavanaugh, 1989). The fear of public speaking such as delivering a speech or a presentation in one's native language ranks as the number one fear among all speaking anxiety factors (Krannich, 2004). Some studies showed public speaking anxiety sources in a native language which include embarrassment, shaky voices, rapid heartbeat, feelings of discomfort, inferiority complex, negative mood and low self-respect (Al'Absi et al., 1997; Behnke & Sawyer, 2001; Clements & Turpin, 1996). These speaking anxiety sources in a native language can further be categorized into psychological and physiological factors. One study compared the anxiety level between giving a speech in a native language to a group of people in a traditional face-to-face classroom and giving a speech to an audience into a camera using web-based technology from both a psychological and physiological perspective by applying a self-report survey and the heart rate respectively (S. Campbell & Larson, 2013). Their results showed that no significance was found in the amount of anxiety of native language between the two types of public speaking, but the heart rate was higher when conducting face-to-face speaking.

The psychological sources of foreign language speaking anxiety have also been reported from several studies. Woodrow (2006) indicated that psychological sources such as negative self-perception, fear of taking risks, or negative experiences in speaking support speaking anxiety as a debilitating factor can all have an effect on foreign language performance (Woodrow, 2006). Speaking anxiety was considered as a two-dimensional construct and includes communication in and out of the classroom (Woodrow, 2006). Yahya (2013) investigated fear of negative feedback, communication anxiety, and test anxiety of speaking in Palestine students and concluded that these three different factors are closely related (Yahya, 2013). Tsiplakides and Keramida's study (2009) provided methods for EFL learners to overcome two psychological sources of speaking: fear of negative evaluation from their peers and perception of low ability (Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2009). It remains unknown whether there is a difference concerning the psychological responses between direct and semi-direct FL

speaking tests.

One study looked into the physiological sources of foreign language anxiety of Japanese college students by a self-report survey and concluded that the most common physiological reactions were faster heartbeat, feeling hot or burning cheeks, perspiring, and a lump in the throat based on the frequencies analysis (Andrade & Williams, 2009). Physiological assessments such as heart rates or blood pressure tests are the common means of the physiological anxiety for foreign language learning (Scovel, 1978; Zheng, 2008). Physiological reactions caused by FL speaking anxiety are common feelings most people have experienced. However, whether there is a difference concerning the physiological responses between direct and semi-direct FL speaking tests remains unknown.

Gender has long played a role in FL speaking anxiety with inconsistent results. Male students' anxiety was negatively correlated with their self-perceived ability of tasks in the spoken FL of Japanese; however, this was not found in female students (Kitano, 2001). One study has a similar result comparing with Kitano's in that male students were more anxious for the foreign language use in a classroom setting (C. M. Campbell & Shaw, 1994). In contrast, Asian female students were shown to have higher levels of anxiety than male students, especially when they were asked to speak foreign language in the classroom (Wu, 2010). Similar findings were also demonstrated that female students were more anxious when speaking English in the classroom (Öztürk & Gürbüz, 2013). The inconsistent results of gender role in FL speaking anxiety may be explained from a cultural perspective (Zheng, 2008). Cultural differences could lead to divergent results concerning instructional practice and foreign language anxiety (E. Horwitz, 2001). However, other than psychological anxiety mentioned above, it remains unanswered whether the physiological responses for public FL speaking differ between males and females.

Although psychological and physiological factors of FL speaking anxiety have been widely reported, the divergent impacts of these factors on semi-direct and direct speaking assessment as well as the impact of physiological responses on males and females remain to be investigated. This study focuses specifically on speaking anxiety of EFL arisen from speaking assessments, recorded speaking and public speaking. The former one as a semi-direct assessment reflects the semi-reality-oriented one-way communication without feedback, while the latter one is a reality-oriented situation with a real audience giving an evaluation in a classroom setting. We hypothesize that public FL speaking as a speaking assessment may result

in higher psychological and physiological anxiety reactions and worse foreign language performance when compared with recorded speaking because public speaking involves direct feedback from the audience and evaluation from instructors.

Our unknown research questions are as follows:

1. Do gender differences have an impact on psychological and physiological reactions for FL speaking tests?

2. Do semi-direct and direct assessment of FL speaking result in different levels of psychological anxiety and physiological responses?

3. Do psychological anxiety and physiological responses influence learners' semi-direct and direct EFL speaking testing performance?

2. Method

Participants

Participants were forty-seven sophomore volunteers (10 males, 37 females; average age 19.68, *SD* = .66, range 19 - 21), who enrolled in a required English speaking course in the Department of Foreign Languages and Literature of a large private university in central Taiwan. Prior to attending university, participants learned English as a foreign language for six years in middle and high schools. Before the study began, the study was reviewed and approved by Asia University Medical Research Ethics Committee.

Measurements

Oral assessment conditions: This study compared psychological and physiological factors of participants in three EFL oral assessment conditions: 1) No oral assessment condition - when participants having no or little anxiety concerning assessments, 2) Recorded speaking assessment condition (semi-direct assessment) - when participants experience having anxiety about taking a university wide EFL examination in a few minutes, and 3) Public speaking assessment condition (direct assessment)– when each participant is about to give a speech in front of the classmates and three professors rating their speech performance.

Psychological responses to anxiety: The psychological responses to anxiety observed in this study referred to the participants' anxiety in the three assessment i.e. no oral assessment condition, recorded speaking assessment condition, and public speaking assessment conditions as well as their increased anxiety after recorded and public speaking assessments relative to no

oral assessment condition.

The anxiety was measured with the Chinese version of the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (C-STAI) scale with the Chinese version used with permission (Chung & Long, 1984), which was developed based on the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI) scale, a widely used self-report measurement for adults (Shek, 1993; Spielberger et al., 1983). Like STAI, the C-STAI consists of two subscales, state and trait anxiety subscales, also known as STAI-S and STAI-T subscales respectively. The STAI-S subscale assesses a person's feelings in a situation of a perceived discomfort, nervousness or fear after speaking. The STAI-T subscale measures a person's feelings of tension, worry or uneasiness, which one experiences across situations on a daily basis. Each subscale includes 20 items on a 4-point scale and has a total score ranging from 20 to 80, with higher scores indicating higher degrees of anxiety. Both STAI-T and STAI-S scales of C-STAI have high internal consistency reliability (Cronbach α= .90 / .77) and good validity accompanied by significant correlations with other measures of psychological well-being (Shek, 1988). In the present study, the internal consistency reliability of STAI-T in no assessment condition and STAI-S in both recorded and public speaking assessment conditions were high (Cronbach α = .82 / .90 / .93).

Anxiety in a no assessment condition was measured with STAI-T, while anxiety in recorded and public speaking assessment conditions were measured with STAI-S in respective conditions. Increased anxiety in recorded speaking assessment was calculated by subtracting anxiety in the no assessment from anxiety in a recorded speaking assessment. Similarly, increased anxiety in the public speaking assessment was calculated by subtracting anxiety in the no assessment from anxiety in public speaking assessment.

Physiological responses to anxiety: Physiological responses to anxiety included blood pressure and heart rate in the three assessment conditions as well as their increased blood pressure and heart rate after recorded and public speaking assessments relative to no oral assessment condition. This study measured blood pressure (systolic and diastolic blood pressures, SBP & DBP) and heart rate (HR) of each participant in three assessment conditions. Increased SBP, DBP, and HR in recorded assessment were calculated by subtracting those in no assessment condition from those in recorded assessment correspondingly. Likewise, increased SBP, DBP, and HR in public assessment were calculated by subtracting those in the no assessment condition from those in the public assessment correspondingly.

Grades: Recorded and public speaking grades referred to participants' performance in recorded

and public speaking assessments respectively. The recorded speaking grade was assessed through a university wide examination. The public speaking grade was the average score rated by three professors about participants' performance of public speaking. Both grades, on a 100-point scale, were transformed into standard T-scores for comparing scores of two different examinations.

Procedure

After explaining the purpose and procedure of this study, researchers recruited voluntary participants, who then signed the informed consent form reviewed by Asia University Medical Research Ethics Committee. Participants completed STAI subscales and their SBP, DBP, and HR were measured in three conditions in the following sequence: 1) no assessment condition - in the beginning of the semester in regular classrooms, 2) recorded speaking assessment condition - a few minutes before participants entering examination rooms in the midterm examination week, 3) public speaking assessment condition- right before a participant heading toward stage to give her/his speech in the final examination week. Each participant was allowed to choose a topic related to any chapter taught in the course and the length of speech was limited to 8-10 minutes per participant. Participants completed the STAI-T subscale in the no assessment condition and STAI-S subscale twice, once in recorded speaking assessment and the other once in the public speaking assessment condition.

3. Results

3.1. 1. Do gender differences have an impact on psychological and physiological reactions for FL speaking tests?

Table 1 presents the mean and standard deviations of anxiety, SBP, DBP, and HR in three assessment conditions by gender. Male students had a significantly higher SBP in the no and public speaking assessments than female students. Female students had significantly higher anxiety in the recorded speaking assessment than male students. Heart rate increased markedly, by 28 beats per minute, without a gender difference during direct assessment; heart rate increased significantly, by 5 beats per minute in females during semi-direct assessment, but not in males.

3.2. 2. Do semi-direct and direct assessment of FL speaking result in different levels of psychological anxiety and physiological responses?

Table 2 shows paired-t tests results of comparing anxiety, SBP, DBP, HR, and grades between two of the three assessment conditions. All factors, except SBP, in recorded speaking assessment were significantly higher than those in no assessment. All psychophysiological factors (anxiety, SBP, DBP, and HR) in public speaking assessment were significantly higher than those in either the no assessment or recorded speaking assessment. The identity plot Figure 1 indicated that the increased self-reported anxiety of individual data in public speaking assessments were much (p<.001) higher than those in the recorded speaking assessment.

3.3. 3. Do psychological anxiety and physiological responses influence learners' semi-direct and direct EFL speaking testing performance?

As shown in the bottom line of Table 2, there was no significant difference in grades between recorded and public speaking assessments. Figure 2 shows the correlation of increased anxiety and grade in the recorded assessment had no significant correlation ($r = -.10$, $p = .53$) as well as the increased anxiety and grade in the public assessment, which had neither obvious tendency nor significant correlation ($r = .02$, $p = .893$).

4. Discussion

The results indicated that psychological anxiety and physiological responses during direct assessment scored higher than those in the absence of assessment or with semi-direct assessment. Blood pressure and heart rate in semi-direct assessments were significantly higher than those in no assessment; they were also significantly higher in direct assessment than those in no assessment and semi-direct assessment. Heart rate increased markedly, by about 28 beats per minute, without a gender difference during direct assessment; heart rate increased significantly, 5 beats per minute in females during semi-direct assessment, but not in males. Anxiety in direct oral assessment was notably higher than in semi-direct assessment; however, no significant differences in standardized oral test scores were found between the two assessments and no significant correlation was found between increased anxiety and grades.

Our findings show that both modes of assessment, direct and semi-direct assessments, result in stronger psychological and physiological anxiety levels when compared with the absence of assessment, but anxiety in direct oral assessment was notably higher than in semi-direct assessment. The psychological and physiological anxieties in direct assessment, which is more real-situation based, are more obvious than in semi-direct assessment. This is inconsistent with Shohamy's research (1994) who argued that test takers' anxiety is higher in

semi-direct testing because of its one-way communication, but consistent with Krannich's statement (2004) that the fear of delivering a speech or a presentation ranks as the number one fear among all speaking anxiety factors (Krannich, 2004). The different results may be due to learners' experiences encountering the tests or due to facing their native language in previous studies instead of the foreign language as described in the current study. In the current study, face-to-face communication of a foreign language with an audience and evaluators in the classroom setting caused higher psychological anxiety and physiological responses such as heart rates and blood pressure.

Previous studies suggested that physiological responses like higher heart rates and higher blood pressure could be detected in foreign language anxiety (Andrade & Williams, 2009; Scovel, 1978; Zheng, 2008), and the heart rate would be higher in foreign language face-to-face public speaking (S. Campbell & Larson, 2013). This can support our result in that participants' heart rate increased markedly by 28 beats per minute and are with higher blood pressure without a gender difference during direct assessment.

Moreover, our study found a gender difference in semi-direct assessment in that heart rate increased by 5 beats per minute in females, but not in males. The results of a higher heart rate in females during semi-direct assessment is consistent with the significantly higher anxiety in females. This suggests a higher state of both physiological and psychological anxiety and would explain a generally higher anxiety tendency in females. This is partially consistent with Wu's study (2010) in an Asian context who claimed that female participants' anxiety level was higher when they had to speak in a foreign language classroom. However, in public speaking, there was no gender difference in these factors. Both blood pressure and heart rate are obviously higher in direct assessment.

Although significant differences in psychological anxiety and physiological responses could be found, there were no significant differences in standardized oral test scores between the two assessments and no significant correlation was found between increased anxiety and grades. As indicated by previous studies (Bernstein et al., 2010; Stansfield & Kenyon, 1992), participants' speaking performance in these two modes are highly comparable. In other words, by taking one test mode the performance of another test mode could be predicted.

Conclusion

This study contributes to the line of foreign language speaking anxiety and concludes that

public speaking as a test mode is more anxiety-provoking psychologically and physiologically. Although semi-direct assessment also causes anxieties, it cannot be used to replace direct assessment, or they are not interchangeable (O'Loughlin, 2001). In the age of technology, public speaking could be expanded to different modes like web-based presentation or conference (S. Campbell, 2015) which foreign language learners have to face in the real world. In this sense, semi-direct and direct test modes should be viewed as complementary based on the breadth and depth of language use (Galaczi, 2010) or on the needs of a learner. Pedagogical issues of how to reduce semi-direct or direct speaking anxiety by lowering psychological anxiety and physiological responses remain to be answered.

Acknowledgement:

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Table 1

Mean and standard deviations of anxiety, SBP, DBP, and HR in three assessment conditions by gender (N = 47)

	Total	Male (n = 10)	Female (n = 37)		
	Mean (SD)	*Mean (SD)*	*Mean (SD)*	*t*	*p-value*
No Assessment					
Anxiety	44.79 (7.23)	42.60 (4.17)	45.38 (7.80)	-1.51	0.142
SBP	116.70 (12.08)	127.10 (12.02)	113.89 (10.60)	3.40*	0.001
DBP	77.96 (7.14)	79.80 (7.50)	77.46 (7.06)	0.92	0.363
HR	77.19 (11.33)	77.50 (11.27)	77.11 (11.51)	0.10	0.924
Recorded Speaking					
Anxiety	47.89 (10.22)	42.00 (11.85)	49.49 (9.28)	-2.13*	0.038
SBP	115.94 (10.27)	121.50 (9.61)	114.43 (10.04)	1.99	0.052
DBP	75.11 (5.85)	75.60 (3.31)	74.97 (6.40)	0.42	0.676
HR	80.60 (13.14)	75.20 (14.66)	82.05 (12.52)	-1.48	0.145
Grade	49.81 (9.37)	48.04 (9.88)	50.29 (9.31)	-0.67	0.507
Public Speaking					
Anxiety	58.60 (11.31)	54.70 (13.92)	59.65 (10.46)	-1.24	0.223
SBP	144.66 (16.16)	158.00 (13.58)	141.05 (14.99)	3.23*	0.002
DBP	94.30 (10.62)	92.20 (9.37)	94.86 (10.99)	-0.70	0.488

HR	105.83 (21.23)	105.10 (26.90)	106.03 (19.87)	-0.12	0.904
Grade	49.62 (8.89)	45.35 (10.49)	50.77 (8.19)	-1.75	0.088

Note. SD: Standard deviation in parentheses. SBP: Systolic blood pressure. DBP: Diastolic blood pressure. HR: Heart rate.

Table 2

Paired-t tests of blood pressures, heart rate, and grade in no assessment vs. assessment (recorded vs. public speaking) conditions

	Assessment Conditions								
	No vs. Recorded			No vs. Public			Recorded vs. Public		
	MD (SD)	t	p	MD (SD)	t	p	MD (SD)	t	p
Anxiety	-3.11 (9.62)	-2.21*	.032	-13.81 (10.53)	-8.99*	< .001	-10.70 (11.22)	-6.54 *	< .001
SBP	0.77 (10.55)	0.50	.621	-27.96 (14.21)	-13.49*	< .001	-28.72 (14.96)	-13.16*	< .001
DBP	2.85 (6.50)	3.01*	.004	-16.34 (9.16)	-12.23*	< .001	-19.19 (10.12)	-13.00*	< .001
HR	-3.40 (9.51)	-2.45*	.018	-28.64 (18.01)	-10.90*	< .001	-25.23 (16.22)	-10.66*	< .001
Grade	N/A	---	---	N/A	---	---	0.20 (12.00)	0.11	.911

Note. N = 47. *MD*: mean difference. *SD*: Standard deviation in parentheses. SBP: Systolic blood pressure. DBP: Diastolic blood pressure. HR: Heart rate. *: Significant difference between no assessment vs. assessment or recorded vs. public speaking at the p < .05 level

Figure 1   Identity plots of increased anxiety from individual data comparing recorded
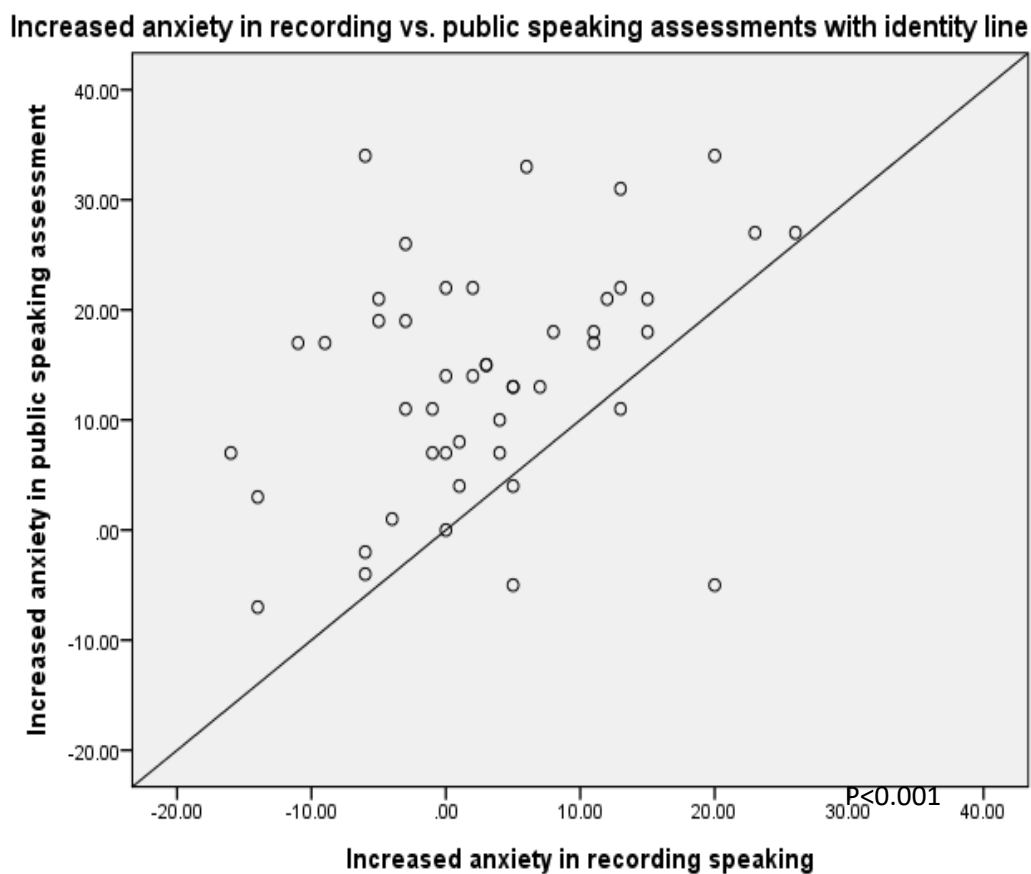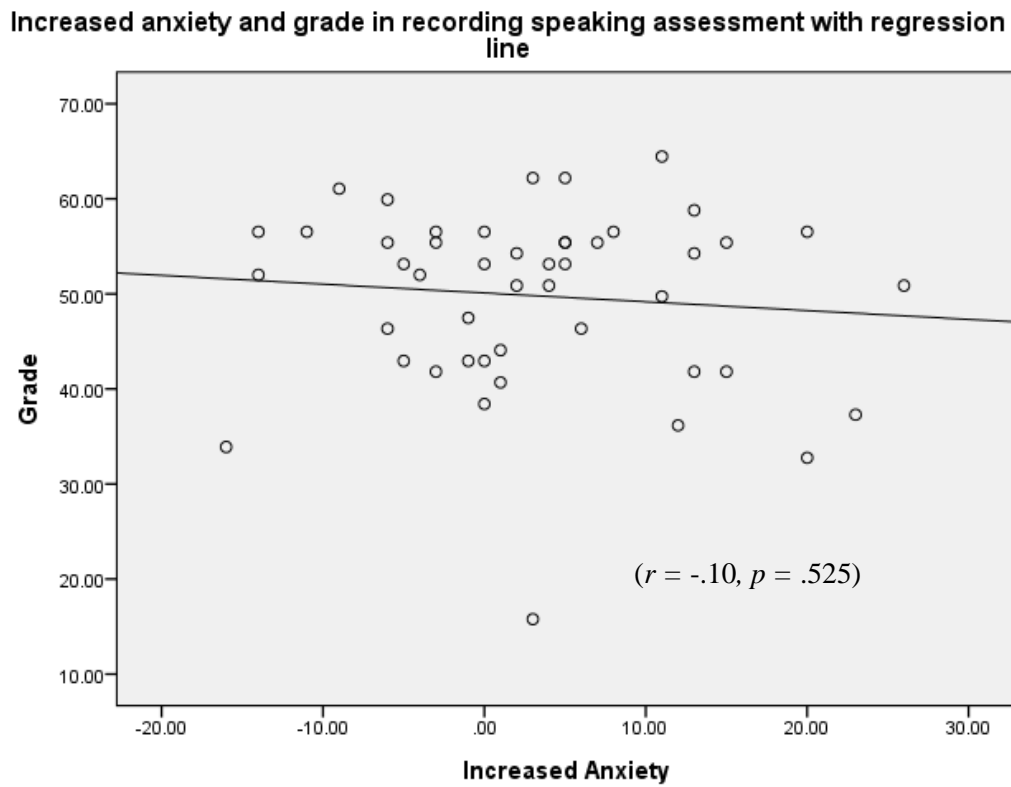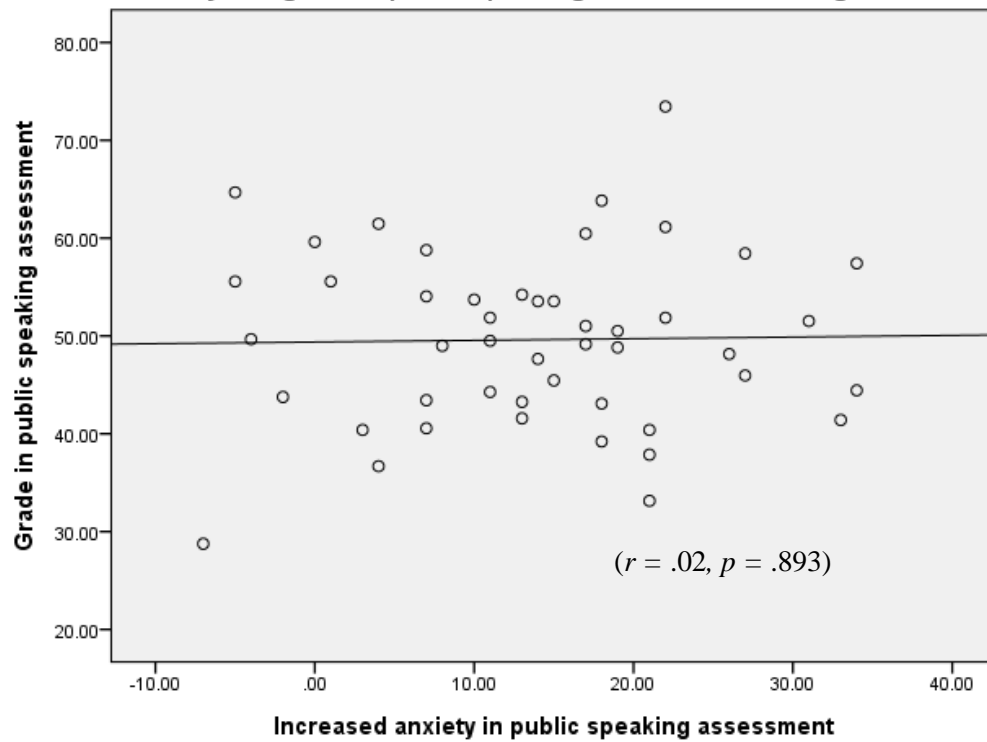vs. public speaking assessments

Figure 2   No Correlation: Increased anxiety in recorded vs. public speaking assessments
with identity line

Increased anxiety and grade in recording speaking assessment with regression
line

(r = -.10, p = .525)

Increased anxiety and grade in public speaking assessment with regression line

(r = .02, p = .893)

The Impact of Pre-listening Activities on Iranian EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension Performance

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Abstract

Pre-listening activities refer to the tasks to be done before the learners go to the while listening stage. The aims of these activities are to prepare the learners to achieve the most of what they will hear. By TOFEL (PBT) test, 180 learners – both male and female - were selected for this study. They were studying English at a private language institute. The learners were classified into two proficiency levels: intermediate and upper-intermediate learners. In each level, 90 subjects were randomly assigned to two experimental and one control groups each consisting of 30 learners. After performing the pre-test, vocabulary preparation and content related

support were given to experimental groups. The learners in control groups received filler activities. At end of the experiment, the post tests were performed to all learners to measure the effect of the treatment. The finding revealed the great effect of pre-listening activities on listening comprehension performance of Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension performance.

Keywords: Bottom-up, Content related support, Listening comprehension, Pre-listening activity, Top-down, Vocabulary preparation.

1. Introduction

Listening is the key initial step in communication. Effective communication therefore necessitates that learners develop the listening skill. Mendelsohn (1994) believes that since listening form up to 50% of communication time, the crucial role of listening in learning and teaching language cannot be overlooked. Yet, listening is the least understood, the least researched and historically the least valued skill (Wilson, 2008). Many students experience difficulties in listening to the foreign language. Underwood (1989) believes that it would not be fair to draw students straight into the listening without introducing the topic or the type of activity they are going to work on. Therefore, "preparatory work" (Underwood, 1989, p.31) or pre-listening activity which enables the learners to deal with the following listening text strategically, is very important. In this stage, the learners are prepared to achieve the most from the passage. Pre-listening activities can be generally classified into two types: bottom-up and top-down. While there are many bottom-up and top-down activities, the present study sheds light on the effects of vocabulary preparation as bottom-up pre-listening and content related support as top-down pre-listening activities on listening comprehension performance of Iranian intermediate and upper – intermediate EFL learners. This study tried to determine the extent to which vocabulary preparation and content related support can help Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension performance.

Schema theory constituted the theoretical base of this research. The term schema was coined by psychologist Bartlett (1932). A schema is the organized knowledge that one has about people, places, things, events and even for how text's work. Schema can be divided into linguistic schema and content schema. According to Carrell and Eisterhold (1983) linguistic

schema is the listener's existing linguistic knowledge. In other words, linguistic schema contains language information in the materials, which played a basic part in a comprehensive understanding of the context. Content schema also known as topic schema refers to people's background information on the topic and provides a basis for comprehension (Carrell, 1983). Activating rerated schemata, enables the people to process and comprehend new experiences more efficiently (Richards & Schmidt, 2010). These two kinds of schema in listening comprehension can be characterized by bottom-up and top-down processing. Bottom-up processing is activated by the new incoming data. This process is associated with the listeners' linguistic knowledge. Top-down processing, however, makes use of previous knowledge to anticipate and comprehend the incoming information. Therefore, it is crucial for listeners to learn how to implement these simultaneous and complementary processes effectively for different listening aims. Pre-listening activities, conducted before actual listening, activate the appropriate schemata and hence, facilitate the learners listening comprehension.

1.1 Statement of the Problem

Classroom is the only place that EFL learners are exposed to their foreign language. In case of listening comprehension, the minimal class time is often given to listening practice. This condition affects EFL learners and may result in inefficient listening comprehension. A potential remedy to the above drawback can be the improving of classroom instruction by providing pre-listening activities that prepare learners to get the most from the while-listening stage. Taking into consideration the shortcomings of EFL classes, this study investigated the effectiveness of pre-listening activities on Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension performance.

1.2 Research Questions

The current research was designed to measure the extent to which vocabulary preparation and content related support as two types of pre-listening activities can affect and improve the listening comprehension performance of Iranian EFL learners' listening comprehension performance. The following questions were designed to ach

In order to achieve the goals of the study, this research addressed the following questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between the effect of vocabulary preparation and content-related support on the listening comprehension performance of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

2. Is there any significant difference between the effect of vocabulary preparation and content-related support on the listening comprehension performance of Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners?

2. Literature Review

The role of pre-listening activity in listening instruction has long been attracted and discussed by the researchers. Chastain (1988) has argued that pre-listening activities can be considered as the most crucial aspect in listening process because other activities depend on the extent to which the teacher has been successful in activating students' background and directing them to reach the goals of activity. Richard and Burns (2012) believe that these activities aim to activate relevant schema, providing key words and finally motivate learners. Ur (1996) offers giving learners relevant prior information before actual listening takes place. Brown (2006) also recommends teachers apply pre-listening activities in their listening class. White (1995) claims that the goal of pre-listening stage is to providing any information needed to help learners to comprehend the text, setting and the role relationship among participants.

There are two types of pre-listening activities: bottom-up and top-down. Bottom-up pre-listening activities refer to pre-teaching vocabularies and grammars that are important to listening. On the other hand, top-down pre-listening activities refer to activating the relevant prior knowledge. A number of studies examined and compared the efficiency of various forms of pre-listening activities on listening comprehension performance of the learners.

Long (1990) studied the efficiency of background knowledge on the performance of language learners. The results of his study revealed that students generally perform better on the listening passages with more background knowledge. However, according to his suggestion, schemata, if not applied appropriately, can have inefficient function. Chiang and Dunkle (1992) examined the effect of speech modification, prior knowledge, and listening proficiency on EFL learners' listening comprehension. The results showed that topic familiarity was the most effective activity. Schmidt-Rinehart (1994) conducted a research to examine whether

there was an interaction between topic familiarity and listening comprehension. The result showed that all of the students in different levels performed better in listening task with familiar topic. The result of Berne's (1995) investigation on the effects of bottom-up and top-down pre-listening activities on listening comprehension performance of learners revealed that vocabulary pre-teaching was less effective than other forms of listening support. The importance of bottom-up activities was confirmed by Tsui and Fullilove's (1998) study. They suggested that the lack of bottom-up skills are more important than top-down for comprehension. In Herron et al. (1998) study, no significant difference was found between students with receiving two types of advance organizers in two experimental groups. The research of Chung and Huang (1998) about the effect of vocabulary instruction, advanced organizer and "combined condition" on listening comprehension performance of the learners, indicated that the combined group was more effective than vocabulary instruction and advance organizer group. Keshvarz and Babai (2001) could prove the importance of linguistic knowledge and bottom-up skills. They showed that providing relevant background knowledge didn't have significant effect on listening comprehension performance of both high and low level language learners. Therefore, they questioned the overestimation of the importance of the background knowledge. Sadeghi and Zare (2002), studied the impact of background knowledge on listening. EFL learners from two TOEFL preparation classes participated in this research. The results showed the significant effect of prior knowledge on listening comprehension.

According to Chang and Read's (2006) investigation, providing general information about the topic of the listening was more efficient than the other kinds of pre-listening. They found that higher level language learners benefited less than lower level language learners from topic related information. They conducted another study in 2007 to examine the impact of different kinds of pre-listening on lower level language learners. They came to conclusion that different types of pre-listening activities may increase the level of comprehension but to a certain degree. The effect of schema activation by providing relevant background knowledge was investigated by Jia (2010). The finding confirmed the positive role of schema activation on comprehension of the learners. Hayati and Dastjerdi (2012) investigated the effect of cultural familiarity on listening comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. The results of their research

indicated that greater familiarity with culturally-oriented listening material would improve Iranian EFL listening comprehension. Farrokhi and Modarres (2012) attempted to examine the importance of glossary of unknown vocabulary items and content related support on Iranian low and high proficient EFL language learners' listening comprehension performance. The statistical analysis of the data revealed that glossary of unknown vocabulary items was beneficial for low proficient learners and on the other hand content related support significant impact on high proficient learners. They suggested that in designing the pre-listening activities the type of activity need to be in accordance with the level of the learners. Pan (2012) studied the impact of multi-faceted lexical instruction on the TOEIC aural performance of Taiwanese EFL learners. The findings of this research clearly showed that this pre-activity improved the aural performance of Taiwanese learners. Rameshianfar et al. (2015), studied the effect of vocabulary instruction on intermediate EFL learners' listening comprehension. The finding showed that vocabulary instruction could not affect the listening comprehension performance of learners significantly.

As literature reveals, there are controversial results about the effectiveness of various kinds of pre-listening activities. In other words, it remains unclear whether different types of pre-listening are efficient on improving listening comprehension of the learners or not. This research was conducted to provide more precise information regarding the efficiency of vocabulary preparation and content related support on listening comprehension achievement of Iranian EFL learners.

3. Methodology

3.1 Subjects

The subjects of this study were 180 EFL learners – male and female – studying English at a private language institute. They were chosen out of 305 EFL learners by taking the TOFEL (PBT) test. Based on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), 90 learners scored between 437-510 were chosen as intermediate learners (B2), and 90 learners who scored between 513-547 were chosen as upper-intermediate ones (B2). Then, for each proficiency level, the learners were randomly assigned to two experimental and one control groups. Each group consisted of 30 learners. They were 92 male and 88 female. Their age

varied from 15 to 21 years old for intermediate learners and from 18 to 24 years old for upper-intermediate learners. Because of Their age variance they had different educational background.

3.2 Materials

Developing and Expanding Tactics for listening (Richards, 2010) were chosen for this study. They were used based on the proficiency level of the learners. 12 units of each book were taught as listening materials. These series are widely used and appreciated by Iranian universities' teachers. But, according to the authorities of the private language institute chosen for this study, these books were not taught in their different English language courses. Therefore, the participants had little chance to work on these books before.

3.3 Instruments

TOFEL (PBT) test was used in order to select appropriate learners for each level. In order to interpret the obtained scores, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) was used. Before studying the experiment, the learners in both levels received pre-test. It was used to measure the potential pre-existing differences among learners' listening comprehension. After taking the pre-test, the learners in experimental groups received their own specific treatment. At the end of the experiment, post test was given to all learners. It was conducted to measure the amount of progress.

3.4 Treatment

Among the various available forms of pre-listening, this study focused on vocabulary preparation and content related support. A pilot study was conducted to decide about the unfamiliar words to be presented in the vocabulary preparation stage. The transcription of listening audios was given to 15 randomly learners of each proficiency level. The learners were asked to read the passage quickly and underline the unknown words. Based on the underlined words, a word list was provided for each unit. Based on the provided word lists the researcher selected those words that deserved vocabulary instruction. Seven to ten words of each unit were chosen for instruction at pre-listening stage. Along with these words, some sentences in the form of single-slot deletion were designed and the learners were asked to

complete these sentences with the same target words. This activity helped learners to use the new words in context and enhance the learners' world knowledge. The researcher assigned 15 minutes for vocabulary preparation stage.

In order to provide the content related support, five to eight declarative sentences based on the topics were designed. The number of the sentences was dependent on the amount of factual information presented in each unit. They were designed to explain the major events rather than the details. The sentences were intended to provide the general information about the topic and activate the learners' relevant schema. In order to help learners to process sentences more deeply, they were constructed in true/false format (Herron et al., 1998). The learners were asked to read the sentences and judge their truth. During the 15 minutes, assigned by the researcher for this stage, the learners were asked to discuss the true/false content related sentences. When students were reluctant about discussion, the teacher by asking some question encouraged them to begin the discussion. In order to provide the similar listening sessions during the experiment, the ratio of true and false sentences were similar for all units.

3.5 Data Collection Procedures

By giving the TOFEL (PBT), the appropriate learners were chosen for intermediate and upper-intermediate levels. Then, they were randomly assigned to two experimental and one control groups of 30 in each level of proficiency. After that, pre-tests were used to measure the pre-existing listening knowledge of the intermediate and upper-intermediate learners.

The experiment was started by explaining the procedure for the participants. One experimental group in each level of proficiency received vocabulary preparation. Cooper's (1997) steps (in Texas Center for Reading and Language Arts, 2002) was applied for vocabulary instruction. According to these steps, the teacher taught Word's characteristics (prefix, suffix, and root), Synonym, Antonym, Category it belongs to (what class or group the word belongs to), meaning, and its use in context. After spending approximately 15 minutes on this type of pre-listening activity, the researcher started teaching listening.

The other experimental group in each level of proficiency received content related support as pre-listening activity. The learners were asked to read some statements about the major events

occurred in the unit and discuss them. The aim of these statements in true/false format was to activate the learners' relevant background knowledge. It approximately took about 15 minutes.

After performing the pre-listening activities in experimental groups, while listening stage began and the learners listened to the main listening text and answered the questions. 'Tactics for listening' (Richards, 2010) series (developing, and expanding) were used for this study. 12 units of each book were taught. In control group, the learners did not receive any pre-listening activity. They were asked to listen to the text and answer the questions. This method of teaching listening has been widely used by Iranian teachers. The research conducted over the course of 6 weeks. At the end of the experiment, post tests were given to the learners. The post tests were used to measure the efficiency of two types of pre-listening activities. The post test in each level was the same with the pre-test one. The tests were designed by Jack C. Richards for his 'Tactics for listening' series. In each book, for each four units, there was one specific test completely reflecting the contents of those units. Therefore, tests had high content and construct validity. The dichotomous scoring method was used for both pre and post-tests. In other words, the correct response received one and the incorrect one received none. The maximum score for each test was 40 for forty items.

3.6 Data Analysis Procedures

SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) was used to perform all statistical analyses. To examine the research question, separate one-way ANOVA was conducted to investigate the possible differences of learners' listening comprehension performance within and among groups.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Descriptive data of the learners

The descriptive data of intermediate and upper-intermediate learners are presented in Table 1 and 2.

Table (1) *Descriptive Statistics for Intermediate Learners*

Variable	Group	N	Pre-test				Post-test			
			Mean	Std Deviation	Min	Max	Mean	Std Deviation	Min	Max
LC	VP	30	25.30	3.505	18	34	28.90	4.229	21	37
	CRS	30	25.60	4.149	17	32	31.80	4.773	21	38
	CG	30	25.33	3.367	19	31	27.43	3.441	21	34

Table (2) *Descriptive Statistics for Upper-intermediate Learners*

Variable	Group	N	Pre-test				Post-test			
			Mean	Std Deviation	Min	Max	Mean	Std Deviation	Min	Max
	VC	30	29.97	3.011	24	36	31.97	2.684	28	37
LC	CRS	30	29.53	2.460	25	34	33.97	2.282	28	37
	CG	30	29.50	2.623	25	35	31.80	2.497	28	36

4.2 Inferential Analysis of the Data

4.2.1 Research Question1

After meeting the pre-requisite assumptions for analysis of variance, one - way ANOVA was carried out on the dependent variable: listening comprehension scores. The results of ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference among the pre-test scores of intermediate learners.

Table (3) *One-way ANOVA Results for Pre-test Scores of Intermediate Learners*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.622	2	.811	.060	.942
Within Groups	1184.167	87	13.611		
Total	1185.789	89			

In order to investigate the possible effects of treatments, an analysis of variance was conducted on post test scores of intermediate learners.

Table (4) *One-way ANOVA Results for the Post-test Scores of Intermediate Learners*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	269.289	2	148.144	8.463	.000
Within Groups	1522.867	87	17.504		
Total	1819.156	89			

As can be seen in Table 4, the f-value is 8.463 and its corresponding Sig value is .000. Given that the Sig value is smaller than .05, the existence of significant differences among post-test

scores of three mentioned groups is proved. However, the above Table does not represent which group is different from the other group. The post-hoc Tukey tests can be used for pair comparison of groups.

Table (5) *Post-hoc Tukey Tests for Post-test Scores of Intermediate Learners*

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Vocabulary Preparation	Content Related Support	-2.900*	1.080	.023
	Control Group	1.467	1.080	.368
Content Related Support	Vocabulary Preparation	2.900*	1.080	.023
	Control Group	4.367*	1.080	.000
Control Group	Vocabulary Preparation	-1.467	1.080	.368
	Content Related Support	-4.367*	1.080	.000

As Table 5 represents, the pair comparison of groups using the Tukey test, revealed that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of two experimental groups. In fact, the mean score of the content related support group was significantly higher than the mean score of the vocabulary preparation group. The mean value of the content related support group had also meaningful difference with that of control group. However, there was a difference between the mean score of the vocabulary preparation group and that of the control group, this difference was not meaningful.

4.2.2 Research Question 2

The results of the one-way ANOVA for the pre-test are presented in Table 6.

Table (6) *One-way ANOVA Results for the Pre-test Scores of Upper-intermediate Learners*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	4.067	2	2.033	.277	.758
Within Groups	637.933	87	7.333		
Total	642.000	89			

As Table 6 shows there was no significant difference among the three groups (the Sig value of 0.758 was greater than 0.05). In the following, the ANOVA result of the post-test scores are demonstrated.

Table (7) *ANOVA Results for the Post-test Scores of Upper-intermediate Learners*

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	87.222	2	43.611	7.017	.001
Within Groups	540.733	87	6.215		
Total	627.956	89			

As can be seen in the above Table, the F-value of 7.017 and its corresponding significance value (Sig) of .001, (P<.05) proved the existence of significant difference among groups. Since Table 7 does not represent which group is different from the other group, the post-hoc Tukey tests were conducted to determine the place of difference.

Table (8) *Post-hoc Tukey Tests for Post-test Scores of Upper-intermediate Learners*

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
Vocabulary Preparation	Content Related Support	-2.000*	.644	.007

	Control Group	.167	.644	.964
Content related Support	Vocabulary Preparation	2.000*	.644	.007
	Control Group	2.167*	.644	.003
Control Group	Vocabulary Preparation	-.167	.644	.964
	Content Related Support	-2.167*	.644	.003

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

The results of post-hoc Tukey test indicated that there was a significant difference between the mean scores of two experimental groups. The learners in the content related support group significantly outperformed the learners in the vocabulary preparation group. In addition, there was a significant difference between the content related support group and the control group. However, there was no meaningful difference between the control group and the vocabulary preparation group.

5. Discussion

Based on the analyses of the collected data, pre-listening activities improved the listening comprehension performance of Iranian EFL learners significantly. Exposing the intermediate learners to vocabulary preparation and content related support, the effectiveness of the role of the content related support in enhancing the learners' listening comprehension performance was approved. The post-test outcomes conceived that there existed a considerable increase in the learners' performance in their listening comprehension in content related support group. But, at the same time, there was no significant difference between the learners' performance in vocabulary preparation pre-listening group and the learners' performance in control group. It proved that only the content related support pre-listening activity was efficient on listening comprehension performance of intermediate learners.

The researcher also tried to investigate the possible effect of pre-listening activities on the Iranian upper-intermediate EFL learners. The findings revealed that the content related support

was more effective than vocabulary preparation on the improvement of the learners' listening comprehension.

The results of the current research showed that only the content related support pre-listening was effective in improving the listening comprehension performance of Iranian EFL learners. These findings can be explained by the schema theory which directed this research. Providing the relevant schema concerning the actual listening content was significantly influential. In fact, the content related support provided the listeners with background knowledge about the topic of the listening content. This pre-listening was presented in the form of true/false sentences. Such true/false mode involves learners in hypothesis testing (Anderson, 1985) and pushes them to deeper processing (Herron et al., 1998). The learners try to test their self-formulated hypotheses and reformulate them. Therefore, content related support pre-listening activated the relevant knowledge of the learners and helped them to connect the new materials to their existing knowledge. It provided the basis for comprehension (Mendelsohn, 1995). The significance of schema activation for EFL learners becomes more apparent when we know this fact that usually there are mismatches between the speaker's schema and listener's schema in foreign language situation that leads to misunderstanding.

Many other studies were also conducted to examine the efficiency of background knowledge as a pre-listening activity. While the results of some studies were in line with the present research and highlighted the positive role of this pre-listening, some others delimited the role of the content related support. Balaban (2016), Bao (2016), Hui (2010), and Hoang Mai (2014), claimed that content related support, as a pre-listening activity, encouraged the learners to select the information more properly. The results of Farrokhi and Modarres's (2012) study also indicated that content related support could enhance the high proficient learners' listening comprehension. Emami and Lashkarian's (2014) findings also confirmed efficient impact of the activation of the relevant prior knowledge before actual listening practice. These findings are in sharp contrast with Jensen and Hansen's (1995) results. In their study, the activation of background knowledge did not have significant effect on listening comprehension performance of the proficient learners. Some other studies also delimited the efficiency of prior knowledge activation (Chang & Read, 2007; Herron et al., 1998).

Although, the findings of this research showed that the vocabulary preparation groups did not have significant difference with the control groups at both intermediate and upper-intermediate levels, its value cannot overlooked. Because, the analyses of the data revealed that at both levels of proficiency, the learners in vocabulary preparation groups outperformed those in control groups received no pre-listening support. Therefore, it was proved that the vocabulary preparation pre-listening activity could improve the listening comprehension performance of the learners but not significantly. The results of the studies on the efficiency of vocabulary preparation as a pre-listening activity do not seem to be congruent.

The positive correlation of word knowledge and listening comprehension performance of the learners were approved in some studies (Bonk, 2000; Chunge & Huang,1998; Sun, 2002). Jafari and Hashim's (2010) research findings also confirmed the positive effect of pre-instruction of key vocabularies based on the learners levels. Farrokhi and Modarres's (2012) research had the same result. They found that focusing on unknown vocabularies as pre-listening task, enhanced the listening comprehension performance of the elementary learners. Some other studies, on the other hand, disapproved the efficiency of vocabulary preparation (Berne, 1995; Ehsanjou & Khodareza, 2014; Hui, 2010).

Generally, as literature revealed, most studies confirmed the significant role of pre-listening activities on listening comprehension performance of the learners. Therefore, pre-listening activities like the content-related support which activate the relevant schema should be an integral part of teaching listening for EFL learners.

6. Conclusion

The fundamental aim of pre-listening is to prepare learners to behave better in while listening. The type of pre-listening is not fixed and it usually depends on the teachers' aim and the learners' language level.

This research investigated the effects of vocabulary preparation and content related support as two kinds of pre-listening activities on the improvement of listening comprehension performance of Iranian EFL learners. According to the findings of this research, exposing EFL learners to the pre-listening activities leads to better listening comprehension performance.

The results proved that both vocabulary preparation and content related support were effective in improving the listening comprehension performance of Iranian intermediate and upper-intermediate EFL learners. However, the impact of vocabulary preparation on intermediate and upper intermediate learners was not significant; it could improve the learners' listening comprehension performance in comparison with the learners in control group.

Although, there is no general consensus about the positive role of one specific form of pre-listening activity, applying the pre-listening activities for teaching listening can optimize the efficiency of teaching. As a result, the essentiality of pre-listening stage in time prior to the actual listening is undoubted and it seems that it is worthwhile to spend much time and energy on this stage.

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An Investigation into University EFL Learners' Perceptions of Native Versus Non-native English Teachers

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Abstract

The aim of this study is to investigate University EFL male and female learners' differences in The aim of this study is to investigate EFL male and female learners' differences in terms of their perceptions of native and non-native English teachers' teaching effectiveness with regard to four aspects; the classroom environment, culture, teaching strategies and language learning skills (Reading, Speaking, Listening and Writing). The participants were 115 EFL learners at Majmaah University (56 female & 59 male).The researcher used both questionnaire and interview tools to gather the data. The findings of this study showed that the participants have generally positive perceptions in terms of NESTs over NNESTs, except with regard to the issues of identifying L2 learners' learning difficulties, and understanding learners' inquires. In addition, the participants reported that NNESTs are better when it comes to understanding their culture than NESTs. Regarding language learning skills, both male and female reported that NESTs are better regarding teaching these skills than are NNESTs, except in teaching writing skills.

Key words: Nativeness of English teachers, EFL learners, Gender, Perceptions

Introduction

The need for English teachers has increased considerably in recent years, as English has become an indispensable part of people's lives (Gazan & Yildirim 2016). Javid (2016) mentioned that English has proliferated internationally and is increasingly recognised for several reasons such as the advent of modern technology and faster means of communication. As a result, there has been an argument in the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language, about the teaching effectiveness of native English teachers (NESTs) compared with non-native English teachers (NNESTs) (Hadla 2013). Alseweed & Daif-Allah (2012: 36) confirm that"…native-speakerism has been an issue of debate from the moment English began to be taught internationally". In the same vein, Alseweed (2012) stated that as English is taught worldwide, the NNESTs' place has been an issue of discussion. Karakas et al. (2016) asserted that in non-English-dominant contexts, the teaching of English issue has been brought to the fore in discussions and empirical studies, and considerable attention has been paid in the literature to the topic of NESTs and NNESTs to determine which group makes better English teachers. Al-Nawrasy (2013) mentioned that debates to determine the ideal language teacher have been on-going for more than 20 years.

Wang (2012, 46) reported that "In Asia, the dominance of English as a foreign or second language has greatly contributed to the prevalence of Standard English and Native English Speaking Teachers (NESTs). Japan, Korea, Hong Kong, and Taiwan have been officially recruiting NESTs to introduce "authentic" Standard English to their citizens".

It would be very useful to define "English Teacher". According to Urban Dictionary, English teacher is a person who puts more thoughts into a text than actual author did. Merriam-Webster Dictionary defines an English teacher as a person or thing that teaches something; *especially* : a person whose job is to teach students about certain subjects.

Therefore, this paper aims to discuss some of the differences between NESTs and NNESTs in terms of the EFL learners' preferences and perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs with regard to a) the classroom environment, b) culture, c) teaching strategies and d) language learning skills (Reading, Speaking, Listening and Writing) at university level.

Literature Review

Definitions of the terms Native and Non-native

In the sociolinguistic study of English and its pedagogical dimensions, native and non-native is a controversial issue (Hadla 2013). Similarly, Karakas et al. (2016) reported that several contradictory definitions are included in the literature with regard to notions of native and non-native speakers. They mentioned that though a variety of definitions for the terms native and non-native has been provided by researchers, the exact definition remains a debatable issue. Crystal (2003) commented on the reason why the terms native and non-native are not easily defined by saying that it is partially because the language has various verities.

Bloomfield (1933) stated that a native speaker of a language is one whose first language to speak. Stevens (1982) regarded a person who has acquired language during infancy and childhood as being a native speaker of that language. Cook (1999) does not regard a language learned beyond a specific age as being a native language. Madgyes (1994:10) defines a native speaker as "…someone who:

1) was born in an English-speaking country; and /or

2) acquired English during childhood in an English-speaking family or environment;

3) speaks English as his/her first language;

4) has a native-like command of English;

5) has the capacity to produce fluent spontaneous discourse in English;

6) uses the English language creatively;

7) has reliable intuitions to distinguish right and wrong forms of English."

However, Paikeday (1985) suggested that the term 'native' could be replaced by the term proficient or competent, while Madgyes (1992) did not agree with this suggestion. Hadla (2013: 59-60) summarized previous researchers' definitions and mentioned that to be qualified as a native speaker, a person should have one of the following:

  1- Used a language from birth, habitually (Bloomfield 1933).

2- Acquired the language in his/her infancy and continues to maintain using the language (Davies 1991; Philipson 1992).

3- Speaks English as his/her first language (Madgyes 1994).

4- Has a native-like command of English (Madgyes 1994).

5- Has an intuitive knowledge of his/her language (Davies 1991; Philipson 1992).

6- Has the ability to produce spontaneous and fluent discourse (Madges 1994).

7- Identifies himself/herself with a particular language community, or is identified by that community as one of their own (Johnson & Johnson 1998)".

Madgyes (2001) commented on the previous definitions by saying that these definitions do not take into account variables such as bilingualism, multilingualism, or moving to another non-native English speaking country in early childhood or vice versa. However, Hummel (2013) suggested that a non-native English speaker is a person who has not acquired English as his/her first language, but instead has developed his/her language skills later, usually in institutional settings.

The NESTs versus NNESTs status in the field of EFL teaching

It has been stated that nearly a billion people speak English throughout the world. This means that English is spoken by non-native English people more than by native English people. Consequently, the number of NESTs is very limited, and the majority of English teacher are NNESTs (Tapie 2010). Mahboob et al. (2004) stated that even though the majority of English teachers are non-native in many places, the preference is given to NESTs. Similarly, Philipson (1992) agreed with Mahboob et al. (2004).

Medgyes (2011: 431) mentions that the unfair treatment of non-native and native speakers of English originates from the idea that "…the imagined ownership of English belongs to those with better language proficiency and stronger cultural affiliation – the native speaker". Mahboob (2010) said that the ownership of English relates closely to the monolingual bias by viewing non-native speakers as life-long English learners instead of regarding them as proficient users of English. Also, he stated that in the field of TEFL the monolingual bias is deeply ingrained. Therefore, the monolingual bias was seen as the determining factor in determining how competent a language user an individual can be (Kumpumäki 2017). Wang

(2012:50) stated that there are changes in the English language landscape as result from the existence of varieties of English. "Therefore, the notion of native speaker has obstacle in the modern world where people are often native speakers of more than one language."

However, NESTs are commonly perceived as being the ideal language teachers (Moussu,2010; Alenazi, 2014) and this idea has led schools, universities and other educational institutions to hire NESTs regardless of their qualifications and teaching experience (Alseweed 2012). In Saudi Arabia, the context of the current study, and Gulf countries are still of the opinion that English should be taught by NESTs, and this encourages those countries to recruit NESTs more than NNESTs (Alseweed 2012). This idea is confirmed by the findings of Alenazi (2014) who found that many programme administrators expressed a preference for recruiting NESTs even if they were less qualified than NNESTs. Alseweed & Daif-Allah (2012) concluded in their study that though their participants showed a significant preference for NESTs over NNESTs at university level, it is important to focus discussion on the concept of professionalism, and that having both NESTs and NNESTs in a particular learning environment would create a productive and healthy environment.

Studies conducted on NESTs and NNESTs

There were several studies conducted on the teaching effectiveness of NESTs and NESTs all over the world such as Asia, Arab Countries, America, United Kingdom and others). This indicates that this issue is very important in the field of teaching English globally (Moussu, 2006).

Mahboob (2003) investigated 32 English Intensive Course program students' perceptions towards about their NESTs and NNESTs. The researcher used a questionnaire to collect data. The analysis of the findings showed that students reported positive and negative comments on their NESTs and NNETs. The students reported that NESTs have large vocabulary, more aware of cultural issues and better in the oral skills. Regarding negative comments, they reported that NESTs have poor knowledge of grammar and lack experience as ESL students. The participants values NNESTs' experience as ESL learners and ability to answer their questions as well as their knowledge of grammar.

Karakas et al. (2016) investigated the perceptions of 120 Turkish EFL learners who were studying English at a private university in Turkey. The participants' perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs were assessed by using a questionnaire as a data collection tool. In addition, an interview tool was used to obtain in-depth insights into the learners' perceptions. The findings of this study showed that the participants have positive perceptions towards NESTs, especially in terms of personality and linguistic and professional dimensions, but when it comes to the pedagogical dimension the NNESTs were perceived more positively. Alseweed (2012) explored 169 male university learners to obtain in-depth insights in terms of their perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs. Both questionnaire and interview tools were used to collect data. The findings showed that his participants perceived NESTs positively, especially in terms of teaching strategies, while NNESTs were positively perceived with regard to responding to learners' need and providing a serious learning environment. Gazan & Yildirim (2016) researched how NESTs and NNESTs were perceived by 70 undergraduate English-major learners. A questionnaire and interviews were used to gather the data from the participants. The findings of this study showed that a large number of the participants preferred NESTs.

Hadla (2013) investigated the perceptions of 180 students with regard to NESTs and NNESTs and found that her participants showed that NESTs are perceived as being better teachers when it came to listening and speaking skills, while NNESTs are perceived as being better teachers for knowing L2 students; culture and identifying students' learning difficulties. Also, she found that her participants reported that NESTs use more varied materials than did NNESTs. However, Alghofaili & Elyas (2017) found that the nativeness of the teacher has no significant effect on Saudi EFL students' learning process.

To sum up this section, it is very clear from the studies presented above that there is a preference for NESTs over NNESTs. Also, it is noted that gender was not identified as an independent variable in previous studies. Therefore, this current study will investigate this issue in terms of both male and female EFL learners at university level.

Importance of this study

This study is important in the field of English language teaching and learning in that it discusses a very important issue related to NESTs and NNESTs. Previous studies, as noted by

the researcher, did not pay attention to gender differences when investigating EFL learners' perceptions of NNESTs and NESTs. Gender is considered to be one of the main factors to have a proven impact on second language learning (Andreou et al. 2005). Therefore, it is expected that the findings of this study will contribute to the body of research in this area.

Research Questions:

1- In terms of gender, what are the undergraduate EFL learners' perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs, particularly in the classrooms environment and cultural aspects? Is the difference statistically significant?

2- What are male and female undergraduate EFL learners' preferences regarding NESTs and NNESTs' teaching strategies? Is the difference statistically significant?

3- What are male and female undergraduate EFL learners' preferences regarding NESTs and NNESTs) in terms of teaching listening, speaking, reading and writing skills? Is the difference statistically significant?

Hypotheses of this study

1- Male and female learners have different perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs.

2- There is a statistically significant difference between male and female EFL learners' preferences with regard to NESTs and NNESTs.

Methods

Participants

The participants of the current study consisted of 115 EFL students (59 male and 56 female), at Majmaah University. Their age is between 18-20 years. All students had studied English for at least six years in public schools. Only students who reported that they have been taught by NESTs were selected for this study. The participants were selected by distributing questionnaires to them randomly. According to Brown (2001: 72), "…each individual in the population must have an equal chance of being selected".

Data Collect Tools

This study made use of both quantitative and qualitative tools to gather the required data. The closed-ended questionnaire, as the quantitative tool, consists of two parts. The first part is about the participants' demographic information (gender & age). One item was added to the first part of the questionnaire to ensure that all participants had been taught by NESTs. The researcher excluded all participants who reported that they had not been taught by NESTs.

The second part consists of 15 items divided into four categories about the participants' perceptions and preferences with regard to NNESTs and NESTs. The first category consists of 5 items about the classroom environment and the second category consists of three items in terms of the cultural aspect. The third category consists of three items to assess learners' perceptions of NNESTs' and NESTs' teaching strategies. The last category consists of four items to assess the students' preferences regarding NESTs and NNESTs in terms of teaching language-learning skills (reading, listening, speaking and writing). The researcher made use of Alseweed's (2012) questionnaire and made slight modifications to it.

A two-point-Likert Scale was used (Native and Non-native) to enable students to express their perceptions and preferences for each item as shown in Table 1:

Table 1: Questionnaire Items

Categories	Items		Native	Non-native
Classroom environment aspect	1	I feel comfortable in the class where the … English teacher is.		
	2	The … English teacher is kind as he/she makes learning environment more comfortable.		
	3	The … English teacher is more kind and responsible.		
	4	The … English teacher knows difficulties that students face when learning English.		

	5	The … English teacher faces difficulties in understanding students' inquiries.		
Cultural aspect	6	I want to learn more about the culture of native English people from the … English teacher.		
	7	The … English teacher encourages students to learn English and its people cultures.		
	8	The … English teacher is better qualified, as he/she knows more about the student's culture.		
Teaching strategy aspects	9	The ... English teacher uses new teaching strategies that better help students learn English.		
	10	The … English teacher prepares students to learn English by themselves.		
	11	Overall, the … English teacher teaches English clearly, as he/she knows students' learning styles.		
Language Learning Skills aspects	12	I learn Speaking better from the … English teacher.		
	13	I learn Writing better from the ... English teacher.		
	14	I learn Listening better from the … English teacher.		
	15	I learn Reading better from the … English teacher.		

The distributed questionnaire was written in Arabic, as it is the mother tongue of the participants. It was then translated into English for publication purposes.

With regard to the qualitative tool used, interviews were conducted with five students as a supplementary tool. When the researcher administered the questionnaire to the participants, he put an optional item asking the participant to write his/her phone number and email if s/he was willing to participate in an interview. Each interview lasted between six to seven minutes

and were undertaken by mobile phone. The following were the main questions used in the interview:

- What is your perception of NESTs and NNESTs? Can you tell me why?
- Whom do you prefer for teaching language-learning strategies? Why?
- How about teaching strategies? Whom do you think uses varied teaching materials?
- Do you want to learn about English-speaking countries' culture? Whom do you think will teach you better?
- Whom do you think understands your learning difficulties better? Who understands your inquiries better?

The researcher wrote main answers and points for each question from the participants.

Validity and Reliability

The questionnaire's validity was ensured by consulting two experts after doing slight modifications to Alseweed's (2012) questionnaire. One was an Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics and another one possessed an MA in English and Translation. This was done before the commencement of the study. Their suggestions were taken into consideration.

With regard to reliability, the researcher administered the questionnaire to 13 students similar to our participants. The reliability of the test was then assessed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) V16. The result was .87, which indicates the questionnaire was appropriate for the task.

Ethical Matters

First, the researcher obtained official consent from the university to implement this study. Then, the participants' consent was obtained. Students were informed that it was optional to participate in the study, and were not asked to give any personal details in the questionnaire to ensure anonymity.

Results and Discussion

In this section, the findings of the current study will be presented and discussed. Therefore, the quantitative and qualitative results with regard to each research question will be presented and discussed separately. To assess the participants' perceptions with regard to NESTs and NNESTs, descriptive statistics analysis was used. Table 2 shows the results:

Table 2: Students' Perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs

Categories	Items		G	N	M	St.D	Percentage	
							NEST	NNEST
Classroom environment aspect	1	I feel comfortable in the class where the … English teacher is.	M	59	1.42	.494	71%	29%
			F	56	1.21	.414	60.5%	39.5%
	2	The … English teacher makes the learning environment more comfortable.	M	59	1.44	.498	72%	28%
			F	56	1.43	.499	71.5%	28.5%
	3	The … English teacher is more kind and responsible.	M	59	1.46	.498	73%	27%
			F	56	1.43	.499	71.5%	28.5%
	4	The … English teacher knows the difficulties that students face when learning English.	M	59	1.61	.489	19.5%	80.5%
			F	56	1.52	.504	24%	76%
	5	The … English teacher faces difficulties in understanding students' inquiries.	M	59	1.29	.455	64.5%	35.5%
			F	56	1.21	.414	60.5%	39.5%
	6		M	59	1.35	.479	67.5%	32.5%

Cultural aspect		I want to learn more about the culture of native English people from the … English teacher.	F	56	1.29	.456	64.5%	35.5%
	7	The … English teacher encourages students to learn English and its people cultures.	M	59	1.32	.468	66%	34%
			F	56	1.29	.456	64.5%	35.5%
	8	The … English teacher is better qualified, as he/she knows more about the student's culture.	M	59	1.70	.461	15%	85%
			F	56	1.55	.502	22.5%	77.5%
Teaching strategies aspect	9	The ... English teacher uses new teaching strategies that help students learn English better.	M	59	1.43	.497	71.5%	28.5%
			F	56	1.36	.483	68%	32%
	10	The … English teacher prepares students to learn English by themselves.	M	59	1.39	.489	69.5%	30.5%
			F	56	1.29	.456	64.5%	35.5%
	11	Overall, the … English teacher teaches English clearly, as he/she knows students' learning styles.	M	59	1.66	.481	17%	83%
			F	56	1.51	.414	24.5%	75.5%
Language Learning Skills	12	I learn Speaking better from the … English teacher.	M	59	1.25	.435	62.5%	37.5%
			F	56	1.14	.353	57%	43%
	13		M	59	1.60	.492	20%	80%

aspect		I learn Writing better from the ... English teacher.	F	56	1.66	.503	17%	83%
	14	I learn Listening better from the … English teacher.	M	59	1.34	.475	67%	33%
			F	56	1.29	.456	64.5%	35.5%
	15	I learn Reading better from the … English teacher.	M	59	1.39	.489	69.5%	30.5%
			F	56	1.21	.414	60.5%	39.5%

Research question 1:

1- In terms of gender, what are the undergraduate EFL learners' perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs, particularly in terms of the classroom environment and cultural aspects? Is the difference statistically significant or not?

As noted in items 1-8, with the exception of items 4 and 8 in Table 2 above, both male and female learners, in terms of the classroom environment aspect, showed positive perceptions in terms of the NESTs being the better English teachers with regard to the various items with the exception of two items in which they showed as positive perceptions with regard to NNESTs. They feel comfortable in classes in which the English teacher is a NEST (M= 79%, F=60.5%) and regard the classroom environment of NESTs as being more comfortable than those of NNESTs (M=72%, F=71.5%). In addition, both male and female learners described the NESTs as being more kind and responsible than were NNESTs (M=73%, F=71.5%).

In the interview, the participants reported that NESTs makes the class atmosphere more comfortable as he/she does not treat them formally, while NNESTs are more formal and strict in terms of classroom management.

However, when it comes to '..being aware of the difficulties learners face when learning English, NNESTs are perceived to be better than NESTs (M=80.5%, F=76%). All interviewees regarded NNESTs are better in this respect. They said that, as NNESTs were EFL learners before being teachers, they have experience of the difficulties associated with

learning L2. This finding agrees with what Mahboob's (2003) and Alseweed's (2012) participants reported in his study.

By looking at item 5, it is clear that most male and female learners hold negative perceptions with regard to NESTs in terms of their understanding their inquiries (M=64.5%, F=60.5%). In the interview, students reported that they sometimes need to ask questions in L1 as the clarification in L1 will help them understand. This gives an advantage to NNESTs. This finding agrees with Hadla's (2013) findings. However, using L1 in the L2 classroom is a debatable issue. Krashen's Natural Approach, Direct and Audiolingual Methods to language acquisition proposes that L2 learners learn through massive exposure to L2, with limited use of their native language. But recently, there has been a shift to include L1 in the L2 classroom as this increases learners' comprehension of L2 (Cook, 2001).

From items 6 and 7, as indicated in Table2 above, both male and female learners were enthusiastic about learning about the culture of native English people from the NESTs (M=67.5%, F=64.5%) as NESTs are better able to do this (M=66%, F=64.5%) than NNESTs. In the interview, this perception is attributed to the fact that NESTs manifest their cultural naturally, and this result, along with attribution, is supported by Alseweed's (2012) findings. He mentioned that NESTs' verbal and nonverbal communications and behaviours represent their culture naturally. Hadla (2013), who found similar results, demonstrated this finding by saying that to acquire an in-depth knowledge of the culture of an English speaking country, one has to live quite a long time in such a country and then one will be equipped to teach these cultural aspects to learners. This cannot happen in the case of NNESTs.

Nevertheless, when it comes to the learners' culture, both male and female strongly asserted that NNESTs were more qualified in terms of knowing their culture than NESTs (M=85%, F=77.5%). Alseweed (2012) found the same result in his study.

Statistically, Table3 shows the t-test results with regard to the difference between male and female learners' perceptions with regard to the classroom environment and cultural aspects:

Table 3: T-Test of Gender Differences in Perceptions

Overall perceptions of the classroom environment and the cultural aspect	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig
	Male	59	11.56	3.35934	.133
	Female	56	10.83	2.21381	

As shown in Table 3, there is no significant difference between male and female learners with regard to their perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs in terms of the classroom environment and cultural aspects.

The above findings answer the first research question. Most learners perceived NESTS as an ideal English teacher, except in issues related to learning difficulties and understanding students' inquiries. Statistically, there is not a significant difference between the male and female learners in terms of the overall perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs.

Research question 2:

1- *What are male and female undergraduate EFL learners' preferences regarding NEST and NNESTs' teaching strategies? ? Is the difference statistically significant?*

With regard to teaching strategies, both male and female learners agreed that NESTs are perceived as being better than NNESTs when it comes to strategies used for teaching them in the classroom. They reported that the NESTs use new teaching strategies that help them learn English (M=71.5%, F=68%) and prepare them for self-learning (M=69.5%, F=64.5%).

Surprisingly, the participants even reported that NESTs are better when it comes to using various teaching strategies. However, the students perceived that lessons are taught more clearly by NNESTs as they know the learners' learning styles (M=83%, F=75.5). In the interview, the researcher asked students about this matter. One student said that even if he sees that a NEST is a better teacher, the NNEST has the ability to clarify the student's inquiry in L2, and this helps students comprehend the lesson more clearly. This agrees with their perceptions with regard to items 4 and 5. Hadla (2013) found similar results in her study.

Statistically, the t-test result was used to see whether or not the difference between male and female students was significant, as shown in Table 4 below:

Table (4): T-Test of gender differences in teaching strategies

Overall perceptions of teaching strategy aspects	G	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig
	M	59	2.82	.964	.145
	F	56	2.64	.724	

The result showed that there is no significant difference between male and female learners in terms of teaching strategy aspects.

The above finding answers the second research question. NESTs are better than NNESTs in terms of using new teaching strategies that help students learn English. However, NNESts were perceived to teach English more clearly as they know the students' learning styles. Statistically, there is no significant difference between male and female learners' perceptions in terms of teaching strategy aspects (P=.145).

Research question 3:

1- *What are male and female undergraduate EFL learners' preferences regarding NESTs' and NNESTs teaching of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills? Is the difference statistically significant?*

NESTs were thought to be ideal teachers when it comes to teaching Speaking, Listening and Reading skills as shown by the results: Speaking M=1.25, F=1.14; Listening M=1.34, F=1.29; Reading M=1.39, F=1.21).These results are consistent with those of Alseweed (2012). But, when it comes to Writing skills, both male and female learners reported that NNESTs were perceived to be better than NESTs (M= 1.60 & F=1.66).

In the interview, students commented on this issue. They reported that the teaching strategies used by NESTs draw attention to explanations. For example, NESTs use repetition not only with their use of voice, but also with some movement such as by hand movements or by facial

expression which make sense of the explanations. Regarding Writing skills, the students thought that as there are some instructions that need to be understood clearly prior to writing, they found using L1 helped them understand those instructions more clearly. Statistically, the following Table (5) shows the t-test result:

Table (5): T-test result of Learning Strategy Aspect Difference

Learning Strategy Aspect	G	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Sig
	M	59	12.92	3.80	.113
	F	56	12.05	2.54	

As can be seen in Table (5), the difference is not statistically significant (p=113), which indicates that the difference between the male and female learners' responses was not statistically significant. The above results and discussion answer the third research question.

Hypotheses Test Results

1- Male and female learners have different perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs.
Based on the findings above, this hypnosis is rejected. Both male and female have similar perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs.

2- There is a statistically significant difference between male and female EFL learners' preferences with regard to NESTs and NNESTs.
Based on the t-test results, this hypothesis is rejected, as there is no significant difference between male and female learners' preferences with regard to NESTs and NNESTs.

Conclusion

The current study investigated undergraduate male and female EFL learners' perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs, particularly with regard to the aspects of classroom environment, culture, teaching strategies and language learning skills. The findings of this study showed that there is a positive perception with regard to NESTs over NNESTs in terms of several issues except with regard to the issue related to understanding learner's difficulties associated

with learning and dealing with inquiries. However, NNESTs were perceived as being able to explain lessons more clearly as the NNESTs had experience of being an L2 learner prior to being a teacher, and knew the students' learning styles. With regard to language learning skills, the participants reported that NESTs are better when it comes to teaching Speaking, Listening and Reading skills, while NNESTs are perceived to be better for teaching Writing skills. The statistical results showed that there is no significant difference between male and female learners in all aspects. This finding indicates that gender is not a significant variable in this study.

It is recommended that more studies are needed in various contexts to ensure that gender has no role in affecting the EFL learners' perceptions of NESTs and NNESTs. As a result, these findings could be generalized. Also, from the findings of this study it is also recommended that having both NNESTs and NNESTs would create a good learning environment, a feature which has been also been recommended by Alseweed (2012). Therefore, the university and educational programme recruiters should be aware of this issue. Also, it is recommended to conduct comparison studies on differences between ESL and EFL students' perceptions towards NESTs and NNETS in both native and nonnative English speaking countries.

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ASIAN EFL JOURNAL
The EFL Professional's Written Forum

Investigating Teacher Professional Development: English Teachers' Learning Activities as Learners

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Abstract

Teachers' task is not solely related to teaching, such as planning, implementing, and evaluating teaching-learning activities. Teachers also have a responsibility to grow professionally by upgrading their instructional knowledge and skills so that they can manage better teaching practices aligned with current educational demand and advancement in Information and Communications Technology (ICT). In this case, teachers are learners who do continuous learning about themselves, their students, and their profession as teachers. This study using survey design aims to explore learning activities that the English teachers participate in as their professional development conduct in the Indonesian context. This study further investigates the teachers' perception of the learning activities and the obstacles that hinder them from participating in the learning activities. The participants of this study were 30 English teachers from junior and senior high schools in South Kalimantan Province attending PPG (Education for Teacher Profession). The data of this study was collected using the teacher questionnaire based on the Teaching and Learning International Survey

(TALIS). The analysis of the findings on practices of teacher professional development regarding real professional development activities that English teachers participate in showed that they experienced some obstacles in participating in the program. The obstacles consisted of the schedule, high payment of some TPD activities, family's responsibilities, employer support, unsuitability of the offered professional development program, and lack of information about the availability of professional development activities. Despite facing those obstacles, English teachers in this particular context are committed to growing through continuous professional learning.

Keywords: English teachers, Teacher Professional Development, Teachers as Learners

Introduction

Teacher Professional Development (TPD) is an integral part of teachers' life-long learning. Through professional development endeavors, teachers continue to learn to develop their competencies and skills as their effort to cope with increasing demands in educational enterprises. The goal of continuous teacher learning is reflected and observed in the notion of TPD. The Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2009) uses the term Teacher professional development to refer to "activities that develop an individual's skills, knowledge, expertise and other characteristics as a teacher." In addition to being as activities for quality development, Darling-Hammond, Hyler, and Gardner (2017) also defined teacher professional development as "structured professional learning" that help teachers to make positive changes in their teaching practices and to improve student learning outcome. Thus, teacher, like other professions, is not supposed to stagnate regarding quality. Instead, they need to develop professionally through ongoing learning.

The sustainable teacher professional development matters since teachers cannot merely rely on the knowledge and experience they obtain from college. The condition of teaching is involved, and after teacher apprentices graduate from college and achieve their teacher certification, they will face the complexity of education and should learn from real teaching experiences (Mizell, 2010). The complexity of education involves

the diverse learning needs of students, advancement of technology, innovation of teaching methods, as well as changes in subject content, laws, and procedures. It is necessary for teachers to conduct sustainable, effective professional development both to empower them to survive for their career as teaching professionals as well as help students to master required skills and competencies in the current competitive era to confront and comply with these challenges. Research has revealed that effective teacher professional development contributes significant improvement to teacher knowledge, skill, and teaching practice (Parise & Spillane, 2010; Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, & Gallagher, 2007) as well as improve student achievement (Tienken, 2003; McCutchen et al., 2002). The benefits of effective teacher professional development on teacher and student are interconnected. Teachers who engage in sustainable teacher professional development attain better knowledge and skills and should use these to improve their teaching practice if they attempt to affect student learning and achievement positively (Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarlos, & Shapley, 2007).

In the Indonesian context, teacher professional development has been mandated institutionally and emphasized in educational policy documents stipulated by the Indonesian government. The 2003 Law on National Education clearly stated the teachers' right to obtain professional development conducts, and the 2005 Law on Teachers and Lecturers mentioned the teachers' right to develop their competences. The Indonesian government further discusses the importance of improving teacher competencies in the 2008 Government Regulation on teachers wherein the four teacher competencies are obliged to have, namely pedagogical, social, personal and professional competencies. The government even enacted the Handbook of Continuous Professional Development for stakeholders, educational administrators, and teachers as a guidebook which describes the rationales of continuous professional development, concepts, and its implementation. Wulyani (2017) in her review on the policy above documents found that the records reflect the need for teachers to sustain and improve their subject matter knowledge and ICT skills to encounter the rapid development of technology related to teaching practices.

Teacher professional development is more challenging for those who teach English in the Indonesian context where English is a compulsory foreign language taught at schools than those who teach English as a Second Language. First, Indonesian EFL teachers as non-native speakers are generally expected to have a high level of spoken and written English language proficiency as well as excellent teaching competencies to be considered as professional English teachers (Yuwono & Harbon, 2010). The maintenance or improvement of English proficiency will not probably be managed well if EFL teachers do not do a real action to achieve it. The support or improvement is what has been revealed by Wulyani (2017) who investigated English proficiency of high school English language teachers at Malang District, East Java, Indonesia through teacher meeting in the Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran (MGMP), an Indonesian term for School-Cluster Subject Teacher Working Group. Wulyani's (2017) study showed that the majority of the teachers had good writing ability, while in general, they had low vocabulary knowledge on the low-frequency word level, including academic words and low reading proficiency compared to 5.5 IELTS band-scale as the expected standard used in the study. Wulyani (2017), considering the somewhat restricted selection process of research participants, further revealed that the teachers' length of service was negatively correlated with their vocabulary knowledge, reading proficiency and writing proficiency. This finding suggests that instead of achieving increased English proficiency, long-serving teachers encounter decline on their English ability over time. Wulyani (2017) explained that this problem might be due to lack of English exposure and lack of English maintenance effort through teacher professional development. Thus, EFL teachers in the Indonesian context crucially need to do continuous learning to sustain and improve their English proficiency as one of the cores to be professional English teachers.

Second, teaching English as a foreign language in secondary schools is usually characterized with large class size, a wide range of students' ability and the high possibility that students have a low commitment for English learning since the reasons for learning it are not self-evident (Broughton, Brumfit, Flavell, Hill & Pincas, 2003). To encounter these characteristics, teachers should do classroom management with the

three important features, namely appropriation regarding materials and teaching techniques, an organization of English instruction and practices, and excitement (Broughton et al., 2003). The best practices of classroom management with these three essential features are usually available with some useful innovations presented by ELT scholars, researchers, and practitioners through ELT books, courses, seminars, conferences, and other academic enterprises. Accordingly, teachers should upgrade their pedagogical and professional knowledge through continuous teacher professional development to keep up with ELT current trends so that they can face the changing situation in real classrooms. Also, regarding ICT rapid development, EFL teachers also need to enrich their knowledge regarding the innovative teaching practices integrated with ICT to increase participation and engagement of students who generally have low motivation to learn English as a foreign language.

Yuwono and Harbon (2010) revealed the perception of professionalism among English teachers in the Indonesian context. In their research, the motive for entering the English teaching profession was one of the areas revealed from English teacher professionalism. The reasons found were passion on teaching, financial burden, family influence, religious calling, the love of the English language and the perceived women' roles in the society. Although some of the motives for entering the English teaching profession seem quite relevant to the notion of English teaching itself, they might not be a facilitative factor in the engagement of continuous learning as teachers. The relevant motives insufficiently guarantee that teachers will have a strong commitment and participation in constant teacher learning. This idea is supported by Yuwono and Harbon (2010) in their research findings that teachers who work to provide English private tutor in private educational agency as their take second job and those who teach at several schools while seeking permanent appointment find it challenging to participate in professional development programs due to their limited time. Furthermore, teachers who have high teaching burden and top administrative work might also be reluctant and unwilling to commit in professional development (Yuwono, 2005).

Regarding the importance of teacher professional development, a study on practices of teacher professional development regarding real professional development activities that English teachers participate in is crucial to provide a comprehensive picture indicating whether or not English teachers are committed to growing through continuous professional learning. The significance of investigation on teachers' learning activities is confirmed by Rahman (2016) in his research that teachers' learning activities for professional development resulted in their improved instructional knowledge and skills as well as their perception and action on their professional learning. Thus, this study attempted to examine the English learning activities for professional development of English teachers who teach at senior high schools in Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan Province. This study also further examined the teacher's perception of their learning activities and the obstacles that hinder them in participating in the learning activities for their professional development. As teacher professional development is highly contextual in which what and how teachers learn to depend on the context where they live or work (Kelchtermans, 2004; Rahman, 2016), this results of this study would enrich the evidence on English teachers' professional development practices in Indonesia as they rooted from South Kalimantan context.

Literature Review

Teachers as Learners

Tasks of a teacher are not confined to educating students, helping students to master specific skills, preparing and conducting well-organized instruction, and other classroom-based tasks. Learning as part of professional growth is also the teacher's crucial task. It can be considered that teachers, as adult learners, are supposed to learn through professional development based on their needs and the context of their teaching (King & Lawler, 2003). Several areas of professional development can be identified as the goals of teacher learning from teacher's individual perspective, namely subject-matter knowledge, such as knowledge of disciplinary basis of TESOL/TEFL; pedagogical expertise; self-awareness; understanding of learners; understanding of

curriculum and materials; and career advancement (Richards & Farrel, 2005).

As learners, teachers might learn through various learning activities underpinned by different views of teacher learning. Richards and Farrel (2005) listed four aspects of teacher learning, namely teacher learning as skill learning, cognitive process, personal construction, and reflective practice. In teacher learning as skill learning, the focus is on developing skills and competencies which are necessary to create effective teaching. In teacher learning as a cognitive process, teachers will have experiences to review their beliefs and thoughts about teaching and learning and examine how these influence their instructional decisions in their every classroom practice. Based on the next view, teacher learning as personal construction, teachers are directed to learn through activities which make use of self-awareness and personal interpretation to create a solution for their classroom challenges. Learning activities drawn from the last view of teacher learning encourage teachers to examine their teaching experiences as a critical reflection so that teachers can develop a better understanding of the strength and weakness sides of their teaching practices. Taking active participation in these learning activities and applying the lessons received from the activities into the classroom can be beneficial to make positive changes in day-to-day teaching practices.

Some different learning activities have been in use for teacher professional development. They can range from "formal, structured topic-specific seminars given on in-service days, to everyday, informal 'hallway' discussion with other teachers about instruction techniques, embedded in teachers' everyday work lives" (Desimone, 2009). Richards and Farrel (2005) state that teachers can learn from workshops, self-monitoring, teacher support group, writing and keeping a teaching journal, peer observation, teaching portfolios, analyzing critical incidents in the classroom, case analysis, peer coaching, team teaching, and action research. Furthermore, Villegas-Reimers (2003) made two categories for learning activities about professional development, namely organizational partnership models and small group or individual models. The organizational partnership models include professional development schools, university-school partnerships, schools' networks, teachers' network, distance

education, and other inter-institutional collaborations. The small group or individual models include supervision, students' performance assessment, workshops, seminars, courses, case-based study, self-directed development, co-operative/collegial development, observation of excellent practice, teachers' participation in new roles, skills-development model, reflective model, project-based model, portfolios, action research, teachers' narratives, generational/cascade model and coaching/mentoring.

Dunne (2002) provides learning activities for professional development, or 'strategies' as a term that she uses, aligned to purposes of professional development. According to Dunne (2002), there are four purposes categories of professional development, namely to construct knowledge, to translate knowledge into practice, to practice teaching, and to promote reflection. The strategies of professional development aligned to the purposes are as in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Professional Development Strategies Aligned to Purposes of Professional Development (Dunne, 2002)

	Purposes of Professional Development			
	to construct knowledge	to translate knowledge into practice	to practice teaching	to promote reflection
Strategies Aligned to Purposes of Professional Development	• Workshops, institutes, courses, and seminars • Immersion in the world of business, science, mathematics, and/or other	• Curriculum development • Mentoring	• Curriculum Implementation • Replacement units • Coaching	• Study groups • Case discussion • Action research • Examining student work

	academic content • Immersion in inquiry in science, mathematics, and/or other academic content			

The types of learning activities for teacher professional development are indeed varied and continue to evolve. Schools or teachers themselves can choose which of these types are suitable and appropriate for their needs and circumstances. Richards and Farrel (2005) provide a guideline in implementing professional development from teachers' initiatives. The instructions are (1) teacher decides what he/she would like to learn about his/her teaching and the field; (2) teacher identifies a strategy to explore the topic he/she is interested in; (3) teacher talks to people who have taken part in a professional development activity; (4) teacher decides types of support he/she will need; (5) the teacher selects a colleague or colleagues to work with; (6) the teacher sets realistic goals and establish a time frame; (6) teacher evaluates his/her learning results and share them with others.

While teacher plays an essential role in initiating professional development and join as well as participate in professional development endeavors, there are some factors from the teacher as an individual which can support or hinder their intention to grow through professional development. Smith and Gillespie (2007) reviewed research on factors affecting teacher learning and change and found the six major individual factors, namely teacher motivation for professional development, teacher concerns, teacher self-efficacy, teacher cognitive styles, teacher reflectiveness, and formal teacher education as well as years of experience.

Effective Teacher Professional Development

Teacher professional development which provides activities to improve teachers'

Competencies, skills, and attitude should be carefully planned to reach its goal optimally. The generic planning model for professional development programs developed by scholars requires consideration on three major factors, namely knowledge and beliefs, context, and critical issues, after the goals of the programs are established (Dunne, 2002). Dunne (2002) states that "the foundation of effective professional development design should reflect knowledge and beliefs about learners and learning, teachers and teaching; standards within the different subject areas; principles and standards of professional development; and the change process." As teacher professional development is contextual-based, the contextual factor should also be considered, such as student factor, the knowledge, and experiences of teachers, current practices, curriculum, current policies, and history of professional development in the setting. Finally, professional development programs should also consider how to build a professional culture, develop leadership, and handle other critical issues through the programs.

Darling-hammond et al. (2017) conducted a meticulous review of 35 studies on teacher

professional development and its link with teaching practices and student outcomes and found seven shared common features which characterize effective professional development. Darling-hammond et al. (2017) state that effective professional development "(1) is content focused; (2) incorporates active learning utilizing adult learning theory; (3) supports collaboration, typically in job-embedded contexts; (4) uses models, and modeling of effective practice; (5) provides coaching and expert support; (6) offers opportunities for feedback and reflection; and (7) is of sustained duration."

Regarding EFL teacher professional development in the field of English language teaching (ELT), the first feature requires professional development to focus on relevant teaching strategies related to curriculum content of ELT. Since effective professional development should focus on teaching strategies, the second feature requires active learning from teachers in which they actively participate in hands-on experience in

designing and practicing the procedures. Teachers should also have opportunities to collaborate with their peers/colleagues in developing and practicing the new teaching strategies which fit their students' need and classroom condition which can build teacher community who actively do innovation on their teaching practices. As the fourth feature suggests, effective professional development should provide models of effective ELT practice, so teachers can observe the models, learn from them, and adapt them for their real teaching practice. Teachers need knowledgeable others to support their learning in the professional development program, so ELT experts and scholars can be involved in professional development to share ideas, monitor teachers' learning, and give feedback sustainably. The next feature requires professional development to provide teachers with the opportunity to rethink about their day-to-day teaching practices, associate and compare them with the models of effective teaching practice, and finally to make positive changes to their practice through reflection and by using feedback from the experts. Eventually, professional development programs should be conducted in a sustained duration or adequate time, not in short time programs such as one-day workshops. Sustained duration feature also requires appropriate follow-up toward teacher learning as the integrated part of the professional development programs.

Practices of Teacher Professional Development for EFL Teachers in Indonesia
Some teacher professional programs or practices have existed in Indonesia to facilitate teachers to improve their quality. Several important practices are the discussion of this section.

Teachers in Indonesia must take in-service teacher certification program as the requirement to obtain formal and legal acknowledgment as professional teachers. In-service teacher certification as one of the Indonesian government's effort is expected to improve education quality at official school level continuously. In-service teachers who have fulfilled the qualification to take teacher certification can join the program through the Pendidikan dan Pelatihan Profesi Guru (PLPG, Education and Training for

Teaching Profession) or the Pendidikan Profesi Guru (PPG, Education for Teacher Profession).

The PLPG is a teacher professional development program which consists of a 100-learning hour-in-service training program with the materials designed by referring to four teacher competencies (pedagogic, personal, social and personal). The training is conducted in the form of lectures and workshops with several groups of peer teaching/peer guidance and counseling facilitated by one instructor for each group. The learning process is oriented to the achievement of competences (competence-based), not content-based. At the end of the PLPG, teachers will take competence appraisal which includes a written test, and performance test is focusing on the implementation of the currently applied curriculum.

As has been stated earlier, teacher certification can be followed through the Pendidikan Profesi Guru (PPG, Education for Teacher Profession). The PPG is divided into two categories, namely in-service PPG and pre-service PPG. In-service PPG is a teacher professional development program for in-service teachers, while pre-service PPG is a teacher professional development program for the graduates of a bachelor degree in education and non-education field. The PPG is conducted for two semesters (one year study), and the curriculum consists of workshops on instructional device development including presentation and peer teaching, deepening of subject matter knowledge, professional and pedagogical materials, teaching practice, and classroom action research. The participants can successfully pass through the program if they achieve the minimum passing grade at the article deepening, workshops, classroom action research, teaching practice, and written test, and they will obtain teacher certification.

The next forms of teacher professional development in Indonesia are the *Kelompok Kerja Guru* (KKG, Primary School Teacher Working Group) and *Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran* (MGMP, Subject Teacher Working Group for Secondary School Teachers). These are professional forums for expanding teacher knowledge on critical educational issues, such as the implementation of new/current curriculum, syllabus development, lesson plan development, and ICT-integrated instruction; sharing

teaching experiences and giving/getting feedback, develop professional teaching culture, develop mentoring activities, and increase teachers' awareness on classroom problems and to find solutions for the problems. These forums can also facilitate teachers to work together to develop curriculum and instructional material, design test item, conduct lesson study and collaborate through classroom action research. In addition to these forums which are mandated institutionally, there are also other important teacher associations as professional teachers' forums for EFL teachers, namely TEFLIN (Teachers of English as a Foreign Language) Association and APSPBI (Asosiasi Program Studi Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Se-Indonesia, or English Language Education Study Program Association).

EFL teachers can also join ELT conferences and workshops as their professional development conducts. Some of the conferences conducted in Indonesia are continuous conferences held annually, such as TEFLIN conference and BICOLE (the Bandung International Conference on Language and Education). Also, free online learning is also available for EFL teachers who are eager to improve their knowledge and skills in ELT.

The research problems are as follows:

1) What are learning activities that the English teachers participate in as their professional development conduct?

2) What are the teachers' perceptions of their learning activities for their professional development?

3) What are the teachers' obstacles in participating in the learning activities for teacher professional development?

Research Method

The Design of the Study

The design of this study was survey research aiming to explore and describe the learning activities for professional development of English teachers who teach at senior

high schools in Banjarmasin, South Kalimantan Province, the teacher's perception on their learning activities and the obstacles that hinder them in participating in the learning activities for their professional development. The survey design would enable the researchers to provide insights into English teachers' professional development effort through their participation in various learning activities and how learning activities affect their learning and quality as teachers (Neuman, 2014:316-317).

Research Site and Participants

The research site was South Kalimantan Province, focusing on Banjarmasin as the host of the teacher's professional development program. Generally, the participants of this research were the junior and senior high school teachers in South Kalimantan. However, the number has decreased since the LPMP of South Kalimantan selected the participants of the teacher's professional development program. Thirty teachers have been selected to attend the teacher's professional development program this year. These 30 teachers are the participants who became the population of this research.

Research Instruments

The instrument used to collect the research data was a teacher questionnaire. The questionnaire was utilized to collect both quantitative data and qualitative data on the English teachers' learning activities, perceptions on the learning activities, and the obstacles in participating in the learning activities. The questionnaire consists of two parts. The researchers adopted the first part of the questionnaire from the Teaching and Learning International Survey (TALIS) administered by the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD, 2009). The researchers adapted the survey for the questionnaire in this study since it is an international survey which used in 24 countries due to its high validity and reliability. At the first part of the questionnaire, the questionnaire items aimed to identify the participants' backgrounds and personal details such as gender, status, qualifications, number of schools they had taught in, qualifications, number of hours of instructional activities in a week and length of service. Furthermore, this part also examines the teachers' formal and informal learning activities, their perception on the impacts of the activities, and obstacles they encounter

which hinder their participation in the learning activities and the items for these aspects use Likert-scale. The second part of the questionnaire consists of open-ended questions to further explore the teachers' learning activities for teacher professional development.

Data Analysis

The data from the first part of the questionnaire data are coded and analyzed using the descriptive statistics in data analysis program 'SPSS 18' to generate a summary of the descriptive data of the questionnaire. The data from the first questionnaire was also grouped into the predetermined categories/themes relevant to the study, namely gender, status, qualifications, number of schools the teachers had taught in, qualifications, number of hours of instructional activities in a week and length of service: the teachers' formal and informal learning activities, their perception of the impacts of the activities, and the obstacles they encounter which hinder their participation in the learning activities.

The data from the second part of the questionnaire with open-ended items are analyzed using qualitative data analysis, namely compiling the data, disassembling the data by coding process, reorganizing the initial codes into themes/categories (reassembling), interpreting the results of disassembling and reassembling phase using the themes/classes, and finally drawing conclusions from the entire qualitative analysis. Finally, the results of the data analysis from the first part of the questionnaire and those from the second part of the questionnaire are discussed and reported using a thematic approach based on the categories/themes of the data from the questionnaire.

Results

Learning Activities as Parts of Teachers' Professional Development

Based on the results of the questionnaires, the researchers found that all of the teachers have already joined some formal professional development activities. Twenty-seven (90%) teachers mentioned that they have experienced attending the courses or workshops related to subject matter, methods and/or other education-related topics. Some of them suggested the materials learned such as 2013 Curriculum, test

development, national examination, classroom management, syllabus development, and instructional media. Most of them agreed that the kind of activity gives a tremendous impact on their professionalism. Only a few teachers (10%) stated that courses or workshop only provides a little benefit for their development as teachers.

Additionally, participation in a network of teachers formed specifically for the professional development of teachers, known as *Musyawarah Guru Mata Pelajaran* (MGMP), also plays a significant role in their professional development (PD). The data proved that 83% of teachers actively join that forum since it is an ideal place for them to share some matters or problems related to teaching English although four of them do not take many advantages from it. Furthermore, some teachers (40%) have joined education conferences or seminars where teachers either present their research results or only participate in the discussions of educational problems. Even though a few of them consider it is not supporting their PD, most of them get the beneficial impacts from joining those activities.

Moreover, teachers do observations visits to other schools and mentoring and/ or peer observation and coaching, as part of a formal school arrangement (33% and 30% respectively). Few of teachers did and followed the individual or collaborative research and qualification programs a (6% and 4% respectively) while they think that those activities do not sufficiently improve their professionalism in teaching. Also, there is one teacher who mentioned another learning activity besides the list given in the questionnaire which is having a university-schools partnership. The teacher states that it provides a great impact on him or her.

Based on their experiences joining the PD learning activities, there are some activities which they considered giving a significant impact for their competences as teachers. Teacher Professional Education, known as *PPG* in Indonesia has given significant impact since the experts properly planned and guided it. PPG is a program designed by the government to equip teachers or pre-service teachers competencies related to their profession so that they become the professional teachers. It helps teachers to improve their professionalism especially related to pedagogic. Besides discussing materials

pertaining to teachers' professional development with the experts, the teacher also finds it attractive that she can consult and share about problems or related matters about teaching and learning process with other teachers in PPG. Also, the schedule of *PPG* is organized well. It is also considered to be prestigious because only some teachers are allowed to join since there is a preliminary test for the teachers before the program runs. It means that not all teachers have chances to enter this activity.

Regarding the less formal professional development, most of the teachers have already participated in during the last 18 months. The majority of teachers preferred to engage in informal dialogues with their colleagues talking about how to improve their teaching. By doing an activity, it gives a significant impact on their PD even though very few of them consider it unnecessary to conduct. Furthermore, 67% of teachers also like to read professional literature such as journals, evidence-based papers, thesis papers, etc. related to teaching and learning. Although they did reading as an attempt to develop their professionalism in teaching, they consider reading gives merely a small impact on their professional development.

For all the learning activities of TPD that the teachers have attended during last 18 months, based on the results of the questionnaire, more than half of them paid for themselves to sign up for joining those activities. Whereas 13 teachers stated that they did not pay for the registration fee since the institution or government which held the learning activity already provided it. It is only one teacher mentioned that he/she needed to pay for himself or herself whenever he or she intended to attend the activities. Additionally, 18 teachers (60%) stated that they received scheduled time for undertaking the professional development that took place during regular hours. Otherwise, the rest of the teachers (40%) did not have any scheduled time spent for attending the professional development learning activities. Besides, when attending the activities, most of the teachers (97%) did not receive any salary supplement for undertaking the professional development activities that took place outside regular work hours. Only one teacher admitted that he or she got additional salary for joining activities of PD outside regular work hours.

Teachers' Perceptions on Their Learning Activities for Their Professional Development

Regarding professional development needs, there are some conventional materials that teachers need to improve their professionalism as teachers. 70% of the teachers choose ICT skills for teaching considered it as the most necessary lesson that they want to learn in PD activities, followed by the need of knowing how to manage the classroom chosen by 18 teachers. Likewise, 17 teachers gave their perspective that student assessment practices and knowledge and understanding of instructional practices (knowledge mediation) in their primary subject field are necessary for their professional development.

Furthermore, knowledge about both student discipline and behavior problems and school management and administration are recognized essential to be given in PD activities by half of the teachers. Then, 13 teachers agreed that content and performance standards in their main subject fields, knowledge, and understanding of their main subject fields and also teaching in a multicultural setting are essential for their teaching development. The last but not least, teaching students with special learning needs and student counseling are considered less important to be learned when they attend professional development activities than others they mentioned.

The researchers have also investigated the teachers' perception of the urgency of knowing the purpose of PD in this study. Most of the teachers mentioned that knowing the purpose of the TPD activities is important before joining those activities. Thus, the teachers can choose which activities are needed to enrich her knowledge and improve skills regarding teachers' professionalism. Additionally, knowing the aim is necessary and beneficial for them not to waste their time.

However, some teachers stated that it is not necessary to know the purpose of joining the TPD since the teacher attends the activities based on headmaster's instruction. The teacher believes that all activities about TPD will benefit teachers' professional development as long as the participants join them seriously. Also, the teacher said that joining some activities of TPD is actually only based on a school's instruction, so the

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teacher sometimes joins them without recognizing the expected outcomes after attending the activities. Hence, sometimes, even regular TPD activities sponsored by the government are not applicable to be implemented because aimed for other subject-teachers, not English.

Furthermore, teachers also perceived that the PD activities are mostly held in a concise period that the teachers feel it is not sufficient for them to comprehend all materials taught. Hence, it does not give practical contribution in teaching and learning process since the teachers are not fully able to implement the materials learned. As a result, based on the teacher's opinion, it is essential for the training organizers to give more allocated time and attention to the facilities provided to the participants to motivate them to join the activity.

Teachers' Obstacles in Participating in the Learning Activities for Teacher Professional Development

Based on the teachers' opinion, it can be seen that almost all teachers (97%) have the willingness to participate more in professional development activities that they have already had while one teacher does not want to have more participation in joining learning activities of PD. Some reasons or obstacles prevented them from participating in more professional development learning activities. The idea which mostly chosen by the teachers (63%) is the professional development activities conflicted with their work schedule. Seven teachers could not have more opportunities to actively participate in PD because the prices of PD are too high for them to afford and also, they do not have the pre-requisites regarding the qualifications, experiences, or seniority.

The other reasons chosen by the teachers which gave impact to their involvement on PD activities are the inadequate time because of family's responsibilities (20%), a lack of employer support (17%), and followed by unsuitability of professional development offered. Similar other reason is added by two teachers which is the lack of information they got about the availability of professional development learning activities.

A teacher added that the trend nowadays leads the teacher to be independently pro-

active to search the information about the available seminar, training, or workshop and to register to those activities and not to rely on school's calls like they get used to. Because of their businesses, it seems that the teachers are not fully aware of the updated information regarding the professional development learning activities.

Discussion

In the Indonesian context, teachers are rules through Legislation No. 14 of 2005 concerning Teachers and Lecturers. The article 10 point (1) states that "teachers' competence as revealed in Article 8 includes pedagogical, personal, social, and professional competencies achieved through the professional education. The article 20 point (2) explains that in carrying out professional duties, the teacher is obliged to continually improve and develop academic qualifications and competencies in line with the development of science, technology, and art. The teachers are required to be the learners as their efforts to increase their capacity as teachers so that they can carry out their duties and responsibilities properly. As graduates of education institution of educational resources (LPTK), they have not regarded as having professional status. Achieving the status, they must attend teacher professional education (PPG).

The PPG Program provided the materials for teacher professional development as follows : (1) Theoretical Review on the Education and teachers' Professionalism = 4 credits, (2) Deepening of English language material by Applying the Principle of TPACK = 6 credits, (3) Review and Discussion on the Results of Material Deepening through Online Learning 1 credits, (4) Development of Teaching and Learning Design (Lesson Plan, Teaching Material, and Teaching Media) and Peer-Teaching = 6 credits, (5) Planning of Classroom Action Research (CAR) = 1 credit, and (6) Field Experience Practices = 6 credits. These materials are insufficiently for establishing teacher professionalism. Ideally, according to Selvi K., the professional teachers must have competences in (1) the field of teaching such as the content needed in the learning and teaching process), (2) the research such as competencies in research methodology, and conducting research in language teaching, (3) curriculum such as curriculum development and curriculum implementation, (4) the lifelong learning such as the

abilities of learning to learn, and teachers' responsibilities of their own professional development. (5) social-cultural competencies such as the knowledge about social-cultural background of students and teachers, local, national and international values, democracy and human rights issues, team and collaborative work with others, and social studies, (6) emotional affairs such as teachers' and students' values, morals, beliefs, attitudes, anxieties, motivation, empathy and so on. (7) communication such as models of communication and interaction to make the proper social environment and to support the teaching and learning process. (8) information and communication technologies (ICT) for supporting their teaching and learning process, and (9) environmental for ecological and environmental safety (Selvi, K., 2010).

Learning Activities as Parts of Teachers Professional Development

Based on the findings drawn from the questionnaires and informal interview, some learning activities that teachers attended and whether they gave great impact or not being found out. It is obvious that all of the teachers have already joined some formal professional development activities. Among all of the activities listed, most of the teachers experienced joining workshops or training, categorized as organizational partnership model and teacher's network, as part of a small group or individual models of professional development (Villegas-Reimers, 2003). Looking at the characteristics of activities that most teachers have already joined during the last 18 months, it can be concluded that all the purposes of the professional development activities, proposed by Dunne (2002), are reached. The achievements are constructing knowledge by attending workshops or seminars, translating knowledge into practice by doing mentoring, practicing teaching by coaching and promoting reflection by doing study groups, case discussion, and action research.

Furthermore, most teachers agreed that almost all activities help them to improve their professionalism as a teacher, although very few of them thought that it is not beneficial for them. According to Darling-Hammond, et al. (2017), "structured professional learning" helps teachers to make positive changes in their teaching practices and to improve student learning outcome. It is also in line with some research stating that

effective teacher professional development contributes significant improvement to teacher knowledge, skill, and teaching practice (Parise & Spillane, 2010; Penuel, Fishman, Yamaguchi, & Gallagher, 2007). Especially when joining the formal learning activities such as workshop, training, seminar, or conferences and when participating in a network of teachers formed specifically for the professional development of teachers, it is admitted by the teachers that they get a significant impact from both of the activities. Teachers who engage in sustainable teacher professional development attain better knowledge and skills and should use these to improve their teaching practice if they attempt to affect student learning and achievement positively (Yoon, Duncan, Lee, Scarlos, & Shapley, 2007).

Also, there is one teacher who mentioned other learning activity besides the list given in the questionnaire which gives a significant impact for him or her which is having a university-schools partnership. According to Kedzior and Fifield (2004), the teachers keep themselves informed the latest research and theories in teaching because of their connections to universities. It gives positive attitude toward the schools and universities.

As the semi-formal PD activities, engaging in informal dialogues with their colleagues talking about how to improve their teaching and reading professional literature such as journals, evidence-based papers, thesis papers, etc. related to teaching and learning are also conducted although most of them consider talking with colleagues give more impact than reading.

Since all of the subject-teachers in this study are participants of PPG, they believe that PPG has given significant impact regarding some reasons. It is properly and planned and guided by the experts. Moreover, PPG is a program designed by the government to equip teachers or pre-service teachers' competencies related to their profession so that they become the professional teachers. It helps teachers to improve their professionalism especially related to pedagogic.

Based on the regulation, PPG is conducted in a sustained duration (one year) consisting of workshops on instructional device development including presentation and peer

teaching, deepening of subject matter knowledge, professional and pedagogical materials, teaching practice, and classroom action research. According to Guskey (2003) in Kedzior and Fifield (2004), it indicates that PPG has been categorized as a high-quality teacher professional development since it is content-focused. It demonstrates teachers' skills and understandings which are directly related to the degree that professional development experiences focus on subject matter content (Birman, Desimone, Garet, & Porter, 2000). Furthermore, it is extended activity that it allows for more substantive engagement with subject matter, more opportunities for active learning, and the development of coherent connections to teachers' daily work (Birman, Desimone, Garet, & Porter, 2000). It is also collaborative that teacher learning is most likely when teachers collaborate with professional peers, both within and outside of their schools, and when they gain further expertise through access to external researchers and program developers" (King & Newmann, 2000, p. 576). The last but not least, it has the characteristic of self-evaluation that professional development should include procedures for self-evaluation to guide teachers in their ongoing improvement efforts (Guskey, 2003 in Kedzior & Fifield, 2004).

For all the learning activities of TPD that the teachers have attended during last 18 months, based on the results of the findings, more than half of them paid for themselves to sign up for joining those activities. Meanwhile, others did not pay for the registration fee since the institution or government already funded the learning activity. It is clear that funding is essential in any reform or effective professional development, but at the same time, as reported by Bush (1999) in Villegas-Reimers (2003), funding alone is not enough to provide effective professional development opportunities for teachers. There are some suggestions offered for helping to keep the cost down by Geiger (1996) in Villegas-Reimers (2003). They are (1) developing research teams or study group within the school, (2) having teachers teach an additional class, either in the same or in a different school, (3) having teachers and administrators change places for a limited amount of time, (4) assigning teachers as coaches and having teachers trains other teachers in particular aspects of teaching, and (5) looking for competitive contrasts from consultants or organizations when needed.

Teachers' Perceptions on Their Learning Activities for Their Professional Development

Professional development must be designed and implemented to meet the teachers' needs properly to achieve the greatest impact. One of the characteristics of high-quality teacher professional development is teacher-driven, which means professional development should respond to teachers' self-identified needs and interests to support individual and organizational improvements. Professional development is more meaningful to teachers when they exercise ownership of its content and process than if they do not (King & Newmann, 2000).

Regarding the professional development needs to be investigated to the teachers, there are some conventional materials that teachers want to acquire when attending the learning activities. ICT skills for teaching are the most significant area of development need followed by the necessity of knowing how to manage the classroom. That school teacher identifies such a high level of demand in the use of ICT for instruction may be a reflection of the speed of technological change which teachers must keep pace. It may signal a continuing challenge for schools and teachers to keep up to speed in a fast-moving area and to fully exploit technology for the benefit of teaching and learning. Besides, it may also confirm studies which indicate a lack of capacity building regarding how best to use ICT in the classroom. Furthermore, there is an indication that teachers also may get difficulty in managing their classroom because of the large class that they might have.

Student assessment practices and knowledge and understanding of instructional practices (knowledge mediation) in their primary subject field are also considered essential for their professional development. Since the curriculum regularly changes especially with the new curriculum, 2013 Curriculum, teachers need to adapt to the new approach in every aspect of teaching both the assessment and the instructional practices. Furthermore, knowledge about both student discipline and behavior problems and school management and administration are recognized essential to be given in PD

activities by half of the teachers. It may indicate that teachers are less prepared for their role in school management and administration and also their role as an educator which not only facilitates students to learn but also educates students to be a better individual. Moreover, teaching students with special learning needs and student counseling are considered as less important because it is possible that the school teachers have not yet experienced teaching students with special learning needs and the availability of counseling teacher at the school.

The researchers also investigated the teachers' perception about the urgency of knowing the purpose of PD before attending in this study. Most of the teachers mentioned that understanding the use of the TPD activities is important before joining those activities. It is in line with the statement by Richards and Farrel (2005) that in implementing professional development, the teacher needs to decide what he or she would like to learn about his or her teaching and the field. If teachers do not find out the purpose of PD before attending, it may be possible that the PD is often perceived by teachers as random, haphazard, and disconnected from what they need.

However, in reality, most of the time, teachers were instructed by the headmaster to attend PD regardless their background of the subject field. It consequently causes the mismatch between what teacher needs and what PD that teacher attends. Furthermore, sometimes, even regular TPD activities sponsored by the government are not applicable to be implemented because it for other subject-teachers, not English.

Furthermore, teachers also perceived that the PD activities are mostly in a concise period that the teachers feel it is not sufficient for them to comprehend all materials taught. It is such a contrary to what Darling-hammond et al. (2017) state that effective professional development includes sustained duration. Professional development programs should be conducted in an adequate time, not in short time programs such as one-day workshops. Continuous duration feature also requires appropriate follow-up toward teacher learning as the integrated part of the professional development programs. Hence, what teachers mostly experienced does not give practical contribution in teaching and learning process since the teachers are not fully able to

implement the materials learned. As a result, it is essential for the training organizers to give more allocated time for sustainable professional development.

Teachers' Obstacles in Participating in the Learning Activities for Teacher Professional Development

According to the findings regarding factors which hindered the teachers in attending PD activities during the last 18 months, 97% of teachers have the willingness to participate more in professional development activities that they have already had. The main reason for unfulfilled demand (according to teachers) is the conflict with their work schedule. Teachers may hesitate to commit time to professional development that extends beyond the regular school day and year. Among these obstacles is the rigid structure of teachers' work days, which allows too little time for individual and collaborative work toward instructional improvement (Birman, Desimone, Garet, Porter, & Yoon, 2001). Also, teachers who have high teaching burden and high administrative work might also be reluctant and unwilling to commit in professional development (Yuwono, 2005).

Furthermore, the high prices of PD become an obstacle for them to participate more. High quality professional development is expensive, perhaps more than twice the amount that districts typically spend per teacher (Birman et al., 2001). Given the high costs, it may be wise to invest in a core community of teacher leaders who are willing to share their learning with others. The lack of qualifications, experiences, or seniority also prevents them from attending PD activities. It is widely prevalent in Indonesia that teachers who have more experiences and rank will get more chances to participate the PD activities. The other reason deals with unsuitability of professional development offered. Garet, et al. (2001) in Ramamurthy (2015) stated that good professional development needs to foster coherence. Professional development for teachers often appears random, haphazard and disconnected from other professional development opportunities they encounter. If professional development is more coherent and streamlined, it is more likely to be implemented effectively.

Another reason is the lack of information they got about the availability of professional

development learning activities. It seems that teachers need to be independently pro-active to search the information about the available seminar, training, or workshop and to register to those activities and not to rely on school's calls like they get used to. Because of their businesses, it seems that the teachers are not fully aware of the updated information regarding the professional development learning activities.

Conclusions

Listing from the most to the least, the professional development activities that the English teachers participate in are teacher professional development, courses, workshops, seminars, and conferences. The topics of these activities vary and are related to subject matter, methods and/or other education-related topics among which namely 2013 Curriculum, test development, national examination, classroom management, syllabus development, and instructional media. The teachers also have observations visits to other schools and mentoring and/ or peer observation and coaching, individual or collaborative research and qualification programs, reading professional literature such as journals, evidence-based papers, thesis papers, as well as references related to the teaching and learning, and having a university-school partnership.

On the concern of teachers' perception toward the learning activities regarding their professional development, there are three points the researchers can state. First, teachers were able to identify their needs to improve their professionalism. They stated that it is necessary for them to improve the skills of using ICT for teaching, managing the classroom, instructional practices, classroom and school management as well as administration, standards of content and performance in English, teaching in a setting of multicultural, special needs, and students counseling. Second, teachers perceived that knowing the professional development purpose is beneficial, but it is not the foremost concern as long as they join the activities seriously. What is more important is the length of professional development activities. It is the third point of the perception in which they believed that the longer the activities are, the more beneficial that they will gain.

The obstacles experienced by the teachers to participate in the professional development activities are the schedule, high payment of some TPD activities, family's responsibilities, employer support, unsuitability of the offered professional development program, and lack of information about the availability of professional development activities. However, despite the obstances above that hinder them, most of the teachers are willing to develop their professional development because they realize that teachers are learners for the whole of their life and career. Therefore, the researchers can conclude that the English teachers in this context committed themselves to grow through professional learning. Based on these conclusions, further researchers are expected to study the remain things to explore for instance the underlying theories of these conclusions or to conduct a similar study in a different context to gain comparative perspectives.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRE OF TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Part 1

Background Information

1. Please state your gender.

   ☐ Male   ☐ Female

2. Please state your age.

   ☐ <25   ☐ 25-29   ☐ 30-39   ☐ 40-49   ☐ 50-59   ☐ 60+

3. As a teacher, what is your employment status?

   ☐ Full-timer (PNS/Non PNS)

   ☐ Part-timer (50-90% of full time hours)

4. Do you teach at other schools?

   ☐ Yes

   ☐ No (Proceed to question 6)

5. If your answer to question 4 is 'Yes', please kindly mention the number of schools you are teaching at.

   State in number:

   ☐

6. What is the completed highest formal education level of yours?

   ☐ Diploma 2

   ☐ Diploma 3

   ☐ Bachelor Degree (S1)

   ☐ Master (S2)

   ☐ Doctor/Ph.D (S3)

7. In the weekdays, please estimate the hours you spend on the following list for the school you are working for.

   The following list is only for the work you do at your primary school, not for any other schools.

   a. ☐ Teaching students (whole class, group, or individual).

   b. ☐ Creating a plan or preparing the class (including giving a mark on the students' work).

   c. ☐ Doing administrative duties.

   d. ☐ Other (please specify) : _____

8. How long have you been a teacher (in the year)?

   ☐ <1   ☐ 1-2   ☐ 3-5   ☐ 6-10   ☐ 11-15   ☐ 16-20   ☐ >20

9. How long have you been a teacher at this school (in the year)?

	<1	1-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	>20

Teacher Professional Development

10. Please kindly state your participation in any of the following events of professional development and their impacts on your teaching development by checking on the boxes.

	Participation			Impact		
	Yes	No	No	Small	Moderate	Large
a. Course/workshops (e.g. on subject matter or methods and/or other education-related topics.						
b. Education conferences or seminars.						
c. Qualification program.						
d. Observation visits to other schools.						
e. Participation in a teacher network specifically formed for teacher's professional development.						
f. Personal or group research on a certain topic of interest.						
g. Mentoring and/or peer observation and coaching, as a part of a formal school arrangement.						
h. Other (please state) _____						

11. In summary, how many hours did you spend to attend professional development events during the last 18 months?

    Write zero (0) if it's none. If your answer is zero (0), please proceed to question 15.

    | | | hours

12. How much did you have to pay personally for the professional development in the last 18 months?

    [ ] None   [ ] Some   [ ] All

13. During the last 18 months, did you use to have a schedule of the professional development that took place your regular work hours?

    [ ] Yes   [ ] No

14. During the last 18 months, did you receive an additional salary for taking the professional development activities?

    [ ] Yes   [ ] No

15. During the last 18 months, did you participate in less formal developments and how was the impact on your teacher's development?

	Participation			Impact		
	Yes	No	No	Small	Moderate	Large
a. Reading professional literature (e.g. journals, evidence-based papers, thesis papers).						

b. Engaging in informal discussion with colleagues to improve teaching.

c. Other (please state)
_____

16. Personally thinking, how do you indicate the extent to which you are in need of the following list?

	No need	Low need	Moderate need	High need
a. Content and performance standards in my main subject field(s).				
b. Student assessment practices.				
c. Classroom management.				
d. Knowledge and understanding of my main subject field(s).				
e. Knowledge and understanding of instructional practices (knowledge mediation) in my main subject field(s).				
f. ICT skills for teaching.				
g. Teaching students with special needs.				
h. Student discipline and behavior problems.				
i. School management and administration.				
j. Teaching in a multicultural setting.				
k. Student counseling				
l. Other (please state) _____				

17. In the last 18 months, did you wish to join more professional development than you had done?

☐ Yes   ☐ No

18. If your answer for question number 17 is 'Yes', please choose the following reasons that might be the best explanation for preventing you from joining more professional development than you had done?

☐ I did not have the pre-requisites (e.g. qualifications, experiences, seniority).

☐ It was too expensive for me to afford to join professional development.

☐ I did not receive enough support from the employer.

☐ The professional development schedule conflicted my regular schedule at work.

☐ I did not have sufficient time as I have responsibilities of my family.

☐ The professional developments offered did not match my field of work.

☐ Other (please state) _____

Part 2:

Please answer the following open-ended questions regarding your teacher professional development activities.

1. In general, can you tell about TPD activities that you have participated in?

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

2. Please pick one type of teacher professional development activity which you think as having large impact in the part 1 of the questionnaire.

   _____

   Do you have any reasons of choosing this particular type of teacher professional development activity?

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

3. Do you think that a particular type of TPD activity is more likely to make/help you to learn? Please give examples based on your experience and tell these types/kinds of TPD activities make/help you to learn.

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

   _____

4. What were the features of teacher development activities that helped you to learn?

   _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

5. Are you well informed of the underlying objectives/purposes or assumptions of the teacher professional development activities you were participated? If yes, did it help you in your learning? In what ways? If not, do you think it is helpful or useful to know the underlying objectives/purposes of the activities you were participated in?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Teacher's Job Performance on Teaching English for Young Learners

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Abstract

The teacher who understands the cognitive and social processes of second language acquisition for Teaching English for Young Learners (TEYL) is better in creating a fun, positive environment. This paper presents the results of survey conducted with the fifth semester students of English Education study program of teachers training and Education faculty at Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang on the levels of competency in pedagogy expected for teachers in schools. A descriptive qualitative technique is used to collect data from the 79 respondents. Four aspects were chosen to be examined to discover the skill levels students thought to be essential for effective teaching, namely planning and preparation for learning, classroom management, delivery instruction and monitoring, assessment and follow up. The results show that 77% of trainee students are effective in teaching, only 14% of them are highly effective in teaching, 10% of them are need improvement in teaching, and none of them do not meet standard in teaching. In sum up, it can be concluded that most of trainee students are effective in planning and preparation for learning, classroom management, and delivery instruction but need improvement in doing monitoring, assessment and follow up during the teaching simulation.

Keywords: *planning and preparation for learning, classroom management, delivery instruction and monitoring, assessment and follow up*

Introduction

The number of English language programmes, courses and lessons for children is increasing at a high rate nowadays. Indonesia governments introduce English language programmes earlier and earlier at primary schools and there are several kindergartens that offer their children English language classes already during their pre-school years. Introducing English in preschool and primary school years is a general trend though the phenomenon has both supporters and opponents. The aim of this research is neither to justify, nor to oppose the idea of teaching foreign languages to children at an early age. Yet, specify to the teachers trainee who prepare the English language teaching for children.

Primary language teaching is a unique and dynamic ongoing learning experience, not only for children but for the teacher as well. The very first years of language learning have an enormous influence on the following years; it has an impact on the motivation and general approach of language learners to learning the particular foreign language. Therefore, teaching English to young learners involves great responsibility and important challenges.

Teaching children is a very broad term since "child" and "childhood" cannot be fixed into strict age brackets. However, it is crucial to clarify what we mean by the concept of "young learners" in terms of English language teaching. Young learners have been defined by a variety of scholars and researchers, focusing mainly on children of pre-school and primary school ages. Even within this definition there are differences from country to country.

Pinter (2011) divides young learners into three groups. The first is children who start pre-school at about the age of three, the second is the group of children who start primary school at around the age of 5-7 and finish primary school 11 or 12, although in some countries it happens at around the age of 13 or 14. Pinter calls children from the age of 13 onwards "early adolescents".

In Indonesia, children usually start their primary school education at the age of 6 or 7 and finish at around the age of 12 or 13, whereas primary schooling is often divided into lower primary and upper primary years. It means that at the age of 13 children are still in their primary school years and do not change to secondary or high school yet. Of course, the variation in school types and ages shows a complex picture across different countries.

Cameron (2001) defines young learners as "those between five and twelve years of age". Scott and Ytreberg (1990) understand young learners as "pupils (…) between five and ten or eleven years old". Of course, there is a big difference between a five-year old child and an eleven-year

old. Nevertheless, children develop differently, their pace and approach can vary. Some of them achieve goals more quickly, others more slowly, however, they can catch up with the former after a certain period of time.

In order to maximize learning and provide support and challenge in learning, it is crucial for the teacher to be well-informed about the learner. It is vital to have information about the physical, emotional, conceptual and educational characteristics of the young learner and consider certain issues and views on how children think and learn.

Theoretical Framework

1. General Approaches to Teaching Young Learners

Young learners have a variety of skills and characteristic features that help them learn a foreign language. Halliwell (1992) points out several qualities of young learners that she considers really useful for language learning. She claims that children are already very good at interpreting meaning without understanding, the individual words, can use limited language in a creative way, learn indirectly rather than directly, tend to find and create fun in what they do, have a wonderful imagination and have a great delight in talking.

Moreover, *Brewster, Ellis and Girard* (2002) examine English language learning policies at primary level from different perspectives and claim that as an initial point it is necessary to underline that teaching English to young learners is part of a wider picture of a policy for foreign language learning. Brewster, Ellis and Girard claim that the most important conditions are the following:

a. Teaching English to young learners should be properly planned, based on the discussions and experiences of other countries which have succeeded in it already. Teachers, educators, curriculum designers, material writers and other specialists connected with the given field must have a clear idea of the goals, objectives and outcomes of the teaching process.

b. Adequate resources must be provided by governments and private institutions in order to ensure that there are optimal conditions for teaching English to young learners. This means that there must be material resources, optimal coursebooks, classroom aids as well as trained teachers and teacher educators.

c. The evaluation of the learning outcomes after a certain period of teaching must be carried out in order to provide information on the validity of the teaching.

The above criteria and conditions set a very general framework to teaching English to young learners, it highlights the importance of a thoughtful policy and physical environment of teaching and emphasizes the need for qualified teachers and professionals. However, it does not go into details when setting the objectives of teaching, the applied methods and techniques. This leads to the fact that different countries have different language programmes and policy documents. Fortunately, more and more countries seem to realize that the aim of language teaching should be more complex than simply teaching language structures or fulfilling an officially pre-set goal.

Brewster, Ellis and Girard (2002) identify three major areas within the aims of teaching languages to young learners: psychological preparation, linguistic preparation and cultural preparation. They understand that language is not an isolated set of structures, but should be understood in a context, and they also seem to note that the young learner has specific characteristic features that need to be respected. Learning to communicate in a foreign language, therefore, involves raising the child's awareness of the mother tongue and the foreign language, developing a positive attitude to language learning and the foreign language itself as well, and helping young learners discover and develop a positive attitude to the culture the given foreign language embodies.

Other studies have pointed the essentail pillar in teaching young learners in Indonesia , Musthafa (2010) stated five pillar essentail requirement for effective teaching English to young learners : 1. Accomplished teachers of English should know who children are ; 2. Accomplished teachers of English should know how children learn ; 3. Accomplished teachers of English should know how children learn a language ; 4. Accomplished teachers of English should know how children learn English as a Foreign Language ; 5. Accomplished teachers of English should know the principles and should be able to do things to facilitate children learning English as a foreign language in Indonesia.

Though teaching a foreign language to young learners requires a lot of theoretical background and a prepared and well-informed teacher, children do not consider language learning as a mere intellectual activity. Phillips (1993: 7) argues that "As a general rule, it can be assumed that the younger the children are, the more holistic learners they will be. Younger learners respond to language according to what it does or what they can do with it, rather than treating it as an intellectual game or abstract system." The main emphasis from

children's perspective should be placed on practice; the language learning process should have a practical and meaningful aim.

We can help children learn English more effectively, if what we do with them is meaningful, purposeful and enjoyable. Most activities for the younger learners should include plenty of movement and involve the senses. The teacher needs to involve a lot of visuals, pictures, objects and posters. Playfulness should be the key word when describing the teacher's approach. Playing with the language is a natural way of learning a foreign language for young learners. Since concentration and attention spans are short, especially at the early stages of language learning, a variety is a must a variety of activities, a variety of classroom organization, a variety of space, and of course a variety of techniques and methods.

2. *Practical Tips for Teaching Young Learners*

The aims of teaching English to young learners should include the following:

a. to encourage open-mindedness and tolerance by learning different
b. ways of thinking and learning.
c. to improve creativity.
d. to improve cognitive skills and support abstract thinking.

When choosing a task or an activity for young language learners, several aspects should be taken into consideration. Cameron (2001) lists six task demands placed on the student, which she considers as the key to assess whether the particular task or activity is suitable for the student or not, which also helps the teacher evaluate its learning potential. The six types of task demands are cognitive, language, interactional, metalinguistic, involvement and physical.

a. *Cognitive demands* – these are demands connected with concepts and understanding the outside world. the very end. It includes the length of the task or activity, the students' interests and concerns, suspense and novelty.
b. *Physical demands* – It is important to check whether an activity requires students to sit still or it offers some opportunities for movement. Physical demands also include the usage of fine motor skills, i.e. writing and drawing. The teacher has to check the chosen tasks and activities from the point of view of the above demands and has to examine them in terms of student needs.

The above list can be extended by several other principles and assumptions. Teachers usually generate their own ideas about teaching and learners in many different ways. First, they remember their own experiences from childhood, secondly, they gain information during their teacher training, thirdly, they gain experience in the classroom, where they can reflect on their activities, children behaviour or they can have discussions with colleagues. Finally, teachers can gain further knowledge by professional development and further training and development.

3. *Principle for Teacher Assessment and Evaluation*

Wiggins (1993) says that good assessing will give beneficial to good teaching. The notion that assessment serves as a learning process for students, peers, and teachers was highlighted by Veal (1995), who said that when assessment is part of the teaching and learning phase of instruction, its primary purpose should be to provide feedback to students and the teacher. The relationship has been described as a "three-way connection between teaching, testing, and learning; assessment can inform instruction" (Anderson & Goode, 1997, p. 48). Assessment of student learning provides teachers with information about their effectiveness and gives direction for future lessons (Dejong, Kokinakis, & Kuntzleman, 2002). As mentioned by Gallo, et.al (2006), they say that without assessment, there is a "missing link" in the chain connecting teacher effectiveness to improvements in student performance. After spending time planning, providing instruction, and refining skills, the assessment of student learning completes the experience for the learner and the teacher.

Based on National Education Association, when assessment of teacher practices is transparant and openly collaborative, teachers can build professional communities and learn from one another. This process can only occur in non-threatening environment of formative assessment and growth. Moreover, teachers need clear and actionable feedback based on standards for teaching and student learning that are comprehensive and transparant and on criterion-referenced assessments of teacher practice.

Teachers' engagement in formative, ongoing assessment to improve their practice should involve neither threat of punishment nor promise of reward. Assessments should occur on a regular basis. Formative assessments should also facilitate interaction and feedback among colleagues. They should allow peers, mentors, and professional coaches to provide teachers with feedback about their practice and engage teachers in learning processes that are free from employment-related decisions. Formative assessments may also use student learning

measures to inform teachers of student progress and thereby help to improve student learning.

Furthermore, at the end of teacher practice performance need to be evaluated by summative assessment. Summative evaluations of performance for the purpose of authorizing continued employment should occur at appropriate time intervals that comply with local bargaining agreements or state statutes. Where collective bargaining does not exist, criteria for summative evaluations should be developed cooperatively with administrators, teachers, and teacher associations. Summative evaluations must be based on a clear set of performance standards that are identical to standards used in the ongoing formative process. They must employ a rubric of criterion-referenced assessments, in which teachers either do or do not meet acceptable standards of practice. Teachers who fail to meet acceptable standards should be offered professional development, remediation plans, and opportunities to observe peers. They should also be given sufficient time, support, and assistance toward meeting the standards.

Marshall (2014) designs a teacher evaluation rubric for teacher practice performance who has six domains covering all aspects of a teacher's job performance, they are 1) planning and preparation for learning, 2) classroom management, 3) delivery of instruction, 4) monitoring, assessment and follow up, 5) family and community outreach and 6) professional responsibilities. Those six domains use a four-level rating scale:

4 – *Highly Effective* – Master teacher performance that meets very demanding criteria

3 – *Effective* – Solid, expected professional performance; teachers should feel good about scoring at this level

2 – *Improvement Necessary* – Performance is mediocre; no teacher should be content to remain at this level

1 – *Does Not Meet Standards* – Unacceptable performance leading to an improvement plan, intensive support, and, if improvement isn't made within a reasonable amount of time, dismissal

These rubrics aim to provide a shared definition of the work teachers do with students and colleagues. To gather the information needed to fill out the rubrics at the end of supervisors' observations throughout teaching performance.

The researchers adapted this rubrics of teacher's job performance which will give information whether teacher practice performace is highly effective, effective, important

necesary need improvement or does not meet standard. The researcher adapts only four domains of the rubrics because it is used to measure teacher performance of the teachers trainnee. Domain five and six can't be measured for them. They only do the teaching practicum.

Research Method

Research method that is used in this paper is qualitative. As Fraenkel & Wallen (2007) state that qualitative researchers go directly to the particular setting of interest to observe and collect their data. Here, the researchers as lecturers who observe the students in teaching English for young learners class. This research has been conducted at Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang which is located at Jl. Perintis Kemerdekaan I/33 Cikokol Kota Tangerang- Indonesia. The researchers selected this location because the students at Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang are prepared to be English teachers. In this research, the data was focused on teacher's job performance on teaching English for young learners. The participants in this research are the students of fifth semester of Muhammadiyah University of Tangerang consist of 79 students. Four aspects were chosen to be examined to discover the skill levels students thought to be essential for effective teaching, namely planning and preparation for learning, classroom management, delivery instruction and monitoring, assessment and follow up.

The validity of data in qualitative method is based on credibility, transferability, dependability, and conformability. The reliability of data in this research is based on construct dependability and certainty criteria come from objectivity concept.

The data collecting instruments are document and observation. The data included facts found in the document, the observation, and the analysis of teacher's job performance on teaching English for young learners.

Research Findings and Discussions

The study investigated the teacher's job performance of 79 teacher trainees from three classes. They study English for young learners in the fifth semester.

Based on the teacher's job performance rubric from Marshall (2014), the findings show that there were four domains examined in this research: 1) planning and preparation for learning, 2) classroom management, delivery instruction, and 4) monitoring, assessment and follow up.

1. *Planning and preparation for learning*

   In planning and preparation for learning, most of students of teacher trainee are preparing well the lesson plan. The very first thing to consider when planning a learning experience is what exactly intends the students to learn. Teaching and learning activities, content creation and assessment all stem from these initial ideas.

   a) Consider what the overall objectives for the subject are.

   b) How do the subject's objectives fit into the overall educational aims and graduate profile (you may wish to look at other subjects in the course to find out how yours is placed overall).

   c) What do the aims mean, in terms of what you expect students to achieve in the subject and at what level.

   d) What learning, teaching and assessment activities will help students to achieve the subject aims.

   In short, preparation and planning are a critical component of effective teaching. Therefore, the lack of preparation and planning will lead to failure. If anything, every teacher should be over prepared. Good teachers are almost in a continuous state of preparation and planning. They are always thinking about the next lesson. The impact of preparation and planning is tremendous on student learning.

2. *Classroom management*

   Classroom management is a process that allows teachers to control the learning and direction of their classroom. Here, the finding shows that teacher trainee used to do classroom management to keep students focused on learning while preventing disruption from slowing the learning process. A wide range of classroom management techniques are used by them, ranging from hands-off classroom management focused on cooperation to direction of the class to ensure students are not disruptive to their peers. They use plenty of visual aids; they help children understand language before knowing or using it.

   The teacher trainee emphasis on oral activities – speaking and listening – rather than writing and reading. With very young learners (from about 3 to 7 years) listening activities should take up a large proportion of class time so that the children can get a large proportion of language input. They start with simple vocabulary, just words, not

sentences. The teacher trainee introduced sentences gradually to make sure the children understand the language.

Since Children have a short attention span; they will not follow the activity if it is too long and complicated the teacher trainee manage this situation by doing shorter activities and try to involve plenty of physical movement in the activities.

3. *Delivery instruction*

To create the enjoyable classroom for kids, the teacher trainees have to prepare the lesson plans, especially in delivering instruction during the class. In the beginning of the lesson the trainee teachers state the classroom rules, what subject they will teach and what activities they will do. They use body language, facial expressions, mimics, gestures as often as possible to make the lessons more enjoyable and understandable, but also help avoid immediate translation. They try to focus less on grammar and more on communication practice. Vary instructional methods and compliments and small prize for the students who can answer well are needed to maintain students attention. Children have very clear sense of fairness.When giving some task to do, the teacher trainee involve themselves by moving arounds to see what the students are doing. At the end of the lesson, the teacher trainee summarize the lesson by focusing the students'enthusiatic. The activities should be as simple as possible so that the children can understand them.

Instructions should be clear and straightforward so that the children understand what is expected from them. The handicap in delivery instruction is not to giving a chance to all students to be active. Some teachers did not call the students randomly and give enough time to response. Some teachers gave opportunity to the smart sudents only. This condition made the teaching atmosphere distrupted. The effective delivery instruction reflect how a good teacher he/she is.

4. *Monitoring, assessment and follow up*

Most of the teacher trainee found difficulties in monitoring, assesment and follow up. This step actually is the most significant phase in learning proces, because it gives impact to know the students' understanding and achievement. It is related to Gallo, et.al (2006), stated that without assessment, there is a "missing link" in the chain connecting teacher effectiveness to improvements in student performance. Teaching young learners needs more media to make the teaching atmosphere more enjoyable and good achievement. Having a routine, children need to be familiar with certain actions, repeated motives, tasks or characters, so that they know what to expect and feel

comfortable. The teacher trainee still used a few of medias in giving monitoring assesment and follow up phase. They prefer to use games, songs, stories to make the lesson more enjoyable and fun.Applying effective method and working with the rubric is needed to check the students'understanding. In a very short teaching simulation, most of the teacher trainnee didn't give back the students' task by correcting the mistakes as one of follow up activities.

Conclusions and Suggestions

Conclusions

The results show that 77% of trainee students are effective in teaching, only 14% of them are highly effective in teaching, 10% of them are need improvement in teaching, and none of them do not meet standard in teaching. Meanwhile, the other result of the study prevailed that the teacher trainees felt least competent assesment and follow up.

Considering vary kind of activities frequently, children need to be involved and must be kept attentive, otherwise they start fidgeting or become distracted. It is related to Philips's statement (1993: 7) classroom management for young children the language learning process should have a practical and meaningful aim. Moreever, it is one of the most fundamental aspects of high quality education and lead classes on track and the learning process run smoothly. Therefore, a teacher must have an excellent classroom management and the ability to keep your entire classroom focused on achieving its objectives and academically productive.

In monitoring, assesment and follow up, giving tasks should be within the young learners abilities, they should be achievable but at the same time sufficiently stimulating for them to feel satisfied with their work in the end of each lesson.

In sum up, it can be concluded that most of trainee students are effective in planning and preparation for learning, classroom management, and delivery instruction but need improvement in doing monitoring, assessment and follow up during the teaching simulation.

The highest presentage in effectiveness in teaching revealed that most of them know the content of the curriculum and what to do in teaching learning process. It Indicated they understand the first and the second pillar in teaching young learner, they know the character of the student, and know the teaching approach for the young learners. (Musthafa , 2010).

Suggestions

Based on the result of research findings and discussions, here are following suggestions that might be considered by the English young learner teachers:

1. Go slowly, take into consideration the principle of "less is more" – do less language items within a longer period of time. Children should be given positive experience of language learning and must feel that foreign language is manageable and can be learnt in a funny and enjoyable way so that they stay motivated for the later stages of learning.

2. Respect your students and be realistic about what they can manage and have realistic expectations from them.

3. Like your students equally – show them you care and do not have blue-eyed boys or girls, do not show that you prefer certain children.

4. Always be organized, well-prepared and have a plan. Children feel more secure if they know that the teacher is reliable, s/he knows what s/he is doing and is reliable.

5. Do not give children English names or change their names in any other way. They should be allowed to keep their identity and names no matter what other language they are using.

6. End the lesson with a quiet activity to calm the children down for their next lesson.

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Phonetic Changes and Syntactic Patterns of the Porohanon Dialect

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Abstract

A dialect gives people a view of the standard language and its study helps in the understanding of its usage and its direction of change. According to Trudgill (2004), dialect has something to do with the social and geographical origins of a speaker. It is along this premise that this study was conducted. It analyzed the Porohanon dialect spoken by the people in the island of Poro, Camotes Cebu. Poro, the center of Camotes is the only town in the island that speaks a slightly different dialect called Porohanon while the rest of its towns use the Cebuano language. Specifically, this study focused on identifying the phonetic changes and the dominant syntactic patterns present in the mentioned dialect. The study's main data were gathered from recorded spontaneous conversations of participants which were later on transcribed and further analyzed. The participants were grouped into four, namely: teenagers, elderly locals, working adults such as teachers and police officers, and local market vendors. Results revealed that the Porohanon dialect underwent most of the phonetic changes presented by Crowley (1997). Strengthening or Fortition and Sound Weakening specifically Apheresis, Syncope, Apocope, and Rhotacism and Sound Addition like Epenthesis and Prosthesis were just some of the phonetic changes that

were evident in the data. Moreover, the syntactic patterns of the syntactic patterns of the Porohanon dialect were analyzed using the framework of Nolasco (2015). Data showed that the patterns were only P-S, S-P and P-A-O clausal structures. Additionally, although the Porohanon dialect underwent most of the phonetic changes mentioned by Crowley (1997), and that three of the five syntactic patterns asserted by Nolasco (2015) surfaced in the data, the dialect is not quite different from that of Cebuano. It can be said that Porohanon dialect is a variation of Cebuano. This study recommends that in order to further identify the characteristics of a dialect variation, suprasegmental processes such as pitch and tone of voice will be included in the analysis. Also, phonological as well as lexical variations should be studied because these are clear markers of a regional dialect.

Keywords: phonetic changes, syntactic patterns, dialect variation, sociolinguistics

Introduction

A dialect is a combination of words, pronunciations and grammatical forms that people share with others from an area and social background. Usually this combination differs in certain ways from those used by people from other areas and backgrounds. According to Trudgill (2004), a dialect has something to do with the social and geographical origins of a speaker and that everybody speaks it. This makes the study of dialects interesting because any study of it may provide help in understanding how the speakers of the dialect use it including who uses it, with whom and on what instances these dialects are used. Also, its study could provide information on language change – how the dialect evolves. Admittedly, languages change over time; however, certain patterns, grammatical rules or usages could remain the same. While every naturally used language variety has a system, with regular rules and restrictions at the lexical, phonological and grammatical level as viewed by linguists (Rickford, 2002), non-linguists have a different take. Oftentimes, these non-linguists may think that a dialect does not have any rules, and that it is simply a result of a speaker's laziness, carelessness, or cussedness (Rickford, 2002). It is along this premise that this study has been embarked on.

One particular speech community that interested the researchers of this study is the Porohanons located in the island of Poro, Camotes. Porohanons, the people of Poro, speak the Porohanon dialect and Sugbuanong Binisaya (as an alternate language). Poro, the center of Camotes, is the only town in the Camotes Islands that speaks the Porohanon dialect. Other towns in Camotes like San Francisco use the Sugbuanong Binisaya language. Wolff (1967) in

his study said that the Camotes dialect is essentially identifiable as either the dialect of Cebu or of Western Leyte. This is attributed to the fact that the Camotes islands are situated halfway between Cebu and Leyte. Further, he found out that the ancestors of many Cebuano-speaking families in Camotes were immigrants from Cebu, Leyte, and Bohol. Interestingly, Porohanon dialect is remarkably distinguished by the way locals profusely substitute /j/ sounds with /z/, for instance: Cebuano's *maayong buntag* is vocalized as *maazong buntag [maazŏŋ bʊntag]* making it different from the dialect spoken by the other towns in the island. This dialectal variation could be due to the geographical position of the town. Poro town is situated in a way that mountains and seas form as its barriers resulting to limited communication between this community and the other people from the other towns. This can be one of the reasons why Porohanon dialect is spoken only in the town of Poro and not all over the island.

Wolff (1967) claimed that before Cebuano-Bisaya became the dialect spoken in the island, it had a dialect that was more of a Samar-Leyte Bisaya. He further explained that the Porohanon dialect, in its earlier stage differs from Cebuano-Bisaya in that (1) it retains older features which Cebuano lost, and that (2) it makes innovations which Cebuano did not make". However, the researchers of this study wanted to describe the features of the dialect with the belief that it is more of a Cebuano-Bisaya variety than Samar-Leyte Bisaya. Additionally, this research was aimed at contributing to studies on Cebuano language – to provide descriptions of the other variants of the Cebuano language and to make use of its findings as one of the bases in the creation of mother tongue-based instructional materials especially that it is only in the recent years that mother-tongue-based instruction is introduced in the Philippine Educational system.   Creators of instructional materials using Cebuano-Bisaya should understand better the issues surrounding the dialect – its phonology, grammar, construction markers and even syntactic patterns – in order to help the teachers and learners more.

Literature Review

A dialect is a variation of a standard language spoken by a group of people. It can be characterized by these features: vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar (Shareah, Badri, & Ayman, 2015). Much interest has now been afforded to studies on dialectal variation making it a significant topic of research in the field of sociolinguistics. In order to fully understand a dialect, Rickford (2002) gave insights on what to focus when studying variations of a language. The first premise says that every naturally used language variety is systematic, with regular rules and restrictions at the lexical, phonological and grammatical level. A dialect is not born

out of a speaker's choice to create words. Regardless of the dialect, it always is rule-governed. Otherwise, if there are no rules to follow, no mutual intelligibility between speakers is achieved (Rickford, 2002); and definitely communication does not take place. The second premise is the primary attention given to spoken words rather than the written form. Apparently, written language omits valuable information such as pronunciation and sound system of a language (Rickford, 2002) that is why it is imperative that to study dialectal variation is to focus on the dialect's spoken form. This is the reason behind this study's focus on the spoken language of the Porohanon people rather than on their written language. Another aspect to consider in doing dialect variation research is to acknowledge peculiarity and difference of usage among speakers of the dialect. In this particular study, the researchers created groups among the participants based on the common people living on the island. However, this is not to show what particular group uses the dialect differently but only to make the gathering of data easier. These important premises are necessary in this study because they pointed out the direction when studying the Porohanon dialect.

With this information at hand, this study focused on two aspects surrounding dialect variations namely: the phonetic and syntactic aspects.

Crowley's (1997) Framework on Phonetic Changes

One important aspect to consider in studying dialect variation is its phonetic changes. These changes could involve vowels or consonants or even supra segmental units such as rhythm, stress or intonation (McMahon, 1994:14). Crowley's (1997) classification of phonetic changes was used to analyze the phonetic features of the studied dialect.

The first classification of phonetic change is called strengthening, otherwise known as fortition. **Strengthening** takes place when a sound is made stronger such as when a voiceless sound becomes voiced. In a study about the Boholano dialect done by Endriga (2008), she concluded that there are phonological variations present in the Cebuano language. Her study of the Boholanon dialect presented a phonological variation called free variation. Free variation is when there is an alternative pronunciation of a word that does not affect the word's meaning. In the Boholano dialect, the sound /j/ becomes /ʤ/ as in the case of *bayi [bƏɟI]* (girl) to *[bƏʤI]*. This sound evidently distinguishes the Boholano dialect from the Cebuano-Bisaya. Endriga (2008) further said that "/j/ and /ʤ/ cannot be in all environments. It can only become /ʤ/ when it is in syllable-intial position." Another classification is **weakening** or lenition which alters a voiced sound to a voiceless consonant. In extreme case of weakening, the sound is lost or

deleted.   This study identifies five kinds; namely, apheresis, syncope, apocope, rhotacism and contraction. In **apheresis**, there is loss of an initial sound, usually an unstressed vowel. Some examples are *specially* (from *especially*), *spy* (from *espy*) and *hora* (Spanish dialect for now from *ahora*). For **syncope**, there is a loss of one or more sounds in the medial position as illustrated in the following examples c*am[e]ra*, *fam[i]ly*, and choc[*o*]late. Moreover, **apocope** happens when there is a loss of a word-final vowel such as an example in the Cebuano-Bisaya language *"wa"* from the original word *"wala" w*hich means "none" or "nothing". Another example is that of "*sticca"* (and Old English word) which now becomes "*stick".* Additionally, there is **rhotacism** *w*hich converts one consonant (usually a voiced alveolar consonant: /z/, /d/, /l/, or /n/) to a rhotic consonant in a certain environment. For example, in the Cebuano-Bisaya language, the phrase 'ali dinhi' becomes 'ari diri' which means 'come here'. Lastly, there is **contraction** which happens when a word is shortened or when two words are combined. To illustrate, in the Cebuano expression "Nindot *kaayos* tanan" which means 'It's very beautiful!', the word 'kaayos' is a contracted form of the words 'kaayo' (very) and the marker 'sa'. This example is explained further by Enricuso (2016) when he said that contraction may take place when the marker /sa/ is attached to its preceding word consequently dropping the final sound /a/.

While loss or deletion is a common sound change, it is also common that sounds are added rather than dropped. Crowley (1997) identified this particular phonetic change as sound addition. He classified them as epenthesis and prosthesis. In **Epenthesis,** a change happens when a vowel is added in the middle of a word to break up two consonants in a cluster. An example for this is /æ m t i g/, an Old English word for empty which in Modern English is known as /æ m p t i/. A kind of epenthesis is a **Paragoge** whereby the addition of a sound happens at the end of a word as in the case of *amid* to amid*st*. The other type of sound addition is the one commonly known as **Prothesis** wherein the addition of a sound is at the beginning of a word. Take for instance the case of the English word *station* which becomes *istasyon* in the Tagalog language. Another example is the Latin word *scala* (ladder), which in Spanish is changed to *escala*. The addition of 'e' is in the beginning of the word.

Another classification of phonetic change that is used as reference for this study is **metathesis** which illustrates a change in the order of two sounds in a word. Two or more sounds swap places in a word. For example, the English word '*ask*' is pronounced as '*aks*' by most African American group. In the Cebuano-Bisaya language, the word *'trabaho'* (job) is sometimes pronounced as *'tarbaho'*.

Nolasco's (2015) Framework on Syntactic Patterns

While the present study identifies the phonetic changes that occurred in the Porohanon dialect, another equally important aspect which is the dialect's syntactic patterns is closely looked into. Studies that determine syntactic patterns of a dialect or a language provide evidence of the history or family of that particular dialect being studied. The English language typically has a clausal structure of Subject-Verb-Complement whereby the construction is *subject initial*. In contrast, according to Nolasco (2015), the clausal structure of Cebuano-Bisaya is typically *predicate initial (P-S);* yet there are other structures that a Cebuano-Bisaya could be said. These structures are the following: S-P (subject-predicate) as exemplified in the sentence *Si Sarah nikanta* (Sarah sings.), P-A-O (predicate-agent-object) such as *Mipalit si Huwan ug itlog* (John buys an egg.), A-P-O (agent-predicate-agent) like *Si Huwan mipalit ug itlog* (John buys an egg.), and lastly, A-O-P (agent-object-predicate) as illustrated by the example *Ayaw ninyo ni hilabti* (Do not touch this.). Since Porohanon dialect is claimed by Wolff (1967) to be more of a Samar-Bisaya than a Cebuano-Bisaya, it is imperative for the researchers to also investigate its structure in order to provide substantial empirical data of the dialect's lineage.

Research Questions

This study attempted to analyze the Porohanon dialect, spoken in Poro, Camotes, as a variation of the Cebuano language. Specifically, it answered the following questions:

1. Using Crowley's (1997) framework, what phonetic changes are found in the Porohanon dialect, and,
2. What syntactic patterns are evident in the Porohanon dialect as presented by Nolasco (2015)?

Methods

The study used a descriptive research design because it analyzed the phonetic changes and syntactic patterns of the Porohanon dialect in the island of Camotes. Research data were taken from the taped discussions of the Porohanons with the researchers. Furthermore, the transcripts were analyzed and described by identifying the presence of the following: the phonetic changes using the framework of Crowley (1997) and the syntactic patterns by Nolasco (2015).

Research Data

The data were sourced from twenty (20) local residents of Poro, Camotes who had the following qualifications: a) they are originally born and still reside in Poro until now and that b) these locals have lived in Poro for more than 15 years. The researchers purposefully grouped the participants as: 1) elderly locals of Poro, 2) teenagers, 3) working adults such as teachers and police officers, and 4) local market vendors. These groups were created in order to make the data gathering easier. These groups are the common people that reside in the island. The researchers also identified representatives from each group in order to ensure all age groups contribute utterances that from part of the linguistic data.

A total of four (4) recorded conversations, one from each group of participants, served as the data of the study. The recording of each group is ten-minute long. The data consist of all the spontaneous utterances of the participants based on their insights and responses to questions during the focus group discussion. Only complete sentences in the data were included in the analysis and coding.

The topics for discussion are the following: a) for the elderly group – their way of life and experiences in their stay in Camotes, b) for the teenagers – their perception and use of social media and technology, c) for the working adults – all about their job, and lastly d) for the market vendors – their experiences in running their small scale business.

Procedures

The study used a purposive sampling procedure in selecting the participants. After permission was granted, the willing participants were gathered in a conducive place free of noise and distractions. Before the start of the actual data collection, participants were informed about the details of the study and their consent was asked. Through focus group discussion, the groups were given their assigned topics. The researchers served as moderators. Each group had a 10-minute long discussion. The recorded conversations were then transcribed, analyzed and coded. Coding sheets were used to identify the type of phonetic changes the dialect has revealed including its syntactic patterns. The first research question on phonetic changes was answered using the framework of Crowley (1997) while the second question on syntactic patterns made use of Nolasco's (2015) framework. An external reviewer who has a master's degree in Linguistics was also sought to verify thoroughly the coding of the data.

Findings and Discussion

Phonetic Changes

In this study, the researchers have found out that the Porohanon dialect, just like many other dialects, indeed underwent phonetic changes. Table 1 summarizes all the phonetic changes that the Porohanon dialect has undergone as revealed in the gathered data.

Table 1

Summary of Phonetic Changes the Porohanon Dialect

Phonetic Changes	f	%
Strengthening or Fortition	25	27.47
Weakening or Lenition		
Apheresis	7	7.69
Syncope	9	9.89
Apocope	6	6.59
Rhotacism	6	6.59
Contraction	17	18.68
Sound Addition		
Epenthesis	5	5.49
Paragoge	11	12.08
Prothesis	2	2.19
Metathesis	3	3.29
Total	91	100.00

The data above revealed that the most occurring phonetic change in the studied dialect is the Weakening/Lenition; however, among its types, it is Contraction that got the highest frequency of 17 or 18.68%. This phenomenon could be due to the fact that Weakening has been further classified; hence its total occurrences is 45. Specific sample words for each of the types are presented in Table 2 in the succeeding page. However, it is worthy to note that Strengthening, which got the second highest percentage of 27.47, is manifested in only one type of change- the strengthening of the letter 'y' which has the sound of [j] to the sound of [z]. Examples of these words are:

maayo'ng (good)	-	*maazo'ng*
minyo (marry)	-	*minzo*
lagyo (far)	-	*lagzo*
sayo (early)	-	*sazo*

To further show the specific changes along with their sample words, Table 2 is presented.

Table 2

Phonetic Changes in the Porohanon Dialect

Phonetic Changes	Description *(based on Crowley's (1997) framework)*	Original Word	Porohanon Word	Illustration
Strengthening	The consonant sound /j/ is replaced by the sound /z/.	Siya *(he/she)*	Siza	siya > siza
Sound Weakening: Apheresis	Omission of /na/ at the beginning of the word 'namatay'	Namatay *(dead)*	Matay	Namatay > *(na)*matay
Sound Weakening: Syncope	The internal sequence /in/ is deleted	Ginamos *(fermented fish)*	Gamos	Ginamos > g*(in)*amos

Sound Weakening: Apocope	Omission of /la/ at the final position of the word 'wala' (With compensatory lengthening)	Wala *(none)*	Wa	Wala > wa*(la)*
Sound Weakening: Contraction	The clitic 'g' is the only sound left in after the contraction of the word 'hikay' and the linker 'ug'	Hikay ug *(to cook)*	Hikayg	Hikay ug > hikayug > hikay*(u)*g
Sound Weakening: Rhotacism	The liquid consonant /l/ is rhotacized or becomes r-sounding between vowels	Kalsada *(street)*	Karsada	kalsada > ka*/r/*sada
Sound Addition Epenthesis: Paragoge (with lenition)	-The vowel /a/ is elided between a velar /k/ and a sibilant /s/ -/i/ is added at the end of the word	Bukas *(open)*	Buksi	Bukas > Buk(a)s > Buks+i
Sound Addition Prothesis	The sound /s/ is added at the beginning of the word	Ana *(that)*	Sana	ana > /s/+ana
Metathesis	The contiguous phonemes /m/ and /a/ switch places	Mao *(that)*	Amo	Mao > */a//m/*o

Strengthening.   As seen in the table, the changes on strengthening and weakening are present in the Porohanon dialect. While types of weakening have been frequently observed in the data, strengthening is scarce.   There is only one sample occurrence for this type of phonetic change as illustrated by the profuse usage of /z/ sound instead of the sound /j/.

Sample 1.1

(Porohanon)

Akon nakita ang pinaka **budlazan**

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Akoang nakita ang pinaka **budlayan**

(I saw the hardest)

Sample 1.2

(Porohanon)

Kadtong gagmay pa ang mga **puza**

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Katong gagmay pa ang mga **puya**/bata

(Back when the children were still young)

Sample 1.1 showed that the Cebuano word **'budlayan'**, which originally has a voiceless sound /j/, was replaced with a voiced sound /z/ and became **'budlazan'**. Likewise, the case in Sample 1.2, wherein the word '**puya**' which is equal to the word 'bata' in Cebuano, was also replaced by a voiced sound /z/. Evidently, there is an alternative pronunciation, considering the replacement of a particular sound in the dialect, but this does not affect the word's meaning.

Going back to Wolff (1967)'s discussion about the Camotes dialect, he pointed out that most families in Camotes are immigrants from Bohol, Cebu, and Leyte. In this case, the

researchers believe that the consonant sound /j/ was originally substituted by the voiced affricate [dʒ] as in 'baji' in Boholano, and then underwent lenition to a weaker voiced alveolar fricative /z/. However, in the Porohanon dialect this change can still be considered strengthening because the sound /z/ which is used to substitute the original Cebuano-Bisaya sound /j/ is a stronger sound.

It is apparent that the Porohanon dialect is bombarded by different dialects and languages, considering that it is situated halfway between Cebu and Leyte. In fact, Wolff (1967) mentioned in his study that local traditions in Camotes believed that their grandparents were immigrants from Cebu and Leyte.

Weakening-*Apheresis*: Weakening appears to be the most common phonetic change in the Porohanon dialect as revealed in the data. One of its types is Apheresis where there is a loss of one or more sounds from the beginning of a word. In the Cebuano-Bisaya language, the dropping of the initial sound is often done to lessen the impact of cursing (Enricuso, 2016).

Sample 2.1

(Porohanon)

Matay uy!

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Namatay uy!

(*It's dead)*

Sample 2.2

(Porohanon)

Nimal ka!

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Animal ka!

(*You're an animal!)*

It is evident in both Samples 2.1 and 2.2 that there is an omission of the first syllable and these omitted sounds are unstressed vowels. Sample 2.1 showed an omission of the sound /na/ at the beginning of the word 'namatay', in order to highlight the emotion being portrayed by its speaker. 'Matay uy!' is a phrase usually used when the speaker expresses surprise or has known a surprising incident. Moreover, Sample 2.2 featured an omission of the beginning vowel /a/ in the word 'animal'. This case is most common in curse words in Cebuano-Bisaya in order to lessen its negative impact and sometimes taken by its speakers as a kind of joke or should not be taken seriously.

Weakening- *Syncope*:   Another type of weakening is the syncope where there is a loss of one or more sounds in the middle of the word. The sounds that are dropped in the following examples in the succeeding page are in italic style:

Sample 3.1

(Porohanon)

Mag **gamos** kami.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Mag **gi*n*amos** kami

(We make fermented fish.)

Sample 3.2

(Porohanon)

Nay camote sa balay.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

N*a*ay camote sa balay.

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(There is sweet potato in the house.)

Sample 3.1 showed that in the word 'ginamos', the internal sequence /in/ is deleted to form the new word 'gamos'. The dropping of /in/ in this example is a representation of how the speakers omit the unstressed sound in order to have the convenience in speaking the language. Similarly, in Sample 3.2, the medial vowel /a/ is deleted, hence 'naay' becomes 'nay'.

Weakening-*Apocope*. Crowley (1997) defined this phonetic change as the loss of one or more sounds from the end of a word, especially the loss of an unstressed vowel. Sounds omitted are in italic style.

Sample 4.1

(Porohanon)

Wa pa mi kaila.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Wa*la* pa mi kaila.

(We don't know him/her yet.)

Sample 4.2

(Porohanon)

Sig saba-saba uy.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

(Ayaw) **sig*e* *ug*/sig*eg*** saba-saba uy.

(Stop that noise.)

Sample 4.1 demonstrates the deletion of the final sound /la/ in the word 'wala'. This case of Apocope may just suggest dialectal variation and convenience in utterance. Some Cebuano-Bisaya speakers are fond of using 'wala' instead of 'wa'. This may also apply in instances wherein the speaker is in a hurry and needs to answer immediately. Moreover, the example illustrates compensatory lengthening (Crowley, 1992) wherein because of the omission of the consonant /l/, the preceding vowel /a/ is stretched to make up for the loss.

While loss of the final sound is illustrated in Sample 4.2, it also shows contraction. The word 'sig' originally comes from the word 'sigeg' which is a contracted form of 'sige ug'. This is an example of how two sound changes can occur in a word. In this case, the final sound /eg/ is dropped to shorten the word into just 'sig'.

Weakening-*Contraction*. Another type of weakening is the case of contraction where some sounds are omitted after the words are shortened.

Sample 5.1

(Porohanon)

maazong adlaw

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

maayong adlaw

maayo nga adlaw

(good day)

Sample 5.2

(Porohanon)

kaayos tanan

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

kaayo sa tanan

(very/ a lot)

Sample 5.1 showed the process of phonologically reducing and combining the two words "**maayo**" and **"nga"**. The word "**maayong**" does not translate to any word in English since it is a contraction of 'maayo' and 'nga'. It is also evident that the end vowel /a/ is deleted and only the /ŋ/ sound remained.

The same is the case in Sample 5.2. The word "**kaayos**' does not translate to any word in the English language because it is a contraction of "**kaayo**" and "**sa**". The vowel /a/ at the end of the linker /sa/ was also deleted.

Weakening-*Rhotacism.* This is another type of weakening which surfaced in the data although with quite minimal occurrence. This change converts one consonant (usually a voiced alveolar consonant: /z/, /d/, /l/, or /n/) to a rhotic consonant in a certain environment (Crowley, 1997). Rhotacized sounds are in italic style.

Sample 6.1

(Porohanon)

Ari ra gihapon sa San. Fran.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

A*nh*i ra gihapon sa San Fran.

(Still here in San Fran.)

Sample 6.2

(Porohanon)

Wa may **karsada** kay private mana.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

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Wala may **ka*l*sada** kay private mana.

(There are no roads because the property is private.)

Sample 6.1 showed rhotacism by dropping the internal sequence /nh/ into a rhotic consonant /r/, thus turning the word from 'anhi' to 'ari'. Similarly, in Sample 6.2, 'kalsada' is turned into 'karsada' because the liquid consonant /l/ became r-sounding between vowels.

The given examples show another instance where rhotacism only suggests dialectal variation and convenience in speech. This particular phonetic change is the most evident change in the Porohanon dialect because of the dialect's profuse usage of 'ara dira, 'ari diri', 'ari', 'diri' and 'dira'. This phonetic change is embedded in the history of the dialect and the locals even believe that this is one of the unique characteristics of the Porohanon dialect.

Sound Addition - *Epenthesis.* This change happens when a sound is added in the middle of a word to break up two consonants in a cluster. A sound can also be added at the end of the word which is called Paragoge.

Sample 7.1

(Porohanon)

garabe gazud!

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

grabe gayud/gyud!

(it is/was intense!)

Sample 7.2

(Porohanon)

tarbaho nako adtong una

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

trabaho nako sauna

(My job before)

Samples 7.1 and 7.2 exhibited the adding of the vowel sound /a/ in between the consonant clusters /gr/ in **grabe** and /tr/ in **trabaho**. In linguistic articles about sound addition, it is argued that the addition of epenthetic vowel makes the liquid consonants constituting the first member of a cluster more perceptible. The word 'grabe' in Cebuano-Bisaya is used to define intense moments; therefore, sound addition in this case is evident in order to highlight the intensity of the event. It might also be right in future studies to consider prosodic features in studying Epenthesis.

Moreover, this particular phonetic change is not found in the teenagers and professional Porohanon participants. The researchers observed that the insertion of sound between consonant clusters is evident only in elderly locals and market vendors. Most market vendors who were interviewed are at the age of 45-60 years old. This result might be that the group of teenagers and professionals in the area are influenced by many factors, such as other languages from tourists and social media. The researchers observed that only the elders insert vowels in most consonant clusters. This phenomenon might be because only the elderly locals have retained their original way of utterance compared to the younger participants who find it funny to say 'garabe' instead of 'grabe'. For Sample 7.2, in the Cebuano word **'trabaho'**, /tra/ becomes /t*a*ra/ and the preceding vowel /a/ in /tar**a**/ is deleted, resulting to /**tarbaho**/.

Sound Addition – *Epenthesis:Paragoge* is a type of epenthesis which was also found in the Porohanon dialect. A sound is added at the end of the word as illustrated in the following examples:

Sample 8.1

(Porohanon)

Ideya **nako*n***, mag hog ko.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Ideya **nako**, mag hog ko.

(My idea is to save money)

Sample 8.2

(Porohanon)

Amo(*n*)* raman akong panginabuhi.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Mao raman akong panginabuhi.

(This is my only source of income.)

Sample 8.1 is an obvious example of paragoge whereby the sound /n/ is added at the end of the word 'nako'. On the other hand, Sample 8.2 shows that the original Cebuano-Bisaya word 'mao' underwent metathesis and became 'amo'. The contiguous phonemes /m/ and /a/ switched places and then the sound /n/ was added at the end of the word.

Based on the data gathered, the sound /n/ is the commonly added sound at the end of some of the Porohanon words such as 'amon', 'nakon', 'adtun', 'inin' from the word 'kini' meaning *'this'*, 'san' from the word 'sa' and 'itun' which is derived from the Tagalog word 'eto' meaning *'this'*.

Sound Addition - *Prothesis.* Crowley (1997) defined this phonetic change as another type of sound addition referring to the addition of a sound at the beginning of a word. This is the opposite of Paragoge.

Sample 9.1

(Porohanon)

sana

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

ana

(that)

Sample 9.1 presented the addition of a sound /s/ at the beginning of the word 'ana'. The word "ana" becomes "sana" without changing the meaning of the word. Based on the data gathered, this particular phonetic change is not common in the Porohanon dialect. The only example gained from the transcribed data, which showed Prothesis is the word "**sana**" which means "*that*" in English.

Metathesis. The last featured change that surfaced in the data is Metathesis which involves the changing in the order of two sounds in a word. In other words, it refers to the switching of two or more adjoining sounds. Such phenomenon is described in the samples below.

Sample 10.1

(Porohanon)

Sa akon pag **panarbaho** diri sa Police Station,

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Sa akoang pag **trabaho** diri sa Police Station,

(In my job here at the police station.)

Sample 10.2

(Porohanon)

Amon man kanang pinaka importante.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Mao man kana ang pinaka importante.

(That is the most important.)

Sample 10.1 illustrates metathesis, elision and epenthesis. First, the original Cebuano-Bisaya word '**trabaho**' becomes '*tar*baho wherein /r/ and /a/ sounds undergo switching. Second, the sound /t/ is deleted from the word-initial of '**t**arbaho' making it 'arbaho'; and lastly, the prefix *pan-* is added to the base '**arbaho**'.

Likewise, Sample 10.2 illustrates metathesis and epenthesis, particularly paragoge. The original Cebuano-Bisaya word 'mao' became 'amo' when the contiguous phonemes /m/ and /a/ switch places and then the sound /n/ was added at the end of the word.

In this context, the word *'amon'* is used as a demonstrative which means *'that'* in English. However, in a different context, the word '*amon'* is also used as a possessive pronoun which means *'our'* as in the example "Sa *amon* balay" (*In our house).*

The findings of the phonetic changes in Porohanon are identical to Rosal's (2012) study on the richness of Cebuano-Bisaya imperatives in sound changes. Although Rosal's study focused only on two imperative suffixes –i and –a, these are the catalysts of the sound changes in Cebuano-Bisaya. This may mean that Porohanon dialect can be categorized as a Cebuano-Bisaya language given that the findings of this study and that of Rosal's emphasized the emergence of the same phonetic changes.

Syntactic Patterns

Another important aspect in studying language variation is the syntactic patterns. Syntactic patterns refer to how words are ordered or combined to form grammatical sentences.

According to Nolasco's (2015) framework, clausal structure in the Sugbuanong Binisaya typically is predicate initial. However, the English clausal construction is subject initial since it has been introduced that the typical clausal structure is the subject-verb-complement. In this study, the data revealed that there are three syntactic patterns evident in the Porohanon dialect.

Table 3 presents the frequency of occurrence of the syntactic patterns found in the Porohonanon dialect. This is to determine the different syntactic patterns evident in Porohanon dialect.

Table 3

Syntactic Patterns in the Porohanon Dialect

Patterns	f	%	Examples
P-S structure	2	20	'94 dinhi naman ko.
S-P structure	5	50	Si Macmac ba ni agi.
P-A-O structure	3	30	Sugsugon ra man na nako si Roland.
A-P-O structure	0	0	
A-O-P structure	0	0	
Total	10	100	

Table 3 shows that the syntactic pattern which is commonly used by the Porohanons is the S-P clausal structure with a total percentage of 50%, followed by P-A-O clausal structure with 30% and P-S clausal structure with 20%. On the other hand, syntactic patterns such as A-P-O and A-O-P did not surface in the data.

The S-P clausal structure has the highest frequency as shown in the data. Although Cebuano sentences are known to be typically predicate-initial, Nolasco (2015) said that they could also be phrased using the other types of patterns. These data suggest that Porohanon dialect is still a variant of the Cebuano language because it is structured following the patterns of such language. The succeeding discussion provides illustrations on how these syntactic patterns surfaced in the data.

P-S clausal structure. This structure occurs when the sentence starts with a predicate followed by the subject. Nolasco (2015) said that the Cebuano language typically follows this pattern.

Sample 11.1

'94 dinhi naman **ako**.

Translation

(I was here since 1994.)

Sample 11.2

Nag lending man **kami** kay para maka puhunan.

Translation

(We loaned money for the capital.)

Sample 11.1 revealed that the sentence started with the predicate followed by the subject *ako*. The examples clearly showed the same feature of the Cebuano language which is predicate-initial. From these examples, it is evident that Porohanon's syntactic pattern has a similar pattern with that of the Cebuano language.

S-P clausal structure. This subject-predicate structure is the prevailing pattern in the data. The English language usually follows this type of structure, where the order has a subject prominence feature (Alvarez & Suarez, 2016:11).

Sample 12.1

(Porohanon)

Ang *akun anak* kamanghuran wa pa gud na nag iskuyla.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Ang akong kamanghuran nga anak, wa pa gud na nag iskuyla.

(My eldest son/daughterwas not in school yet.)

Sample 12.2

(Porohanon)

Amun na language gyud.

Translation

(Cebuano-Bisaya)

Mao na among language jud.

 (That's really our language.)

There are also cases wherein the subject comes first followed by the predicate in Porohanon. Sample 12.1 shows that the pronoun *akun* was used before the subject *anak*. Sample 12.2 revealed that the pronoun *amun* was used precedent to the subject *language*. The examples shown also fall under the genitive case wherein *akun* (my) shows ownership to *anak* (son/daughter) while *amun* (our) to *language*.

P-A-O clausal structure. This structure is the predicate-agent-object structure.

Sample 13.1

Maninda na lang mig load.

Translation

(We'll just sell load.)

Sample 13.2

Nakapahuman ko ug isa ka anak.

Translation

(I was able to let my child finish his/her studies.)

Another structure found in the Porohanon dialect is the P-A-O clausal structure. Samples 13.1 and 13.2 show that the pattern used was P-A-O. In sample 13.1, *maninda nalang* is the predicate followed by the agent which is *mi* (*kami*) and then object *load*. Sample 13.2 also has the same pattern with *nakapahuman* as the predicate, then *ko* as an agent and *anak* as

the object. This type of structure can also be considered as agentive case since agents are present in the sentence.

The examples further explained that the structure of the Porohanon dialect is very similar to Cebuano.

Conclusions

The Porohanon dialect, just like the Cebuano-Bisaya and English language, also underwent most of the phonetic changes. Although some phonetic changes do not have enough samples in this study's data, there is still substantial proof that the Porohanon dialect is highly influenced by Cebuano-Bisaya. Likewise the syntactic patterns of the Porohanon dialect are similar to that of the Cebuano language. Therefore, the Porohanon dialect is a dialect under the Cebuano language and not of other languages. Contrary to Cebuano's P-S clausal structure, the S-P clausal structure is the most commonly used pattern in Porohanon dialect as found in the data. The researchers recommend that future studies about this dialect may consider analysis on its supra-segmental processes as well as lexical and phonological variations as these aspects are obvious evidences of dialect diversity.

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Critical Discourse Analysis of Filipino Women Politicians' Campaign Speeches

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Abstract

Politics, especially in the Philippines, is a widely-known topic discussed by people and appears continuously in social media sites (e.g. Facebook and YouTube) as well as in the media (e.g. television, radio programs, and newspapers). People engage themselves to listen to political speeches on election campaigns, press conferences, live broadcasts, or direct interviews delivered by their most favored politicians.Hence, this study investigated how Filipino women politicians, within the 2010-2016 campaign periods, constructed their campaign speeches in order to gain public support. Moreover, the investigation centered on Sharndama's (2015) parts of the speech outline and the linguistic features of women's speech styles by Lakoff (1975). The data involved ten campaign speeches of selected Filipino women politicians. There was one (1) campaign speech each by Nancy Binay, Pia Cayetano, Tingting Cojuangco, Risa Hontiveros, Jamby Madrigal, Gwendolyn Pimentel, Miriam Defensor-Santiago, Leni Robredo and two (2) campaign speeches by Grace Poe. The results of the study revealed that the women politicians utilized all the six parts of the speech outline in their campaign speeches namely appreciations, declaration of intentions, international relations and foreign policies, unveiling plans and ideologies, appeal for unity, and ending. Also, Super polite forms prevailed among all the linguistic features while question intonation on declaratives was used the least. This

paper recommends that local officials may use the results of this study as a basis to construct their speeches for campaigns and/or other purposes to make citizens sympathize and interpret that their goals are for the good of the society.

Keywords: *Campaign Speeches, Discourse Analysis, Linguistic Features, Political Discourses, Women's Political Campaign Speeches, Women's Speech Styles*

Introduction

Politics is perceived as a male domain due to its public nature; thus, it narrows down culturally acceptable women's agency and participation options such as mobility, social interaction, and acceptance as leader or representative of a community (Ayaz & Fleschenberg, 2009). In correlation, the perception of politics being a male domain shows the notion that men are more fitting to lead than the women especially in politics because leadership is hypothesized as male strength while women are represented in supporting the "leader-husband", entertaining constituents (e.g. socialization and diplomacy) and providing charity works (Hega, 2003).

Take for example in the Philippine context, where only two women, Gloria Macapagal Arroyo and Corazon Aquino, took the position as the President of the Philippines out of the sixteen who held the power of leading the democratic country to progress. Nevertheless, with these advances, a widespread gap on the level of political representation of men and women still exists, where women are prominently underrepresented (Philippine Commission on Women, 2009).

Moreover, women's speech has just been neglected (Romaine, 1994) because women express opinions, attempt to persuade others, and manage on level of information less likely than men due to gendered norms of interaction that hinder women's participation in politics or disregarded when it comes to male-dominated fields (Hansen 1997 and Rapoport 1981, as cited in Karpowitz, et al., 2012). Therefore, the present study focused on the campaign speeches of nine (9) Philippine women politicians who are Nancy Binay, Pia Cayetano, Tingting Cojuangco, Risa Hontiveros, Jamby Madrigal, Gwendolyn Pimentel, Grace Poe, Miriam Defensor-Santiago and Leni Robredo, who strived in attaining the senatorial, vice presidential and presidential government posts within 2010-2016 campaign periods.

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is defined as a linguistic approach that mainly deals with the way social-power abuse and inequality are expressed, represented, reproduced or

legitimated as resisted by text and talk in both social and political context (Van Dijk, 2015). It mainly focuses on the rapport between language, power, and ideology (Coffin, Lillis & O'Halloran, 2010) that can be in a form of a public speech (e.g advertisement, newspaper, political propagandas, official documents, laws and regulations and so on). Thus, critical discourse analysis places an important role in studying public speeches, where a speaker tends to inform, entertain, and persuade the audience. With this, the researchers used a critical discourse approach in this study to know how the Filipino women politicians construct their speeches and how they make use of their language in meaning making to earn public support.

Language and politics have become associated with one another to an extent that language is a vital tool in politics (Abuya, 2012). Undoubtedly, many linguists and scientists are engrossed in studying political discourse to discover how political speakers apply, expand and convey their ideas upon important international or national events as well as societal problems (Aidinlou & Valipour, 2014). Political discourse is a complex human activity that deserves critical study, particularly because of its significant role in the organization and management of society (Dylgjeri, 2017). Considering that this study focused on women's political discourse, the researchers excluded male politicians and their speeches as well as the comparison between the linguistic features found in both female and male politician's speech styles. Future researchers who are continually studying the speeches of women politicians may find useful data (e.g. speech styles and common linguistic features women politicians use) from this study as well as widen the research domain of language, gender, and politics.

Through this study, women public servants, specifically politicians, can exercise their power in making their decisions and express the message they want to convey to their audience through their speeches, not only to get the favor of the audience but also to gain public support on their future contributions for the development of society.

The present study aimed to apply CDA in analyzing the campaign speeches of selected Filipina politicians to create a speech outline and identify the linguistic features. Ergo, through use of the frameworks Sharndama's (2015) Outline of Speech and Lakoff's 1975 (as cited in Afghari and Hanafiyeh, 2014) Women Speech Styles, this study would show the means of knowing how the selected Philippine women politicians construct and make meaning on their speeches.

Literature Review

Language is essentially a means of communication among the members of a society (Sirbu, 2015). People communicate every day. Whether it be a conversation of two or a speech for an audience, using language is necessary. Therefore, 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.

Since political process is a type of discourse, this simply signifies that political discourse is a part of critical discourse wherein this current study used a Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) approach. Fairclough (2015) defines CDA as the combination of critiquing discourse and explaining how it contributes and adds to the current social reality and how it becomes the foundation for action to alter the current reality in certain aspects. Ergo, through CDA, the researchers explored and focused on how Filipino women politicians construct their campaign speeches by looking into their structure and meaning making in persuading their audience.

In analyzing the campaign speeches of the Filipino women politicians through Critical Discourse Analysis, two frameworks are used in this study. First is Sharndama's (2015) Outline of speech, and second is Lakoff's 1975 (as cited in Afghari and Hanafiyeh, 2014) Women speech styles.

The speech outline of Sharndama (2015) is done according to the structure and content of the speech and its relation to the political and societal issues of the nation. By looking in the structure of speech, the present study was able to construct a speech outline of women politicians and their ideologies and plans for the progress of the nation. Thus, the researchers used Sharndama's outline of speech based on Fairclough's (1995) three-dimensional model.

Appreciations is the starting part of speech wherein the speaker expresses gratitude to anyone.

> *Example.* "Our journey has not been easy but thanks to the determination of our people and strong support from friends abroad we have today a truly democratically elected government in place."
> –President Buhari, (Sharndama, 2015)

Declaration of intentions is the part of speech in which the speaker's general plans are presented. This part shows the politician's aims and wants (e.g. create a better country) to achieve in his term. In this part, people will also be guided as to how they will be lead.

> *Example.* "Having just a few minutes ago sworn on the Holy book, I intend to keep my oath and serve as president to all Nigerians. I belong to everybody and belong to nobody." –President Buhari, (Sharndama, 2015)

International relations and foreign policies is the part where the speaker talks about international issues, problems and policies of the country.

> *Example.* "Our neighbors in the Sub-region and our African brethren should rest assured that Nigeria under our administration will be ready to play any leadership role that Africa expects of it. Here I would like to thank the governments and people of Cameroon, Chad and Niger for committing their armed forces to fight Boko Haram in Nigeria.
>
> I also wish to assure the wider international community of our readiness to cooperate and help to combat threats of cross-border terrorism, sea piracy, refugees and boat people, financial crime, cyber-crime, climate change, the spread of communicable diseases and other challenges of the 21st century..." –President Buhari, (Sharndama 2015)

Unveiling plans and ideologies is where the speaker highlights his intentions and future plans in ruling the country. This differs from the Declaration of Intentions since this indicates as to how the politician presents his plans for the country.

> *Example.* "Daunting as the task may be it is by no means insurmountable. There is now a national consensus that our chosen route to national development is democracy. To achieve our objectives we must consciously work the democratic system. The Federal Executive under my watch will not seek to encroach on the duties and functions of the Legislative and Judicial arms of government. The law enforcing authorities will be charged to operate within the Constitution. We shall rebuild and reform the public service to become more effective and more serviceable. We shall charge them to apply themselves with integrity to stabilize the system..." –President Buhari, (Sharndama, 2015)

Appeal for unity is where the speaker encourages people in taking part to unite for the development of society.

> *Example.* "My appeal for unity is predicated on the seriousness of the legacy we are getting into. With depleted foreign reserves, falling oil prices, leakages and debts the Nigerian economy is in deep trouble and will require careful management to bring it round and to tackle the immediate challenges confronting us..." –President Buhari, (Sharndama 2015)

Ending is the last part of speech where the speaker concludes the main points. Moreover, the speaker sometimes ends the speech with quotations.

> *Example.* "Your Excellencies, My fellow Nigerians I cannot recall when Nigeria enjoyed so much goodwill abroad as now. The messages I received from East and West, from powerful and small countries are indicative of international expectations on us. At home the newly elected government is basking in a reservoir of goodwill and high expectations. Nigeria therefore has a window of opportunity to fulfill our long-standing potential of pulling ourselves together and realizing our mission as a great nation." – President Buhari, (Sharndama, 2015)

Linguistic Features of Women's Speech Styles

The second framework is Lakoff's 1975 (as cited in Afghari and Hanafiyeh, 2014) women's language. This focuses on the notion of the speech styles or linguistic features commonly used by women.

According to Rasekh and Saeb (2015), men and women are linguistically different. Each gender talks in distinctive ways. Robin Lakoff, a pioneer in language and gender, proposed that the gender speech differences are the result of men's and women's different positions in the society. For men, "talk" is regarded as the achievement of concrete goals, usage of control, maintaining independence, entertaining, and enhancing status while women considered "talk" as the fundamental nature of relationships with the aim of using language to foster connection, support, closeness, and understanding (Wood, 2009). Furthermore, Lakoff (1975, as cited in Wood, 2009) calls women's speech as "powerless" since he argued that the language used by

women reflects their low self-esteem and socialization into subordinate roles. However, Mills (1999, as cited in Wood, 2009) claims that the standard speech of women does not reveal powerlessness but rather shows the desire to continue an open conversation that includes others.

Hedges are words or phrases that serve as a mitigation, which means that it lessens the impact of an utterance or it reflects the speaker's uncertain attitude towards their own utterance. Hedges are also used to convey less assertion or to lessen the directness of the utterance such as sort of, kind of, I guess, it seems like and so on.

> *Example. "*Because, *you know*, I believe we are stronger together and we will go forward together. And you should never, ever regret fighting for that." –Excerpt from Senator Hillary Clinton's concession speech 2016

Tag Questions are linguistic forms that express uncertainty, confirmation or approval and are commonly used after declarative utterances and often with a rising intonation.

> *Example.* "This is like home to me, and this day – thank you for a beautiful fall day. You just ordered this day up for me, *didn't you*? It's great to be here."–Excerpt from Michelle Obama's New Hampshire speech 2016

Question intonation on declaratives refers when the speaker utters a rising or questioning intonation at the end of a statement or a declarative sentence.

> *Example.* "The nations are doing well?"

Empty adjectives refer to describing words that women use extensively while disregarding its proper meaning. Examples include lovely, charming, gorgeous and adorable.

> *Example.* "We thank you for your *graceful,* determined leadership that has meant so much to so many Americans and people across the world." –Excerpt from Senator Hillary Clinton's concession speech 2016

Precise color terms refer to women's color vocabularies or specific terminologies used like lilac for violet or crimson for red.

> *Example*. "She suddenly blushed in *crimson*."

Intensifiers are words, especially adverbs, which express force or emphasis to help the speaker strenghten what to convey. Intensifiers can be very, so, completely, totally, always, surely, really, and others.

> *Example.* "Finally, finally, I am *so* grateful for our country and for all it has given to me." –Excerpt from Senator Hillary Clinton's concession speech 2016

Hypercorrect grammar includes avoidance of vulgar or coarse terms like ain't, gonna and goin. Thus, this makes use of precise or proper pronunciation and structure of words.

> *Example.* "Do you *want to* come with us?"

Super polite forms refer to polite expressions and euphemisms employed by women. Politeness can be expressed through polite implications such as thank you, please, would you mind and others. On the other hand, euphemism is defined as an indirect polite term or expression that actually implies harsh meanings.

> *Example.* "*Thank you* so very much for being here. I love you all, too." –Excerpt from Senator Hillary Clinton's concession speech 2016

Avoidance of strong swear words refer to notion that women do not talk strong expletive expressions or vulgar language like damn and shit.

> *Example.* "*My goodness!* You guys are fired up! Well, let me just say hello everyone. I am so thrilled to be here with you all today in New Hampshire." –Excerpt from Michelle Obama's New Hampshire speech 2016

Lacking sense of humor is one of the said characteristics of women. Women do not tell nor understand jokes well.

> *Example.* "In fact, someone recently told me a story about their six-year-old son who one day was watching the news – they were watching the news together. And the little boy, out of the blue, said, "I think Hillary Clinton will be president." And his mom said, "Well, why do you say that?" And this little six-year-old said, *"Because the other guy called someone a piggy and,"* he said, *"You cannot be president if you call someone a piggy."* –Excerpt from Michelle Obama's New Hampshire speech 2016

Use "wh-" imperatives refer to the notion that women commands using why, what, when, where and others. This expresses the idea of making a request without causing fault.

> *Example.* "*Why* don't you open the door?"

Indirect commands and requests is one of the women's features to couch their orders or demands covertly to the listener.

> *Example.* "It is very noisy in here."

Apologize more refers to the idea that women do more apologies to express a regretful acknowledgement.

> *Example.* "This is not the outcome we wanted or we worked so hard for, and *I'm sorry* we did not win this election for the values we share and the vision we hold for our country." –Excerpt from Hillary Clinton's concession speech 2016

Speak in italics or emphatic voice intonation. Women use "italic" speech through vocal stress to catch the hearer's attention.

> *Example.* "Because let's be *very* clear: strong men – men who are truly role models – don't need to put down women to make themselves feel powerful. People who are truly strong lift others up. People who are truly powerful bring others together. And that is what we need in our next president." -Excerpt from Hillary Clinton's concession speech 2016

Overuse qualifiers is a word or phrase used frequently by women, that is placed before an adjective or adverb which increases or decreases the quality of the word it modifies. This includes very, quite, still, less, least, enough, somewhat, more, a bit, a little, kind of, and others.

> *Example.* "So I'm going to get *a little* serious here, because I think we can all agree that this has been a rough week in an already rough election." –Excerpt from Michelle Obama's New Hampshire speech 2016

Use direct quotation refers to the notion that women quotes overtly instead of paraphrasing.

> *Example.* "You know, scripture tells us, "Let us not grow weary of doing good, for in due season, we shall reap if we do not lose heart."
>
> - Excerpt from Hillary Clinton's concession speech 2016

Speak less frequently denotes that women are less verbose when it comes to mixed sex conversation.

Use of modal constructions includes the idea that women often utilize modal auxiliaries in their sentences such as will, can, might, shall, and others.

> *Example.* "So each of you right here today could help swing an entire precinct and win this election for Hillary just by getting yourselves, your families, and your friends and neighbors out to vote. You *can* do it right here."–Excerpt from Michelle Obama's New Hampshire speech 2016

For the scope and limitation of this current study, the women speech style where women speak less frequently was excluded in the analysis of this present study since it was only applied on a mixed sex conversation, which needed a compare and contrast analysis between men and women speeches.

Furthermore, the women speech style speak in italics was also excluded in the analysis for the reason that the scope of this present study did not include voice intonation, but rather focused on the verbal text and its meaning. Generally, the current researchers used Lakoff's 1975 (as cited in Afghari and Hanafiyeh, 2014) Women Speech Styles in identifying the commonly used linguistic features by the women politicians in delivering their speeches.

Overall, this present study was analyzed through the theories of Sharndama's (2015) Outline of Speech and Lakoff's 1975 (as cited in Afghari and Hanafiyeh, 2014) Women Speech Styles. Therefore, this current research determined the specific parts of the speech outline and linguistic features employed by the Filipino women politicians in making meaning on their campaign speeches.

The Problem

This study aimed to investigate how Filipino women politicians within the campaign periods from 2010-2016, construct their campaign speeches in order to gain public support by looking into the speeches' structure and meaning making. Specifically, this study sought answers to the following questions:

1. With the guide of Sharndama's (2015) outline of speech, what are the parts of

the speech outline used by the Filipino women politicians in their campaign speeches?

2. What linguistic features of Lakoff's (1975, as cited in Afghari and Hanafiyeh,

2014) women's speech styles are employed in the campaign speeches?

Methodology

This study used a qualitative-quantitative design in describing and examining the strategies of how selected Philippine women politicians construct and make meaning from their campaign speeches. For the quantitative part, frequency count and percentage computations were done to determine the occurrences of the speech outline parts and women speech styles. Afterwards, the results were used for the qualitative part which was the analysis and interpretation of the women campaign speeches.

Research Data

This study analyzed ten (10) campaign speeches of selected Philippine women politicians. There was one (1) campaign speech each by Nancy Binay, Pia Cayetano, Tingting Cojuangco, Risa Hontiveros, Jamby Madrigal, Gwendolyn Pimentel, Miriam Defensor-Santiago, Leni Robredo and two (2) speeches by Grace Poe. Moreover, the data gathered did not require permission due to the speeches being publicly available online from different channels on YouTube.

The speeches were chosen based on the following criteria: (1) the videos should be speeches presented within the campaign periods from 2010-2016; (2) the videos should at least be five (5) minutes to fifteen (15) minutes long; (3) the videos of campaign speeches must show that the speeches are delivered to an audience (e.g. formal campaign speeches, campaign rallies, and others); and (4) the videos must present that the speeches are delivered by the selected women politicians

Research Procedures

This study used a purposive sampling procedure. First, the chosen speeches were downloaded. Second, the researchers checked whether the speeches complied with the given criteria or not. Otherwise, if the videos did not meet with the criteria, then such videos were excluded from the data. Next, the speeches were transcribed. Then, the researchers hired a translator who is well-versed in Filipino and English languages to translate the Tagalog campaign speeches into English in order for the researchers to analyze the wh-imperatives and modal constructions from Lakoff's (1975) women speech styles because these linguistic features required a transcribed data using an English language.

The original speech transcriptions were analyzed for the first to second sub-problems; however, for the wh-imperatives and modal constructions on the second sub-problem, the translated transcription was used. Moreover, for the scope of this present study, the women speech styles namely speak in italics and speak less frequently were excluded in the data analysis because this present study did not primarily focus on non-verbal language and language used on a mixed-sex conversation, but rather dealt with the verbal language only used by the women politicians. In addition, an inter-rater who earned a linguistics degree from the University of San Carlos was enlisted to thoroughly verify the results of the study.

Results and Discussion

Table 1 presents the parts of the speech outline that were used by the Filipino women politicians in their campaign speeches.

Table 1

Parts of Speech Outline

Parts of Speech Outline	f	%
Appreciations	12	18.75
Declaration of intentions	**24**	**37.50**
International relations and foreign policies	1	1.56
Unveiling plans and ideologies	15	23.44
Appeal for unity	2	3.13
Ending	10	15.63
Total	64	100.00

Declaration of intentions prevailed in terms of frequency since it served as the politicians' strategy by indicating their plans and intentions for the citizens and the country in order to gain public support. Also, women politicians stated their intentions in their campaign speeches to assure the audience that their plans were possible to accomplish. Here is one sample of the part of the speech outline which got the highest frequency among the six parts.

Sample 1 of Declaration of Intentions

(Senatorial Campaign Speech of Gwendolyn Pimentel, Paragraph 6)

Alam niyo ho, alam naman nating lahat ito, ang ba- mga bata ang ating kinabukasan. Sila ang tinig ng ating konsensiya. Kaya ho dapat pakinggan natin ang kanilang mga bulong. Pakinggan nila ang tahimik na sigaw ng kanilang isipan at damdamin. At bigyan po natin sila ng mabuting kinabukasan.

(English Translation)

'You know, we all know this—the children are our future. They are the voice of our conscience. That is why we must listen to what they whisper. Let us listen to the quiet cry of their minds and hearts. And let us give them a bright future.'

Sample 1 showed that Gwendolyn Pimentel aspired to give the Filipino children a bright future. However, she did not give any specific ways (e.g. implementing free educational programs and scholarships) on how to make a bright future for the children. In addition, Gwendolyn Pimentel made use of the pronoun us to illustrate inclusiveness to the audience and herself that would help in making a better future to the Filipino children. The sample is considered a declaration of intentions since this woman politician revealed an intention for the development of the country despite not wanting to dwell much on specific details or ways to execute such intention due to several factors such as the limited time of delivering the campaign speech. According to Patanñe (n.d, as cited in Abueva and Guzman, 1969), Filipinos perceive the politicians in the government as a Santa Claus, everybody's ninong (godfather) or compadre (ritual co-parent). This shows the so-called "strong, paternalistic, personalized reliance" of Filipinos towards the government when seeking for help or assistance in solving the public's problems. Therefore, since the women politicians were campaigning on various positions in the government, providing their generalized intentions that would benefit the Filipino citizens was a great tactic to catch the audience's attention as well as to earn trust because the public viewed them as "providers" of needs. This also serves as an assurance for

the women politicians to their constituents that they can accomplish all these intentions for the advancement of the country.

Table 2 presents the frequency of occurrence of each linguistic feature as well as its percentage to determine which of these features are commonly used and least used in the Filipino women politicians' campaign speeches.

Table 2

Linguistic features of women's speech styles found in the Filipino women politicians' campaign speeches

Linguistic Features	f	%
Super polite forms	**669**	**80.89**
Intensifiers	74	8.95
Hedges	25	3.02
Use of direct quotation	19	2.30
Lacking sense of humor	15	1.81
Use of modal constructions	10	1.21
Empty Adjectives	8	0.97
Tag questions	4	0.48
Overuse qualifiers	2	0.24
Question intonation on declaratives	1	0.12
Precise color terms	0	0
Hypercorrect grammar	0	0
Avoidance of strong swear words	0	0
Use of "wh-" imperatives	0	0

Indirect commands and requests	0	0
Apologize more	0	0
Total	827	100.00

Super polite forms were prevalent in terms of frequency due to the inherent politeness and respectfulness valued in the Filipino culture. This in turn means that despite holding a higher position in terms of political power above the common masses, Filipino women politicians hold a deep respect to the public who have supported them. The concept of "kapwa", according to Marcelino and Pua (2000), is the core of Filipino values which in turn means that these Filipino women political candidates addressed their audience respectfully as is regarded in Filipino culture. Below is one sample of super polite forms which got the highest frequency among the 16 features.

Sample 1 of Super Polite Forms

(Senatorial Campaign Speech of Tingting Cojuangco, Paragraph 1)

Salamat ng marami. Magandang gabi po sa inyong lahat. To our beloved Jojo Binay, our Senate President Enrile na siya ho ang nagchachaperon ho sa amin sa Region II at gayon din dito sa inyong lahat and our President Erap. Mga kaigsuonan, yan natuto na ako kay Gwen Garcia, at mga Sugbuanon. O happy ka na Congressman Garcia? Natuto na ako. Mga fellow candidates ko na nandito, na magsisilbi sila sa iyong napakagaling, mga mayor at councilors na sila ay rin ho ay tumatakbo upang magsilbi sa inyong bayan.

(English Translation)

Many thanks to you. Good evening to all of you. To our beloved Jojo Binay, our Senate President Enrile, who was our chaperon in Region II, and also here to all of you and our President Erap. Brothers and sisters—there, I learned from Gwen Garcia and Cebuanos. Are you happy now, Congressman Garcia? I have already learned. My fellow candidates who are here, like the mayor and counselors who also will run in order to serve our country.'

Filipinos are known for their respectfulness. The word po is a Filipino respectful term, which is indicated in the sample. Tingting Cojuangco used the polite term po to address the audience as a form of respect. This also shows how Tingting Cojuangco convey her respect as well as her "utang na loob" or debt of gratitude towards the audience who had attended the campaign rally and had supported her. The attendance and support of the audience could then be interpreted as a favor that the politicians owed to the audience and thus showing them "utang na loob" (Kaut, 1961 as cited in Marcelino and Pua, 2000). The sample also used another term of po which was ho as well as the expression thank you very much or maraming salamat. There is also the standard greeting magandang gabi which is good evening in English. And so, Tingting Cojuangco used these super polite forms to formally and respectfully address the audience.

Conclusions and Recommendations

With all the substantial findings disclosed, the researchers have come up with the following conclusions. (1) Women politicians' campaign speeches are designed towards their knowledge and ability to handle various socio-political issues and (2) Women politicians' speech styles denote the character, intellect, and capabilities they want voters to perceive of them.

Based on the conclusions mentioned, the following recommendations are considered: First, political analysts could further observe the occurrence of super polite forms in other Filipino politicians to ascertain if they use these polite forms to address their audience so as to determine whether these Filipino politicians reflect the values inherent in the Filipino culture while delivering a speech meant to persuade an audience to vote for them; Second, women public servants may further add to this study by utilizing the results as a basis of how to word their speeches that convey their motivation or the reflection of their activeness in the service of the Filipino people through the means of using the recurrences of Lakoff's (1975) Women Speech Styles; Third, other than Filipino women politicians' campaign speeches in the national election, future studies may conduct a Discourse Analysis on Filipino women politicians' campaign speeches in the local election to widen the fields of political discourse; Fourth, national and local officials could use the results of this study as a basis to construct their speeches for campaigns and/or other purposes to make citizens sympathize and interpret that their goals are for the good of the city; and lastly, researchers in the future may further study campaign speeches by other elected officials, men and/or women politicians, such as

presidents, vice-presidents, senators, governors as well as mayors and use the results of this study to find out if these politicians utilize similar patterns found on this study.

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Guidelines for Submissions

Submissions for the Quarterly Issue

Submissions guidelines

The *Asian EFL Journal Quarterly* is a fully peer-reviewed section of the journal, reviewed by a team of experts in EFL from all over the world. The *Asian EFL Journal* welcomes submissions written in different varieties of world Englishes. The reviewers and Associate Editors come from a wide variety of cultural and academic backgrounds and no distinction is made between native and non-native authors. As a basic principle, the *Asian EFL Journal* does not define competence in terms of native ability, but we are a strictly reviewed journal and all our reviewers expect a high level of academic and written competence in whatever variety of English is used by the author. Every effort will be made to accept different rhetorical styles of writing. The *Asian EFL Journal* also makes every effort to support authors who are submitting to an international journal for the first time. While major revisions may be requested, every effort is made to explain to authors how to make the necessary revisions.

Each submission is initially screened by the Senior Associate Editor, before being sent to an Associate Editor who supervises the review. There is no word minimum or maximum.

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Referencing: Please refer to the *Publication Manual of the American Psychological Association* (5th ed.) – Contributors are also invited to view the sample PDF guide available on our website and to refer to referencing samples from articles published from 2006. Due to the increasing number of submissions to the *Asian EFL Journal*, authors not conforming to APA system will have their manuscripts sent back immediately for revision. This delays publication and taxes our editorial process.

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