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Students' Perception Toward the Use of Deductive and Inductive Approaches in Teaching English Grammar

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Abstract

This study investigated the perception of students of the use of deductive and inductive learning approaches. The subject of the study involved a program named PIBA (Program Intensifikasi Bahasa Asing) in UIN Alauddin, Makassar where 2 English classes were purposively taken as samples to be treated using deductive and inductive approaches in teaching grammar with integrative skills. The research method employed was mixed method with quantitative and qualitative data taken from the control and experimental classes using an ARCS (Attention, Relevance, Confidence, Satisfaction) motivational model questionnaire, with in depth interviews and classroom observations utilized as research instruments. Based on the questionnaire and interviews, students gave positive perceptions on both learning approaches.

Keywords: English grammar teaching, deductive and inductive approach, ARCS motivation model.

Background

English competency is a skill that must be achieved by a graduate from an educational institution particularly from university level. This target of achievement has now become compulsory for many higher educational institution considering the importance of a graduate being equipped with this skill to be able to compete for a better chance of employment in the new emerging world globalization or an opportunity to continue further education even in obtaining possible scholarships.

However, s number of studies have reported that Indonesian students in general South Sulawesi in particular are still low in English competencies. Rahman, (2005) had investigated the fluency of university students and discovered that only 40,15% possess the grammar skills generally achieved which means they are classified as low in grammar mastery. This situation has made Indonesian graduates less competitive in the global working environment.

Furthermore, Yassi (2012, 2013) found that the average English language proficiency of English Literature students in the first year at Hasanuddin University is at the lower intermediate level. This illustrates the low competency of students in the classroom at university level. The phenomenon of the low English competence of college graduates in Indonesia will affect their competitiveness both nationally and internationally. Therefore, students' opportunity in obtaining scholarships are low due to the English requirement of the scholarship supporter. Hermayawati, (2010), in her research, explored the difficulties of students learning English and found several factors responsible for this. Among them are less-endorsement from their environment and less-chance to practice. The findings suggested that the language institutions should facilitate and provide high motivation for their students' English learning process.

As a lecturer at Universitas Islam Negeri (UIN- State Islamic University) Makassar, Indonesia, the researcher has been teaching English in several English studying institution since 2005. Before becoming a lecturer at UIN, she taught English courses in Makassar and, during those experiences of teaching, she observed the phenomenon that many of the English language learners have been spending a lot of money for an inefficient way of learning English, due to the lack of information and motivation. Many of them join English courses but due to the unfavorable learning atmosphere and inappropriate teaching and learning approach, the learners end up just continuing at their same level without gaining competency in English.

Having this English teaching and learning output situation, on the other hand, English teaching and learning aspects and processes must be reviewed to see to what extent they contributed the recent output. Among the factors involved mentioned earlier, are the content of the learning material or what to teach and the learning approach or how the teaching and learning delivered. For this particular research, grammar teaching is important to view as one of the most essential materials for the students to cover.

This research emerged from one program at The Language Center at the Islamic State University, Universitas Islam Negeri Alauddin Makassar (UIN AM). This program was designed to encourage the mastery of English at the very beginning of the university study by students after their enrollment. This program is known as PIBA (Program Intensifikasi Bahasa Asing), translated in English as Foreign Language Intensification Program. During years of teaching English in UIN, especially at PIBA, it was observed that many students are still lacking in motivation to learn English. Their lack of motivation to learn English can be seen through the low level of their participation in class activities. Thus, it is not surprising that students' ability to read, to speak and to write in English is also low. This is based on previous research findings in 2009 that has not now been improved and became the concern of the PIBA programs (Nur, 2009).

The researcher was interested in investigating why this phenomenon has happened. It is believed that the main cause in educational process is students' motivation but nevertheless other factors can also contribute. One of the factors this study explored was the learning approach used in this program classes. How do the students perceive the deductive and inductive learning approaches is the question being researched.

Review of Related Literature

This chapter elaborates the review of related literature on the teaching of grammar using deductive and inductive approaches.

Previous Research Findings on Deductive and Inductive Approach.

English teaching as a foreign language has been an essential topic of research in the area of instructional pedagogy. Teaching grammar in general uses theoretical approaches to develop and promote the students success in the learning environment. Among the approach, method and learning strategies, deductive and inductive term have been used. Yassi (2014) in his research stated that the topic of grammar teaching or focus on forms in the field of second language education has become an interesting issue in the last decade. DeKeyser in Yassi (2014) notes that "grammatical teaching that focuses on form or forms is beneficial for certain situations, and certain learners". A number of research on English Language Teaching (ELT) have shown that there is no conclusive approach on how to teach grammar best to the learners. Therefore, choosing the proper teaching approach between deductive and inductive grammatical teaching is very significant.

Research on this deductive and inductive approach had been debated since the era of early stages of English learning. One of the most interesting controversies in second language teaching is the question of whether deduction or induction should be used in the teaching of grammatical structures (Hammerly, 1975).

In line with Hammerly, Fischer (1979) confirmed that many foreign language expert and teachers have long debated the value of a deductive or inductive approach in the teaching of grammatical structures. Many of them stated that a deductive approach in which the explanation of a grammatical principle precedes its application is more logical and leads to a higher degree of certainty of grammatical knowledge while others claimed that an inductive approach in which the students discovers the grammatical principle for themselves has a greater impact and leads to longer retention.

Furthermore, the theoretical approach is both deductive and inductive approach developed by Rivers and Temperley, (1990). Deductive approach applied by Rivers and Temperley represents a more traditional style of teaching in the grammatical structure or teacher-centered approach. On the other hand, the inductive approach seems to be more modern style of teaching where the grammatical rules are presented in the real language context or learner-centered approach. Below are some research investigations using deductive and inductive approach and some tried to compare which is more suitable for English grammar teaching. They are divided into research in favor of deductive, inductive, or both approaches. The ones in favor of deductive approach are Asriany (2013), Mallia (2014), Petraki and Gunawardena (2015), Sik (2015), and Hendriani (2018) while in favor inductive approach are Kuder (2009), Astrid (2011) and Akram (2015). Research in favor for both approaches are Behjat (2008), Chalipa (2013), Yassi (2014), Eriksson (2014), and Mahjoub (2015).

The general assumption indicates that both approaches has its own advantage and disadvantage with different affecting factors, level and students' age as well as the local content of the learning environment. Some experts even mentioned that the two approaches can be used to complement each other in English grammar teaching.

Theoretical Approach on Deductive and Inductive Grammar Teaching

Grammar is a set of finite rules by which we can construct infinite sentences. Chomsky (1955) believed that language is innate, or in other words, we are born with a capacity for language. Language rules are influenced by experience and learning, but the capacity for language itself exists with or without environmental influences. Chomsky believed that language is so complex, with an unlimited combination of sounds, words, and phrases, that environmental learning is not able to account for language acquisition alone. It would take a lifetime to teach someone all the rules of language, but even small children.

Recently, there are many open-ended concepts about teaching English Grammar (Ellis, 2008). Even linguistics separate into two groups about this subject. In teaching grammar, there are two approaches: deductive and inductive. A deductive approach is a technique that works from general to the specific. An inductive approach is a technique that works from specific to general. These approaches are very important because one of them is convenient for certain grammar subjects and certain type of students while the other is convenient for different ones. There are lots of researches that were conducted on these approaches (Eisenstein, 1987; Krashen, 2002).

There is not a consensus about the effectiveness of a specific method in grammar teaching. Indeed, grammar teaching is an essential part of classroom activities and adopting the most appropriate way to teach grammar according to student profile is an important issue. Teachers' transform their technical knowledge to practice may vary significantly. There are modernist or traditional approaches in grammar teaching. Lecturers may talk about many advantages and disadvantages of these traditional and modernist approaches. According to some researchers the main shortcoming of the traditional approach is lack of context (Petrovitz, 1997 in Sik, 2015) while others argue that traditional approaches are more successful (Robinson, 1996 in Sik, 2015). In grammar teaching modern approaches are labeled as inductive approach and traditional approaches are described as deductive approach.

Silvia (2006) in her research elaborated two instructional approaches, inductive and deductive. Both approaches can offer certain advantages. The deductive approach derives from deductive reasoning where the concept goes from general to specific. Rules, patterns, principles are presented first, and then moves to the examples. Deductive approach which is also known as rule-driven teaching enjoys the following advantages: 1.The deductive approach goes straightforwardly to the point and can, therefore, be time-saving. 2. A number of rule aspects (for example, form) can be more simply and clearly explained than elicited from examples 3. A number of direct practice/application examples are immediately given. 4. The deductive approach respects the intelligence and maturity of many adult learners in particular and acknowledges the role of cognitive processes in language acquisition. 5. It confirms many learners' expectations about classroom learning particularly for those who have an analytical style.

On the other hand, deductive approaches have some disadvantages: 1. Beginning the lesson with a grammar presentation may be off-putting for some learners, especially younger ones. 2. Younger learners may not able to understand the concepts or encounter grammar terminology given. 3. Grammar explanation encourages a teacher-fronted, transmission-style classroom, so it will hinder learner involvement and interaction immediately. 4. The explanation is seldom as memorable as other forms of presentation (for example, demonstration). 5. The deductive approach encourages the belief that learning a language is simply a case of knowing the rule.

Moreover, the deductive method is often criticized because: a) it teaches grammar in an isolated way; b) little attention is paid to meaning; c) practice is often mechanical. This method can, however, be a viable option in certain situations; for example, when dealing with highly motivated students, teaching a particularly difficult concept, or for preparing students to write exams (Bilash 2009).

From numerous statements about learning approach above it shows that a variety of ways to implement effective and efficient learning. Therefore, through these approaches the researcher recommends one appropriate learning approach that can be adopted by PIBA teachers and students based on the needs of students in the conditions that exist today. The researcher assumesif the teacher is able to adjust to the situation in the classroom and the mood of the students in the learning process, students' motivation and achievement can accurately and continuously be maintained.

Motivational Learning Model (ARCS)

"Motivation consists of the amount of effort a person is willing to exert in pursuit of a goal; hence, motivation has magnitude and direction. Consequently, motivational design is concerned with connecting instruction to the goals of learners, providing stimulation and appropriate levels of challenge, and influencing how the learners will feel following successful goal accomplishment, or even following failure"(Keller, 2006).

An effective instructor must not only gain a learner's attention but hold it throughout a course or lesson. John Keller synthesized existing research on psychological motivation and created the ARCS model (Keller, 1987). ARCS stands for Attention, Relevance, Confidence, and Satisfaction.

1. Attention: Perceptual attention-getters, as the instruction begins and continuing throughout such as colors, style, sound, humor, interaction, and involvement are essential.

2. Relevance: The use of meaningful examples to create contextual links between the learner and the context of what the teacher are teaching. Utilize the results of the needs assessments to get an understanding of the learners and their reason for seeking or requiring the teacher's instruction.

3. Confidence: success as the learner moves through the instruction will keep the learner engaged and will increase students' positive response to the experience. Design the instruction with small steps, self-pacing if possible, and immediate feedback to provide confidence-building experiences.

4. Satisfaction. Appropriate acknowledgment of instructional content and developing the desire to continue the pursuit of similar goals.

Research Methodology

This research used mixed research methodology. Mixed methods research is a style of research that uses procedures for conducting research that are typically applied in both quantitative and qualitative studies. The purpose of these designs is to build upon the synergy and strength that exists between quantitative and qualitative methods in order to more fully understand a given phenomenon than is possible using either quantitative or qualitative methods alone.

The study population was taken from a program called PIBA in UIN Makassar. These programs are language courses that aim to meet the English language learning needs of students at the higher education level in the State Islamic University. In this research, the writer used purposive sampling taken from the first year students. There were 2 classes chosen as the subject of the research. The first class was from Physics Department Faculty of Science and Technology treated using deductive approach and acted as a control group. The other class was from Islamic Guidance and Counseling Department Faculty of Communication treated using inductive approach and acted as an experimental group. Both classes were taught Present Tense and Past Tense from The Essential Grammar book of Raymond Murphy for Elementary students. The control class was slightly higher in number of students of 36 and the experimental class consist of 24 students.

The research instrument used in this study were questionnaires, class observations and interview. Quantitative data was collected from students using motivational questionnaires based on question types developed by Keller (1987). Following the quantitative method, qualitative data were collected from interviews and class observations.

Findings and Discussions

This chapter discusses the findings from the research implementation and identifies the results of the data analysis based on the research question designed in the early chapters.

Findings
Data collected through questionnaires

Below are the presentation of data after being analyzed through the statistical software in a sequence of The Control Class followed by The Experimental Class. Each of the ARCS motivational aspects discussed is based on the statistical data analysis classified based on each of the approaches. The questionnaire consists of 32 questions designed to meet the four aspects proposed in ARCS Model. Below, each aspect will be displayed based on the frequency and percentage of the scoring from the questionnaire. The Likert scale was used to classify the response from strongly agree (SA), agree (A), undecided (UN), disagree (D) and strongly disagree (SD). Each of the motivational aspect were classified based on the total mean score accumulated for the number of questions given in the questionnaire for which category they belong to. The 5 categories in the range of motivation score were highly unmotivated, unmotivated, moderately motivated, motivated and highly motivated.

a. Deductive class
1) Attention aspect

Table 1. Question items and total mean result of the attention aspect.

Q	Statement	Maen
Q1	I feel interested if the explanation material of Simple Present and Past Tense given at the beginning of the lesson	4.41
Q2	I am interested if teacher varies the learning method by group discussion or pair interaction.	4.29
Q3	I actively participate if Teacher gives games related to the learning material.	4.24
Q4	Too much exercises in the class about Simple Present and Past Tense makes bored.	3.88
Q5	I feel excited when the teacher varies the practices of past simple and present perfect.	4.35
Q6	Explanation of The Simple Present and Past Tense is easier if I can use the sentences through exercises.	4.18
Q7	If teacher directly explains the formula of Simple Present and Past Tense, I will memorize the lesson	3.32
Q8	I get burden if the teacher asks me to make Simple Present and Past Tense sentences	3.79
Total		**4.06**

Table 1 above shows the total mean score achieved by the students for each question on the attention aspect. This total mean score of **4.06** result indicated that all the questionnaires in this attention aspect reached high score and the total classified as motivated category. Notice that question No.7 has the lowest among the others, **3.32.** The highest mean score was from question No.1, **4.41.** This reflected the approach used for this control class and the response was very high.

2). Relevance aspect

Table 2. Question items and the total mean result of the relevance aspect.

Q	Statement	Mean
Q9	I am pleased if Teacher begins the class by reviewing briefly what have been learned in the previous meeting.	4.44
Q10	I am interested to learn The Simple Present Tense and Past Tense because it is useful for me.	4.56
Q11	The Simple Present Tense and Past Tense material doesn't meet my needs because it is too easy for me.	4.38
Q12	I am pleased to make my own Simple Present and Past Tense sentences	3.97
Q13	I need more than 1 meeting to understand The Simple Present Tense and Past Tense.	4.09
Q14	I feel anxious if the teacher asks many questions during the presentation of Simple Present and Past Tense	2.97
Q15	I feel satisfied if I can use the Simple Present and Past Tense because it will be useful to make a correct and good sentences.	4.53
Q16	I feel satisfied if I get the lesson of Simple Present and Past Tense directly from the teacher	4.38
Q17	I am pleased if teacher gives many examples and exercises after	4.65

	explaining the formula of Simple Present and Past tense	
Total		**4.22**

Table 2 shows the relevance aspect, the total mean score was **4.22** which categorized as motivated in the motivation rating. The highest score was question No.17 (**4.65**), and the lowest score was question No.14 (**2.97**). It showed that learners like it if they have many exercises in the classroom so they can understand better.

Confidence aspect

Table 3. Question items and mean result of the confidence aspect.

Q	Statement	Mean
Q18	After teacher explains the formula of Simple Present and Past Tense in the beginning , I am confident to be able to do all the exercises	3.74
Q19	Teacher explanation about the material of Simple Present and Past Tense at the beginning of the lesson fits my learning expectation	4.03
Q20	The exercises related to Simple Present and Past Tense provided by the teacher do not fit my expectation	4.00
Q21	During the lesson, I feel confident from the exercises given.	3.65
Q22	After learning Simple Present and past Tense, I am confident doing any exercises using this material.	3.74
Q23	I cannot use Simple Present Tense and Past Tense in communication if I only do the written exercises.	3.24
Q24	I do not understand many terms in teacher explanation about Simple Present and Past Tense	3.76
Q25	I think the material of The Simple Present and Past Tense was difficult	3.41
Total		**3.69**

In the confidence aspect, the total mean score was **3.69**, the highest score was question No. 19, with mean score of **4.03**, and the lowest score was question No. 23 with total mean score of **3.24**. The result indicated that although students might not be quite confident when they learn the lesson for the first time, but afterwards their confidence could grow positively after the learning approach was implemented.

Satisfaction aspect

Table 4. Question items and total mean result of the satisfaction aspect.

Q	Statement	Mean
Q26	Understanding the formula of Simple Present and Past Tense in the beginning of the lesson made me satisfied in learning.	4.06
Q27	I am pleased to learn The Simple Present and Past Tense and would like to learn more.	4.44
Q28	I don't like the teaching method of Simple Present and Past given by the teacher.	4.12
Q29	I am pleased joining the PIBA Program	4.53
Q30	I cannot understand Simple Present and Past Tense if the teacher does not give opportunity to make my own sentences.	3.47
Q31	The way of teacher explains the rules at the beginning of the lesson before giving the examples fits my learning expectation.	4.26
Q32	I feel satisfied if I can give my opinion related to examples given	4.26
Total		**4.16**

Questions No.26-32 represented the satisfaction aspect. In The satisfaction aspect, the total mean score was **4.16**, the highest score was item No. 29, mean score of **4.53**. The lowest score was item No. 30 with total mean score of **3.47**. This result indicated that students were overall satisfied with the material and their sense of satisfaction would be higher if they could have longer time for the lesson.

Inductive class
Inductive class is the experimental class with inductive approach treatment to the students. From the questionnaire given after the treatment, below are the result summarized in the table for each response category for each question for the four motivational aspects. Below are the findings.

1). Attention Aspect
Table 5. Question items and total mean score result of the attention aspect.

Q	Statement	Mean
Q1	I feel interested if the explanation material of Simple Present and Past Tense given at the end of the lesson	3.69
Q2	I am interested if teacher varies the learning method by group discussion or pair interaction.	4.08
Q3	I actively participate if Teacher gives games related to the learning material.	4.73
Q4	Too much exercises in the class about Simple Present and Past Tense makes bored.	3.73
Q5	I feel excited when the teacher varies the practices of past simple and present perfect.	4.38
Q6	Explanation of The Simple Present and Past Tense is easier if I can use the sentences through exercises.	4.69
Q7	I can understand easier if teacher gives exercises in the beginning of the lesson and explain the formula at the end of the lesson.	3.77
Q8	I get burden if the teacher asks me to make Simple Present and Past Tense sentences	3.58
Total		**4.08**

Table 5 displays the total mean result of the response to each question from 32 questions in the questionnaire distributed to the 26 students in the inductive class. For the attention aspect, the total mean score was **4.08** with the minimum score of **3.58** for question No.8 and maximum total mean score of **4.73** for question No.3. This is the highest response score given by the students for one particular statement achieved from the questionnaire.

2).Relevance aspect
Table 6. Question items and total mean result of the relevance aspect.

Q	Statement	Mean
Q9	I am pleased if Teacher begins the class by reviewing briefly what have been learned in the previous meeting.	4.50
Q10	I am interested to learn The Simple Present Tense and Past Tense because it is useful for me.	4.58
Q11	The Simple Present Tense and Past Tense material doesn't meet my needs because it is too easy for me.	4.12
Q12	I am pleased to make my own Simple Present and Past Tense sentences	4.15
Q13	I need more than 1 meeting to understand The Simple Present Tense and Past Tense.	4.23
Q14	I feel anxious if the teacher asks many questions during presenting	2.92

	Simple Present and Past Tense	
Q15	I feel satisfied if I can use the Simple Present and Past Tense because it will be useful to make a correct and good sentences.	4.50
Q16	I feel satisfied if I can understand the formula after doing the exercises	4.38
Q17	I am pleased if teacher gives many examples and exercises before explaining the formula of Simple Present and Past tense	4.19
Total		**4.18**

Table 6 above displays the question items and mean result of the relevance aspect. The total mean score was the highest among the 4 aspects of the motivational questionnaire, **4.18.** Question No. 10 got the maximum score of **4.58**. Meanwhile, the minimum score registered was from question No.14 with the total mean score of **2.92**.

3). Confidence aspect
Table 7. Question items and total mean result of the confidence aspect.

Q	Statement	Mean
Q18	After Teacher give exercises on the material in the beginning of the lesson, I am confident to be able to discover the formula at the end of the lesson	3.85
Q19	Teacher explanation about the material of Simple Present and Past Tense at the end of the lesson does not fit my learning expectation	3.35
Q20	The exercises related to Simple Present and Past Tense provided by the teacher do not fit my expectation	3.77
Q21	During the lesson, I feel confident the exercises given.	3.92
Q22	After learning Simple Present and past Tense, I am confident doing any exercises using this material.	3.73
Q23	I cannot use Simple Present Tense and Past Tense in communication if I don't do the written exercises.	3.81
Q24	I do not understand many terms in teacher explanation about Simple Present and Past Tense	3.96
Q25	I think the material of The Simple Present and Past Tense was difficult	3.62
Total		**3.75**

Table 7 shows the confidence aspect responded by the students from the 8 questions designed for this category. The total mean score of this satisfaction aspect was **3.75**. The maximum mean score responded was **3.96** of question No.24, which showed 97% of the total students understood the explanation of the material. The minimum score was in question No.19 with mean score of **3.35**.

4). Satisfaction aspect
Table 8. Question items and total mean result of the satisfaction aspect.

Q	Statement	Mean
Q26	Discovering the formula of Simple Present and Past Tense after doing the exercises made me satisfied in learning.	3.69
Q27	I am pleased to learn The Simple Present and Past Tense and would like to learn more.	4.31
Q28	I don't like the teaching method of Simple Present and Past given by the teacher.	3.92
Q29	I am pleased joining the PIBA Program	4.54
Q30	I cannot understand Simple Present and Past Tense if the teacher does not give opportunity to make my own sentences.	3.42

Q31	The way of teacher explains the rules at the end of the lesson after given the examples fits my learning expectation.	4.04
Q32	I feel satisfied if I can give my opinion related to examples given.	4.35
Total		**4.04**

Table 8 shows the satisfaction aspect responded by the students from question No.26 to No.32 designed for this category. The total mean score of this satisfaction aspect was **4.04**. The maximum total mean score responded was **4.54** of question No.29 which showed 97% of the total students like to join this PIBA program. The minimum score was in the statement No. 30 with a mean score of 3.42.

Findings from interview
a. Deductive class
There were five students who were interviewed in the deductive class; DE 10, DE 16, DE 18, DE 19 and DE 29. All of them have been studying English for approximately 7-8 years, since they were in Junior high school. The interview questions were based on the questionnaire of ARCS model which consist of four aspects: attention, relevance, confidence and satisfaction.
1) **Formula is presented at the beginning (attention aspect)**
    All of the students mentioned that they like if the formula is presented first because it is easier for them to make the sentences. DE 29 stated that "for me, if the formula is at the beginning, it's better because it is understandable, it's easier also to form the sentences, and it's more interesting to know the tenses."
    Furthermore, DE 16 said that "based on my experience in learning English, this is very helpful because in learning tenses, the formula should be presented first so it's easier for students to make the sentence, especially for myself. DE 18 also had the same opinion, she said that when the formula is at the beginning, it's easier to make a sentence.
2) **The lessons meet the students' needs (Relevance aspect)**
    Five of them said that the lessons of Simple Present Tense and Past Tense meet their needs. They need it for communication with friends and foreigners, looking for a job and research. DE 29 mentioned that she needs it in her daily life. She usually talks with her room-mates and her cousin who studies at The English department. Furthermore she said that "we really need it, because in Physics Department we do not only use Bahasa Indonesia, but we also use English in our research. If it's a research, there are scientific terms in the article, the abstract is usually in English."
    Meanwhile DE 18 mentioned that she uses it in the near future, when she happens to meet a foreigner, she will not be hesitant to communicate. DE 19, who realizes that in his department there is a requirement to achieve 450 TOEFL score, stated that he needs English to apply for a job.
3) **Students ability to do the assignment (Confidence aspect)**
    Among the 5 students chosen as the interviewees, 4 of the students said that they are confident but one said that she is not sure. DE 29 said that the teacher teaches well, it's easy to understand, and the structured formula is given so she is confident to do the assignment. DE 18 has the same opinion. She's sure to be able to do the assignment if the formula is highlighted.
    Whereas DE 16 felt that she's not really sure because sometimes she forgot the formula. Furthermore she said that the formula might be different for example Simple Present, that's why it's more difficult.
4) **Teacher's method of teaching in the classroom (Satisfaction aspect)**
    All of the students felt satisfied with the teacher. DE 19 mentioned that he's satisfied because the lesson is easy to understand and there's interaction between teacher and students. In line with that, DE 18 said that the teacher's explanation is easy to understand, not that complicated, the material is given step by step.
    Moreover, DE 29 added that "when the class starts, the teacher joins with the students, knowing what they need, giving examples of words, sentences, and also the games. What she taught, it's easier to understand."
DE 29 also stated that she is satisfied because her expectation in learning English is fulfilled, she got the lessons which she needed. She added that the learning process is also fun and creative, it's not boring and it's enjoyable. Lastly, DE 10 said that he's satisfied with teacher's method but he's never satisfied to learn.

b. Inductive class

For Inductive class, there were also five students interviewed. They were IN 2, IN 3, IN 20, IN 17 and IN 23.

1). Formula is presented at the end of the class (Attention aspect)

Three students mentioned that they liked if the formula is presented at the end because they can discover the formula at the end. IN 2 even mentioned that it's her first time like studying English. She said "I'm happy I get to know it, for example in the beginning I didn't know but then it's corrected then I know. Furthermore she said "when I was at junior and senior school I seldom give attention to English lesson because I don't like it, this is the first time in PIBA, I've started to like English".

In line with IN 2, IN 3 also stated that even though it is the first time for her learning English where the formula is given at the end, she likes it. Furthermore, IN 17 said that he likes it because from the examples given, we can guess the formula, so when the formula is explained at the end, the formula can be understood.

On the contrary, IN 20 disliked it, she said "I don't like it if the formula is given at the end because that makes it hard to understand, in the beginning is better. Furthermore she said that "It's hard at the end, because usually we don't understand it in the end, if it's in the beginning it's better when we see it in our notes"

Another student, IN 23, prefers if the formula is given both at the beginning and the end of the lesson. He said, "actually I like if the formula is presented at first and repeated again at the end of the lesson because the formula won't be forgotten at the end of the lesson".

2). The lessons meet with the students' needs (Relevance aspect)

All of the students said that the lessons meet with their needs. They know that English as an International language and they need it for communicating with their friends, tourists and most of them want to go abroad to continue their study.

IN 3 who has been interested in English since she was a child said that she sometimes practices English in her daily conversation because her roommate is an English student. IN 20 said that she needs English to communicate with friends, tourist and her dream is going abroad.

IN 2 on the other hand, stated that "we need English actually because here in Bimbingan Penyuluhan Islam (BPI) specialized in preaching, we're not going to be here forever, we must go out, overseas, wherever, we need English, an international language, so we need it." IN 17 also mentioned that "I need it because I plan to continue my study abroad".

3).Students ability to do the assignment (Confidence aspect)

It seems that some of them still felt unsure doing the assignment. IN 3 said that sometimes she is not sure of the formula because there are many formulas that has to be learned. She said that in the English general subject, the lesson is Present Perfect. That's why she's confused with the formula of present tense, past tense and present perfect. IN 20 also said "Uh…I'm not sure because I don't master the formula, so I'm not sure if it's fully correct".

However, IN 17 who started to like English since studying English at PIBA mentioned that he's confident doing the assignment because the lessons have been explained so he knew it already. IN 23 also said that he's confidence because the lecturer explained it clearly and the lesson is not boring.

4).Teacher's method of teaching in the classroom (Satisfaction aspect)

All of the students felt satisfied with the teacher's method because the class is fun, enjoyable, and there are many exercises given. As IN 2 said the teacher was fun and the exercises improved her knowledge. IN 23 also mentioned that the teacher's method is fun, there were games, and it's more enjoyable in the classroom.

Furthermore IN 17 said "The teacher's method is different, what I mean, when we study in the previous lesson, we studied tensely. We used to think that English is difficult but now it's easier." It's in line with IN 3's opinion who is satisfied because the teacher explained the lesson clearly.

Discussion

The questionnaire used in this study was intended to unveil the students' motivation in relation how the learning process was presented by the teacher. This is supported by Keller (1987) with his motivational design called ARCS. Motivation is essential when it comes to student learning. Motivation involves helping a learner want to learn as well as providing opportunities for the learner to develop in ways that is authentic and satisfying. Keller's theory suggests that if teachers utilize his four categories of learning (attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction) and incorporate a design system which links the instructional content to this theory student motivation will increase positively.

For the deductive class the first aspect was attention which based on the result in the findings the total mean

score as well as the total sum of the questionnaires fit in the motivated category, 4.06. This is the same as relevance (4.22), confidence (3.69) and satisfaction (4.16) aspects which happened to fall in the motivated category among. The average total mean score of the overall questions was **4.03**.

On the other hand, for the inductive class, the score for each of the motivational aspects were as follow; attention (4.08), relevance (4.18), confidence (3.75) and satisfaction (4.04). The overall average of the total questions in this class was **4.01**. This condition happened to be the same for both the deductive and the inductive classes. This finding indicated that after being taught using either deductive or inductive approach, the students motivation were significantly high or in the motivated category.

However, based on the total mean score for each aspect, the highest scoring aspect was relevance and the lowest was confidence. This result showed that relevance aspect contributed as the most significant aspect.

This is in line with question in the deductive class questionnaire No.17 which acquired the highest mean score (4.65), "I am pleased if teacher gives many examples and exercises after explaining the formula of Simple Present and Past Tense". Thirty four students or all of the students in this class responded strongly agree and agree. It showed that the students would like to know more about English so they can master it well.

Moreover, the highest mean score for relevance in the inductive class was question No. 10 (4.58). The question was "I'm interested to learn the Simple Present Tense and Past Tense because it is useful for me". This showed that from 26 students in the inductive class, all of them answered strongly agree and agree to this statement and indicated that most students wanted to study English because it is important for them and the treatment given to them was relevant to their needs.

On the contrary, the confidence was the lowest aspect indicated that the students were still lack of confidence because they felt they needed more time to practice not only in written exercise but also their conversation in spoken English. This reflected from the Question No.23 with the lowest mean score of 3.24 in the deductive class questionnaire stated that "I cannot use Simple Present Tense and Past Tense in communication if I only do the written exercise". Meanwhile in the inductive class, the confidence aspect from Question No.26, "I think the material of The Simple Present and Past Tense was difficult", the mean score was 3.65. This reflected the fact that with basic grammar of Simple Present Tense and Past Tense, the students still found it difficult to understand. Hence It shows that the students' confidence were still low

The result of the questionnaire was supported by the result of the interview. In the relevance aspect, most of the students from the deductive class responded that they needed English for communication with their friends, foreigners, looking for employment and conducting research. Meanwhile, the students in the inductive class thought that English as an International language can help them to pursue their study in abroad. This finding indicated that relevance had strong impression to the students while attention and satisfaction aspects had a slightly lesser impression from the treatment.

The low confidence aspect of the students in the interview indicated that they still need more lessons in giving them more confidence. Specifically in the interview the student (DE 16) mentioned that she was not really sure because sometimes she thought there were many formulas that she had to learn and that has made her difficult to remember all them the formulas and this made her less confident. This finding also showed that some of the students felt unsure because they did not master the formula.

In the inductive class, one student (IN 20) also had the same opinion that she found in English lesson there were so many formulas that she had to learn that made her less confident. This confirms Fries (1945) and Lado's (1975) hypotheses which stated that the errors made in second language learning are due to differences between first and second language. The difference would create difficulties in learning the second language thus this would make students less confident.

From the result of the questionnaire given to the deductive and the inductive classes, it showed that the students' responses toward the approaches were positive. This can also be seen from some particular questions such as question No. 1 in the deductive class which stated "I feel interested if the explanation material of Simple Present and Past Tense given at the beginning of the lesson". The mean score for this item was the highest, **4.41**. On the other hand in the inductive class Question No.1 "I feel interested if the explanation material of Simple Present and Past Tense given at the end of the lesson" acquired mean score **3.69**. Both score fell in the motivated category of the motivation rating score. This suggested the students' perception of the learning approach were positive.

Based on the findings from the interview, in the deductive class, among the 5 students interviewed, all of them mentioned that they liked the deductive learning approach because if they were given the formula in the beginning, it

is easier for them to make sentences. On the other hand, in the inductive class there were three students responded that they liked when the formula was given at the end because they could discover the formula at the end. There was one student has no preference of when the learning approach to be implemented in her class either the formula is explained in the beginning of the class or at the end while there was one student preferred the formula was taught in the beginning which against the common trend of his friends in the inductive class.

In any experimental class, there is always a percentage of deviation that does not fit the general outcome of the experiment. In this instance, in the inductive class, 3 out of 5 students preferred the inductive approach, one chose deductive approach while the other one chose both approaches. Based on the class activities joined by this particular sample (IN 23), he mentioned that it was hard for him to understand, in the beginning is better. Furthermore he said that "It's hard at the end, because usually we don't understand it in the end, if it's in the beginning it's better when we see it in our notes".

Students' perception could also be seen from their response in the questionnaire such as question No.3 in the inductive class. The question "I actively participate if teacher gives games related to the learning material" had the highest mean score, **4.73**. This is in line with the interview result of student IN 20 who stated that, "the teacher's method was fun, and there are games. It is more enjoyable in the classroom". This suggested that the students enjoy the class if the teacher gives them varieties of games because the class would be interesting. This confirmed the previous research of Guerero (2001) and Tengku Paris and Yusuf (2012) who stated that playing games will reduce fear in learning and enhance students' confidence and in turn will improve students' mastery of English grammar.

In line with the behaviorism theory, language learning is related to the interaction between stimulus and response with the strengthening process. Strengthening is reinforced by situations that are conditioned repeatedly. This situation fits with the idea of the deductive approach. On the other hand, the constructivism theory stated that students who learn foreign language try to construct and discover their own knowledge. This condition is categorized as the inductive approach.

The result of the study indicated that students had positive perceptions and both approaches can be used in the classroom depends on the students' need.

Conclusions and Implications

Students perception on both learning approach were considered positive indicated by the result of the questionnaire where both approaches scored in the motivated category and this is supported by the result of in depth-interview where in deductive class all respondents responded that they preferred the deductive approach to be used in their classes while in the inductive class most of the respondents also liked the inductive approach. This study indicated that both learning approaches can be used to improve students' motivation as far as the learning environment is convenient for the students to learn.

The pedagogical implication of the study is the teachers and students are supposed to fully motivated to use the deductive and inductive approaches in the grammar class. Hopefully, these approaches can increase students' motivation and grammatical competence in learning English grammar.

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Metacognitive Strategies on Reading English Texts of ESL Freshmen: A Sequential Explanatory Mixed Design

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Abstract

The application of metacognitive strategies has been found to play a crucial role in reading comprehension. Hence, a sequential explanatory design method was undertaken on the use of metacognitive strategies among 403 Filipino ESL freshman students taking up General English Course. Findings revealed that the participants demonstrated a high metacognitive awareness of reading strategies while reading academic texts in English with problem solving strategies as their prime choice, followed by support strategies, and global strategies. Among the different metacognitive reading strategies, reading to increase understanding and highlighting to help them remember important information from the text were of high usage. There is a significant difference in the freshman students' use of metacognitive strategies when they are grouped according to field of study. Among the eight groups of participants, six groups of students use metacognitive strategies on a *high* level. Students enrolled in Medical Laboratory Science used the MARSI extensively while students in the field of criminology use metacognitive strategies on a significantly lower frequency level when compared to the other fields. Drawing upon the findings of this study, further research on the factors influencing the differences on the employment of metacognitive reading strategies among readers be undertaken.

Keywords: Metacognitive Reading Strategy, General Education, English texts, ESL Students

Introduction

Reading is a crucial skill in college. In fact, all courses demand a lot of reading—be it academic or vocational courses. It a skill crucial for one to succeed not only in the academe but also life beyond. Unfortunately, in the Philippines, reading as a skill lags behind. This is strongly evident in the outcome of the National Achievement Test (NAT) in the past years. Students got a mean percentage score of 54.42% English test specifically in reading and comprehension. This only shows that Filipino EFL learners hardly comprehend texts written in English. Apparently, teaching the English language demands a lot of effort from teachers. This may be due to lack of exposure to Reading in English texts and poor motivation (Alsamadani, 2001). In addition, inefficient instruction results to poor development of learner's cognition (Al-Jarf, 2007).

Strategies facilitate comprehension (Rupley et al., 2009). Studies show that good readers employ strategies that help them understand written texts both before and during reading as compared to less proficient readers although they may benefit from explicit instruction of strategies. Nunan (1991) posited that learning becomes more effective when one is conscious about the operation behind what one is doing. Higher and stronger motivation results if learners are taught of the strategies in learning. Since not everyone is aware of what strategy fits them, explicit instruction is necessary.

Moreover, Oxford (1990) explained why strategies are critical to language learning. First, strategies are an instrument that allows learners to become self-directed. Second, strategies bring about better self-confidence, which contributes to more effective learning and enhancement of communicative competence. Moreover, strategies are teachable and that they support learning.

The following are classified as: cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, mnemonic or memory related strategies, compensatory strategies, affective strategies, social strategies, and self-motivating strategies (Anderson, 2003). Other researchers like O'Malley and Chamot (1990) classified language learning strategy into only two: cognitive and metacognitive strategies. These two, according to Brown et al. (1983), fall under a bigger term metacognition.

Studies show that metacognitive strategies compared to other forms of learning strategies exhibit a more significant role in language learning. Anderson (2003) claimed that acquiring language seems more effective when one is equipped with strategies. If students become strategic learners, they would be able to use strategies that enable them to meet the demands of their tasks.

The roles of metacognitive knowledge in language teaching have been investigated. Zhang (2009) found that among Chinese senior high school students in their English as a foreign language (EFL) class, a significant relationship between the use of strategies and one's proficiency in English exists. The participants' usage of strategy was correlated to their general achievement in English as a Foreign Language.

Exploratory studies (Campos, 2012; Ghafournia1 & Afghari1, 2013; Kay Hong-Nam, 2014; Nazri, 2016; Saricoban & Behjoo, 2017; Nguyen & Trinh, 2011; Zhan & Seepho, 2013) sought the effects of metacognitive awareness of reading strategies on reading comprehension skills. Results revealed there are significant positive relationships between the components of MARS (Global, PSS, and SRS) and EFL students reading achievement. This means that when EFL students' metacognitive strategy awareness increases, their success increases, too.

Existing literature on the effect of metacognitive instruction on EFL students' performance is further supported by some quasi-experimental studies (see Ahmadi, Ismail, & Muhammad Abdullah, 2013; Al-Ghazo, 2016; Chumworatayee, 2012; Habibian, 2015; Huang & Newbern, 2012; Ismail & Tawalbeh, 2015). A significant difference between the controlled group and experimental group was revealed after the post test was given. This means that explicit teaching of metacognitive strategies enhances reading comprehension. Hence, if explicit instruction increases levels of comprehension, then, metacognitive instruction should be a part of the language classes.

The relationship of metacognitive strategies to some variables such as gender, grade level and study field, have likewise been conducted. Apparently, differences emerge in terms of the strategies used in metacognition among university students (Khoshsima & Samani, 2015), undergraduate students in Malaysia (Rajab, et al., 2017), and secondary students in Vietnam. Among the metacognitive strategies employed, PROB strategies were often used, followed by SUP and GLOB strategies (Zakaria, Zahidah Rajim, 2017). However, among various levels of advanced EFL learners in Oman (Al- Mekhlafi, 2018), the use of the varied types of strategies in reading does not vary.

Based on the above research findings, learners are made to realize about metacognition. Using strategies brings about favorable result, since learners are knowledgeable about their own thinking. They can make choices and practice their knowledge on metacognition, hence, enabling them to monitor their own performance, make adjustments to some challenges encountered, and make assessments in their own competence (Zhang & Goh, 2006). Therefore, it seems imperative that explicit teaching of strategies in metacognition be taught.

This study is helpful because it helps students in familiarizing reading strategies in metacognition. It will result to favorable experience in reading English texts and help learners manage their own learning. In terms of ESL pedagogy, it may suggest teaching strategies in metacognition that will familiarize students about the strategies they use in reading. Findings in this study may also provide information and insights to decision makers in universities, colleges, and in the Department of Education. Finally, findings of this research can help instructors, professors, and learners be informed of reading strategies that are effective.

Research Problems

Most of the researches in metacognitive strategies focus on the relationship between familiarity with metacognition and its relation to students' achievement in different subjects, the influence of explicit teaching of strategies in metacognition and comprehension (Bećirović, Čeljo, & Sinanović, 2017; Nazri, 2016; Nguyen & Trinh, 2011; Zhan & Seepho, 2013). One recent study along this topic was that of Pascual (2019), but she only statistically explored awareness of these metacognitive strategies. Her respondents, too, were only limited to prospective ESL teachers. Moreover, little research, to date, has been done on ELL readers' metacognitive strategies awareness enrolled in General English Course (GEC) and its relationship to gender, grade level and study field/discipline. To bridge this gap, the current study aimed to ascertain EFL freshmen's use of metacognitive strategies. It also aimed to look into the probable differences among students enrolled in different disciples as regards the use of metacognitive strategies.

To meet the objectives of this study, the following research questions were put forward:
1. What metacognitive strategies are frequently employed by EFL freshman students in reading English texts?
2. Does the use of metacognitive reading strategies of ESL freshmen taking up GEC courses differ according to their field of study?

Methodology

Research Design

This study made use of sequential explanatory mixed method design (Creswell & Clark, 2014:9; Creswell, 2003). Bulusan (2019) mentioned that sequential explanatory approach is used in collecting and analyzing quantitative and then qualitative data in two consecutive phases in one study. In this study, the first phase of the research gathered information on the metacognitive strategies used by the respondents through a cross-sectional survey. Causal comparative research was used to examine possible differences among ESL freshmen's use of metacognitive strategies enrolled in different fields of study. Since the second phase aimed to better understand the result of the first phase, the researchers employed the basic qualitative study design postulated by Merriam and Tisdell (2016).

Participants of the study

The subjects of this study were freshman students, ages ranging from 19-20, and enrolled in General English Courses of the School of Education and Humanities, School of Health and Natural Sciences, School of Accountancy and Business, and School of Engineering, Architecture and Information Technology in one Private Higher Education Institution in the Philippines. For the first part of this study, total enumeration was employed. Purposive sampling technique was used to determine the participants for the second phase of this study.

Instrumentation

There were two instruments used in this study. The first is the Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory or MARSI (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002). It is a 30-item, self-report questionnaire that measures the strategies and behavior of students in reading English texts and other references. There are three groups of questions included in the MARSI. These are Global, Problem Solving, and Support strategies. Each of these categories includes specific reading strategies. Global reading strategies (13) are purposeful schemes used in reading such as checking for understanding and preparing for reading. Problem solving strategies (13) comprise those that directly refer to the text like regulating pace in reading, thinking about and focusing one's attention on the text. Support reading strategies (9) include fundamental strategies such as highlighting information, taking down notes and consulting the dictionary.

The second instrument is a researcher-made interview protocol, composed of four questions that aim to find out the familiarity of the participants on the metacognitive strategies they employ before reading, during reading, and after reading.

Procedure

Permission protocol followed by Bulusan, Antonio, and Dumaga (2019) was followed. A letter of request was addressed to the Dean of the School of Teacher Education and Humanities and the Department Head of Languages. Upon approval, another letter was addressed to the University Registrar to secure the record of freshman students enrolled for the first semester, SY 2018-2019. The total population of first year students was taken as respondents.

The MARSI questionnaire (2002) was used in this study. Questions about their course of study were asked. The respondents were provided some guidelines in completing the questionnaire and that they were assured of the confidentiality of their answers. They were instructed to check one option for each statement and were informed that all answers are acceptable. They were given 15 minutes to answer the questionnaire and were not allowed to review their answers. After the quantitative data was analyzed, the researchers randomly interviewed 30 participants upon their consent. Member checking was likewise done to ensure the correctness of the transcription of the respondents' statements.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 was used to analyze the data.
Data obtained from the MARSI Questionnaire was further examined using descriptive statistics. The mean scores of the participants were compared via ANOVA to determine the variations in the use of metacognitive strategy across

fields of study. On the other hand, the qualitative data was treated using some interpreting strategies suggested by Braun & Clarke (2013).

Results and Discussion
Metacognitive Strategies Used by ESL Freshman Students in Reading English Texts
Table 1 presents the frequency distribution of the ESL Freshman students when grouped according to how frequent they use each of the three categories of strategies in reading English texts. Findings show that out of the 403 freshman students included in this study, majority of them claimed using the available reading strategies at a *high* frequency level (F=268, 66.50%); 130 or 32.26% reported using the available strategies at a *medium* frequency level and only 5 or 1.24% reported using the available strategies as a *low* frequency level.

Table 1. *Metacognitive Strategies Employed by ESL Freshman students*

Frequency	Global Strategies		Problem-solving Strategies		Support Strategies		MARSI (Overall)	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%
High	239	59.31%	304	75.43%	245	60.79%	268	66.50%
Medium	160	39.70%	89	22.08%	144	35.73%	130	32.26%
Low	4	0.99%	10	2.48%	14	3.47%	5	1.24%
Total	**403**	100.00%	**403**	100.00%	**403**	100.00%	**403**	100.00%

This result indicates that generally the participants are aware of the metacognitive strategies in reading. It can be inferred that the participants are strategic learners, as they use a wide range of metacognitive strategies in reading English texts. The use of metacognitive strategies where problem solving strategy is most frequent followed by support strategies and global strategies, respectively, is consistent with the studies of İyüksel and Yüksel (2011); *Sariçoban* and Mohammadi (2017); Meniado (2016); Khoshsima and Samani (2015) and Azizah Rajab et al., (2017). The area of reading comprehension emphasizes the importance of metacognitive reading strategy awareness as a crucial factor in understanding texts. Thus, the extensive use of reading strategies warrants success.

A closer scrutiny on the table shows that most of the students use problem-solving strategies on a high level (75.43%); 22.08% on a *medium* level and 2.48% on a *low* level. On the use of global strategies, 59.31% of the students have *high* level, 39.70% have *medium* level and 0.99% have *low* level. Finally, on the use of support strategies, 60.79% have high level, 35.73% have medium level and 3.47% have low level.

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistical results for the ESL freshmen's self-reported use of the three identified metacognitive strategies in reading English texts. Findings revealed that freshman students on the whole reported using the available reading strategies at a high-frequency level (M = 3.70, SD = 0.492). Among the 30 strategies, 24 strategies (80%) fell into the high-usage level (M ≥ 3.5), and 6 strategies (20%) went to the medium level (M ≥ 2.5). No strategy was reported at the low-usage level (M =2.5). As regards the use of the three strategies, there is a high to medium usage of problem-solving strategies (M = 3.90, SD = 0.576) as their primary choice, followed by support strategies (M = 3.63, SD = 0.589) and global strategies (M = 3.62, SD = 0.504). Of the top five strategies mostly employed by students, four are under the problem-solving category (items 27,16,11 & 8), one from the SUP category (item 12), while the least five categories used are from the GLOB category (items 10, 17 & 26).

Re-reading is progressive; it is a process of re-visiting sections of a text two or three times. Re-current encounters with the text allows for re-thinking; focusing on features not previously noticed during the initial phase of reading such as how information is presented or arranged in that text, how it is sequenced and weighted. Hence, understanding is more likely to take place (Austin, 2010).

The following respondents' answer clearly support this finding by mentioning that *"Ah, when I don't understand something, I read it all over again and understand [it]in my own words. If a word is difficult, I usually look it up in the dictionary or sometimes I just gonna figure out from reading because I can't understand the meaning of words."* (Student A). Student E also answered that *"Pauit ulit ko po siyang binabasa hanggang sa maunawaan ko po...* (I repeat reading it until such time that I will be able to understand.)"

Interestingly, the participants' self- reported use of metacognitive strategies as revealed in their MARSI was high; problem solving and support strategies respectively as most often used. These metacognitive strategies are

regulatory strategies by which they monitor their reading comprehension. Monitoring, an essential factor in regulating reading, refers to the individuals' recognition of their understanding of a text. It guides them to work on their reading, directing them to work as they have planned. Engaging in self-regulation is a good example of monitoring. Azevedo and Cromley (2004) also indicated the following ways on how readers monitor comprehension during reading: making connections, predictions, inferences; using context clues, text features, and identifying text structures; using graphic organizers to identify specific kinds of text information, and making annotations or writing questions in the margins of the text. Among these monitoring strategies, the participants seem to frequently observe the following support strategies: use of context clues (M=3.65, SD=0.912, VD=high), or write comments or questions in the margins of the material (M=3.67, SD=0.960, VD=high), discussing with others (M=3.13, SD=1.052, VD=medium).

Table 2. *ESL Freshman Students' Perceived Use of Metacognitive Strategies (N=403)*

	Item	Mean	SD	VD
Global Strategies				
1	I have a purpose in mind when I read.	3.91	0.852	High
3	I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	3.96	0.759	High
4	I preview the text to see what it's about before reading it.	3.77	0.939	High
7	I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose.	3.57	0.888	High
10	I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization.	3.17	0.917	Medium
14	I decide what to read closely and what to ignore.	3.55	0.915	High
17	I use tables, figures, and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	3.36	1.041	Medium
19	I use context clues to help me better understand what I'm reading.	3.65	0.912	High
22	I use typographical aids like bold face and italics to identify key information.	3.68	1.025	High
23	I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	3.60	0.856	High
25	I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information.	3.74	0.858	High
26	I try to guess what the material is about when I read.	3.41	0.890	Medium
29	I check to see if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	3.70	0.963	High
	Overall	**3.62**	**0.504**	**High**
Problem-solving strategies				
8	I read slowly but carefully to be sure I understand what I'm reading.	4.00	0.852	High
11	I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.	4.08	0.831	High
13	I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading.	3.84	0.953	High
16	When text becomes difficult, I pay closer attention to what I'm reading.	4.10	0.819	High
18	I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading.	3.39	0.972	Medium
21	I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	3.97	0.934	High
27	When text becomes difficult, I re-read to increase my understanding.	4.14	0.891	High
30	I try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	3.68	0.992	High
	Overall	**3.90**	**0.576**	**High**

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	Overall	**3.90**	**0.576**	**High**

Support strategies

2	I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	3.43	1.027	Medium
5	When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read.	3.51	1.182	High
6	I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.	3.51	1.022	High
9	I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding.	3.13	1.052	Medium
12	I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	4.15	1.060	High
15	I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read.	3.95	0.949	High
20	I paraphrase (restate ideas in my own words) to better understand what I read.	3.67	0.960	High
24	I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.	3.73	0.907	High
28	I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	3.60	0.974	High
	Overall	**3.63**	**0.589**	**High**
	MARSI Grand Mean	**3.70**	**0.492**	**High**

Student F mentioned, "…*para intindihin ko yung word kung paano nagamit or yung position nya sa sentence, ma'am (* **I will understand the word based on how it is used in the sentence or consider the position of the word in the sentence.).**" **Student H also opined, "Minsan** *po sa word kasi, nasa surrounding word na 'yung meaning niya parang 'pag wala ng time mag-search, nagtatanong na lang ako…search, context clues, based din sa choices. (***Sometimes the meaning of the word can be found within the surrounding word. So, I will have to consider those words. I also examine the choices. Or sometimes if I do not have time to search, I just ask from the others).**"

Some websites, considered as "virtual others," are often sought by the participants when they hardly understand what they read. Student L explained, *'Pag may hindi ako maintindihan, ginogoogle ko po pag mahirap yung word. Yung iba po is kung ano po yung Pagkakaintindi ng iba like yung comments sa google. Consult ko yung kasama ko kung magparehas kami ng intindi. (*If I do not understand something, I usually google it. I usually examine the comments of others in the Google's search engine. I also consult my classmate if we have the same understanding.)."

Support strategies like underlining or encircling information in the text to help them remember (Item 12, M = 4.15, SD = 1.060); using reference materials like dictionaries to enhance understanding (Item 15, M = 3.95, SD = 0.949); and re-reading to find relationships among ideas (Item 24, M = 3.73, SD = 0.907) were also evident. This shows their capacity to make use of resources in increasing understanding. Selective highlighting through encircling or underling helps students to organize what they have read by selecting what is important. This strategy teaches students to highlight only the key words, phrases, vocabulary and ideas that are central to understanding the reading. Student K said, "I usually do a research first like the background so that I will be able to understand the topic more easily." Student C, on the other hand, mentioned, "The dictionary on my phone helps me in understanding what I read. Sometimes, there are a lot of words in the book but those in the internet are better simplified."

Summarizing as a support strategy is also highly observed by the participants (M=3.51 SD =1.022). Mokhtari and Sheorey, (2002) also found that among the Turkish EFL learners, summarizing was found to be the most frequently

used strategy. As a strategy, it teaches students how to take a large selection of a text and reduce it to the main points for more concise understanding; hence, ensuring productive study sessions. It also helps learners see connections within the text by allowing the reader to see how all parts are related to one another (Mc Cormick, 2010).

The participants did not only demonstrate the ability to detect difficulty in comprehension but also displayed the ability to plan for reading. This is evident in their regular use of global strategies like "thinking about what they know to understand what they read" (Item 3, M = 3.96, SD = 0.759), "having a purpose in mind" (Item 1, M = 3.91, SD = 0.852), and "previewing text before reading" (Item 4, M = 3.77, SD = 0.939). Other global strategies like skimming the text first by noting its length and organization (Item 10, M = 3.17, SD = 0.917), using tables, figures, and pictures to increase their understanding (Item 17, M = 3.36, SD = 1.041), and predicting what the material is all about (Item 26, M = 3.41, SD = 0.890) were among the least favored on the list. The following participants have these to say:

Student I: Before I read, I make a survey of the material page by page. I look at the length, the photos and the images. *(Titignan ko po muna kung marami-rami babasahin ko…page by page. Survey ko in terms of length. Tinitignan ko 'yung photos or images.)*
Student B**:** I have to find out what should I read. First, I decide if I will read this or not…like if I look on the stuff that gives me interest, something that is interesting.

Planning refers to the ability to think ahead and organize activities to attain one's objectives (Zare-ee, 2008). Often called forethought, it is a basic aspect of a perceptive behavior. Miller (1995) describes planning as a combination of anticipating improvement of situations and how to handle them. This includes the appropriate choices and use of strategies that will contribute to performance like knowing how to use strategies appropriately, making predictions before reading, and being mindful of time and attention before beginning a task. Researches revealed that planning as a regulatory skill is crucial in the facilitation of comprehension (Baker, 1989). Hence, if students know how to plan well in reading and apply these skills in classroom activities, it will definitely improve tests comprehension (Brown & Palincsar, 1989; Cross & Paris, 1988). As Swanson (1994) suggested, if regulator processes are employed and utilized well, learners are better motivated; thus, comprehension is improved.

ESL Freshman Students' Metacognitive Strategies and their Fields of Study
To answer the second research question "Do ESL freshman students taking up GEC courses enrolled in different fields of study differ in terms of the use of metacognitive strategies?", one-way ANOVA was utilized. Table 3 presents the participants' self-reported use of metacognitive strategies and their field of study.

Global Strategies. As reflected on the table, among the eight groups of freshman students, the highest mean of 3.86 has been recorded by students taking up Electronics and Communications Engineering (BSECE), followed by those enrolled in Medical Laboratory Science (M=3.70), Psychology (M=3.70), Electrical Engineering (M=3.67), Political Science (M=3.63) and Civil Engineering (M=3.59). All seven groups of students use global strategies on a *high* level. The lowest mean of 3.32 was recorded by students in the field of Criminology. This group revealed that they use global strategies on a *medium* level. When ANOVA I was run, the calculated F-value of 2.761 (p<0.008) was much higher than the critical F-value of 2.033 at 7 and 395 degrees of freedom. This indicates a very significant difference in the freshman students' use of global strategies when they are grouped according to field of study. Considering the calculated means, it could be deduced that students in the field of criminology use global strategy on a significantly lower frequency level when compared to the other fields.

Problem-solving Strategies. The highest mean of 4.05 has been recorded again by students taking up Electronics and Communications Engineering (BSECE), followed by those enrolled in Psychology (M=4.01), Medical Laboratory Science and Tourism Management (M=3.93), Civil Engineering (M=3.92), Electrical Engineering (M=3.89), Political Science (M=3.76) and Criminology with the lowest mean of 3.57. Although all eight groups of students use global strategies on a *high* level, when ANOVA I was administered on the gathered data, the calculated F-value of 1.965 (p<0.059) was lower than the critical F-value of 2.033 at 7 and 395 degrees of freedom. This means that there is no significant difference in the freshman students' use of problem-solving strategies when they are grouped according to field of study. The findings suggest that the students' field of study does not relate to their frequency of employing problem-solving strategy in reading English texts.

Support Strategies. Among the eight groups of freshman students, the highest mean of 3.85 has been recorded by students taking up Medical Laboratory Science, followed by those taking-up Tourism Management (M=3.68),

Political Science (M=3.67), Psychology (M=3.63), Electrical Engineering (M=3.58), and Civil Engineering (M=3.59).

Table 3. *Freshman Students' Self-reported Use of Metacognitive Strategies and their Field of Study*

Field of Study	n	Mean	Var	F (7/395)	p-value
Global Strategies					
Medical Laboratory Science (BSMLS)	71	3.70	0.259		
Civil Eng. (BSCE)	119	3.59	0.254		
Electrical Eng. (BSEE)	32	3.67	0.167		
Electronics & Comm. Eng. (BSECE)	22	3.86	0.144	2.761**	0.008
Psychology (BS Psych)	35	3.70	0.304		
Political Science (BAPS) / BA Com	26	3.63	0.465		
Criminology (BS Crim)	27	3.32	0.230		
Tourism Management (Business Dept)	71	3.57	0.189		
Problem-solving Strategies					
Medical Laboratory Science (BSMLS)	71	3.93	0.445		
Civil Eng. (BSCE)	119	3.92	0.293	1.965^{NS}	0.059
Electrical Eng. (BSEE)	32	3.89	0.132		
Electronics & Comm. Eng. (BSECE)	22	4.05	0.173		
Psychology (BS Psych)	35	4.01	0.254		
Political Science (BAPS) / BA Com	26	3.76	0.742		
Criminology (BS Crim)	27	3.57	0.330		
Tourism Management (Business Dept)	71	3.93	0.285		
Support Strategies					
Medical Laboratory Science (BSMLS)	71	3.85	0.349		
Civil Eng. (BSCE)	119	3.56	0.301		
Electrical Eng. (BSEE)	32	3.58	0.199		
Electronics & Comm. Eng. (BSECE)	22	3.47	0.538	2.820**	0.007
Psychology (BS Psych)	35	3.63	0.452		
Political Science (BAPS) / BA Com	26	3.67	0.578		
Criminology (BS Crim)	27	3.38	0.241		
Tourism Management (Business Dept)	71	3.68	0.281		
MARSI (Overall)					
Medical Laboratory Science (BSMLS)	71	3.81	0.276		
Civil Eng. (BSCE)	119	3.67	0.222		
Electrical Eng. (BSEE)	32	3.70	0.121		
Electronics & Comm. Eng. (BSECE)	22	3.79	0.183	2.199*	0.034
Psychology (BS Psych)	35	3.76	0.278		
Political Science (BAPS) / BA Com	26	3.68	0.487		
Criminology (BS Crim)	27	3.40	0.225		
Tourism Management (Business Dept)	71	3.70	0.190		

F-crit. = 2.033; df 7/395

All six groups of students use support strategies on a *high* level. The lowest means of 3.38 and 3.37 were recorded by students in the fields of Criminology and Electronics and Communication Engineering, respectively. These two groups revealed that they use global strategies on a *medium* level. When ANOVA I was run, the calculated F-value of 2.820 (p<0.007) is much higher than the critical F-value of 2.033 at 7 and 395 degrees of freedom. This means that there is a very significant difference in the freshman students' use of support strategies when they are grouped according to field of study. Considering the calculated means, it could also be deduced that students in the

field of criminology and Electronics and Communications Engineering use support strategy on a significantly lower frequency level when compared to the other fields.

MARSI (Overall). among the eight groups of freshman students, the highest mean of 3.81 has been recorded by students taking up Medical Laboratory Science, followed by those taking-up Electronics and Communication Engineering (M=3.79), Psychology (M=3.76), Electrical Engineering (M=3.70), Tourism Management (M=3.70), Political Science (M=3.68), and Civil Engineering (M=3.67). All six groups of students use metacognitive strategies on a *high* level. The lowest mean of 3.40 was recorded by students in the field of Criminology which revealed that they use the available strategies on a *medium* level. When ANOVA I was run, the calculated F-value of 2.199 (p<0.034) was higher than the critical F-value of 2.033 at 7 and 395 degrees of freedom. This means that there is a significant difference in the freshman students' use of metacognitive strategies when they are grouped according to field of study. Considering the calculated means, it could also be deduced that students in the field of criminology use metacognitive strategies on a significantly lower frequency level when compared to the other fields.

Zhang and Seepho (2013) pointed out that vital for reading achievement is the students' ability to monitor during reading or students' metacognitive awareness and applying the strategies. The important effect of MARS is that, students can recognize when and where to use specific strategy according to the text they are reading (Takallou, 2011). Readers with metacognitive strategies are able to read efficiently and metacognitive strategies constitute an important factor of efficiency in reading.

As far as the three categories of strategies are concerned, students exhibited a medium to high usage with problem solving strategies as their prime choice, followed by support strategies and global strategies. The results indicating the predominant use of problem-solving strategies in this study was consistent with Mokhtari and Reichard (2004), Sheorey and Mokhtari (2001), İyüksel and Yüksel (2011), Sariçoban and Mohammadi (2017), Meniado (2016), Khoshsima and Samani (2015), and Azizah Rajab et al., (2017). These scholars are in agreement that problem-solving strategies were mostly used by non-native readers since these strategies were critical for comprehension.

Four out of the five strategies that were most favored by the participants were under the PROB category (items 27,16,11,18) and one from the SUP category while the lowest three mainly went to the GLOB category (items 10, 17 & 26). Each of the other two are from PROB (item 18) and SUP (item 9) categories. These findings imply that the participants extensively employ reading strategies when reading academic texts in English.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implications

This study aimed to ascertain the use of metacognitive strategies of ESL freshmen enrolled in general English Course (GEC). It also looked into the probable differences among students enrolled in different disciplines as regards the use of metacognitive strategies. Moreover, it tried to find out the specific metacognitive strategies used by the participants.

Generally, students are conscious of their comprehension since they utilize strategies when confronted with reading difficulty such as re-reading for better understanding, focusing on what they are reading, regulating reading speed, visualizing information, and guessing meaning of unfamiliar words. Highlighting information in the text in order to help them remember information is the most favored support strategy. Although the self-reported metacognitive awareness of students revealed a wide array of usage; global strategies seemed to be the least favored. Global strategies which basically involves planning is seldom observed by the students. Since planning to read is important, it is imperative that teachers demonstrate and instruct students to prepare for reading by setting goals for reading, survey the text in terms of length and organization, decide which ones to read and what to ignore, use tables, graphs, and pictures to increase understanding for reading.

Among the different study fields, a significant difference was found in the use of metacognitive strategies. These differences are probably due to the need, nature, and types of texts that are used in each discipline. However, all metacognitive strategies are important in the development of comprehension. Familiarity of metacognitive reading strategy is emphasized in the field of reading comprehension process, which has been indicated as an important factor for reading comprehension while reading. Hence, an extensive employment of metacognitive strategies in reading would ensure success in reading.

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Sources of embarrassment or empowerment? Oral Feedback Strategies in English Language Teaching Classrooms

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Abstract

As a response to the mismatch between the performance standards indicated in the English curriculum and the communicative competence of English language learners, teachers employ oral feedback strategies that border on the Embarrassment and Hygiene Resource Framework of Mackay (1993). This study aimed to investigate how and why this framework operates in the English language teaching (ELT) of the Philippines by recording actual classroom interactions of five experienced teachers and five beginning teachers with their respective students from 10 public rural high schools. Descriptive statistics and content analysis were used in order to analyze and interpret data gathered from transcribed classroom interactions and semi-structured interview sessions of the participants. It was found out that the student-participants exhibit embarrassment-producing behaviors in the classroom, such as silence in response to teacher's questions, undue delay in response, inarticulate response, and resort to first language. In order to resolve such forms of embarrassments, the teacher-participants deploy hygiene resources, such as reasoning aloud for the students, vicarious dialogue, expansion or minimal responses, question reduction, and resort to first language. Generally, more than half (54% - 70%) of the oral feedbacks generated by the participants are classified under Mackay's (1993) framework. Reasons for this extensive display and use of embarrassments and hygiene resources include the function of local languages as communicative resources, use of speech disfluencies as aids in oral feedback planning, role of wait-time and periods of silence in promoting information processing, and regard for simplifying questions as strategies in soliciting responses. With such positive evaluations associated to cases of embarrassments and use of hygiene resources in ELT, this research argues that these mechanisms should be regarded as tools of empowerment for both teachers and learners. Participants employ them to facilitate negotiation of meaning and distribution of power relations in the multilingual ELT classrooms.

Keywords: oral feedback strategies, Embarrassment and Hygiene Resource Framework, English language teaching, multilingual classrooms

Introduction

Interfacing language and literature is a predominant pedagogical framework in the English language curriculum of Philippine basic education. English language learners (ELLs) are taught how to examine linguistic patterns and utilize a repertoire of language tools in order to generate multiple layers of meanings from literary texts, as these commonly serve as jumpstarts in learning essential language concepts. Here, students are expected to develop appreciation for literary interpretation while deploying features of the target language. Literary texts serve as a medium that exposes them to the creative uses of the target language, such as its dramatic and figurative purposes (de la Cruz, 2011). This is apart from how literary texts function as instructional materials for ELLs to help them acquire reading competencies. Such is the overall curricular landscape in the K – 12 Language Arts and Multiliteracies Curriculum (LAMC) in the country. LAMC places emphasis on making meaning through language, which is at its core, and is guided by six language teaching principles—spiral progression, interaction, integration, learner-centeredness, contextualization, and construction (K to 12 English Curriculum Guide, 2015).

Since English language teaching (ELT) framed within the LAMC adheres to such an integrative approach, students need to respond to tasks taking full use of their existing grammatical knowledge while making sense of a literary work; language becomes a way in, an entrance to the text (Vilches, 2011). Eventually, teachers may assess students' language performances by focusing on their conformity to the principles of syntax and prosody, while they examine literary or

textual interpretation. With this kind of pedagogical approach in ELT, neither content mastery in the target language nor the literary skill in communicating meaningful interpretations of texts is achieved, particularly in contexts where English is, by and large, not the mother tongue. When appraising grammar fundamentals in students' language performance is placed at the core of ELT, *affective filter* (Krashen, 1982; 2009) may increase. This may result in students' passive behavior that may negatively impact discussions of content in a literature lesson. On the other hand, if linguistic accuracy is discounted in ELT in order to prioritize a more interactive and productive teacher-student contact, LAMC's ultimate goal for ELLs to achieve linguistic competence may become elusive. Linguistic competence in Philippine language education means learning of phonological rules, morphological words, syntactic rules, semantic rules, and lexical items (K to 12 English Curriculum Guide, 2015). It is therefore without doubt that there exists a visible mismatch between the performance standards indicated in the country's English language curriculum and the communicative competence of ELLs.
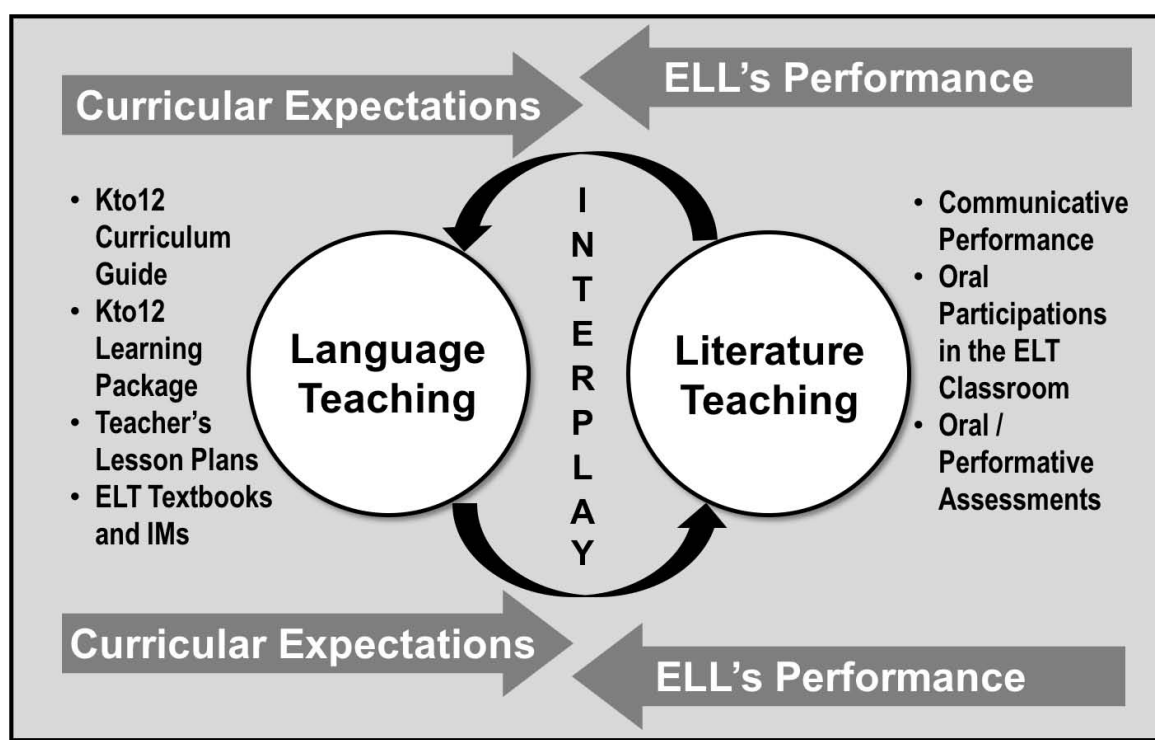
Figure 1. Present English Language Teaching (ELT) Situation in the Philippines

An ELL who struggles to comprehend and use complex English is a common predicament among teachers in Philippine ELT classrooms. Students' inability to understand language topics imposed by the current curriculum may be attributed to their inadequate knowledge and skills in the English language caused by learner's lack of self-preparation, insufficient pedagogical interventions from the teachers, and/or use of unauthenticated textbooks enforced by school administrators, among others. Mackay (1993) argues that this failure among ELLs to proficiently employ the language in communicative situations brings about *embarrassments*. He uses this term to describe instances in ELT where the learner hesitates to participate in the discussion, communicates incomprehensible oral responses to teacher's questions (Lingle, 2010), and experiences intense fear of making mistakes that exacerbate cases of repeated silences and undue delay in responses (Garrett & Shortall, 2002). With ELLs failing to use the target language effectively due to such problematic reasons, the teacher must then devise ways to *rescue* them from *embarrassments* (Mackay, 1993). Teachers must deploy ways to motivate the learners to linguistically perform in the desired level prescribed by the curriculum (Kasuya, 1999).

The mismatch between curriculum expectations and classroom realities more often than not emerge and persist in ELT of multilingual communities, such as in Philippine schools. English language teachers respond to this tension by lowering the demands of the subject content in order to level the students' existing linguistic repertoire. Consequently,

this pedagogical decision results in communicative deficiency rather than competence (Hodson, 2010; Kasuya, 1999; Lingle, 2010; Mackay, 1993). Such coping mechanisms border on the Embarrassment and Hygiene Resource Framework of Mackay (1993), which has been used in a significant number of English language studies to illustrate the various oral feedback strategies employed by teachers and students in dealing with issues on teaching and learning the target language. *Hygiene resources* are ways of limiting occurrences of errors in students' oral responses, and are techniques that simply camouflage substandard performance (Mackay, 1993). In Japan, Kasuya (1999) recounts that teachers select textbooks that instruct learners to concentrate and work on simpler tasks. Additionally, these teachers deliberately overlook cognitively demanding communicative activities so that teaching objectives were completed within the prescribed timeframe approved by the Japanese government (Kasuya, 1999).

This study determined the extent to which the Embarrassment and Hygiene Resource Framework (Mackay, 1993) operates in the English language classrooms of the Philippines. Moreover, the researcher explored on the assumption that the socio-demographic profiles of the participating English language teachers affect their use of hygiene resources as tools utilized to 'clean up' embarrassments committed by ELLs. It is argued that instances of the use of hygiene resources in the teaching of the English subject certainly happen in the Philippine ELT context; however, it is believed that *experienced* language teachers do not extensively practice these hygiene resources as they replace them with productive and linguistically developmental ones. By contrast, *beginning* language teachers implement such resources to a significantly frequent degree in order to deal with students' embarrassments carried out during classroom engagements. Furthermore, this study problematizes the disempowering approach that Mackay's framework uses to represent these coping mechanisms applied by teachers and students in English language classrooms, particularly in multilingual contexts. This study specifically sought to answer the following research questions: (1) What student embarrassments occur in the English language teaching (ELT) classrooms?; (2) What hygiene resources do the English language teachers use to 'clean up' these embarrassments?; (3) Who between the two groups of teachers (experienced and beginning) employs hygiene resources more frequently?; and (4) Why do students and teachers in the ELT classrooms demonstrate embarrassments and hygiene resources?

Theoretical Context

English language has been regarded as the world's most important international language by most measures (Hammond, 2012). As a matter of fact, in a 2014 report published by the British Council, it is estimated that, during the next decade, 2 billion people from different parts of the globe will learn to use the English language at any one time. In many universities, high schools, and even primary schools, Dearden (2014) reveals that the transition from English being taught as a foreign language (EFL) to English being the medium of instruction (EMI) for academic subjects escalates at an unprecedented rate. Schools' strong drive to use English as a second language (ESL) for language policy decisions and for instruction is caused by their desire to internationalize their academic profiles (British Council, 2014). In the Philippines, ever since Philippine independence, English has become the dominant language of education, and has remained to be on top of the language hierarchy in the country (McFarland, 2009). Within this educational landscape, teachers deal with students who are reticent in speaking the target language, even for communicative functions (Keaten & Kelly, 2000). ELLs' reticence is caused by fear of appearing foolish and being ridiculed when one provides an inaccurate response, lack of lexicographical knowledge in the target language, and low-level communicative proficiency (Bailey, 1996; Keaten & Kelly, 2000).

When ELLs are overcome by reticence, Li and Liu (2011) argued that they will not and cannot productively engage in the ELT classroom, will suffer from mental blocks during spontaneous speaking activities, shall be incapable of identifying and self-correcting errors, and will most probably negatively perceive the learning of the target language. Mackay (1993) terms such unfavorable responses to the learning of the English language as 'embarrassments'. According to him, these embarrassments that most ELLs commit undermine communicative competence. Teachers are compelled to urgently resolve this issue in ELT classrooms without jeopardizing the lesson transitions and unit timeframes. One of the ways in which this issue is addressed by teachers is through a process Mackay calls 'reduction'. Here, complex classroom tasks that learners could not accomplish are gradually replaced with simple ones that they could easily complete. Such a solution that teachers employ to 'clean up' classroom embarrassments lie within the borders of Mackay's Embarrassment and Hygiene Resource Framework.

English Language Learners (ELL)

Sources of Embarrassment
- *Silence in response to teacher's questions*
- *Undue delay in response*
- *Incomprehensible response*
- *Inarticulate response*
- *Delay in producing written response*
- *Incomplete written work*

English Language Teachers (ELT)

Hygiene Resources
- *Reasoning aloud for the students*
- *Vicarious dialogue*
- *Academic palliatives*
- *Substitution*
- *Expansion of minimal responses*
- *Question reduction*
- *Rapid reading*
- *Fill-in-the-slot worksheets*
- *Verbatim copying*
- *Dictation of notes*
- *Reading aloud*
- *Oral composition with the whole class*

Figure 2. Mackay's (1993) Embarrassment and Hygiene Resource Framework

In 1993, Mackay conducted a study in the Eastern Arctic of Canada where majority of the community including students has Inuktitut (Inuit or Eskimo language) as their mother tongue. He observed classrooms within this community in which the medium of instruction in the basic levels is Inuktitut, until about Grade 4 when the MOI proceeds through a transition phase. From this point, English is used in teaching and learning for all subjects except Inuktitut Culture and Language. For several weeks, he carried out observations and audiotape recordings of the interactions that occur in classes of Grades 7, 8, and 9 in a secondary school.

The teachers, Mackay finds out, attempt to eliminate classroom embarrassments by employing hygiene resources either singly or in combination. Hygiene resources are the techniques used to bring about reduction in the demands of the lesson. This feedback method permits an uninterrupted class work, however, at a level lower than the teacher and the curriculum's expectations. Mackay identified six behaviors leading to embarrassments, along with 12 hygiene resources practiced by teachers to mitigate them. Table 1 provides a discussion of each hygiene resource as defined and described by Mackay in his study (1993: pp. 36-38).

Table 1

Hygiene Resources Employed by Teachers during Classroom Engagement with Students

Hygiene Resource	Brief Description
Reading aloud for the students	teacher asks a question and then, after a pause, recites the reasoning process that he/she would like the students to engage in in order to reach the correct answer
Vicarious dialogue	teacher both asks and answers the questions in order to reach a desired point swiftly, or to portray a model reasoning process which he/she failed to elicit from the students
Academic palliatives	short sequences, often no more than a word or a phrase, used by the teacher to utter the academic and scientific equivalent of a correct answer supplied by a student, but expressed in non-academic language
Substitution	teacher creates the occasion for the students to substitute a simple task for a difficult task
Expansion of minimal responses	teacher accepts a semantically appropriate but formally inappropriate word or short phrase as a response from a student and expands it formally and qualitatively into a more acceptable answer
Question reduction	teacher will ask a large number of very simple factual questions requiring a simple yes-or-no answer, or an answer which contains only one piece of recalled information
Rapid reading	after having a series of students read aloud from the textbook, often painfully slowly and incomprehensibly, the teacher takes over herself and rapidly reads several paragraphs in order to compensate for the tiny quantity of text covered (badly) up to that point
Fill-in-the-slot worksheets	teacher may spend a great deal of time preparing worksheets based on the textbook; the worksheet tasks will usually require the absolute minimum response from the students, such as completing a key sentence by writing one word in the blank space provided

Verbatim copying	the teacher, after looking at their students' notes, may decide to create notes for the students, write them on the board, and have the students copy them into their workbooks
Dictation of notes	requires students to listen attentively and to write down exactly what they heard
Reading aloud	teacher may have the students read aloud from the textbook in response to a series of questions, thus minimizing the need for students to construct their own responses; alternatively, the teacher may do the reading aloud in order to have the lesson move at a more acceptable pace
Oral composition with the whole class	teacher invites the entire class to offer suggestions from which he/she selects appropriate ones to write on the board to produce a coherent text or story; this replaces the original individual writing task assigned but not carried out by the students

The 12 hygiene resources identified by Mackay (1993) through utilizing audiotape recording of classroom interactions, as well as carrying out classroom observations, were found to be effective in decreasing embarrassment producing-behaviors among the students. However, it was also reported that the expected learning outcomes indicated in the curriculum were not satisfactorily attained. Mackay's study was conducted in a Canadian Arctic high school where English is used as an additional language (EAL). In this case, English is used in the teaching and learning of content subjects, predominantly in Mathematics and Science (Hodson, 2010). Although Mackay's study is situated in an EAL context, his taxonomy on students' embarrassments and teachers' hygiene resources are considered applicable in the context of this study, where the target language is both the medium of instruction and the subject being taught.

In a 2010 study conducted by Hodson, Mackay's taxonomy was applied in order to critically examine five classroom interactions in a Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. From this study, Hodson concluded that "although it [Mackay's framework] is a useful starting-point for independent teacher reflection and self-development, the wide range of considerations affecting not only teacher response, but also anticipation of classroom embarrassments, along with the complexity of that phenomenon . . . mean that a wider range of tools is needed for effective analysis of pedagogical decision-making in the EFL classroom" (p. 25).

As its main theoretical framework, this study employs the taxonomy of Mackay (1993). However, since this study focused on investigating the oral responses of the students and how teachers provide oral feedback during classroom discussions, only four types of embarrassment-producing behaviors (silence in response to teacher's question, undue delay in response, incomprehensible response, and inarticulate response), and four types of hygiene resources (reasoning aloud for the students, vicarious dialogue, expansion of minimal responses, and question reduction) were considered for data analysis and interpretation. The other terminologies in Mackay's taxonomy did not emerge from the data collected, thus, in order to avoid the involvement of irrelevant categories, these classifications were deliberately discounted.

An additional category was added under students' embarrassments and teacher's hygiene resources when Hodson (2010) reformulated Mackay's (1993) taxonomy. Hodson explained that in order to comprehensively examine the communicative process that happen within EFL or ESL classrooms, one must acknowledge the language plurality in such environments by considering the fact that learners could access and use languages apart from English. Therefore, he claimed that 'resort to L1' by both the teacher and the students should be considered as a form of behavior resulting

to embarrassment, at the same time, one of teacher's mechanisms to address students' inability to perform at a level demanded by the language curriculum. The researcher believes that adding this category to the analysis and interpretation of data in this study would bring about discussions that are more reflective of the multilingual realities in the involved research locales.

Methodology

Research Design

This study employed mixed methods research design to collect, analyze, interpret, and report data on students' practice of embarrassment-producing behaviors and on teachers' usage of hygiene resources. Instances of exhibiting embarrassments and hygiene resources in ELT classrooms were determined through conducting audio-video recordings of teacher-student interactions, and performing a coding process where Mackay's taxonomy is applied. Data gathered from these methods were analyzed using descriptive statistics, particularly frequency counts and percentages. Reasons for the participants' performance of embarrassments and hygiene resources during discussions in the ELT classrooms were collected through the conduct of semi-structured interviews. Content analysis was used to examine the transcribed interviews and identify themes that describe and explain the rationale behind participants' classroom behaviors. Additionally, evaluation of existing relevant literatures and studies enriched the quantitative and qualitative interpretations of this study.

Sample and Sampling Procedure

Sample for this study was purposively drawn from a predetermined population. Participants were selected based on the purpose of this study and the researcher's prior knowledge about them, such as (a) the students' academic achievements and performance, (b) their language competence, and (c) the teachers' professional profiles. The 10 participating teachers were classified into two groups—five beginning or novice teachers and five experienced teachers. The former pertain to those who have less than three years in the teaching profession, have not attained any graduate degree, and have attended at least three seminars or trainings within the duration of service. On the other hand, the latter refer to those who have at least ten years of teaching experience, have earned any graduate degree, have participated in at least 10 seminars or trainings in the past five years, and have received teaching-related awards and recognitions. The specific profile of each teacher-participant is indicated in Table 2.

Table 2
Socio-Demographic Profile of Participating Public High School Teachers of English Language

Teacher-Participant	Years of Service	Present Grade Level/s Handled	Educational Attainment	Trainings Attended for the Past 5 Years	Teaching-Related Awards Received
ET 1	12	9 & 10	PhD	15	5
ET 2	15	9 & 10	EdD	18	9
ET 3	11	10, 11 & 12	PhD	11	6
ET 4	10	10 & 11	MAED	10	4
ET 5	10	7, 8, 9 & 10	MAED	12	5
BT 1	2	8, 9, & 10	BSE	3	0
BT 2	3	8 & 10	BSE	3	0
BT 3	3	9 & 10	BSE	4	0
BT 4	3	7, 8, 9, & 10	BSE	3	0
BT 5	2	7 & 10	BSE	3	0

Legend: ET = Experienced Teacher; BT = Beginning Teacher

Since all of the teacher-participants handle Grade 10 classes, students under this grade level also served as research participants. The 10 classes belonged to schools that were classified as rural public high schools under the Philippine Department of Education (DepEd). The classes involved in this study were considered as 'star sections', containing at least 25 students and at most 30 students. Star section was a category given to a class with students whose academic

numerical grades attain a general weighted average (GWA) of not lower than 90.00. Though the number of males and females vary in the classes involved in this study, they were generally considered homogenous in terms of their academic performances. This manner of sectioning students allowed for the implementation of lesson plans that were specifically tailored to the abilities of the learners. Additionally, with this kind of setup, teachers saved time in responding to individual needs of the learners as their areas of difficulty may be addressed at once.

Instrumentations

Researcher-made instruments were used in gathering needed data from the participants. To obtain the socio-demographic profile of the teacher-participants, they were asked to complete the questionnaires administered by the researcher. This questionnaire elicited information from the teacher-participants, which include their age, current position in the school, highest educational attainment, length of teaching experience, trainings and/or seminars attended for the past five years, and teaching-related awards or recognitions received. In addition, interview guides were also distributed to the participants in order to prepare them for the face-to-face semi-structured interview sessions, which were scheduled on a date and in a venue they selected. This interview guide contains questions that encourage them to discuss their reasons for demonstrating cases of embarrassments (for the students) and hygiene resources (for the teachers), and to explain how this affected their learning or teaching. For participants' reference, copies of their transcribed and coded classroom interactions were attached with the interview guide.

Data Gathering Procedure

Prior to data collection, the researcher obtained permission to conduct the study from the Schools Division Superintendents (SDS) and principals of the selected rural public high schools. Upon approval of the request, the objectives of the study and the data collection procedure were explained to the teacher-participants, together with their immediate supervisors. Questions and clarifications regarding the details of their participation in the study were accommodated and addressed accordingly by the researcher. During this orientation, the teacher-participants were also provided with questionnaires to determine their socio-demographic profiles and with the informed consent form (ICF) to signify their voluntary participation in the study. The researcher was then introduced to the Grade 10 classes handled by the teacher-participants. Students were also given the ICF after discussing their nature of involvement in the study. They were assured that their identity, including the actual audio-video (AV) recording of the class discussions, would be strictly confidential. These classes were observed for four consecutive one-hour meetings, but the AV recording of the classroom discussions was only performed during the last two sessions. Such a scheme was applied to overcome the Hawthorne Effect (Landsberger, 1958, as cited in Levitt & list, 2009), since the researcher intended to capture the natural, spontaneous communication that occurred in the ELT classrooms; students were given time to get used to the presence of an outsider within the perimeters of their classrooms, in effect, lessening tendencies of hesitancy to participate in discussions or being unusually participative during activities that require students' oral responses.

Separate interview sessions were held for the teacher-participants and student-participants after the conduct of observations and recordings. Only two students for every class involved in the study were purposively chosen for the interview sessions; selected students were the ones who were identified to have demonstrated sources of embarrassments most frequently. All of the participants were provided with the interview guide attached with copies of their transcribed and coded classroom interactions. The interview sessions were scheduled based on the preferences of the participants. During the sessions, they were also permitted to use any language in which they are most comfortable so that communication is more meaningful and productive.

Data Analysis

Av recordings gathered from the two classroom discussions of each teacher-participant were transcribed in Microsoft Office Word, following the conventions of Fairclough (2003), where "pauses are shown with dots (short pauses) and dashes (longer pauses); voiced pauses ('ums and ers') are shown as 'e:' and 'e:m'" (p. 299). In cases "where speakers overlap each other, turns are laid out in order to show the point in one speaker's turn where another speaker begins" (Fairclough, 2003, p. 299). Moreover, for some words in the recording that are indistinguishable, they are "indicated in brackets as (unclear)," (Fairclough, 2003, p. 299). This transcription convention was adopted because it did not focus on the more complex linguistic elements, rather the focus was set on the content of the utterances. Transcribed manuscripts were then coded based on the taxonomy in Mackay's (1993) framework. Tables that exhibit students' embarrassments

and teachers' hygiene resources, accompanied with sample extracts from the transcriptions, were presented to serve as reference for the categorizations made. To determine occurrences of embarrassments and hygiene resources from the transcribed manuscripts, descriptive statistics such as frequency counts and percentages were utilized.

On the other hand, transcribed manuscripts drawn from the semi-structured interview sessions involving the teachers and their students were examined through content analysis. From identified categories drawn from the responses of the participants and shaped by the questions given, significant themes emerged that explain the various reasons for the demonstration of embarrassments and hygiene resources in the concerned ELT classrooms. As a way of delving deeper into the participants' classroom decisions, their responses were linked to their theoretical and pedagogical underpinnings. Moreover, relevant literatures and studies were also incorporated to enrich the interpretation of the results.

Results and Discussion

Students' Oral Feedback Leading to Embarrassments

It is shown in Table 2 that the Grade 10 students of the teacher-participants exhibit cases of embarrassments during their oral participation in their ELT classrooms. For both groups, almost 60% of their oral feedbacks to teachers' instructions were manifestations of embarrassments, dominated by "Undue Delay in Response" (75 cases or 18%) for the classes handled by the experienced teachers, and by "Silence in Response to Teacher's Questions" (68 cases or 19%) for the classes under beginning teachers.

Table 2
Cases of Students' Embarrassments during the First Recording Session

Oral Feedbacks Leading to Students' Embarrassments	Group E (NSOF = 426)		Group B (NSOF = 349)	
	f	%	*f*	%
Silence in response to teacher's questions	35	8	68	19
Undue delay in response	75	18	26	7
Incomprehensible response	13	3	15	4
Inarticulate response	36	8	36	10
Resort to first language (L1)	71	17	55	16
Total	230	54	200	57

Legend: Group E = Classes handled by Experienced Teachers; Group B = Classes handled by Beginning Teachers; NSOF = Total Number of Students' Oral Feedbacks

For Group E, which are composed of classes handled by the experienced teachers, students would usually take long pauses prior to their oral feedbacks to the teachers' instructions. They also resorted to using their mother tongue (Ilokano), when they were observably unable to express their ideas in the English language.

1	ET:	Okay, so what is the first paragraph all about? Let's have S1. What can you
2		understand from this paragraph—first paragraph?
3	S1:	**—You can s-see other people. (Undue Delay)**
4	ET:	You can see other people? Ha? Really?
5	S1:	**. . . You can even notice them. (Undue Delay)**
6	ET:	You're just reading S20 *aya?* **What's your idea about this one? What can you**
7		**understand?** *Aya?* **From this paragraph? (Reduction)**
8	S1:	**e:m, what I can se is the—e:m I think . . . the strangers are—can be—e:**
9		**observed (Inarticulate Response)**
10	ET:	Okay, in other words, that **this all about the different places wherein**
11		**one will be able to meet or observe different types of people.** *Di ba?* **(Expansion)**
12		—Okay. *Pero,* it says there **the first one is the market** *kunana,* **right?**
13		**Is it a good place for you to meet people or observe people?**
14		**Okay, yes or no? (Reduction)**

Extract 1. Experienced teacher assigns students to read and explain the paragraph that appears on the slide presentation shown during the reading activity

Students' switching to their first language (L1) may be motivated by the teachers' extensive use of Ilokano expressions, such as *aya* (right), *di ngamin* (isn't it), and *ana* (what), that function to clarify or confirm responses during their discussions. Extract 1 provides a classroom interaction between the teacher and his students where Ilokano expressions frequently appeared.

Due to their teachers' recurrent use of Ilokano expressions in their utterances, the students might have created the impression that they could use their L1 when they are assigned to perform a specific learning task in the ELT classroom. It should be noted, however, that in cases when the students spoke in their mother tongue during discussions, the teachers infrequently required the students to translate their oral feedbacks into the target language. Therefore, in the English classes facilitated by the experienced teachers, resorting to L1 by the students was generally permissible but was also limited to certain extent by the teachers' language preference. An instance where the teacher encouraged the use of English rather than Ilokano is presented in Extract 2.

1	ET:	So, S2, if you are bored in my class, you are preoccupied? Ah?
2		Do you agree? . . . Anyone?
3	S3:	*Mabalin Ilokano* **sir?** (Can I speak in Ilokano, sir?) **(Resort to L1)**
4	ET:	Ah?
5	S3:	Ilokano
6	ET:	Ilokano? *Ala*, please speak in English. S4?
7	S4:	Busy.
8	ET:	Busy *kano*. Okay, let's find out if S4 is correct. Will you read the meaning S5?
9	S5:	"Dominate or engross the mind of someone to the exclusion of other thoughts."
10	ET:	**So basically, you're busy when you're preoccupied, right? . . . You are thinking of**
11		**something,** *aya?* **. . . You're thinking of something in which you become**
12		**unmindful of the other things that is happening around you. (Reasoning Aloud)**

Extract 2. Experienced teacher asks students to provide the meaning of a difficult term used in the sentence given during the vocabulary building activity

Students' inability to communicate meanings fluently in English would lead them toward deploying Ilokano when responding to their teachers' questions or instructions. In a survey study that examined code-switching as a phenomenon in English classrooms, Bista (2010) found out that most of the 15 bilingual student-participants looked for equivalence between terms in the first language and the English language, in that, they had high tendencies of performing word-for-word translation. She added that when the students fail in establishing equivalence, they gravitated towards using their L1. Accessing local languages, such as Ilokano, is not only crucial for social interaction or cultural identity, but also essential in learning concepts and knowledge for linguistic and cognitive development (Madrazo, 2019).

As previously mentioned, students were encouraged to speak in the target language but were also allowed to code-switch in more instances. This negotiation of language use in the ELT classrooms also occurred in the classes handled by the beginning teachers. In fact, beginning teachers were more tolerant in the use of mother tongue as there were no indication of imposing strict use of English in their ELT classrooms during discussions. This tolerance of delivering oral feedbacks in L1 is depicted in Extract 3 where the teacher approvingly accepted his student's response in Ilokano.

1	ET:	Yes, S6? What are you trying to tell us?
2	S6:	**(Silence) (Silence)**
3	ET:	Oh, I'll get back to you. S7?
4	S7:	*Tay* **"a traveler between life and death" ma'am** *ket, kaslang tay,*
5		**he will be there for her in life and death,** *tapos, kaslang, diay* **"the reason**
6		**firm, the, temperate, will, endurance, foresight, strength, and skill"** *ket isunan*
7		*to lang tay,* **the husband**—*tay* **wife to** *mangted ti* **endurance, foresight, strength**
8		*na,* **"a perfect woman, nobly planned"** *ket tay kaslang naplanodan nga isudan ti*
9		*agkatuluyan ken* **to warn, to, comfort, and, command** *ket tay* **wife** *ket macomfort*
10		*na tay . . . asawana* **ma'am,** *ken mabalinna pay i-***command "and yet a spirit**
11		**still bright with something of angelic eyes"** *ket* **after all** *dagidiay ket, isuna*
12		*pelang tay* **dream girl** *na.* **(Resort to L1)**
13	ET:	Okay—exactly S7.

(S7 : In the "a traveler between life and death" ma'am means like he will be there for her in life and death, and then, in "the reason firm, the, temperate, will, endurance, foresight, strength, and skill" means that the wife will give endurance, foresight, strength to her husband, "a perfect woman, nobly planned" means that they have already planned that they will be together, and then to warn, to, comfort, and, command means that the wife will comfort and can command her husband ma'am, "and yet a spirit still bright with something of angelic eyes" means that after all of those, she is still his dream girl.)

Extract 3. Experienced teacher asks student the meaning of the third stanza in the poem during the post-reading activity

For the classes supervised by the beginning teachers, most students remained silent and reticent when their teachers required them to respond to particular oral tasks. There were 68 cases (19%) of "Silence in Response to Teacher's Questions" recorded and identified during classroom discussions, which attained the highest number of embarrassment-producing behavior among the students. This frequent silent response of the students is shown in Extract 4 where the beginning teachers asks the students to analyze and interpret a stanza in the poem they are discussing. The researcher observed that beginning teachers fail to provide sufficient wait time after asking a question and before assigning a student to answer, which may have discouraged the students to orally participate in their classes. In a study conducted by Ferlazzo (2013), he affirmed that the quality and quantity of student responses increase when wait time is expanded to between three and seven seconds. He went on to argue that adequate wait time should also be applied even after students have shared their oral feedbacks to a question as this would allow other students to assess the previous

answers, and to build up on them.

```
 1   BT:   S8 said, the first stanza is about the first meeting, what about the second stanza?
 2         —Yes, S9
 3   S9:   (Silence) (Silence)
 4   BT:   —When you talk, that's when you interact or communicate with someone
 5         and that's how you . . . get to know. Yes, getting to know—Getting to
 6         know each other—And . . . what did he find out? (Reasoning Aloud)
 7   S10:  Diay record na ma'am ket haan nga, (The record ma'am was not) (Resort to L1)
 8   BT:   Please stand up, S10, stand.
 9   S10:  Tay sweet records ken sweet promises ket tay kaslang . . . awan pay bad nga
10         naaramidna ma'am. (The sweet records and sweet promises means that he did not
11         do anything bad yet ma'am) (Resort to L1)
12   BT:   Okay, records. These are the . . . things about the person, right? What else?
13         S11? I know there's something playing inside your mind.
14   S11:  (Silence) (Silence)
15   BT:   Oh, come on. Stand up.
16   S11:  (Silence) (Silence)
17   S12:  communicate and interact
18   BT:   Oh, S12, you were saying communicate, interact—What else? . . . So, what do
19         you find out? Is the woman perfect? . . . As he expected her to be? (Reduction)
20   S12:  (Silence) (Silence)
21   BT:   S13 and S14?
22   S13:  Ni S12 lattan ma'am. (Let S12 answer the question ma'am)
23   BT:   S9? Ay, yes, S15?
24   S15:  (Silence) (Silence)
```

Extract 4. Beginning teacher instructs the students to provide their interpretations of the poem's second stanza during the post-reading activity

     Table 2 shows the frequency and percentage of identified embarrassment-producing behaviors that were demonstrated by students in Group E and Group B during the second recording session. Relatively yielding the same results as in the first recording session, approximately 50% of the student-participants' oral feedbacks were associated with behaviors that generate embarrassments. In both groups, teachers frequently received "Inarticulate Responses" from the students, gaining 65 frequency counts (13%) for Group E and 76 frequency counts (20%) for Group B. In this case, the oral feedbacks provided by the students were expressed in the target language, but were interrupted by some grammatical errors, repeated use of gap fillers or filler sounds, and by unnecessary discourse markers.

Table 3
Cases of Students' Embarrassments during the Second Recording Session

Oral Feedbacks Leading to Students' Embarrassments	Group E (NSOF = 488)		Group B (NSOF = 374)	
	f	%	*f*	%
Silence in response to teacher's questions	32	7	15	4
Undue delay in response	37	8	59	16
Incomprehensible response	24	5	15	4
Inarticulate response	65	13	76	20
Resort to first language (L1)	83	17	41	11

| | Total | 241 | 49 | 206 | 55 |

Legend: Group E = Classes handled by Experienced Teachers; Group B = Classes handled by Beginning Teachers; NSOF = Total Number of Students' Oral Feedbacks

Rieger (2003) explained that the use of these hesitation devices in ELLs' oral feedbacks occur when they have insufficient vocabulary in the target language to allow them to proficiently express their ideas or when they are planning for their next utterances. He confirmed that incorporating utterances with fillers is a language strategy that is also naturally utilized by native speakers to aid in the production of meanings.

Khojastehrad (2012) asserted that the use of hesitation devices among ELLs in ELT classrooms does not simply signal the speaker's under-construction utterances, but these devices aid in building efficient communication. Nevertheless, in the classroom interactions involving the student-participants in this study, hesitation devices were unmethodically employed resulting in failure to effectively convey intended meanings, hence, obstruction of meaning-making. As a solution to the excessive and unnecessary use of hesitation devices, Erten (2014) proposed that ELLs should be given ample time to plan their oral feedbacks during classroom discussions so that they could construct utterances that satisfy the learning task given.

1	ET:	Okay, she's sad according to S16. Are you sure? **Initially, she was expressionless**
2		**right? She doesn't have any facial expression, blank face, it said there, and then,**
3		**afterwards, okay . . . she was seen . . . crying.** Then the last one? **(Expansion)**
4		the *pabebe* girl. Let's have . . . S17.
5	S17:	**—She is e: a *pabebe* girl—e:m, she's wear short . . . shorts. (Undue Delay)**
6		**and have e: chitchat with her Iphone, and e:m she's very noisy (Inarticulate)**
7	ET:	**Okay, she's wearing clothes that are not too decent, *aya*, and the way that she**
8		**talks over the phone is very inconsiderate because she talks too loud. (Expansion)**
9		**Now, based on the descriptions S17, *aya*, do you think that e: the particular**
10		**passenger is a fine woman? Ha? (Reduction)**
11	S17:	No.
12	ET:	Why?
13	S17:	**—She is e: she's e: e:m simple woman (Undue Delay; Inarticulate)**
14	ET:	She's a simple woman, what do you mean?
15	S17:	*Naarte* sir. **(Resort to L1)**
16	ET:	*Naarte kano.* **What else? What did she do inside the train? Will you comment**
17		**on the manner of talking inside the train? (Reduction)**

Extract 5. Experienced teacher assigns the students to describe the characters in the short story based on the details provided by the narrator

1	S18:	**—Some people e: of Pochem-Pochemphelli e:m have lands, but the**
2		**peasants do not have.** (Undue Delay; Inarticulate)
3	BT:	Okay, do not have land, okay. What else? What problem . . . in 1951? Yes?
4	S19:	e:m people are getting sick.
5	BT:	People are getting sick because of?
6	STS:	Hunger . . . hunger.
7	BT:	Hunger. Okay. What else?—Aside from, they're getting sick, the people
8		have no land, yes, e:
9	S20:	They're hungry and landless.
10	BT:	So, there was hunger and landlessness, during those years, right? . . . In Pochemphelli
11		—Does the Philippines encounter the same problem in some parts of the country?
12		Why yes? Why no?
13	S21:	**—Because of—because of landlessness ma'am, e:m the**
14		**people will e:m *kaslang tay kua* ma'am e:m . . . *tay* they**
15		**have—the people e: will use** (Undue Delay; Inarticulate)

Extract 6. After reading the text, beginning teacher asks the students to respond to a number of comprehension questions found in the English textbook of the class

Extracts 5 and 6 cite instances during classroom discussions where the learners used hesitation devices excessively that resulted in oral feedbacks that are inarticulate, and sometimes, incomprehensible. In Extract 5, the experienced teacher asks the students to provide descriptions of the major characters involved in the short story, while in Extract 6, the beginning teacher instructs the students to respond to comprehension questions that are found in their textbook.

Hygiene Resources the Teacher-Participants Deploy to Address Embarrassments
In this study, the teacher-participants are classified into two groups based on their socio-demographic profiles—the experienced teachers (Group E) and the beginning teachers (Group B). It was mentioned earlier in this paper that the researcher clings to the assumption that beginning teachers bring into play Mackay's framework more frequently than the experienced teachers. However, it was found out that this is not the case. Table 4 reveals that, during the first recording session, Group E exhibited more cases of using hygiene resources to address students' embarrassments, yielding 323 frequency counts (70%) than Group B which only recorded 81 instances (22%) of employing hygiene resources. Nearly all of the experienced teachers' oral feedbacks during the discussions were hygiene resources; they needed to simplify complex questions into objective ones, and they provided explanations to the questions they raised themselves whenever students do not provide desired answers.

Table 4
Cases of Teachers' Use of Hygiene Resources during the First Recording Session

Hygiene Resources Employed by Teacher-Participants	Group E (NTOF = 463)		Group B (NTOF = 374)	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*
Reasoning aloud for the students	51	11	19	5
Vicarious dialogue	46	10	8	2
Expansion of minimal responses	65	14	11	3
Question reduction	79	17	18	5
Resort to first language (L1)	82	18	25	7
Total	323	70	81	22

Legend: Group E = Experienced Teachers; Group B = Beginning Teachers; NTOF = Total Number of Teachers' Oral Feedbacks

Clearly, there is a significant difference between the frequency distributions of the two teacher groups' use of hygiene resources. Teachers who enter the profession generally have high preformed expectations about the educational system (Mudzingwa & Magudu, 2013). Ironically, teachers who have been rendering their services in the profession for a considerable length of years have already learned to lower their standards to cope with the realities that prevail and with the issues that persist within the system (Callaghan, 2002). Taking into account these varying mindsets between the experienced and the beginning teachers, Group B's low frequency of hygiene resource usage is justifiable. Most likely, unlike experienced teachers in Group E, the beginning teachers in Group B maintained their high expectations towards their students during classroom discussions. Additionally, they may not be confident enough to reduce the complexity level of the lessons in order to match the communicative level of their students in using English.

1	ET:	**Okay, so definitely you don't have the nerve, right, the courage rather in having**
2		**conversation to the other passengers there**. How about S22? **(Expansion)**
3		Do you love taking the bus or riding on a bus?
4	S22:	No, sir.
5	ET:	No? Why?
6	S22:	*Makapaulaw,* **sir** (laughs). (It makes me dizzy, sir.) **(Resort to L1)**
7	ET:	**I think, it's *makapaulaw*. It makes you dizzy most especially if the**
8		**bus is airconditioned. *Di ba?* But if it is an ordinary bus, then definitely, I think**
9		**everything will just be okay?** Okay, now, so, this afternoon **(Reasoning Aloud)**
10		you are going to read an article *aya* that has something to do with the
11		public transport, *aya?* But, it's not about a bus—Though we don't have this
12		thing in Ilocos, well, it is only in—Manila, *di ba?* Okay, so, the title of the
13		article that we are going to read is?
14	S23:	Travelogue?
15	ET:	Okay, it is MRT Diary. Okay? Okay—e: S24, what do you know about the MRT?
16	S24:	Metrorail—*ana't* MRT? (What is MRT?)
17	ET:	**What is MRT? What does MRT stand for?** . . .Yes, may we have S25? **(Reduction)**
18	S25:	Metrorail Transit, sir.
19	ET:	Okay, Metrorail Transit. So what is that S24? Anything in mind?
20	S24:	***Pagluganan*** (Means of transportation) **(Resort to L1)**
21	ET:	**—Oh, there's a picture there. Who uses it? What is it for? Describe. (Reduction)**
22	S24:	***Ket pagluganan,* train *met a talaga*.** (It's a means of transportation.) **(Resort to L1)**
23	ET:	**Okay, but explain further—Or do we have MRT? (Reduction)**

Extract 6. After reading the text, beginning teacher asks the students to respond to a number of comprehension questions found in the English textbook of the class

Such pedagogical choices of Group B may be attributed to their lack of experience in the teaching profession. It was disclosed by one of the beginning teachers during the semi-structured interview session that learning competencies indicated in the LAMC should be adhered to accordingly, and when teachers deviate from these prescribed competencies, meaningful learning among the ELLs will not take place. The diverging pedagogical choices of the two teacher groups were illustrated in Extracts 7 and 8. In Extract 7, the experienced teacher encourages his/her students to participate in the discussion by sharing their personal experience in riding on public transportation. On the other hand, the beginning teacher asks the males in her class to describe their ideal woman as depicted in Extract 8.

1	BT:	This is a question for the gentleman, okay?—This question is addressed to all
2		the gentlemen e:m I'm curious, how do you describe your ideal woman? If you
3		have a . . . of your ideal woman right now? . . . Okay, S26.
4	S26:	**(Silence) (Silence)**
5	BT:	Yes, S26?
6	S26:	**(Silence) (Silence)**
7	BT:	How do you describe your ideal woman? Or . . . the characteristics or . . . the
8		qualities of the woman you wanted to be with for the rest of your life?
9	S26:	Kind
10	BT:	Come again?
11	S26:	Kind, ma'am.
12	BT:	**Okay, you want to be with a kind woman. Probably, someone who is helpful to**
13		**others, right? Or someone who loves kids, maybe?** Yes, S26? **(Expansion)**
14	S26:	Yes, ma'am.
15	BT:	Okay, how about you . . . Mr. S27?
16	S27:	**(Silence) (Silence)**
17	BT:	Yes, S27?
18	S27:	**I would like to have e:m someone who is e: brain—intelligent (Inarticulate)**
19	BT:	Oh, so you want a woman who is intelligent? Someone like you? Okay, how
20		about S28?
21	S28:	*Apay* **ma'am? . . .** *Kasla kenka*. (Why, ma'am? . . . Just like you.) **(Resort to L1)**
22		*Uray ana, basta maeggaman*. (Anyone, as long as I can touch her.) **(Resort to L1)**
23	BT:	Okay, S28, what's your real answer? I know you something in mind.

Extract 7. Prior to the reading activity, beginning teacher motivates the male students to participate in the discussion by sharing their opinions on their ideal woman

As shown in Table 5, hygiene resource usage among the experienced teachers (Group E) reduced in number in the second recording session. From a total of 323 frequency counts (70%) during the first recording session, their usage of hygiene resources went down to only 162 frequency counts (43%) for the second session. By contrast, Group B's employment of hygiene resources relatively increased from 81 cases (22%) in the first session to 129 cases (29%) in the second session. Though there was a conscious or an unconscious attempt to lessen the reduction of learning tasks by the experienced teachers, their use of hygiene resources is still considerably high, since cases reach nearly half of the total number of teachers' oral feedbacks (377 frequency counts) during the second recording session.

Table 5
Cases of Teachers' Use of Hygiene Resources during the Second Recording Session

Hygiene Resources Employed by Teacher-Participants	Group E (NTOF = 377)		Group B (NTOF = 450)	
	f	*%*	*f*	*%*
Reasoning aloud for the students	34	9	19	4
Vicarious dialogue	18	5	6	1
Expansion of minimal responses	27	7	19	4
Question reduction	35	9	40	9
Resort to first language (L1)	48	13	45	10
Total	162	43	129	28

Legend: Group E = Experienced Teachers; Group B = Beginning Teachers; NTOF = Total Number of Teachers' Oral Feedbacks

It was revealed in the semi-structured interview sessions with the teacher-participants that, apart from instruction, they also needed to attend to a number of teaching assignments, such as serving as advisers in academic and interest clubs, functioning as consultants for campus official publications, and hosting several school events. Admittedly, they explained that these functions would compromise their instructional planning and implementation. In order to cope with this struggle, the teacher-participants needed to accomplish as many lessons as they could within the limited timeframe, which rationalizes their habitual use of hygiene resources to address students' embarrassments in their ELT classrooms. In both groups, there are high tendencies of resorting to Ilokano, reducing complexity level of questions, reasoning aloud for the students, and expanding minimal responses. There is a common aim among the teacher-participants to make it appear that the learning competencies stipulated in the LAMC were met since all the topics in their subjects were fully, though unsatisfactorily, covered. According to the teacher-participants, being able to complete lessons indicated in the English curriculum guide is usually one of the bases of teacher's good performance and quality teaching.

Reasons for Students' Embarrassments and Teachers' Use of Hygiene Resources
While the previous parts of this paper primarily identify the frequency of hygiene resource usage among the participants, this section discusses the reasons behind the participants' demonstrations of embarrassments and hygiene resources in ELT classrooms.

Table 6
Themes and Categories Drawn from Transcribed Participant Interviews

		Frequency and Percentage of Case Occurrences per Category							
		Teacher-Participants				Student-Participants			
Themes	Categories	Group E (n = 5)		Group B (n = 5)		Group E (n = 10)		Group B (n = 10)	
		f	%	*f*	%	*f*	%	*f*	%
Local languages as communicative resources	use of L1 helps express difficult concepts;	**3**	60	**2**	40	**10**	100	**8**	80
	L1 facilitates classroom interaction;	**5**	100	**3**	60	9	90	8	80
	L1 aids in understanding language lessons better	3	60	2	40	6	60	5	50
Disfluencies as aids in feedback planning	gap fillers happen naturally in speech;	2	40	3	60	7	70	5	50
	fillers enable speaker to think of what next to say;	4	80	3	60	5	50	7	70
	pauses allow constructing speech or ideas;	5	100	3	60	8	80	**10**	100
Wait-time and periods of silence as promoters of information processing	silence in class generates meaningful feedbacks;	2	40	2	40	5	50	**6**	60
	wait-time improves quality of student feedback;	4	80	5	100	7	70	5	50
	periods of silence allow students to think about their oral feedback	4	80	2	40	9	90	6	60

Phrasing questions as stimulants of oral feedbacks	simplifying complex questions stimulates more oral feedbacks from students;	**5**	100	**4**	80	**10**	100	**9**	90
	phrasing questions ensures smooth flow of teaching and learning	**3**	60	**2**	40	**5**	50	**3**	30
	phrasing questions promotes better understanding;	**4**	80	**3**	60	**8**	80	**7**	70

Legend: Group E = Experienced; Group B = Beginning

Although, it was revealed by some studies (Hodson, 2010; Kasuya, 1999; Mackay, 1993) that such phenomena in education narrow the learning spaces for curriculum prescribed competencies, this study argues that these are oral feedback strategies that facilitate negotiation of meaning in ELT classrooms, especially in multilingual contexts. Therefore, as shown in Figure 3, rather than perceiving these pedagogical mechanisms as sources of embarrassments, they should be seen as essential tools for empowerment for both the English language teachers and their ELLs. Table 6 presents the themes and categories that emerged from the qualitative responses of the participants during their face-to-face interview sessions, each lasting for 20 to 45 minutes.
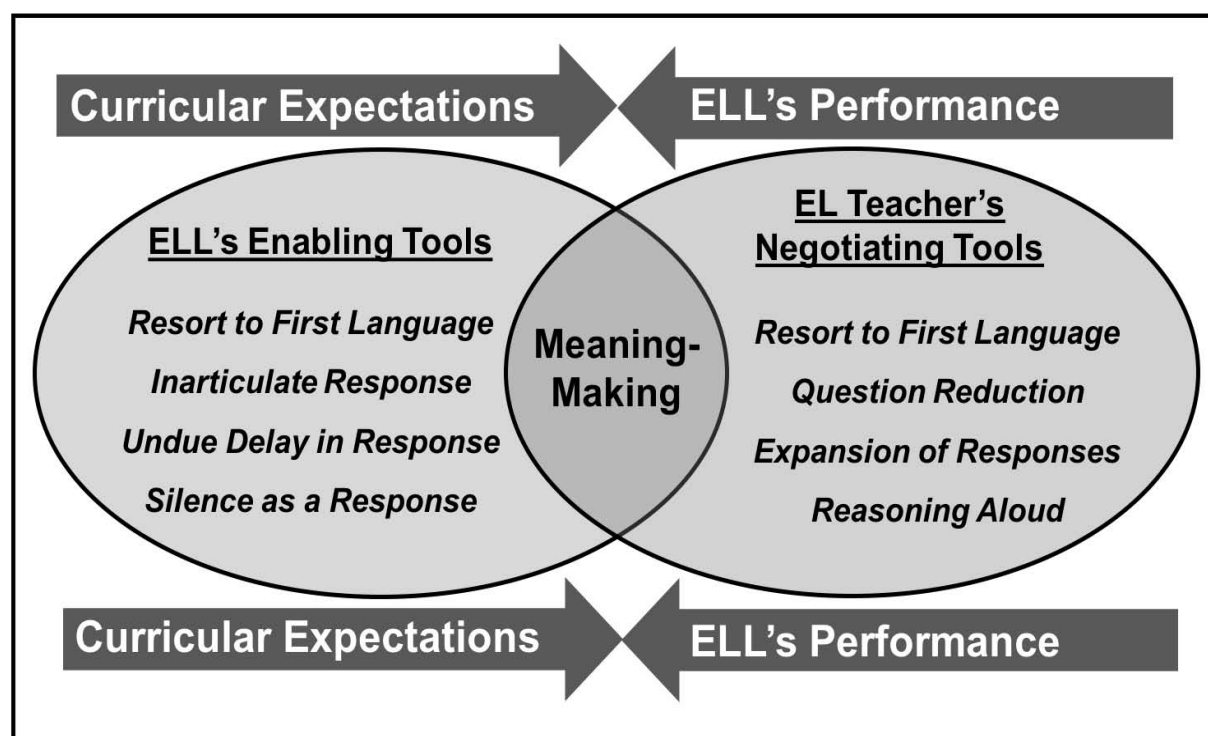
Figure 3. Tools for Meaning-Making in ELT Classrooms within Multilingual Contexts

Through an immediate survey of the themes in Table 6, one could generalize that the participants in this study positively evaluated their use of local languages, disfluencies in speech, wait-time and period of silence, and the rephrasing of difficult questions. Participants regarded these oral feedback strategies as important tools in communicating meanings, information processing, and idea generation when engaged in ELT classrooms.

A. *Local languages as communicative resources*

According to Student 5 of Group B, he used Ilokano in the English class because "sometimes there are words that [he] cannot express in English, so [he] would prefer to speak in Ilokano". Accessing one's native language in the classroom was similarly reported in a study involving 10 samples of Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) degree students of University of Malaya. 80% of the said sample confirmed that one of the strategies they use to improve their speaking skills in L2 is "using code switching if they do not know how to convey certain words using English language" (Hashim, Yunus, & Hashim, 2018, p. 44). Given the multilingual nature of the majority of ELLs in this study, the use of local languages is generally an accepted practice. Teacher 2 of Group E explains that "if students are not allowed to orally express their answers in Ilokano, no communication might happen inside the class." She also added that "even English teachers speak in the mother tongue when delivering lessons, especially when it's already difficult for students to understand concepts". In a pre-test/post-test quasi-experimental study conducted by Maramag-Manalastas and Batang (2018), it was revealed that first year college students gain more confidence in expressing their thoughts and ideas regarding their lessons in Communication Arts and Skills when they are allowed to use their local languages in the discussions.

Local languages enable both the teachers and the students in the English language classroom because they aid in the attainment of the ideational, textual, and interpersonal functions of language (Mahboob & Lin, 2016). In a study investigating the role of languages in a collaborative learning task in an English class, for instance, it was found out that Cebuano, Filipino, and English were all utilized in conducting a learning task in all stages of a group discussion, which include "assigning the group facilitator, doing housekeeping acts, leading and prompting of turns, consolidating members' shared ideas, and deciding on the group's final arguments" (Faminial, 2016, p. 13). It was also shown in the study that students compensate for their deficient skills in the English language by using their mother tongue (Faminial, 2016). The student-participants in this study employ the same linguistic choice of using their native language as a remedy in addressing their limitations in that target language. Such strategic use of local languages could bring valuable humanistic element into the language classroom, and could promote an inclusive learning environment (Wharton, 2007).

B. *Disfluencies as aids in feedback planning*

Silent pauses, hesitations, repetitions, or fillers are considered as disfluencies that happen naturally in oral communication, most largely used by speakers whose first language is not English (Kaivanpanah, Yamouty, & Karami, 2012). Student 1 of Group E expressed that the use of silent pauses and gap fillers occurs as a natural part of speech "because when you recite . . . you also have to think about the right words of the right ideas". Moreover, these are strategic devices, which are inevitable part of oral performance and signal the speaker's under construction utterance (Menyhart, 2003). In fact, Student 6 of Group B revealed that every time he participates in English class, he is not usually sure of what he is going to say next, which is why he uses hesitation devices and spends some time to think before sharing his ideas. According to Khojastehrad and Abdullah (2012), disfluencies contribute in a positive way to a more efficient communication by giving extra time to the speakers to plan, and inform the listener about the mental attitudes of the speaker and planning difficulties faced by the speaker.

C. *Wait-time and periods of silence as promoters of information processing*

Frederick (2005) opined that wait time provides students time to percolate a question down in order for them to be able to construct responses that are appropriate. As shared by Student 2 of Group B, " . . . before I recite, I have to compose my answers in my head first, and then stay silent . . . I will only recite when I'm ready." The practice of using sufficient wait time in ELT classrooms contributes significantly to improved teaching and learning (Stahl, 1994, as cited in Bennett, 2017). Through his experience, Teacher 4 of Group E observed that the longer the wait time he gives to his students, the longer and more meaningful their oral feedbacks are. Teachers would receive better quality and/or an increase in the length of responses from the learners, as they are allowed to utilize more time to think of their answers before raising their hands. Certainly, a few seconds of pause or silence in the ELT classroom can make a dramatic improvement in how students formulate their oral responses (Kelly, 2020; Ollin, 2008).

D. *Phrasing questions as stimulants of oral feedbacks*

The art of questioning entails converting complex questions into simple and clear ones that solicit students' responses. Questions posted in classroom discussions should provide learners instructional cues that convey the content to be

learned or provide directions toward the content to be learned (Babu, 2014). Teacher 3 of Group B realized that "when the question is too complex for the students to absorb, [she] would usually end up simplifying the question" so she could elicit responses that would help facilitate the smooth flow of the lessons. It was argue by Teacher 5 of Group E that "teachers should be good at the art of questioning because an active discussion is also attributed to the ways that the teacher handles problem-posing in the classroom, through asking relevant questions." Providing questions that ELLs could conveniently understand and interpret helps teachers in maintaining the flow of the learning within the lesson, engages students with the learning, and provides them the opportunity to share their opinions or views more effectively (Hussin, 2006; Williams, 2010).

Conclusion

This study provides findings that examine and explain the demonstration of embarrassments among students and the use of hygiene resources among teachers in English language teaching classrooms of rural public high schools. It was revealed that hygiene resources are employed by teacher-participants in order to 'clean up' embarrassments consciously or unconsciously committed by students during tasks that require oral feedbacks. Additionally, experienced teachers usually resort to deploying hygiene resources more extensively than beginning teachers. The researcher initially presumed that the experienced teachers would replace hygiene resources with more creative and productive alternatives that stimulate English language learners (ELLs) to use the target language so that the learning competencies prescribed in the Language, Arts and Multiliteracies Curriculum (LAMC) are seamlessly met. Although, some studies negate the use of hygiene resources in the English language teaching (ELT) classrooms as they could potentially reduce opportunities for learning the target language, the researcher argued that such resources are, in fact, essential tools to enable teachers and learners in negotiating meanings. Emanating from the interview sessions, participants positively evaluated their embarrassments and hygiene resources. Participants regarded local languages as communicative resources to achieve the various purposes of the English language, and assessed their speech disfluencies as aids in planning for more meaningful oral feedbacks. Furthermore, participants reported using wait-time and periods of silence to generate productive responses, and confirmed that simplifying questions solicits better oral responses during discussions. Therefore, rather than as sources of embarrassments that necessitate corrective measures through hygiene resource usage, the oral feedback strategies should be seen as sources of empowerment that promote meaning-making and the distribution of power relations in the ELT classrooms. These are the participants' alternative ways of rerouting teaching and learning directions, not necessarily to wholly deviate from the set expectations in the curriculum, but to attain them in a more inclusive, humanistic approach.

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Reading Comprehension in the TOEFL PBT:
Which Sub-Skill deserves more Intensive Training?

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Abstract
Studies have shown that reading comprehension is the most difficult section of the Paper-Based Test (PBT) TOEFL. Therefore, this research aimed to identify which sub-skill in reading comprehension poses the greatest challenges for the students and how this sub-skill correlates to other reading comprehension sub-skills. To achieve this purpose, this research utilized both qualitative and quantitative approaches. To collect the data, 33 advanced EFL undergraduate students and fresh graduates at Syiah Kuala University, Indonesia, were recruited to sit a PBT TOEFL reading comprehension test, comprising 50 multiple choice questions to be completed in 55 minutes. The data were analyzed in two stages. In the first stage, the analysis involved descriptive statistics to find out which subskill was more problematic. Futhermore, inferential statistics was used in the second stage using Kruskal-Wallis sum test and Spearman's correlation to seek significant evidence that each subskill is different from another and to find out how the most problematic subskill correlates to others. The results showed that the problems in reading comprehension were divided into three levels. Vocabulary was in level 1, which was the most problematic subskill, and level 2 consisted of the main idea, detail information, and inference. The least problematic subskill was reference,. i.e. level 3. In addition, vocabulary correlated to all other subskills except the main idea. Therefore, the universities need to dedicate more time in Reading Comprehension courses for difficult reading comprehension sub-skill. In addition, since vocabulary is a very fundamental but also the most problematic sub-skill which correlated to almost all other subskills, a separate vocabulary development course needs to be offered for the students.

Keywords: TOEFL, reading comprehension sub-skills, vocabulary, advanced EFL learners

Introduction

Several aspects need to be considered in measuring English proficiency, i.e., listening, speaking, reading, and writing. There are many official language tests for non-native English speakers and one of them is TOEFL (Test of English as Foreign Language). There are three kinds of TOEFL tests, i.e., internet-based TOEFL, paper-based TOEFL (PBT TOEFL) and computer-based TOEFL. Due to its high rate of success in predicting the score, many institutions administer language tests similar to PBT TOEFL, referred to as a "TOEFL-like test", "TOEFL Prediction", or "TOEFL equivalent" (Sugeng et al., 2012). The current format of PBT TOEFL consists of three sections – listening comprehension, structure and written expression, and reading comprehension.

Obtaining a certain score on the TOEFL is a requirement for those who want to study in English-speaking countries, and the score is set by the respective institutions. In the U.S., most world-renowned universities require their applicants to have a score of at least 600 (Shanks, 2004). To enroll in an international academic training program, students need to have at least 480 (Ng, 2007, p. 20). The TOEFL score required for Fulbright and Chevening scholarships is 550.

In Indonesia, TOEFL is required mostly in academic fields. Some universities, such as Tanjungpura University, require their students to acquire a minimum TOEFL score in order to graduate (Salam et al., 2012), Diponegoro University (Sugeng et al., 2012) State Polytechnic of Padang (Marzuki, 2008), STKIP PGRI of West Sumatera (Mayuasti, 2013), Pasir Pengaraian University (Antoni, 2014), and Palangka Raya State Islamic College (Sabarun, 2012, p. 3) require their students to obtain a minimum score of 400 for graduation. At Syiah Kuala University in Aceh, the score requirement ranges from 450 to 477 depending on varying department regulations.

Students in Indonesia start learning English at the elementary school level (Elfiondri, 2018). Experts have provided many strategies in language learning to help teachers improve their students' English proficiency ranging from memory strategies to social strategies (Paredes, 2010, p. 19; Zhou, 2010). By the time students start university, they have already learned the language for more than ten years. Therefore, students majoring in English in the university level should have obtained an advanced level of English proficiency. However, the data collected by the Language Center of Syiah Kuala University in 2016 revealed that only 4% of the senior students could get the required graduation score. The percentage is higher for students majoring in English, i.e. 30%. Nevertheless, this number is still far from satisfactory considering that they have been learning English, exposed to English texts and listening to English audio for at least four years.

Among the three language skills tested in the TOEFL, reading comprehension is the most important section (Anjomshoa & Zamanian, 2014). At the same time, that section is also the most difficult according to the preliminary data from Syiah Kuala University. Previous researchers also found that EFL students in other Indonesian universities had the same problems (Gani et al., 2016; Pammu et al., 2014). Similar results were discovered in other countries such as China (Chern, 1985; Ling, 2011), Saudi Arabia (Alamin & Ahmed, 2013; O'Sullivan, 2004), and Iran (Kheirzadeh & Tavakoli, 2012). This problem should be solved by focusing on reading comprehension sub-skills in the classroom, with the most difficult sub-skills as the core of the teaching.

However, only a small amount of research has addressed which sub-skill is most problematic and how this most problematic sub-skill correlates to other sub-skills. Previous research on TOEFL investigated the best strategies to increase reading comprehension scores such as schemata (Sutarsyah, 2009) or specific sub-skills such as vocabulary (Anjomshoa & Zamanian, 2014; Kheirzadeh & Tavakoli, 2012). Therefore, it is essential to find out the most complicated sub-skill experienced by EFL learners and how it correlates to other sub-skills. Those findings may be the key to helping English lecturers successfully teach reading comprehension classes and to helping students obtain a higher English proficiency level in reading comprehension.

Review of Literature

Reading is a *complex* (Artuso & Palladino, 2016; Olmez, 2016) and *cultural skill* that people frequently exercise (Stutz et al., 2016; Wallot, 2016). However, reading is not only a complex but also a *perceptive* skill, since it depends on readers' ways of thinking (Wallot, 2016). Reading comprehension is gained through the complete understanding of meaning that relates to the subject (Royanto, 2012). It is rather challenging because readers must attempt many interpretations of the authors' true intentions (Karimi & Alibakhshi, 2014, p. 97). The level of understanding for reading can be measured through several standardized tests, among which is the widely used TOEFL.

Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL)

TOEFL is a standardized test to measure nonnative speakers of English (Philips, 2001, p. 13), which was introduced in 1960 (ETS, 2011, p. 2). The first type of TOEFL was the Computer Based Test (CBT), which has four sections: listening, structure, writing, and reading. The scores range from 0 – 300. The CBT TOEFL was later upgraded to the internet Based TOEFL (iBT) due to language theories advancement, especially in the field of Language Testing (ETS, 2010, p. 1). The iBT has four sections: reading, listening, speaking, and writing, and, unlike the other types of TOEFL tests, note-taking is allowed in the iBT. The score ranges from 0 – 120 (ETS, 2007a, p. 2). The third type is the Paper-based TOEFL

(PBT TOEFL), which is divided into three sections (ETS, 2007b, p. 11). The test has 140 questions - 50 for listening comprehension, 40 for structure and written expressions, and 50 for reading comprehension, which consists of 5 passages (Shanks, 2004). Additionally, for the International PBT TOEFL, there is also a writing section (Sharpe, 2004, p. 12). The writing section is given before the other sections in the form of a specific topic prompt, and it must be completed in 30 minutes. The score for the PBT TOEFL ranges between 310 and 677.

TOEFL – Like Test
The TOEFL-Like Test does not have any significant differences in feature compared to the PBT TOEFL except that it does not have a writing section. According to previous research, this type of test is qualified to predict English proficiency (Sugeng et al., 2012, p. 191). Researchers can use this type of test to collect their research data (Herwandar et al., 2012, p. 184). This test is usually obtained from TOEFL preparation books; however, the difficulty level is sometimes different from that of the real TOEFL. Mustafa (2015) suggests the use of corpora in designing a structure and written expression test as an alternative procedure for the design of reliable TOEFL reading test material that, according to Mustafa and Apriadi (2016), better matches the level of a real ETS-produced PBT TOEFL.

Reading Comprehension in the TOEFL Test
The reading comprehension section consists of 50 multiple-choice questions, with 8-11 questions for each passage of 200 – 300 words. The given questions vary but mostly focus on main ideas, stated or unstated details, vocabulary, pronouns, and inference. The topic in each passage consists of different kinds of subjects in order to avoid favoritism toward certain themes (ETS, 2000, p. 8).
Main Idea Questions
The main idea can be isolated in all the passages since it is the most important element that states the author's intention (Pierce & Kinsell, 2008). In the PBT TOEFL, the examinees are asked mostly about the "topic", "title", "primary idea", or "main idea".

Stated Details
The examinees are prompted to find a specific piece of information instead of defining all of the information in a passage (Philips, 2001, p. 379). The questions are presented in a sequence that mirrors how they appear in the text and the answers share the same ideas of the passage though they do not necessarily use the same words (Philips, 2001, p. 379). In order to be able to answer these questions, the examinees can reread the questions after reading the passage (Hill, 2006, p. 21).

Unstated Detail Questions
The examinees have to find information that is not explicit in the passage (Philips, 2001, p. 385). The correct answer for this type of questions is false information according to the passage. Careful reading is essential to correctly answer these questions (Hill, 2006, p. 22).

Pronoun Referent Questions
The examinees have to find the designated pronoun of a specific noun (Philips, 2001, p. 388). The author uses referents in order to enhance word choice and variation (Gallagher, 2005, p. 44). The pronoun itself may be before or after the antecedent is mentioned and can even be in a different sentence. Transition and connecting words can be used as clues for this type of question (Gear & Gear, 2002, p. 317).

Inference Questions
In this type of question, the examinees have to deduce information from a passage. These questions can be recognized from the presence of words such as "inferred", "implied", "likely", or "probably" (Philips, 2001, p. 398). This question requires sharp reading skills, previous knowledge, and good memorization skills (Broek et al., 2001, p. 1081). Hill (2006) suggested that the answer to this question will not be different from the passage's main idea.

Vocabulary Questions
This type of question covers about 20% of the total questions in the TOEFL test, which suggests that vocabulary load and knowledge in reading are crucial (Pyle, 2001, p. 50). Vocabulary is an important feature in reading (Nation & Beglar,

2007) because it closely correlates with comprehension (Kulaç & Walters, 2016, p. 487). Less familiar words are usually used in the test. Chesla (2002, p. 34) suggests a careful examination of the main ideas surrounding the word and trying every option to replace it, until the best possible word substitution is found.

The Problems in Reading Comprehension

Inadequate Vocabulary Size

Previous research has found that vocabulary was a problematic subject in reading (Karabuga & Kaya, 2013, p. 625). Approximately 9,000 words are needed for ESL students to comprehend a reading text and 7,000 words to comprehend a conversation (Nation, 2006). The average vocabulary size of EFL students is between 1,000 and 4,000 words (Schmitt et al., 2011, p. 27). Finding new words several times in different kinds of texts and subjects is the best strategy to memorize new words (Nation, 2014, p. 2). Therefore, utilizing "extensive reading" can improve vocabulary size (Safaeia & Bulca, 2013, p. 595).

Slow Reading

Research has revealed that most students read without paying much attention to time (Soemantri, 2011, p. 75). Time management is difficult if they are unable to comprehend a text and focus too much on the main idea or keywords. Therefore, the students who run out of time are unable to find the right answer, leading to blind guessing, which is not a good reading strategy (Dollinger & Clark, 2012).

Lack of Strategy

A good reader uses many strategies when it comes to reading (Yukselir, 2014, p. 67). However, half of the participants in the research conducted by AD et al. (2014, p. 6) did not prepare good strategies for taking a reading test, resulting in poor performance in reading.

Background Knowledge

Combining information from a text and previous knowledge contributes to better understanding of a passage (Koda, 2005, p. 4). Use of previous knowledge is an important strategy for comprehending reading texts (Smit et al., 2017; Sullivan & Puntambekar, 2015, p. 306). However, texts are from various disciplines; therefore, the test takers do not necessarily have access to background knowledge for most of the passages, nor is it designed in a way that demands background knowledge.

Grammar

EFL students are struggling in comprehension because they are unable to understand complex grammar (Yang & Lin, 2015, p. 127). It has been proven that better grammar correlates with better reading comprehension (Akbari, 2014, p. 4). The structure in a passage contributes to the confusion of the test takers when they choose from options that look very much alike (Freedle & Kostin, 1993, p. 136).

Research Methods

This study was conducted at Syiah Kuala University, Banda Aceh, Indonesia. The respondents were 33 EFL advanced learners who had already completed courses in all of the language skills (reading, listening, speaking, and writing) in the English Language Teaching Department. To collect the data, a reading comprehension test was used to find out which reading sub-skills the students found most difficult to answer correctly. The test was set based on an ETS – designed TOEFL test in reading comprehension. The reading test in the TOEFL test consists of 50 questions. The questions contain six sub-skills in reading comprehension, which were dispersed. Table 1 shows the distribution of sub-skills in each passage.

Table 1. Sub-skill distribution in test

Sub-skills	Passage 1	Passage 2	Passage 3	Passage 4	Passage 5
Vocabulary	3	4	3	2	2
Inference	1	2	3	1	3
Stated Detail	2	2	2	2	1

Unstated Detail	1	1	0	1	1
Main Idea	0	1	0	2	1
Reference	2	2	1	2	2
Total	**9**	**12**	**9**	**10**	**10**

To answer the question of which sub-skill is the most problematic, the authors plotted the data in a boxplot chart and based their conclusion on the mean of correct answer percentage for each sub-skill. In addition, to find out whether the results of each sub-skill tested were significantly different from one another, the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test, which is a nonparametric alternative test for ANOVA, was used. This test was selected because there was significant evidence that the data violated the assumption of normal distribution based on Shapiro Wilk test (W = 0.96566, p-value = 0.000478).

The last analysis is a correlation analysis to see whether the most problematic sub-skill correlates to other sub-skills. The correlation was calculated by using Spearman's rank correlation rho, and the significance was decided at α = 0.05.

Results

The number of correct answers for each sub-skill was converted into percentages. The summary of the percentage of the correct answers obtained by students for each reading skills is presented in the descriptive statistic table below.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics

Sub-skill	Min	Med	Max	Mean	sd	Shapiro Wilk Test	
						SW	p-value
Main idea	0.25	0.75	1.00	0.73	0.21	0.85	0.000
Stated detail	0.22	0.67	1.00	0.69	0.20	0.95	0.131
Unstated detail	0.00	0.75	1.00	0.75	0.26	0.83	0.000
Referent	0.56	0.89	1.00	0.89	0.13	0.80	0.000
Inference	0.20	0.70	1.00	0.67	0.23	0.94	0.897
Vocabulary	0.14	0.57	0.93	0.59	0.19	0.97	0.452

The average percentage of correct answers for each sub-skill can be determined based on the following boxplot chart. The sub-skills in the chart are sorted based on the median of the data.
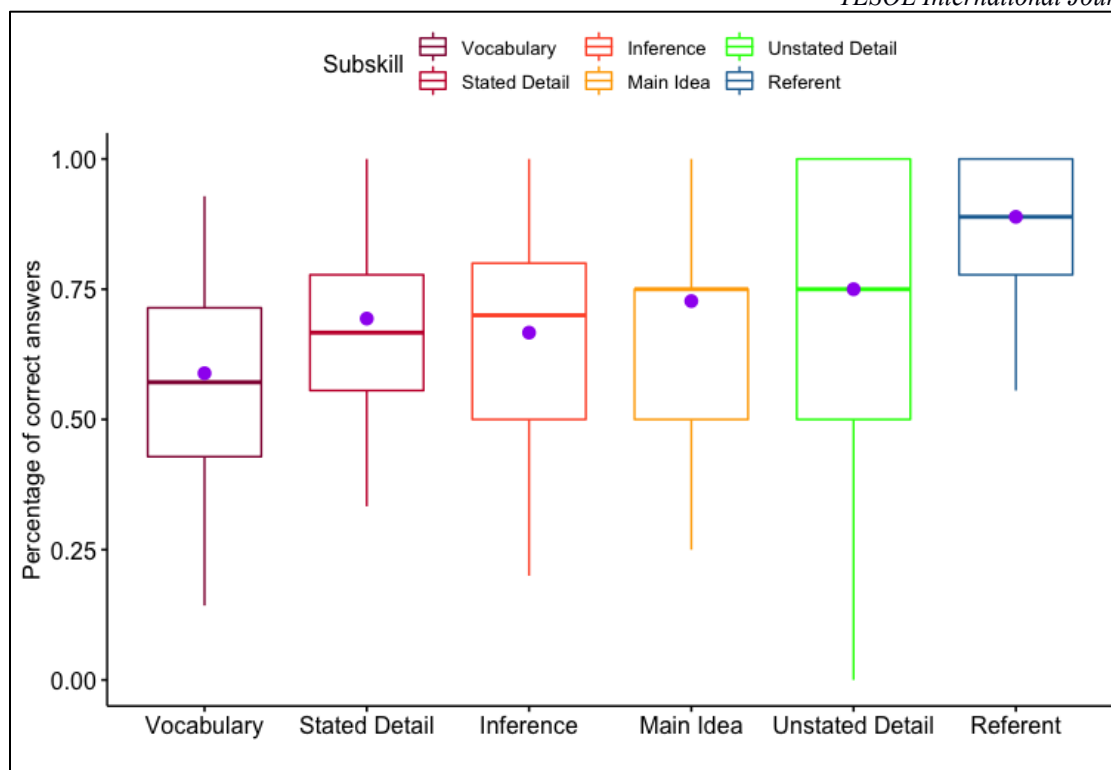
Chart 1. Average percentage of correct answers for each sub-skill

The horizontal line located near the middle of each box represents the median of the data. The means are represented by the purple-filled small squares in the boxplots. According to these squares, vocabulary was the most difficult sub-skill for the students. The next four sub-skills were not very different from one another. In contrast, questions in the reference sub-skill were the easiest questions. The gap between vocabulary and reference is approximately 29%.

To find out whether the sub-skills are significantly different from one another, or the differences happened by chance, a non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test was performed. The test was also performed with the four middle sub-skills separately (Stated Detail, Inferences, Main Idea, and Unstated Details) to validate our hypothesis that the means were similar (H_0). The hypothesis should be rejected if the p-value is not less than 0.05.

Table 3. Significance test for differences in sub-skills

Sub-skills	KW	df	p-value
All sub-skills	36.186	5	0.0000
Four middle sub-skills	02.511	3	0.4733

Table 3 shows that there was significant evidence that the differences observed in Chart 1 did not happen by chance. However, the differences among the four middle sub-skills were not significant (p-value > 0.05). These results are discussed in the following section.

To find out whether vocabulary correlates with other sub-skills, the correlation test by using either Pearson's product-moment correlation or Spearman's rank correlation rho was performed, depending on the data distribution. Data for vocabulary was found to be normally distributed (W = 0.96897, p-value = 0.4522); therefore, Pearson's product-moment correlation could be used for other variables if they were normally distributed. The results of normality tests and correlation analyses are provided in Table 4.

Table 4. Correlations between vocabulary sub-skill and other sub-skills

Correlation between vocabulary and	Shapiro Wilk Test		S/t*	rho/cor*	p-value
	SW	p-value			
Stated Detail	0.949	0.131	2.747*	0.442*	0.009
Inference	0.944	0.089	3.747*	0.558*	0.001
Unstated Detail	0.833	0.000	2586.6	0.568	0.001
Main Idea	0.854	0.000	5000.6	0.164	0.361
Reference	0.803	0.000	3468.9	0.420	0.015

Table 4 shows that Pearson's product-moment correlation (t, cor) can be used for only two variables. The results of correlation analyses revealed that only thenMain Idea sub-skill was not correlated to the Vocabulary sub-skill, while others were significantly correlated with varying correlation levels.

Discussion

Based on the statistical calculations presented in the previous section, the difficulty levels of reading sub-skills can be categorized into three levels. The most difficult sub-skill (level 1) is vocabulary followed by four sub-skills (level 2), which are in the same level of difficulty, which includes Stated Detail, Inferences, Main Idea, and Unstated Details. Furthermore, the least difficult sub-skill (level 3) is the referent.

The most difficult sub-skill questions, which are vocabulary, were answered correctly 59% of the time on average. This result was least expected, considering that the students have been exposed to various English texts, written and spoken, for three years at the university. This result suggests that the students' vocabulary load is less than 4,500 (Chujo & Oghigian, 2009, p. 13), which means that they could not guess the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary. Considering a research study conducted by Na and Nation (1985), this result is even more alarming. One of the factors contributing to small vocabulary size was uncontrolled vocabulary learning, i.e. students were not taught vocabulary based on importance, transferability, and usefulness for generative study (Aziez & Aziez, 2018, p. 75). Students can only guess unfamiliar vocabulary when they know 95% of the vocabulary in the text, which is only possible when the vocabulary load includes the first 3,000 most frequently used words. Therefore, we can conclude that the students' vocabulary size is very low.

Regarding comprehension, the students with larger vocabulary size will have less difficulty in comprehending a text. Thus, the reading process will be much easier and lead to better comprehension. One of the problems for readers when they focus on particular vocabulary rather than on content. According to Mehrdad et al. (2012, p. 5), readers spend a lot of time focusing on new vocabulary, which is an ineffective strategy since time is of the essence. Furthermore, students who have inadequate vocabulary can be misled by unfamiliar words and thus misunderstand the author's points.

Within level 2 is inference which students could answer correctly 67% of the time on average. EFL students were unable to make inference due to its implicit nature (Cain & Oakhill, 1999, p. 1). Students were unlikely to read between the lines in order to comprehend the implicit meaning of the text. In addition, inference requires large vocabulary loads (Cain & Oakhill, 2014, p. 1). Moreover, vocabulary involves a good working memory which can positively influence high-level reading abilities, such as making inferences (Varol & Erçetin, 2016, p. 4). However, Currie and Cain (2015, p. 13) found that working memory can only be helpful in making inference should it be supported by an adequate vocabulary. Therefore, the greater the vocabulary load, the greater the chance a reader has to make better inferences (Calvo, 2004).

Another sub-skill in level 2 is detail information, which is divided into stated and unstated details in the TOEFL test. The research results show that stated detail questions are more challenging (70%) compared to unstated detail counterparts (75%) although this difference was not supported by the statistical significance test. However, the percentages show that the students are more capable of answering these types of questions compared to questions in the vocabulary sub-skill. In fact, according to Mehrdad et al. (2012, p. 5), detail information questions are only difficult for beginner readers. However, the respondents in this research were advanced EFL learners. They have been found to use scanning and skimming as strategies in reading (Nordin et al., 2013, p. 4). These two strategies proved to effectively improve reading skill (Pan, 2009, p. 5). The sub-skills become less difficult with scanning, as it enables the readers to pinpoint specific information or keywords (Pammu et al., 2014, p. 5) in the text which were mentioned in the questions. In addition, skimming helps students use their time efficiently (Qanwal & Karim, 2014, p. 27). Time efficiency has been

found to correlate with the ability to find detail information (Maasum & Maarof, 2012, p. 2).

The other sub-skill in level 2 is main idea, which the students could answer correctly 73% of the time. This sub-skill is not the most difficult sub-skill for advanced EFL learners because to grasp the main idea of a text, the students are not required to understand every word, even every sentence. Instead, main idea requires readers to predict and make a hypothesis (Wilawan, 2012, p. 46). Wilawan (2012) proposed three skills that the students need to be taught to better predict the main idea of a text, i.e. global comprehension (understanding the general meaning of a text), local comprehension (having linguistic knowledge), explicit connective (knowing relationships between ideas), word relationship (knowing relationships between word forms), and self-monitoring (focusing attention on the text while reading). Because vocabulary is included in the linguistic knowledge, we can conclude that vocabulary is one of many components, and though perhaps not the most important component, required in understanding main ideas. These skills are also in line with the Main Idea Strategy proposed by Boudah (2013, p. 149).

Based on the research results and their interpretation, the most problematic sub-skill requiring more instruction is vocabulary, which has been claimed as the core of comprehension. Based on the correlation analysis, it correlates to all of the other sub-skills except main idea. Although this is an observational study where correlation should not be regarded as causation, the results showing that vocabulary appears to be the key to understanding a text, indicate causation. This conclusion suggests that when students have an adequate amount of vocabulary, their skills in understanding other sub-skills will significantly improve.

Conclusion

The aim of this study was to determine the most problematic sub-skills in reading comprehension of academic English text among advanced EFL learners. Based on the results of descriptive statistical analysis, the most difficult sub-skill was vocabulary, followed by stated detail, inference, main idea, and unstated detail, while the least difficult sub-skill was reference. In addition, inferential statistics analysis revealed that the difficulty in reading comprehension was divided into three levels, with vocabulary in level 1 as the most difficult sub-skill, then detail information (stated and unstated details), main idea, and inference were in the moderate level, i.e. level 2. The third level was reference as the least difficult sub-skill. In addition, vocabulary, the most difficult sub-skill in reading comprehension correlated with the other subskills except main idea.

Pedagogical implication

This research has found that vocabulary was the most difficult subskill in reading comprehension, and that difficulty in most sub-skills was influenced by vocabulary. Pedagogically, these results imply that in order to achieve better understanding of an academic text, students need to be introduced to more vocabulary and motivated to practice using it. In addition, improving vocabulary has been proven to be one of the best ways to improve comprehension (Mustafa et al., 2019). Vocabulary level is categorized based on its frequency. Nation and Fountain (2000, p. 32) categorized vocabulary into the first 1,000 most frequently used words until the sixth 1,000 most common words. In order to understand a text, Hsueh-chao and Nation (2000, p. 409) suggest having a command of 3,000 of the most frequently used word families. In addition, texts in TOEFL are academic texts; therefore, students should be taught 500 lemmas in the Academic Vocabulary List proposed by Gardner and Davies (2014, p. 13). Therefore, it is suggested that students who want to increase their vocabulary size in the academic field must learn that particular list of words. With a strong vocabulary set in that category, students' reading comprehension, as well as their TOEFL scores, could potentially increase across the board. One of the most commonly-used, relaxed ways of improving vocabulary by advanced EFL learners was reading English novels (Muthalib et al., 2019, p. 173) and watching movies, the strategy which also works in reducing anxiety in learning (Elfiondri, 2018, p. 289).

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Game-based Assessment in Academic Writing Course for Pre-Service Teachers

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Abstract

Integration of technology in language learning has become a recommendable initiative for English as Second Language (ESL) instructors. Previous studies have noted remarkable improvement of students' learning through the integration of games in classroom teaching. However, little attention has been given to the integration of games element in language classroom that particularly aims to hone students' writing skills. In response to current language learning situation related to writing skills, this current study sought for a new method of assessment in ESL context. An online game application, Kahoot, was used as the primary tool for students' assessment in an academic writing course participated by 32 ESL students in a public university in Malaysia. Qualitative research design was conducted in this study and collection of data was conducted through focus group discussion with ESL learners and a semi-structured interview with ESL instructors. The Responses from students and instructors were recorded and transcribed in verbatim. Thematic analysis of the data revealed that ESL learners found that game-based assessment is highly engaging despite of some learners' anxiety towards the use of technology. ESL instructors also highlighted the importance of learning objectives in assessing students' performance regardless of the tools used.

Keywords: Game-based assessment, gamification, academic writing skills, language learning, English as a Second Language (ESL)

Introduction

Academic writing skills are one of the most crucial skills to be acquired by students in higher institutions. Unsatisfying level of academic writing skills resulted in students' inability to complete written assignments particularly in dissertation writing (Swales & Feak. 2004). According to Yunus, writing skills among Malaysian students are highly alarming and their ability to produce a good piece of writing is still unsatisfactory (2012). She asserted that students' ability to write academically in educational context is crucial for the students particularly in completing their studies and enhancing their professional development (Yunus et al. 2013). Available materials for academic writing are still limited and the need for appropriate instructional tools is highly in demand. Starfield asserted that materials for academic writing are mostly left underutilised and henceforth, resulted in insufficiency of learning materials (2015). This shows that materials provided for academic writing skills development are not fully utilised by instructional tools developers and therefore, resulted in students' incompetency for writing skills.

Despite of numerous tools that have been developed by course instructors to enhance students' writing skills, writing skills enhancement in a game-based learning environment are still underutilised (Milad, 2017). Learning in an gamified context allows deep processing of information, multi-modal learning elements, problem-solving experiences, and learning through personal experimentation and exploration. In the context of academic writing, there are still a

considerable number of gaps to be fulfilled in providing students with online resources (Chen & Zhang, 2017). Students' engagement in online learning courses remained low even though the final completion of courses is defined through their performance for every completed assignment. This situation comes along with a shifted perspective on success in a gamified learning context viz. through a game-based asssessment environment particularly in an ESL context (C. While previous studies only concerned for online learning experience, the current study aims to discover students' perception on game-based assessment in an ESL context.

Improving assessment quality becomes a major concern among ESL instructors to give the most effective learning opportunities for ESL students. Convenience of assessment through games could be integrated to improve students' performance in writing courses particularly in interaction opportunities and practicality in communicatio. In conventional assessment context, students are exposed with limited interactive features and eventually give them less opportunity to engage with their peers making them incompetent writers (Yunus et al., 2013). Limited guidance and insufficiency of attractive features to be integrated in conventional assessment are the major factors to the unsatisfying performance of students' and decline in students' motivation of learning. Previous studies have noted that students' participation in Academic Writing courses is very low and their interaction in classroom is also very limited (Cui, 2019). The aforementioned figures stated that students' anxiety for classroom assessment is still high. This situation will eventually hinder their ability to performance well in during assessment. Gamified context of learning has been widely discussed to have a massive potential of enhancing ESL learners' motivation to actively engage in learning process and eventually improve their academic writing skills (Li, 2017). In responses to abovementioned situation, this study proposes to investigate ESL learners' perception on the implementation of game-based assessment (GBA) in academic writing course. The current study is in line with the future generation expectation and demands in learning especially to be equipped with more sophisticated tools and smartphone application to assist the learning of academic writing skills.

Background of the Study

Studies related to the development of game-based assessment in educational context have started to grow wider. Researchers in the context of education are now in the brink of investigating and employing various strategies to be integrated in learning practise. Gamification, or elements of games to be integrated in a non-game context is found to be highly motivating. Elements of games which are fun and challenging motivate learners to keep track with their engagement in the "gamified" context. Previous studies have been conducted underpinned with various theories. One of the most highlighted theories that underpins researches related to gamification is social constructivism theories followed by constructionism and flow theory. However, there are also limited number of studies that were underpinned with other theories related to gamification such as activity, experiential & generative learning, cognitive theory, narrative centered learning, scientific discovery as duel search model, situated learning theory and uses & gratification theory.

The constructivism approach is very important in the learning process because students are encouraged to develop their own concepts by relating things learned with their existing knowledge. In this process, students can improve their understanding of something. Previous studies showed that students who were taught using the constructivism approach had gained significantly and significantly compared to the group of students taught using the traditional approach (Brandon & All 2010). It also proves that the constructivism approach can help students to gain a higher and significant understanding and achievement. In constructivism theory, the aspects explain in detailed how constructivism helps students build their own meaning of knowledge based on their existing knowledge. That knowledge is applied to the learning in a game-based context.

Motivation is an important component of learning success. Integration of games elements in a non-game context plays the roles as a learning catalyst to foster interaction and motivation in learning. Intrinsic motivation is more dominant in supporting learning success than extrinsic motivation. In the perspective of cognitive psychology, the flow theory is expected to improve students' motivation. Flow is a human mental state that feels "the most enjoyable time", "That really was fun and wish they would happen again" (Lu, Zhou & Wang, 2009). This situation occurs when the attention is invested for a realistic purpose, according to the goal. Full attention is devoted to tackling the challenge and therefore foster drive to further learning. The flow theory mechanism is based on a model of consciousness by Getzels and Csikszenmihalyi through phenomenological approach and information theory (1975). "Flow" in any context will result ordered consciousness and awareness to achieve the goal.

Therefore, "flow" can also be defined as the states of feeling a seamless sequence of responses with machine interactivity, perceiving intrinsic enjoyment, loss of self-consciousness, and sensing self-reinforcing during network navigation (Lu,

Zhou & Wang, 2009). The goal of establishing the flow theory in educational context is to help students acquire knowledge or skills; thus motivating students to learn is important in instructional design practice. Students should be happy to learn, and gain attention and learning orientation before they start learning. In the context of distance education, it is crucial for the researcher to embed some important aspects in the flow theory to motivate the learners to continue study and enjoy learning is one of the critical factors to success in distance education.

Methodology

A qualitative study was conducted to 33 ESL learners of a public university in Malaysia. In this study, a focus group discussion with ESL learners was conducted to obtain their feedback on the implementation of game-based assessment in an ESL context. A game-based assessment was carried out to the participants for four months (one academic semester). The participants enrolled for an academic writing course that consists of topics related to research methodology. After the semester ended, five students were selected to give their feedbacks on their experience of learning in a gamified context. Collection of qualitative data was conducted through a focus group discussion with the five participants who expressed their willingness to be a part of the study (Merriam, 1998). In gaining in-depth insights from ESL instructors, two TESL lecturers and two English teachers were interviewed guided with a set of loosely-structured questions. After the focus group discussion and interview sessions ended, recorded conversation was transcribed in verbatim and analysed thematically.

Findings & Discussion

This section presents the insights from ESL learners to answer the research questions of the study on learners' perception on the game-based assessment in an ESL context and well as the instructors' perception on the implementation of game-based learning in an ESL context.

ESL Learnerss Perception on Game-Based Learning in ESL Context

The effectiveness of a game-based assessment is highly related to stdents' acceptance and attitudes towards the teaching approach (Hwang et al, 2016). Therefore, It is worth to discover learners' perception on the strengths and weakness of the game-based assessment for further improvement as they underwent a first-hand experience with the assessment. Besides that, learners' one-to-one interaction and first-hand experience in the course provide valuable findings for the researchers whether game-based assessment is suitable to be implemented in an ESL context. In order to gain in-depth insights from the ESL learners, their feedbacks on the choice of materials for game-based assessment and classroom participation in a gamified context were presented in this study.

In terms of the use of materials in for game-based assessment in an academic writing course, the researcher received mixed feedbacks from the ESL learners. R3 mentioned that, *"I feel that some application are **too common**. Maybe I have seen a lot of game-based activities for assessment, so I felt that the activities are common for the course"*. On the other hand, R4 added that, *"I like the activities. It is quite **interesting** with the use of Kahoot and all. I saw the most of my friends enjoyed the lesson when we integrated multimedia in learning certain topics."* After being asked to clarify his opinion on "too common", the learner (R3) mentioned that the flow of the activities was conventional whereby the implementation of Kahoot after each session is predictable. He added, R3: *"I felt like I have known what's next, the flow of the activities were all **predictive**. I **already know** what is going to happen next. You know… **common things** for an assessment in classroom… maybe I have seen a lot of games, so I think this one was **just like other games** (similar)."* The researchers also discovered his opinion whether the materials and activities used for assessment were interesting, and R3 added: *"Yes… yes… **for the students**, of course **it's interesting...** Because they have not been in many game-based learning… I don't know, it is just my thoughts…"* His feedback on the materials used is in line with the researchers; observation throughout the course.

The researchers also noted that some ESL learners showed their interest and excitement when certain games activities were integrated. However, it was also noted that a number of learners lost their interest and attention towards the end of the course. According to R1, the choice of materials can be further improved. Even though the use of materials such as Kahoot is interesting enough, she added that R1: *"The **choice** of Kahoot is **fine**. I like the Kahoot too. But I believe there are other applications or games which are more related and more appropriate. Not that I say the Kahoot is not good enough, but I believe there's still plenty of **application (online) that are more relatable**… Again, there's nothing wrong with the choice of Kahoot. But like I said just now, it can be varied – you know…"* In terms of application suitability, it

is noted from the observation that the students were excited with the use of Kahoot. However, there were times whereby the students looked less intrigued with the content particularly on intense topics such as economy and politics and the learners did not show much interest with the lesson.

Since the use of games was integrated in most of the course, it is worth to note the ESL learners' perception on the comparison of game-based assessment materials and other conventional assessment tools. R2 added, *"It's **good** to use **Kahoot** in the lesson... But like just know, we were having a **hard time** to **set up**. Plus, we were waiting for quite some times, and I was worried that some of us tend to lose their interest for learning."* It is worth to note from the observation that, the time spent on preparing the LCD took quite long. The researchers also discovered that the learners showed less interest in learning whenever the ESL learners took up most of the time in preparing. *"Maybe we should have more **back-up plans** in the future… I mean, not to have materials like this (ICT integrated) but… like contingency plans... you know… If **let say we could not use** the **LCD projector**, at least we have something else…"* Even though the ESL learners were able to make the right decision when problems occurred, the researchers noted that language learning became less effective when problems related to technicalities occured. For example, when LCD projector could not be set up, the ESL learners only used the laptop and showed the video to the students. Even though they were able to watch the video played, it was a bit problematic for the students (who sat at the back) to watch the video. R1 added, *"I did **not like** it when I had to **show** the **video through** my **laptop** when LCD projector was not working. But I **don't have any choice**, and if the LCD was not working, the instructors could not teach and students would not be able to learn,"* From the R1 feedback, it is clear that problems will occur when ICT is integrated in a language classroom and eventually resulted a feeling of dissatisfaction for the teacher and students. In the session whereby LCD projector was not working and the instructor had to use her laptop to show the video, the researchers noted that students felt less interested and their responsive rate was low. In comparison to a lesson whereby LCD projector was working, the students participated actively and responded quickly when the ESL learners posed any question.

In general, all ESL learners agreed that the materials used were interesting for the students. Even though R3 believed that the materials were too common in his feedback, R3: *"maybe I have seen a lot of* game-based assessment, *so I think this one was **just like other** game-based assessment (common).",* However, other ESL learners expressed their comments on the choice of materials used during game-based assessment to be interesting. R2 added that, *"It's **good** to use **Kahoot** in the lesson,"* and her statement was supported by R1 and R4 saying that, *"The **choice** of kahoot is **fine**. I like the application too"* and *"Yes, **it's fine**. I don't see any wrong with them (Kahoot). I mean the materials (**Kahoot**) is something that **they are familiar** with – it's not too foreign, I believe,"*

Overall, the ESL learners mentioned that larger selection of materials should be provided to the students to make sure that they were able to participate actively throughout the course. In addition, the choice of contents must suit the students' interest and it should be at par with students' expectation (Hamari et al., 2016). F1 agreed that the use of games were helpful to capture students' attention, particularly contents which are fresh and interesting. This was due to students' inclination to lose focus during the language lesson. Therefore, uninteresting materials are prone to be unentertaining and resulted students' loss of focus throughout the lesson (Huizenga et al., 2009; Cui, 2019). Although the participants agreed that variety of games application have been used, they also mentioned that localised materials should also be included to make sure that the students are able to relate the content with real life. The use of western content could be useful for the students to learn about pronunciation in the future (Stritikus, 2003; Chen & Zhang, 2017). In fact, activities with the integration of local context were found to be highly accepted by the students.

Instructors' Perception of Game-Based Assessment in ESL Context

The current study aims to investigate the implementation of game-based assessment in ESL Context among ESL learner. A semi-structured interview session with the instructors of academic writing course was conducted. The instructors provided detailed feedback on the use of games as an assessment tool to evaluate students' progress in ESL Context. It is crucial to get the instructors' responses as they work as a guideline for the researchers to make necessary amendment of the assessment for the course. Data obtained from the interview session resulted several emerging themes regarding the preparation, implementation and evaluation of the course. The instructors in this study commented on the learning objectives, choice of materials, content suitability and evaluation of the assessment.

Four instructors in ESL participated in this study namely; two TESL lecturers and two secondary school English teachers. The first two instructors are TESL lecturers teaching in a public university in Malaysia All instructors possess a minimal requirement of five years teaching experience in ESL. Summary of instructors' background is presented in the following

table:

Table 1
Summary of Instructors' Background

Table	Instructor 1	Instructor 2	Instructor 3	Instructor 4
Field of expertise	ESL	ESL	ESL	ESL
Academic Qualification	Bachelor's Degree, Master's Degree,	Bachelor's Degree, Master's Degree,	Bachelor's Degree,	Bachelor's Degree
Current teaching institution	Public higher learning institution	Private higher learning institution	Public secondary school	Public secondary school
Location	Suburban	Suburban	Suburban	Rural

N=4

The findings of instructors' perception on game-based assessment are presented in this section. This includes their feedbacks on learning objectives, choice of materials, content suitability and evaluation of assessment in a gamified ESL context.

One of the most important aspects in assessing learning is determining the learning outcome (Baecher, Farnsworth & Ediger 2014). All instructors expressed their concerned on the formulation of learning objectives of the activities as it is the crucial part of an instructional material. Summary of instructors' responses on learning objectives is presented in the following table.

Table 2
Summary of Instructors' Responses

Expert	Summary of instructors' responses on learning objectives
LR1	Learning objectives must be clear and measureable Avoid using general verbs; understand, know etc. Objectives must specify learners' needs
LR2	Use measurable verb to identify learners' improvement It should be related to the assessment for each activity
TR1	Try to include as much Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) as possible. Add more objectives for activities with one or two objectives.
TR2	Use clear objectives so that the facilitators are aware of the learning outcomes. Some learning outcomes are irrelevant to curriculum specification.

Previous study have discovered that the implementation of game-based assessment aims to minimise learners' anxiety for in assessment (Hamari et al., 2016). They have also been acknowledged of the participants' level of language proficiency and competency. Instructors were also given authority to comments any parts of the game-based assessment. However, only four main aspects were analysed by the researchers to be the most crucial aspects in a game-based assessment.

Lecturer 1 (LR1) indicated the most important part in a game-based assessment is the learning objective as it is the central part of the assessment. From the activities developed in the academic writing, LR1 expressed that learning objectives must be clear and measureable. She also stated, *"Try to **omit** objectives which are too general (**abstract**) as it would be very **difficult** to determine their performance (achievement). If you use the verb "understand' how would you measure their (the students) understanding?"* In addition, she also suggested using verb that imply concrete improvement of the students, which are clearer and measureable. She added, *"**Use verbs like "complete"** for example, **can be measured** – if the students get 4 out of 5 points from the games, then the objective is achieved."* LR1 also suggested using verbs that imply learners' needs in learning. She expressed that, *"**Cross-check with the course syllabus** and make sure they are learning **what they are supposed to learn**. At least they could improve their performance (in*

examination andnot simply abot the fun in games."

Lecturer 2 (LR2) noted that learning objectives must be in line with the game-bsed assessment made for the course. She added, LR 2: *"Make sure you choose an **exercise that could reflect back to your objectives** – this is where you will decide whether your objective is achieve or not. Again, make sure you can measure it (their performance)".* LR2's feedback is in-line with LR1's feedback in terms of the measurability of students' performance through learning objectives. She also stressed that assessment and objectives are two inseparable elements. She added, LR 2: *"Whether or not your **objectives** are achieved, it **depends** on your **assessment**. If your assessment **could measure students' understanding** – then you objectives can be achieved,"* Teacher 1 (TR1) is an English teacher in Selangor Malaysia. Her feedbacks were valuable to the researcher as it gives an insight to the researcher on the suitability of the learning outcomes for school students. In addition, the researchers also sought for her opinion on objectives, which are parallel to the school syllabus. TR1 stressed her stand on the use of High Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) in learning outcomes. She added that, TR 1: *"I saw same objectives for most of the activities. It would be good if you could **integrate higher order thinking skills (HOTS)** in the learning objectives. Avoid using simple objectives like "list down' "define" and such things… You know, the "easy" one. Make them a bit challenging (by using HOTS),"* The researcher also noted that TR1 commented on the number of objectives for each activities and she suggested to add more objectives for activities that with one objectives.

Teacher 2 (TR) is an English teacher with the least experience of teaching. However, her experience of five years teaching students with low proficiency in English is useful for the researcher to develop a game-based assessment which could cater the needs of low proficiency students. She commented on the use of unclear objectives and suggested for another terms which are more suitable. She added, TR2: *"I saw an objective using the verb "know". It could be used for a general objective but for specific objectives, a **clear verb should be use**. Maybe you can **replace the word** with more concrete verb. Like – **"demonstrate" or "show"**, you know… something that can be seen (observed). In that way, you can clearly evaluate your teaching – whether it is effective or not,"* For some games, TR2 commented that they were not in line with curriculum specification and suggested different types of games to be used which are relevant to the students. TR2 comments of the clarity of objectives are parallel to LR1 suggestion for verb replacement.

Evaluation is "the collection of, analysis and interpretation of information about any aspect of a programme of education or training as part of a recognised process of judging its effectiveness, its efficiency and any other outcomes it may have" (Rossi, Lipsey, & Freeman, 2003). In tany classroom setting, evaluation of each activity was conducted after each session ended and students were assessed through their performance in completing the task. In evaluating the activities, feedbacks from the instructors were gathered and further elaborated to analyse the appropriateness of game-based assessment and its parallelism with the learning objectives. Summary of instructors' responses on evaluation of the game-based assessment is presented in the following table.

Table 3
Summary of Instructors' Responses on Evaluation of the Activities

Expert	Responses on content suitability
LR1	Include various types of games Evaluation should not only based on students' engagement and fun learning experience
LR2	Prepare pre and post assessment Take note of students' progress throughout the lesson in gamified context
TR1	Kahoot is fine Include slightly challenging games for the students

TR2	Some games prepared are too easy for the students
	Get them to play games as a group work

LR1 suggested to include various types of games that serve as the formative assessment for the students. She also added that evaluation should not only based on students' fun and engaging learning experience but include their overall performance in the course. She expressed that, LR 1: *"Choose a game that is not too easy for them, make sure it is suitable for the students' proficiency. Most importantly, it **is suitable for a session** (30-40 minutes). If it is too hard, the students are not enjoying the game – I mean, **simple game** should be fine, but of course – not too easy,"* In addition, she also suggested assessment to assess students' attitude improvement instead of relying on students' achievement in worksheets. She mentioned that, *LR 1: "Facilitators play the most important role in evaluating the lesson. Whether or not the evaluation is effective – it depends on the assessment by the facilitator. Another thing, you should also **note** their **improvement** in **attitudes** and **motivation** – how much they have improved,"* Besides that, the researcher was also advised to conduct a pre and post evaluation for the students to analyse their performance in language learning. LR2 said, *LR 2: "It would be better if you could **note** their **achievement before, during and after the implementation of game-based assessment**. But most importantly, you need to know their current proficiency (pre)."* After being asked by the researcher on the type of assessment for the students, TR1 mentioned that, *TR 1: "Kahoot are fine, but **make sure it is suitable** with the students as well as the learning objectives. You can give them any games, but most importantly it should be **in line with the learning objectives** – because at the end of the day, you want to know whether the students are progressing or not,"* TR2 statement supported LR1 suggestion on the suitability of the games used as an assessment tool Both of them also expressed the importance of choice of games that are in line with the learning objectives. TR1 also suggested including slightly challenging games for the students. She added, *TR 1: "If you provide **easy games** for them students, of course they **will score well**, but **it doesn't show how much they have learnt**. Sometimes, the students only show (pretend) as if they don't know so that the teacher gives them easier questions. But should never be done. Always prepare **games that are slightly challenging** – words that they are not familiar with for example. But of course, not too easy."* TR 2 commented that some games prepared are too easy for the students and questions are intuitive. She also added, *TR 2: "I saw **some exercise that is too easy** for them – try to **find something** that is **a bit difficult**. Get them to participate in group work as well so that you can evaluate their performance in group,"*

Generally, the instructors perceived game-based assessment as a comprehensive tool for language assessment. Despite of its feasibility to conduct in a setting with inadequate technology equipements, the instructors agreed that the use of games as an assessment tool is a very much appreciated by the students as they are able to engage freely in a classroom setting.

Conclusion

Game-based learning has becoming a new way to improve learners' motivation particularly in language learning. The elements of games that are integrated have resulted a highly engaged learning process over time. In this study, game-based activities were integrated in the teaching of learning of second language focusing of the enhancement of writing skills particularly in academic writing. The implementation of of game-based activity in this study have given the opportunity to researchers to explore the issues related to academic writing skills among students. Apart from writing skills acquired by the students, researchers have also dicussed that the instructors' perception on the impelmentation of game-based assessment in academic writing course. Results presented in this study have contributed to the aspect of students' assessment in wriitng skills. Since choices of writing skills assessments are stills scarce, researchers of the current study intend to provide a fresh, state-of-the art alternatives for writing skills assessment. Therefore, the researchers examined how the use of games is a viable method to increase student motivation and interest in academic writing course. In learning process, students are expected to be participative and motivated throughout the lesson to ensure effective information transfer and knowledge sharing. Perception of the educators is also essential as it enables the researchers to reflect for themselves in terms of the effectiveness of their teaching practise. Results of their perception enable the researchers to develop more systematic and interesting game-based assessment in analysing the learners improvement in writing classroom. Based on the research done, it has been noted that the game-based assessment is effectivein enhancing student achievement and interest in the academic writing course.

Pedagogical Implications

Findings from this study provided useful insights ofn the on usefulness, ease of use, ease of learning and satisfaction of game-based learning module based on the feedback obtained by the students. In-depth analysis of the interview data revealed a more detailed suggestions and perceptions from the students in regards to the implementation of game-based assessment for in academic writing course. It is useful for other teacher educators to improve the game-based assessment for pre-service teachers. It is also shed a new light on the perspective of second language (L2) writing especially in the context of tertiary education.

Acknowledgement

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Word Knowledge through Morphological Awareness in EFL Learners

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Abstract

Morphological awareness is essential for the successful use of a language and morphological instruction may facilitate the acquisition of new words. This quasi-experimental research examines the effects of affix instruction on acquiring morphologically complex words. Two measures of receptive and productive affix knowledge were administered to 92 participants. Sixty participants in the treatment group were provided with an explicit instruction on English affixes based on Bauer and Nation's (1993) word families, whereas participants in the control group were not (n = 32). Performance on affix knowledge tasks was analysed using a repeated-measures ANOVA and related methods. The results demonstrate a positive effect of affix instruction in English language classrooms. Affix features, including linguistic and semantic transparency, improved participants' performance of affix reception and production. The explicit instruction of affixes may therefore help English learners to understand words and to facilitate vocabulary acquisition. However, learners may require more time to learn the meaning of the affixes and to practice affixations with the aid of systematic instruction. Other implications of these findings are discussed in light of current pedagogical practice and theory.

Keywords: affixes, morphological awareness, word family, L2 word knowledge, EFL learners

Introduction

Vocabulary knowledge is essential for mastering a language and words are a critical component of vocabulary acquisition. According to vocabulary studies, second or foreign language (L2) learners require receptive vocabulary knowledge of 8,000-9,000 word families to comprehend a variety of written English texts and knowledge of 6,000-7,000 word families for spoken discourses (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010; Nation, 2006). However, at the end of high school and beginning of university studies, L2 learners in various countries know approximately 2,000-4,000 word families, despite more than 1,000 hours of systematic schooling (Laufer, 2000, 2010). Reducing this gap between vocabulary size and vocabulary needs in L2 learners is difficult to achieve. Thus, it is important to train or encourage students to become independent learners and acquire vocabulary on their own.

Words are related to one another in morphological families (e.g., *create*, *creative*, *creation*). Bauer and Nation (1993) propose seminal guidelines for what constitutes a word. These authors draw attention to how a word can be made up of several bound morphemes, with affixes adding to a base form, all of which contribute to the overall semantic and grammatical functions of the word. It is thus hypothesised that once one base word, or part of an inflected and/or derived word is known, other members of a word family are likely to be recognised with little or no additional effort (Bauer & Nation, 1993, p. 253). Indeed, 34.7% of words in written texts contain inflected and derived forms of affixes (Nation, 2013). Acquiring word structures and word-formation rules is thus beneficial for L2 learners when acquiring new words.

Morphological awareness

Morphological awareness reflects a learner's ability to identify and manipulate the intramural structure of morphemes, the smallest meaningful parts in a language (Carlisle, 2000; Lieber, 2010; McBride-Chang, Wagner, Muse, Chow, & Shu, 2005). In English, bound morphemes include inflectional and derivational affixes. Inflectional affixes transfer a linguistic function by marking a number (book-books), tense (talk-talked), or a comparison (young-younger). The addition of an inflectional affix to a base form does not change the word's grammatical category (Claravall, 2016;

Singleton, 2000). Derivational affixes include prefixes and suffixes. Prefixes refer to bound morphemes that are attached to a base form. Most prefixes never adjust the linguistic function of the word but change the meaning of a word to which they are attached (e.g., lucky-unlucky). Unlike prefixes, suffixes inherently assign a word class. For example, adding the suffix *-ion* to the verb *create* will designate it the noun *creation*, whereas the addition of the suffix *-ive* to the verb *create* will make it the adjective *creative*. These affixations can be attained by morphological transformation, lexicalisation or other linguistic rules. As such, knowledge of English affixes is an essential component of word acquisition in both receptive and productive vocabulary.

Roles of morphological awareness in word knowledge
The contributions of morphological awareness to word knowledge can be described in terms of the different aspects of word knowledge, including form, meaning, and syntactic class. Regarding word form, morphological awareness benefits spelling and decoding new words by identifying and splitting them into smaller component morphemes. That is, morphological awareness helps learners recognise and identify known words more quickly and easily. For example, a regular English plural is marked with an *-s* when this ending is pronounced *-z*, as in *trains* and *rains*. Plurals are often spelled with an *-s*, never with a *-z*. Morphological awareness also contributes to word recognition through chunking and research suggests that the most proficient students read multisyllabic words by chunking (Nagy, Carlisle, & Goodwin, 2014). For example, *interesting* can be read via morphemes (*interest* + *-ing*). Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) showed that both native speakers and non-native advanced ESL students encounter difficulty in producing morphologically complex words, thus suggesting that form-focused instruction may be needed to develop their ability. This finding also supports claims regarding the effectiveness of form-focused input in the L2 classroom (e.g., Ella, Casalan, & Lucas, 2019; Ellis, 2001; Hayashi & Murphy, 2011).

Concerning word meaning, morphological awareness helps learners to access, infer, and recall the meanings of morphologically complex words. Such words are one of the premises of academic language. Vocabulary research shows that 60% of the unfamiliar words in school texts can be broken into morphemes that give substantial information about the meaning of the whole words (Nagy & Anderson, 1984). More recently, a number of studies have shown that knowledge of affixes in English may help students learn new words since they may be able to guess the meaning of the morphemes by connecting unknown words to other words with which they are familiar (Nagy et al., 2014; Nation, 2013). Furthermore, learning to recognise morphemes (affixes) and patterns within words could help learners to have a better understanding of how words relate to one another, which may facilitate the efficiency of learning new words. Knowledge of affixes can, therefore, lighten the 'burden' of acquiring morphologically complex words by a) dividing up words into known word parts and b) perceiving words as part of a word family.

Morphological awareness can also make it easier to infer the word class of new morphologically complex words and the syntactic patterns in which they participate. For example, words ending in *-ion* will be likely to function as nouns and be modified by adjectives (e.g., *create - creation*), whereas words ending in *-ise* or *-ize* function as verbs and are modified by adverbs (e.g., *modern - modernize*). Knowledge of the syntactic functions of these affixes might be especially critical for understanding word functions in language production.

Previous studies have examined affixes in English; however, these studies have only investigated the extent of learners' affix knowledge and how it is associated with overall vocabulary size (Danilović, Savić, & Dimitrijević, 2013; Hayashi & Murphy, 2011; Mochizuki & Aizawa, 2000; Schmitt & Meara, 1997; Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002), affix ordering in English (Hay, 2002; Mochizuki & Aizawa, 2000; Plag & Baayen, 2009) or the classification of affixes for teaching and learning purposes (Bauer & Nation, 1993). Few studies have focused on the effectiveness of using affix knowledge to acquire word knowledge. One such study investigated the syntactic knowledge of derivative affixes of 106 English as a Second Language (ESL) students at a tertiary level and 36 native English speakers by asking them to produce target words in the correct word forms in a prompted context (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). The findings showed that ESL students produced an average of 58.8% of the derived words; that is, learners could produce, on average, two of four possible derived words within a family. While Schmitt and Zimmerman (2002) demonstrated the facilitative effect of knowing a word family member in identifying other members as far as receptive word knowledge is concerned, this facilitation may be less robust in terms of production. The authors advised teachers to provide overt instruction of word formation and not to assume that knowing one member of a word family implies knowing other word family members. Their suggestion is consistent with other claims that explicit teaching of word-formation processes is a prerequisite to vocabulary expansion (e.g., Nation, 2013; Ward & Chuenjundaeng, 2009).

More recently, Ella et al. (2019) examined the morphological processing of inflected and derived words through priming methods in Filipino high school students in grades 7, 8, and 9. Ninety students were given four types of priming conditions: root forms, inflected, derived, and orthographic items (e.g., form, formed, forming, and format) and a fragment completion task (e.g., f o_ _). The results showed that participants performed best on the root form, followed by the inflected and derived forms and then orthographic control forms. There was no statistically significant difference between inflectionally and derivationally suffixed words, suggesting that both inflectional and derivational suffixes of the word have identical representations in the mental lexicon. These findings are inconsistent with previous studies showing that inflectional suffixes are acquired before derivational suffixes (Anglin, 1993; Carlisle, 1995; Hayashi & Murphy, 2011; Masrai, 2016; Schmitt & Meara, 1997; Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). Another study by Jones and Waller (2017) investigated the effectiveness of two explicit teaching approaches on nine target words in 40 Turkish university learners. The participants were equally divided into the control and treatment groups. The control group received explicit instruction only, whereas the treatment group received explicit instruction with textual and aural input enhancement for the target words. The tests were used to measure participants' receptive and productive knowledge of the target words at three different stages. The results showed explicit teaching with textual and aural input enhancement produced larger gains than explicit teaching alone, both receptively and productively. These findings provide support to facilitative effects of explicit instructions of morphologically complex words.

In a Thai context, Ward and Chuengjundaeng (2009) investigated whether knowing a word facilitated an understanding of other words within the same word families. Two tests were given to two groups of participants; one consisted of first- and second-year undergraduate students from the Faculty of Engineering, and the other included participants from the Faculty of Medicine. Both groups were given two vocabulary tests with a one-week interval between the two tests. The participants were required to write down the L1 meaning of the 32 target words. The first test comprised 16 headwords and 16 derived words, while the second test consisted of 16 derived words from the headwords in the first test and 16 headwords of the derived words in the first test. To illustrate, if in the first test, the students were required to translate *equip*, in the second week, they would be asked to translate *equipment*, and *vice versa*; if *creation* was given in the first week, *create* would be given in the second week. Their results suggest that learning roots can facilitate learning the derived words but not *vice versa*, and that frequency of exposure is critical for acquisition of word part strategy.

Given that uninstructed morphological knowledge provides some struggling English language learners with a compensation strategy, deliberate morphological teaching may help learners harness their morphological knowledge more successfully. Deliberate morphological teaching may create knowledge that is different from the uninstructed knowledge that has been examined in existing correlational or predictive studies. Deliberate teaching should lead to more accurate and quicker learning, as well as more explicit knowledge. If morphological instruction was introduced early in language learning, morphological knowledge could be consolidated and could contribute to vocabulary acquisition and, thus, English language learning.

Given affix instruction does transfer from the morphemic to the lexical levels, instructional methods that integrate morphological interventions with other aspects of vocabulary learning may benefit learners of English (Bowers & Kirby, 2010; Colovic-Markovic, 2017; Kirby, Bowers, & Deacon, 2009; Nation, 2013). Morphological awareness may also build word knowledge, and gains in word knowledge may reinforce morphological awareness. That is, there may be some mutually supportive relationship. Therefore, the objective of the current study is to examine the effect of affix instructions using Bauer and Nation's (1993) word family construct on word acquisition and development at a tertiary level in a Thai EFL context. The following research questions were formed to guide the study:
1. Do Thai university learners in the treatment group and the control group differ significantly in receptive and productive knowledge of affixes?
2. What are Thai university participants' perceptions of affix interventions on word knowledge?

Research methodology

The quasi-experimental study was designed to examine the effect of affix interventions on Thai university learners of English. Specifically, both treatment and control groups of participants were studying English Analytical Reading Course (0105207) during data collection. The only difference was that the treatment group received two additional hours of explicit teaching of English affixes and word families based on Bauer and Nation's (1993) word family construct, whereas the control group received no additional explicit instruction on English affixes. Pre-tests, post-tests, and delayed

post-tests, with the delayed test taking place two weeks after the explicit instruction, were used to examine whether there was a difference between the treatment and the control groups in word knowledge, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Research design

Groups	Pre-test	Affix Intervention treatment	Post-test	Delayed post-test
Treatment $N = 60$	X	Two hours of explicit teaching on English affixes	X	X
Control $N = 32$	X	No teaching on English affixes	X	X

The independent variable was Affix Interventions, and the two dependent variables were post-test and delayed post-test. These tests included receptive and productive measures of affix knowledge.

Participants
The current study included 92 participants who were second-year English major students at a well-established government university in northeastern Thailand. The treatment group included 60 students from the Faculty of Education, while the control group was 32 students from the Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences. The age range of the participants was 20-21 years old, and all participants were Thai native speakers. All participants had learned English as a foreign language (EFL) and received English lessons for at least 14 years of systematic schooling.

Both groups of participants were assumed to have a similar level of English language proficiency. This is in part because all participants were sophomore English majors at the same university. Concerning the overall academic performance, the average grade point average (GPA) of the treatment participants was 3.46 with a standard deviation of 0.25 and the average GPA of the control group was 3.25 with a standard deviation of 0.45.

Research instruments
Participants completed two different tasks: receptive and productive affix knowledge tests. The receptive affix knowledge (RAK) task comprised 18 sets in multiple-choice format that used pseudowords and real affixes. Each set was composed of four test items, for a total of 72 items. For each item, the participants were provided with the meaning of the target affix and pseudoword and were asked to select the correct affix to attach to the made-up word from five possible answers. No points were awarded for an incorrect answer. Pseudowords were used on the rationale that some participants might benefit from their prior knowledge of words, thereby unfairly increasing their recognition of the target affixes. Examples of the RAK test are illustrated below:

Pseudowords	Meaning
Zuk	*House*

1. Which of the following pseudowords could possibly mean 'around the house'?
   a. *archzuk*   b. *circumzuk*
   c. *subsuk*   d. *enzuk*
   e. *prezuk*
2. Which of the following pseudowords could possibly mean 'having no house'?
   a. *zukful*   b. *zukive*
   c. *zukic*   d. *zukless*
   e. *zukically*

For the productive affix knowledge (PAK) task, participants were required to supply all acceptable affixes and produce a correct word for each blank. That is, there was one precise missing word, whereas the number of acceptable affixes varied depending on the prompt words. Examples of the PAK task are as follows:

1. a) _____(final)_____.
    b) One of the _____ will win the cash prize of $1,000,000.
2. a) _____(surprise) _____.
    b) I was _____ by the results of the survey.

A five-point Likert questionnaire was developed and presented to participants after the tests had been administered. The questionnaire consisted of 12 questions exploring Thai university participants' perceptions of affix instruction and word family constructs.

Explicit instruction on English affixes
The explicit instruction on English affixes and basic word-formation knowledge was given to the treatment group two weeks after the pre-test to allow the students to acquire basic knowledge of word families and how they are formed. The explicit teaching of English affixes and word families was presented via PowerPoint slides, and worksheets were also provided. The concatenations of sampling words were illustrated to the treatment group, showing how each word was related to other word family members. Neither the meanings of the target affixes nor those of the prompt words were provided during the instruction. This was to reduce the likelihood of guessing the correct affixes on the tests. In contrast, the control participants did not receive any extra instruction on English affixes and word families during the data collection. Instead, they received a regular English class.

It should be noted that knowledge of affixes can be considered an organising unit of a 'word family.' A word family is a collection of words created from a group of a base word and the inflected and derived affixes that are assumed to be effortlessly understood by a learner without the need or effort to learn the different forms separately (Bauer & Nation, 1993). The affixes taught in the present study include both inflected and derived affixes, based on Levels 2 to 7 of Bauer and Nation's (1993) word family:

Level 2: Inflected suffixes
Level 3: The most frequent and regular derivational affixes
Level 4: Frequent orthographically regular affixes
Level 5: Regular but infrequent affixes
Level 6: Frequent but irregular affixes
Level 7: Classical roots and affixes

Levels 2-7 were used as these affixes provide a basis for the methodical learning and teaching of English affixes at different levels of morphological awareness and are a broadly accepted description of a word-building device. However, Level 1 (at which each form is a different word) was excluded due to the assumption that learners are prone to consider *book* and *books* to be morphologically connected or members of the same word family (Bauer & Nation, 1993).

Procedure
Receptive and productive affix knowledge tests were given to all participants in the first week of the semester. The productive affix knowledge test was given first to avoid the possibility that participants might draw a connection between the written forms of the affixes appearing on the productive task. A 15-minute interval was provided between the tasks to minimise the participants' fatigue. Before the tests, the instructions, together with illustrations of the affix tasks, were provided to the participants in their native Thai language. Two screening measures were also implemented: participants who left answers blank for all questions were excluded from the analysis, and those who provided the same five successive answers in response to different questions were also excluded. Post-tests were administered to all participants one week after the final affix intervention lecture and delayed post-tests occurred two weeks after the post-test.

Scoring
Participants' answers on the RAK task were scored either correct or incorrect. In the PAK task, the number of acceptable correct answers varied depending on the prompt words provided for each test item. Therefore, participants' answers were compared with the total possible number of correct responses within a word family based on Nation's (2006) BNC word lists. If an affix was outside the word family list, two experienced native English speakers judged its suitability. One acceptable affix received one point, and a non-answer (blank space) received no points. When a participant provided

an unacceptable affix, one point was deducted to reduce the possibility of guessing. The correct affixation, including each acceptable prefix and suffix, was awarded one point. Minor spelling errors were ignored and no points were deducted in the case of a wrong word being supplied to complete a given sentence, as the participants might have partial knowledge of the word, but be unable to produce the correct form of the word.

Results
Receptive affix knowledge (RAK) task results

To evaluate the efficacy of the treatment, the data from the RAK task were analysed using a repeated-measures ANOVA with one within-subjects variable at three different time points (T1, T2, and T3) and one between-subjects variable (Treatment and control) to measure the effect of affix interventions on morphological awareness performance on the RAK. A preliminary analysis was also performed to ensure that all assumptions for the test were met, including normality, linearity, homogeneity of variance, and reliable measurement of the multivariate.

As illustrated in Figure 1, we found a main effect of Time Point ($F(2, 180) = 43.170$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .32$.), with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The analysis of ANOVA also indicated a significant effect for Group ($F(1, 90) = 96.080$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .52$), with a large effect size. Moreover, there was a statistically significant Time Point x Group interaction ($F(2, 180) = 7.821$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .08$).

Follow-up comparisons indicated that the treatment group scored most highly at T2 and performed significantly better at T2 than T1 ($t(59) = 12.58$, $p < .001$). However, their mean performance on receptive affix knowledge task at T2 versus T3 did not differ significantly ($p < .05$). Likewise, the control group achieved most highly at T2 and performed significantly better at T2 than T1 ($t(31) = 2.29$, $p < .05$). No significant difference was found between the mean performance for receptive affix knowledge task at T2 versus T3 for the control group ($p < .05$). When comparing the performance between the groups, an independent-samples *t*-test indicated that the treatment group performed significantly better on the RAK task than the control group at all time points ($t(90) = 5.53$, $p < .001$, ($t(90) = 10.14$, $p < .001$, and ($t(90) = 8.64$, $p < .001$ for T1, T2 and T3, respectively). As shown in Table 2, despite the significant difference between both groups at T1, the larger between-subjects difference in the mean performance for T2 was noteworthy. These findings suggest that Thai university participants honed their English affixes when the instruction occurred deliberately.
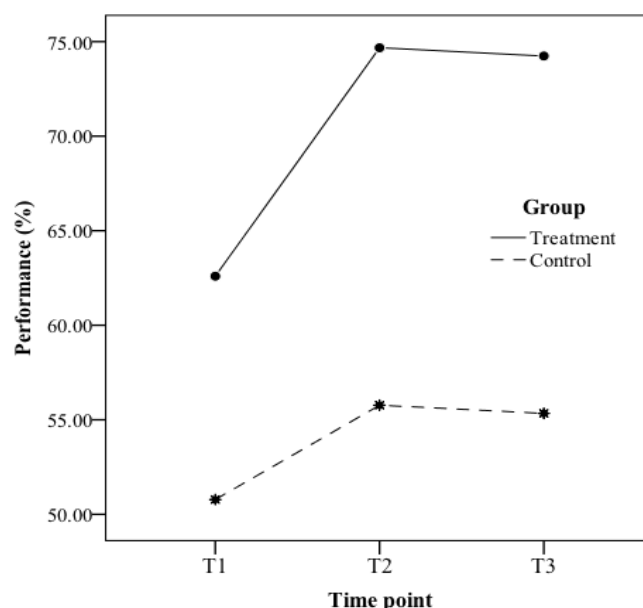

Figure 1. Mean percentage of correct responses to the RAK task
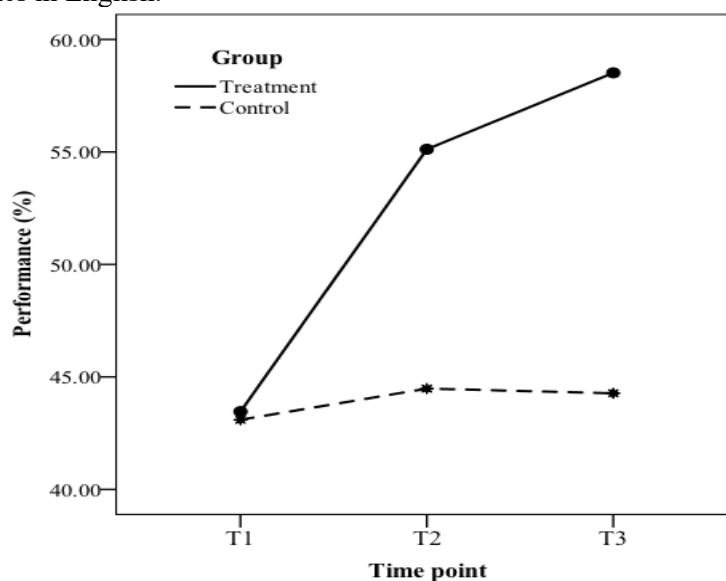
Table 2. Descriptive statistics for the RAK test

	Treatment group		Control		*t*-value	Effect size
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Time 1	62.59	8.04	50.78	12.40	5.528	1.17
Time 2	74.68	7.13	55.77	10.68	10.138	2.14
Time 3	74.24	9.19	55.34	11.36	8.643	1.82

Productive affix knowledge (PAK) task results
A repeated-measures ANOVA with one within-subjects variable at three different time points (T1, T2, and T3) and one between-subjects variable (Treatment and control) was performed to evaluate the effectiveness of the treatment. As shown in Figure 2, there was a main effect of Time Point $F(2, 180) = 28.580$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .24$, with a large effect size (Cohen, 1988). The analysis of ANOVA also indicated a significant effect for Group $F(1, 90) = 12.570$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .12$, with a medium effect size. Moreover, there was a statistically significant Time Point x Group interaction $F(2, 180) = 20.037$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .18$ and the effect size was large.

The treatment participants performed with a high degree of accuracy on the PAK task. Specifically, the treatment participants showed their best productive knowledge performance at T2, followed by T3 and then T1. The statistical analysis also revealed that the treatment participants performed significantly better at T2 than T1 ($t(59) = 10.071$, $p < .001$) and significantly better at T2 than T3 ($t(59) = 2.353$, $p < .05$). However, no significant difference was found between any time points for the control participants' performance on the PAK task ($p < .05$).

An independent-samples *t*-test was also conducted to compare the performance between the groups. As shown in Table 3, the treatment group performed significantly better on productive affix knowledge task than the control group at T2 ($t(90) = 4.04$, $p < .001$) and T3 ($t(90) = 4.92$, $p < .001$). However, no significant difference was found at T1. These findings suggest that affix instructions facilitate Thai university participants' understanding of new words and improve their production of affixes in English.

Figure 2. Mean percentage of correct responses to the PAK task

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for the PAK task

	Treatment group		Control		*t*-value	Effect size
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Time 1	43.46	11.07	43.10	13.25	0.140	
Time 2	55.12	11.93	44.48	12.20	4.040	.85
Time 3	58.51	13.44	44.27	12.82	4.917	1.04

Pearson correlations were performed to examine the relationship between receptive and productive affix knowledge across the treatment and control participants. The statistical analysis revealed a positive relationship between the treatment participants' total mean performance on the RAK task and their total mean performance on the PAK task (r = .38, p < .01, two-tailed). Likewise, among the control participants, a moderately significant correlation was found between their total mean performance on the RAK task and their total mean performance on the PAK task (r = .53, p < .01, two-tailed).

Participants' perceptions of affix instructions
The reliability analysis was carried out on the questionnaire items, indicating a high degree of internal consistency across the items on the questionnaire (Cronbach Alpha coefficient = 0.84). The data obtained from the questionnaire were then analysed to determine participants' perceptions of affix instructions. The findings showed that affix knowledge, including word family construct, is valuable for English language learners. Precisely, participants perceived that the conceptualisation of word families is the most beneficial for English language learning and teaching (M = 4.53). Affix instruction was also reported to help improve participants' vocabulary (M = 4.43) and English language ability (M = 4.38). These findings are presented in Table 4.

The findings of the current study suggest that knowledge of word families helps students see not only the meaning of a word but the link between the word and its inflected and derived forms. Moreover, affix knowledge enhances students' English language proficiency, including grammar, reading, and writing. These findings support previous claims that knowledge of English affixes fosters English language learning (Carlisle, 2000; Hayashi & Murphy, 2011; Mochizuki & Aizawa, 2000).

Table 4. Participants' perceptions of affix instruction

Item	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree	M
1. Affix knowledge helps develop word knowledge	-	-	11 (18.3)	38 (63.3)	11 (18.3)	4.00
2. Affix instruction is a useful approach for vocabulary learning	-	1 (1.7)	3 (5)	29 (48.3)	27 (45)	4.37
3. Word family construct is beneficial for English language learning and teaching	-	-	3 (5)	22 (36.7)	35 (58.3)	4.53
4. Knowledge of English affixes enhances English grammar	-	-	7 (11.7)	32 (53.3)	21 (35)	4.23
5. Affix knowledge enhances writing skills	-	1 (1.7)	6 (10)	32 (53.3)	21 (35)	4.22
6. Affix knowledge fosters reading ability	-	1 (1.7)	8 (13.3)	37 (61.7)	14 (23.3)	4.07
7. My vocabulary is improved through affix instruction	-	-	6 (10)	22 (36.7)	32 (53.3)	4.43
8. The notion of word families promotes vocabulary learning	-	-	9 (15)	29 (48.3)	22 (36.7)	4.22
9. The notion of word families is not helpful to me	49 (81.7)	9 (15)	1 (1.7)	1 (1.7)	-	1.25
10. Word families enhance my knowledge of grammar	1 (1.7)	-	8 (13.3)	40 (66.7)	11 (18.3)	4.00
11. Word families help me see the relationship of form-meanings of a word	-	-	8 (13.3)	31 (51.7)	21 (35)	4.22
12. Affix knowledge enhances my English language ability (e.g., grammar, meaning and use of a word)	-	-	5 (8.3)	27 (45)	28 (46.7)	4.38

Discussion

The results of the current study indicate that both groups of participants achieved higher scores on the RAK task than the PAK task. This occurred, in part, because participants are likely to perceive the associations between members of a word family in receptive aspects of word knowledge, at least to some extent. This result also indicates that productive use of the affix is more difficult to acquire. That is, Thai university students are likely to recognise the form and meaning of an affix before they are able to recall and use it in context. It was also demonstrated that Thai university participants know English affixes to some extent. These findings suggest that some aspects of English are less difficult to acquire than others among Thai university participants and are consistent with previous data showing that some aspects of English affixes are acquired earlier than others (Bauer & Nation, 1993; Bowers & Kirby, 2010; Hayashi & Murphy, 2011; Mochizuki & Aizawa, 2000). Together, the results indicate that mastering one member of a word family does not necessarily entail mastery over other members of the word family. This finding provides support to previous studies that showed learners' knowledge of word families is incomplete (Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002; Ward & Chuenjundaeng, 2009).

In relation to the effects of affix instruction, the results of the current study showed that the treatment group performed significantly better on receptive and productive affix knowledge tasks than the control group, suggesting a facilitative effect of affix instruction. Although both groups scored higher in the post-tests, the performance of the treatment group in both T2 and T3 appeared greater than that of the control group. The current findings are consistent with previous studies demonstrating that explicit instruction on English affixes has an impact on vocabulary learning (Bauer & Nation, 1993; Carlisle & Katz, 2006; David, Myles, Rogers, & Rule, 2009; Jones & Waller, 2017; Schmitt & Meara, 1997; Schmitt & Zimmerman, 2002). One explanation for this finding is that affix knowledge is perceived to be an essential mechanism underpinning learners' knowledge of morphologically complex words (Bowers & Kirby, 2010; Carlisle & Katz, 2006; Kirby et al., 2009; Nation, 2013). To illustrate, explicit instructions in English affixes assist participants in seeing how words are constructed and how they can be decomposed into smaller components. That is, once students realize that the words can be broken into smaller morphemes, and they are constructed of inflected and derived forms, then it becomes easier for them to parse and reconstruct words. This process is distinct to, and more powerful than, memorizing the meanings of the word because once students know how to derive and decompose morphologically complex words, they can create new forms of words, even the nonsense ones, and create a meaning for each.

Another potentially useful framework through which to understand the effect of affix instruction is the lexical quality hypothesis, which includes orthography, phonology, grammar, meaning, and constituent binding (Perfetti & Hart, 2002). Knowledge of how oral and written morphology work in the English language could be understood as a binding agent that pulls together these individual features of lexical representation to reinforce lexical quality. Word binding is an appropriate mode to describe how written morphological structures link members of word families with consistent orthographic patterns. The affix patterns for morphemes can provide grammatical indications, and they are linked with phonological representations. Indeed, each of the features of lexical quality may have direct relations with verbal and written affix or morphological components. Given that affix knowledge acts as a component-binding feature of lexical quality, increasing that affix knowledge through instruction could expedite the effective retrieval of word identities, which, in turn, could result in better performance on affix knowledge tasks, as found in the current study.

The effect of affix instruction could also be accounted for by the conceptualization of the word family *per se*. The word family relies on the meaning and linguistic characteristics of affixes. Specifically, the meanings of these English affixes appear to have influenced Thai EFL university students' affix learning. This is evident in the correct responses to the RAK task. Thai university students performed better on affixes that contained orthographic regularity and semantic transparency, regardless of Bauer and Nation's (1993) list of affix levels. This is broadly consistent with Bauer and Nation's (1993) list of affix levels that prioritized the regularity of written and spoken forms in affixes.

A new form of derivational affixes carries not only linguistic but also semantic information and, therefore, it can confuse learners who encounter it for the first time. For example, *use* can transform it into *misuse*, *reuse*, *usable*, *used*, *useless*, *useful*, *reused*, or *misused*. Another example is the derivational suffix *-er*. It is attached most commonly to verbs (e.g., use-user, start-starter), but productively to other syntactic classes, where it means 'a person or thing connected with____' (Bauer & Nation, 1993). By contrast, the derivational suffix *-ness* is regularly added to adjectives, meaning 'state, quality of _____,' according to Bauer and Nation (1993). Such instances may become problematic to EFL learners mainly because the meaning of the new base word-affix combination is ambiguous (e.g., usefulness). Therefore, explicit

instructions of English affixes through word families (e.g., item by item, grouping, chunking) would be effective for EFL learners.

The results also showed that Thai university students had positive opinions regarding affix instruction in regular English language classrooms. Indeed, the participants perceived the understanding of English affixes, including word family constructs, to be a scaffolding mechanism for vocabulary acquisition. Specifically, affix knowledge facilitates learning morphologically complex words and reinforces English language skills. English affixes enhance not only learners' word knowledge but also their reading, writing, and grammar skills. The questionnaire results also support the supposition that affix instruction in English language classrooms is valuable in vocabulary learning and teaching, at least in a Thai EFL context. This finding is consistent with Bauer and Nation's (1993) goal of word families, which are necessary for a systematic approach to vocabulary teaching and learning.

Conclusion

The current study illustrates a developmental continuum of English affix knowledge among Thai university learners. Indeed, the recognition of individual affixes appears to occur before production. The findings also indicate that mastery of an affix within a word family does not necessarily entail knowledge of other members of the word family. Affix instruction in a regular English language classroom in an EFL context was shown to be a useful learning tool. Indeed, explicit instructions of affixes in English are beneficial for acquiring word knowledge (e.g., meaning and linguistic). Moreover, it appears that morphological awareness develops with students' levels of vocabulary and in a consistent sequence, suggesting which prefixes and suffixes should be taught before others. Thai university students' morphological awareness also appears to develop in conjunction with typical gains in word knowledge. In conclusion, affix instructions influence the acquisition of word knowledge since affix knowledge is considered an essential, sub lexical component of word knowledge and a facilitative mechanism of vocabulary learning.

Pedagogical Implications

In regard to current English language learning theories and teaching methodologies, the current study suggests that it was worthwhile to add explicit affix instruction to second language classes, particularly in an EFL context. The benefits of explicit teaching have already been demonstrated and, thus, this type of teaching should be added to the English language classrooms. Moreover, affix knowledge should be taken into account as an advantage for advanced EFL language learners, as university students can increase their metalinguistic awareness through thinking about the language and reflecting on their language learning process. Overall, the current study reports significant, positive instructional effects of English affixes on words that were taught directly and new words built on bases that were taught in the context of inflections and derivations. This study illustrates the importance of teaching common English affixes and applying the meaning and/or usage of the affixes to stems or bases. Indeed, morphological awareness has the potential to be used not only by teachers to guide explicit vocabulary teaching and learning in class, but also an essential mechanism for independent study for language learners.

The current findings also show that multiple forms of assessment may be necessary to obtain a clearer understanding of the extent of students' morphological knowledge and its role in vocabulary growth. Longitudinal studies would be particularly advantageous in this regard. In particular, research would benefit from focusing on the development of different aspects of English affixes in various contexts and levels of English language proficiency. Additional research on affix acquisition (e.g., one by one, grouping) would form significant pedagogical and theoretical pathways for vocabulary growth.

Acknowledgements

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The Construct of Gender and Ethnicity in Language Proficiency of Post-Colonial Filipino ESL Learners

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Abstract
Gender and Ethnicity are essential constructs considered to be interwoven with each other. They are imperative considerations in the study of language learning. However, there remain a dearth of investigations on language proficiency that have accounted both gender and ethnicity, specifically among post-colonial Filipino ESL learners. Against this context, employing a quantitative research design, the study investigated the difference in the English Language proficiency across gender and ethnicity. This cross-sectional investigation involved 620 secondary schools students sampled across three major ethnic groupings. The data revealed that there is gender difference in the English Language Proficiency (ELP) favouring the females. However, no significance is found between ELP and the variable ethnicity. Educational implications are provided for the findings.

Keywords: Gender, Language, English, Ethnicity, ESL learners

Introduction

The study of gender and ethnicity as influencing factors to learning a second language (L2) has expanded over time. Both gender and ethnicity play vital roles as social constructs. As such, gender and ethnicity have become imperative variables in the investigations of carried out by different researchers. As proof, in the investigation of Torres and Alieto (2019a) with four hundred (400) pre-service teachers in two (2) state universities (one set in Luzon and the other in Mindanao), respondents' acceptability of Philippine English was explored in terms of difference according to gender. Additional is the investigation of Torres and Alieto (2019b) with one hundred sixty (160) senior high school students which investigated the difference on the gender difference of English motivation and self-efficacy among respondents. Another is the research work of Alieto (2018) involving one hundred twenty (120) prospective teachers who are at their penultimate year. The said study investigated the gender difference on the language attitude of the respondents towards Mother Tongue (MT) used as language of instruction (LoI) and MT as a subject. Moreover, the study also probed into the difference on willingness to teach in the MT and to teach the MT as a subject across gender. Extending the list is the investigation of Rillo and Alieto (2018b) which enlisted fifty-eight would-be English language teachers. The study looked into determining whether the respondents are positive or otherwise towards teaching Philippine English as a variant of English inside the classroom. Additionally, the investigation of Devanadera and Alieto (2019) with forty (40) children aged 5 to 6 years old explored the difference on lexical production across gender.

On the other hand, as regards the idea of being an extensively investigated construct, the same holds true with ethnicity as a variable. Example is the study of Wilson& Rodkin (2013) which aimed to determine whether or not ethnic segragation is associated with social status of the fourth and fifth grade African American and European American

children. The same study sampled across 713 children aging 9 to 11. Another example is the study of Green (2015) with 297 students enrolled in the pharmacy program. The study explored the contribution of ethnicity and English proficiency on the academic performance and progress of the respondents.

However, there remains to be few studies conducted on determining the English proficiency (EP) difference of Filipino high school learners across gender and ethic groupings. With this need, this current investigation intends to explore the gender and ethnic differences on EP.

Review of Related Literature
Proficiency in the English Language
The belief that English is the most beneficial language to learn remains prevalent. The reason behind this is that English is perceived by many as the only language merchandisable in the world (Tupas, 2015 cited in Somblingo & Alieto, 2019). Thus, the dedication of educational systems , such as that of the Philippines, to train and develop proficiency in the English language among Filipino learners remains to one of the top goals. In fact, Abdon, Maghanoy, Alieto, Buslon, Rillo and Bacang (2019) explained that students, in the country, are faced with the need to attain competency not only in one language instead at the very least two languages – in the mother tongue and in the English language. Moreover, it can be noted, although the landscape of language-in-education in the country has recently been changed eventuating from the implementation of the K-12 curriculum which gave prominence on the use of mother tongue in early education, that the aim to attain good proficiency in English is still the primary concern of many teachers across the countries. Supportive of this is the point that the founding of the first language, which led to the teaching of the mother tongues in school, is founded on the idea that such would mean to better learning of the English language.

The appreciation and valuing afforded towards English is also contended to be based on the role it plays and the dimensions in which it is used. This means that because English is the language of chosen and used in schools and workplaces (in most cases) developing proficiency in it became an essential concern. Further, it could not be denied that since content subjects such as mathematics, science, and history among others uses English as medium of instruction the need to acquire proficiency in the said language greatly impacts performance in different subjects. With these mentioned benefits of gaining proficiency in English, although the enumeration is limited, are enough to logically believe that investigating proficiency in the English language of students in the post-colonial period is a relevant concern.

Gender
Gender, indeed, is one concept that is complex to explain and understand (Bilaniuk, 2003). It means for the author that gender is not as simple as male and female, but one that is related to other social construct like religion, ethnicity among others. Similarly, Aydinoglu (2014) explained that gender and sex are two distinct things - while sex refer to the classification that relates to biological state of being a male and a female, gender on the hand is beyond the dual classification. However, Gormley (2015) argued that gender is the division made that separates male from female. At this juncture, the study adopts the definition that gender simply means being male and female as oppose to using the term sex. It as acknowledged that semantic difference may exist, but gender carries a euphemistic characteristic- hence the preference in this study. The main argument in the investigation of gender difference on English proficiency is that it is a variable extensively studied by renowned authors like Lakoff (1975). Over the years, investigating the influence of gender on different language-related constructs remain to be of interest among different researchers. Illustrative of this claim is the investigation conducted by Bacang, Rillo and Alieto (2019). The empirical study investigated and analyzed the influence of gender as regards the use of rhetorical appeals, hedges and boosters in argumentative essays. The study concluded that males prevalently use logical appeals;on the other hand, females extensively use emotional appeals in developing their essays. Addedly, females were found to use more hedges and boosters in comparison to their male counterparts. Another example is the experimental research of Ramos, Miñoza and Alieto (2019) which , as one of the goals, investigated the effect of gender (male and female) in the writing skills of the college students. However, the results of the said study disclosed that gender was found to have no influence on the writing skill of the respondents. Additional to the list is the investigation of Berowa, Ella and Lucas (2019) which determined the offensiveness of swear words as perceived by males and females. The study revealed that females are more offended with swear words than males. These list , although far from being exhaustive and complete, suggests that gender as a variable is an essential factor to consider and account. Therefore, in this present investigation, it is taken to

be a main variable in the investigation of learners' English language proficiency.

Ethnicity

As an identity, ethnicity is a sense of belonging of a person within an ethnic group. Ethnicity is a shared ancestry or genealogy. Ethnic group may be traced back belonging to one family tree. There are blood relations as that of the Indigenous Peoples (IPs). People who belong to the same ethnic groupings have commonalities in their language, way of living, tribe, beliefs, and ideals. Ethnicity could also be an association or allegiance of group of people sharing the same cultural traditions, religious beliefs and social traits that is different from the others. Ethnicity is also a cultural phenomenon that characterized distinct populations. It is often based on religion, beliefs and customs as well as memories of migration or colonization (Cornell & Hartmann, 2007).

In the Philippines, with its 7107 islands ethnic groupings can be associated with the so called paternal lineage. Maternal lineage was also noted for the purpose of census. With this, either of the parents who is a member of an Indigenous group, belong to one ethnic identity. The different ethnic categorization in the Philippines was given by the NCIP or the National Commission on Indigenous Peoples and the NCMF or the National Commission on Muslim Filipinos whose responsibility is to safeguard the rights intended for these marginalized groups.

Research Questions

The present study intended to answer the following specific questions:
1. What is the English proficiency of the respondents?
2. Is there a significant difference on the English proficiency of the respondents when data is grouped according to gender (male and female)?
3. Is there a significant difference on the English proficiency of the respondents when data is grouped according to ethnicity?

Hypotheses of the study

H*o* – There is no significant difference on the English Proficiency of the respondents across gender.

H*o* – There is no significant difference on the English Proficiency of the respondents across ethnicity.

Methodology

Research Design

The study employed the use of a descriptive-quantitative research design. The study is noted to be descriptive as it intends to simply collect, tabulate and interpret data with the use of simple statistics to determine a phenomenon or trend (Johnson, 2000 cited in Perez & Alieto, 2018; Calderon, 2006 found in Rillo & Alieto, 2018a). Moreover, data utilized in the study come from secondary sources, the students' report card and were gathered through a short period of time; hence, the study is identified as cross-sectional (Setia, 2016 cited in Buslon & Alieto, 2019). Additionally, the study is considered to be non-experimental as no establishment of control group was realized and neither was there a use of treatment (Alieto, 2019).

Data Source

Data gathered from the report cards are from 620 high school students aged 11-19 [Mean (M) =14.26, Standard Deviation (SD) = 1.60] enrolled in a state-managed institution. In addition, the respondents' distribution in terms of ethnicity is as follows: 155 or 15.6% declared themselves as *Bisaya*, 358 or 35.9% reported to be *Chavacano*, and 107 or 10.7% are *Tausug*.

Data Analysis

From the report cards of the students, only the final grades of the students in the subject English were taken and coded for analysis. The final grade is the average of four (4) rating periods. Moreover, gender is coded as: (1) for male and (2) for female. On the other hand, ethnicity is coded as: (1) for *Bisaya*, (2) for *Chavacano*, and (3) for *Tausug*.

Moreover, for the interpretations of the arithmetic score of the respondents' EP, the following scale, as provided

by Ronda (2012): Beginning (B) – grades below 75%, Developing (D) – 75% to 79%, Approaching Proficiency (AP) – 80% to 84%, Proficiency (P) – 85% to 89%, and Advanced (A) - 90% above.

Procedure
Letters were sent requesting permission to access students' report cards. Upon approval, the researchers set a schedule with focal teacher assigned to assist the researcher. In the collection of the data, only the needed data was taken including respondents' gender and ethnic grouping. However, neither name nor other marker of identity was taken for confidentiality purposes.

Statistical Tool
To determine the gender difference on the EP of the respondents, T-test for independent samples was used. In addition, to determine the difference of the respondents' EP across ethnic groupings, one-way analysis of variance (one-way ANOVA) was employed.

Results and Discussion

English Proficiency of the respondents
To determine the respondents' EP, the final grades in English were tabulated and computed. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics [mean (M) and standard deviation (SD)]. Table 1 shows the analysis and interpretation.

Table 1
Respondents' English Proficiency

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
English Proficiency	85.39	5.692	Proficient

Legend: Beginning (B) – grades below 75%, Developing (D) – 75% to 79%, Approaching Proficiency (AP) – 80% to 84%, Proficiency (P) – 85% to 89%, and Advanced (A) - 90% above.

The table exposes the EP of the respondents. On the average, the respondents are noted to be 'Proficient' in the English language. However, the standard deviation suggests that the distribution of the grades is highly dispersed. In fact, the lowest grade noted is 71 while the highest grade is 98.

Further probing of the data revealed that 13 of the respondents have a level of proficiency below 75% and determined as '*beginning*'. In addition, one hundred eight (108) of the respondents are noted to be of '*developing level*'. On another hand, one hundred twenty-five of were determined to be at the '*approaching proficiency*' level. As regards respondents' at the level characterized as '*proficient*', two hundred twelve (212) were identified. In addition, the remaining number of respondents (160) is at the '*advanced*' level.

It can be inferred from the data that most of the respondents are able to obtain favorable level of English proficiency. This means that respondents find benefit in learning the language. It is speculated that the respondents associate the language with economic and symbolic gains, and because of this association they are positive and motivated towards learning it (Tupas, 2015).

Gender Difference on EP of the respondents
To determine the gender difference on the EP of the respondents, the final grades were analyzed using the statistical treatment known as t-test for independent sample. Table 2 provides the analysis and interpretation.

Table 2
English Proficiency of the respondents across gender

Variable		Mean	Standard Deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
Gender	Male (1)	83.46	5.52	0.000*
	Female (2)	86.72	5.41	

*significant at alpha = 0.01

Table 2 presents the gender difference on the EP of the respondents. The statistical treatment of the data revealed that there is a significant difference on the EP of the respondents favouring the females. This suggests that the females are at an advantage in terms of English language proficiency as compared to their male counterparts in the study.

The result of the study suggests a difference in the language interest between the male and female respondents. Women are noted by research (e.g. Gal, 1978; Wang & Ladegaard, 2008; Zhang, 2011) to really differ with men in terms of language learning motivation, preference and use. Zhang (2011) explained that females prefer to learn 'high' or 'prestigious' languages while males prefer learning local ones. This result, to an extent, reflects the said report as females are showing higher EP when compared with those of the males in this study.

Ethnic Difference on the EP of the respondents
To determine the ethnic difference on the EP of the respondents, the final grades were analyzed using the statistical treatment known as one-way analysis of variance also known as one-way ANOVA. Table 3 shows the analysis and interpretation.

Table 3
English Proficiency of the respondents across ethnic groupings

English Proficiency	Mean Square	Sig.
Between Groups	67.62	0.124
Within Groups	32.28	

Table 3 gives the ethnic difference on the EP of the respondents. The data revealed that there is no significant difference on the EP of the respondents when data are grouped according to ethnicity. This means that ethnicity is not a variable influencing significant difference on EP. The reason seen to explain this is that the respondents coming from different cultural grouping have similar intention in learning the language. Learning English is important for many reasons. One and perhaps the greatest is that it is the main language used to teach other subjects in school. Because of this, if students do not learn the language well, it would mean academic failure. Thus, as students aim to pass and even excel in academic, English learning is an essential thing to realize for all students regardless of ethnic grouping.

Conclusion
This investigation on the English language proficiency of high school students across gender and ethnic grouping provides reasonable conclusions: One, although most of the students have a favorable level of proficiency in the language in question, they are yet to develop total mastery of the English language. Second, the study confirms the existence of gender difference on the ELP with females having the advantage. Last, ethnicity is not a factor influencing significant difference on the ELP of the respondents.

Pedagogical Implications
Drawn from the findings of the study, the following implications are provided: One, as males are found to be less proficient than females in the study, teachers take time to reflect as regards the different language activities provided or given inside the classrooms. This means that performance and outputs directed towards certain language-proficiency goals should not be the kind that would favor a particular gender. This means gender-fair approach should be a main consideration for teachers in planning, devising and carrying-out tasks. Two, the result of the study suggests that females prefer learning English. Hence, teachers must provide lectures on the importance of gaining proficiency in the English language. However, the lectures must be supplemented with different real-life language use and performance which would lead students to find 'true' importance and need for the target language. This practice would lead students to appreciate learning the language regardless of gender and ethnic grouping.

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The Roles of a Native English Speaker Teacher (NEST) on the Students Motivation in Learning English: A Case Study at SMAN 2 Sumbawa Besar

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Abstract

The involvement of a native English speaker teacher (NEST, henceforth) in teaching English is a new phenomenon in Sumbawa Besar. SMAN 2 Sumbawa Besar involved a NEST sent by the American Indonesian Exchange Foundation (AMINEF) through the Fulbright English Teaching Assistants (ETA) program. This study aims at describing the roles of a NEST on the students' motivation in learning English at SMAN 2 Sumbawa Besar. The design of this study was descriptive qualitative. The subjects were 27 of the tenth-grade students of SMAN 2 Sumbawa Besar. The following procedures such as observation, documentation, questionnaire, and an interview are used in collecting the data. The results showed that the existence of a NEST on the students' motivation in learning English had a vital implication on the following roles: pedagogical roles, psychological roles, language roles, and cultural knowledge roles.

Keywords: Native English speaker teacher, motivation, andlearning

Introduction

Teaching English as a foreign language is still a great issue in the education system of Indonesia. Although the students have studied English since they were at junior high schools up to high schools (6 years), the facts show that the students' ability to master English is very far from satisfying. Most students are not able to communicate in English properly and correctly. Some of them are even unable to communicate in English at all. This fact is certainly very concerning. As we all know, the ability to communicate in English is strongly needed today. Since it will greatly affect the ability of our young generation to compete at the global level, it is alleged that the low ability of English teachers and a large number of students in each class are the factors that influence students' learning processes and outcomes (Gunarwan, 2004).

In addition to the two factors mentioned above, the students' ability to master a language, especially foreign languages, is also influenced by other factors. For example interest, motivation, attitude, and learning strategies. Motivation is considered as one of the factors that greatly determine success in the learning process since it plays undeniable function during the students' learning process (Yusri & Mantasiah, 2017). Furthermore, Rayhanna (2012) states that motivation in language learning should be the learners' consideration because it closely associated with the final result of a learning process. Students with high motivation will easily construct and develop their knowledge even with limited learning material. Conversely, students with low motivation will find it difficult to construct and develop themselves.

In line with the above problems and the importance of motivation in learning, especially in learning a foreign language, it is necessary to apply effective and appropriate strategies that are able to overcome the problem of teaching and learning English. The involvement of a NEST in English teaching and learning activities is considered as one of the appropriate and effective solutions.

Andreou and Galantomos (2009) define English native-speaker as someone who speaks English as a first language. Furthermore, Medgyes (as cited in Andreou&Galantomos, 2009) claims that English native speaker is someone who has the intuition to distinguish correct or wrong forms in English.

There are different views to differentiate native English-speaking teachers (NESTs) and non-native English-speaking teachers (non-NESTs) as follows:Reves and Medgyes (1997) underline three differences between NESTs and

Non-NESTs. Firstly, NESTs are more aware of the correct language use, but non- NESTs are more aware of structural patterns and language learning processes. This makes the non-NESTs more rigid and knowledgeable at the same time. Second, NESTs are more natural and real with language (communication is more important than form). Whereas,non-NESTs are more concerned with the accuracy and formal features of English. Third, non-NESTs prepare their classes more carefully. This could be a strategy for overcoming the problem with language proficiency. On the other hand, NESTs tend to improvise more and do not follow the textbook as closely. Palfreyman (1997) states that NESTs tend to see learning as a matter of making their students consciously aware. On the other hand, non-NESTs are not concerned with the language, but with the ability to mean.Laderer (1997) points out that non-NEST tend to consider morphological mistake more serious. Whereas, NESTs emphasize on pronunciation and syntax. The reason is that word order is a structural pattern that NESTs learn subconsciously. However, even highly educated native speakers who were not educated in linguistic would not know how to elucidate word order in English.

The differences between NESTs and Non-NESTs also can be seen in terms of teachingbehaviors. According to Medgyes (1999), there are the differences between NESTs and Non-NESTs in teaching behaviors as follow: NESTS own use of English (speak better English, use real language, use English more confidently), general attitude (adopt more flexible approach, more innovative, less empathetic, attend to perceive needs, and more casual), attitude to teaching the language (less insightful, focus on fluency, meaning, language in use, oral skills, teach items in context, prefer free activities, use variety materials, tolerate errors, set fewer tests, use no/less first language, resort no/less translation, assign less homework), attitude to teaching the culture (supply more cultural information). On the other hand, Non-NEST own use of English (speak poorer English, use bookish language, use English less confidently), general attitude (adopt more guided approach, more cautious, more empathetic, attend to the real needs, more committed), attitude to teaching the language (more insightful, focus on accuracy, form, grammar rules, printed word, teach items in isolation, prefer controlled activities, use a single textbook, correct/punish for errors, set more tests, use more first language, resort to more translation, and assign more homework), attitude to teaching culture (supply less cultural information).

Learning English can be seen like a complicated and time consuming task. Understanding English slang and how native English speakers engage in conversation is something that cannot be learnt from a textbook. Learning English from a native speaker teacher has a number of advantages. According to Edwards (2011), there are seven advantages of learning English with the native speaker teacher as follow: A*uthentic learning.* By learning with native speaker teacher, the students will be exposed to the authentic English language. Through learning activities such as games, students learn many things related to the culture and the way of native speaker's speaking. It includes the use of slang and accents.

Pronunciation and language use. Learning English words and grammar also will be easier with native speaker teachers since they provide a natural way of learning English words and grammar. Students will get the chance how to properly pronounce words and phrases, how to speak and write using proper grammar and vocabulary, and they can get instant and accurate feedback to overcome bad speech patterns. *Cultural questions.* Native speaker teachers can provide the proper answers to questions about customs or cultural practices that may come up during class. *Grammar.* The native speaker teacher will provide positive feedback to help a student. Students will begin to control their language use.

English conversation. By conversing with the native speakers, the students will be able to pick up on the meaning of phrases and the teacher will be able to make sure the student is applying the proper meaning of the words and phrases they use. The English teacher can explain why a phrase is spoken in a certain way. *Verbs.* NESTs has the capability to explain phrases much more easily, include the use of irregular verbs. *Strange vocabulary.* NESTs will be easy in explaining types of illogical words to the students easily.

Medgyes (1999) enumerates a few points on the advantages of learning English with the native English-speaking teachers (NESTs). First, NESTs cannot be a learner model, because they did not have to learn English as a second language. Second, non-NESTs can teach learning strategies more effectively. As the non-NESTs are teacher and learner at the same time, they have developed learning strategies that can be useful to the students. On the other hand, NESTs may lack of these strategies. Third, NESTs may not be aware of internal mechanisms operating in the acquisition of a second language, since for the NESTs language acquisition was unconscious.

According to Gardner (as cited in Degang, 2010) motivation is a combination of desire and effort to achieve the goals of learning that will stimulate positive or favorable attitude toward language learning. It elucidates that the effort

really depends on the motivation or desire as the effort to learn or to do something is the consequence of motivation leading someone. Motivation is a crucial force which determines whether a learner embarks on task at all, how much energy one devotes to it, and how long one preserves (Littlewood, as cited in Degang, 2010).

There are two common or recognized types of motivation. According to Degang (2010), those main types of motivation are integrative and instrumental motivations, which both are significants in determining language learning outcomes.*Integrative Motivation.*This type of motivation denotes self-applied and constitutes genuine or basic interest of a learner. This concerns a positive disposition toward the second language community and the desire to interact with and even become similar to the valued members of that society. In the other words, it is concerned with the willingness to be like valued members of the language community. Furthermore, Deci& Ryan (2000) state intrinsic motivation as doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable.*Instrumental Motivation.*This type of motivation constitutes a motivation arousing a result from extrinsic sources like the involvement of rewards or punishments. In other words, it is pertaining to potential pragmatic gains or achievement of L2 proficiency like having a better job of a higher payment or salary.Deci& Ryan (2000) also define extrinsic motivation as doing something because it leads to a separable outcome.

It has been largely accepted that motivation plays a very significant part in language learning. Numerous experts have given their concern on motivation and language learning. Success or failure in language learning seems largely dependent on the learners' motivation to learn the target language.Gardner and Lambert (as cited in Degang, 2010) state that motivation plays a very significant role in language learning as it leads to positive attitude to the language community and to a desire to communicate with the respected or valued members of the community and to be similar to them.

Various theorists and researchers have found that it is important to look at the construct of motivation not as a single entity but as a multi-factorial one. Oxford and Shearing (as cited in Qashoa, 2006) identified six factors that impact motivation in language learning: attitudes (sentiments toward the learning community and the target language), beliefs about self (expectancies about one's attitudes to succeed, self-efficacy, and anxiety), goals (perceived clarity and relevance of learning goals as reasons for learning), involvement (extent to which the learner actively and consciously participates in the language learning process), environmental support (extent of teacher and peer support, and the integration of cultural and outside of class support into learning experience), and personal attributes (aptitude, age, sex, and previous language learning experience).

Method

The design of this study was a descriptive qualitative. The subjects were 27 students of the tenth grade of SMAN 2 Sumbawa Besar. In collecting the data from the site study, these following procedures were used: *Observation.*I observed the subjects' activities in the classroom (their interaction among each other or their responses when they were asked by the teacher and students' motivation showed in their attitude to respond to teacher and friends' questions). I performed a nonparticipant observer in this study.*Documentation.*I took the video and photos of the involvement of a NEST in learning process. *Questionnaire.*I used close questionnaire in this study. The questionnaire was delivered to the participants at their school. *Semi-structured interview.* To obtain the valid information from the participants, thenI avoided the formal situation; I visited the participants' house after making deal with the participants. I allocated 10 to 15 minutes for a participant.

Findings and Discussion

In this subsection, firstly I presented a brief elaboration of the results of inteview and questionnaire.Referring to the results of interview and questionnaire,I underlined a few main roles of a NEST that provided positive effect on the students' motivation in learning English. Those roles were pedagogical roles, psychological roles, language roles, and target cultural knowledge roles.

1. Pedagogical Roles

This roles covered the following aspects:

No.	Aspects
	thentic learning
	onunciation and language use

	od motivator
	od language assistant
	odinformant about customs and cultural practices

The first was authentic learning. It was considered as the most important roles of a native-speaker teacher in English teaching learning, because, the students engaged in real and regular conversations that native-speakers use every day. The students also learnt about culture and how to speak like a native speaker:

"I really love this method, because it gives us a chance to speak English directly with the native-speaker" (ARP, Trans).

"Emmm the existence of ETA teacher or a native-speaker teacher, I get many worth experiences in learning English, from her method in teaching us in the classroom and also from her stories during in USA" (ADP, Trans).

"In my opinion, a native-speaker teacher is very helpful for us in learning English, because beside we are assisted to finish our task eee we also involve in the real English environment, thus we feel that we are learning in the overseas" (IH, Trans).

The second was pronunciation and language use. A NEST provided natural way of learning English words and grammar. The students got a chance to learn how to pronounce words and phrases properly. The students also learnt how to speak and write using proper grammar and vocabulary. A NEST provided instant and accurate feedback to help students overcome bad speech patterns:

"My experience during learning English with a native-speaker teacher is very interesting and fun. She also enriches our knowledge about how to speak English better and correctly" (RCA, Trans).

"She is very helpful, because she can help us how to read correctly and we know the accent of English,, yeah we get more knowledge about English" (TIT, Trans).

"Yes, of course. A native-speaker teacher is very helpful in improving my pronunciation. When we are speaking then she listens the wrong pronunciation, thus she will repeat and tell us the correct one" (TRS, Trans).

The third was good motivator in learning. A NEST was success to motivate and make the students to be enthusiastic in learning English. It could be seen from the students' statements that they are confident and enthusiastic after joining the class that involved a NEST in English teaching learning. They were very confident in speaking and communicating with the foreigners outside of the school:

"It is a great experience, because my motivation in learning English is getting increase" (KDW, Trans).

"Yes, because she always asks for us to come in front of the classroom to practice our speaking, thus it is really helpful to increase our confidence" (ARP, Trans).

"She is very helpful in increasing my confidence to speak English, because we learn and use English every day, so we get used to speak English" (TIT, Trans).

"A native-speaker teacher is very helpful for me to increase my confidence, because eee she always uses English fully, so I am getting used to speak English in my daily. I become more confident when I meet and talk with the foreigners outside of the school" (RCA, Trans).

The fourth was good language assistant. A NEST who was categorized as the owner of the language was helpful for the students in learning English, because a NEST helped the students to overcome all of the students' problems in learning English. For instance, a NEST was easier in explaining the strange vocabularies and English

phrases:
"She is very helpful, because she knows much about English than us,, thus she is very fluent and her teaching method is fun"
(RTK, Trans).
"Yeah, I am so motivated, because she is a native and she has much knowledge about English"
(RA, Trans).
"Emm the existence of a native-speaker teacher also very helpful for me.. She will not stop us direcly when we make mistakes, but she will tell us step by step"(ADP, Trans).

The fifth was good informant about customs and cultural practices. A NEST was the ambassador and representative of his or her country in the place where she or he lived and worked. Thus, a NEST was able to provide the answer to the questions about customs and cultural practices that may come up during the class:
"My experiences to learn English with a native-speaker teacher are passionate and gratified, because we able to do the cultural exchange eee especially about language"
(TRS, Trans).
"In my opinion, my experiences during learning English with a native-speaker teacher are fun and passionate, because we can share our experiences during the learning process"
(IH, Trans).
"Passionate and fun, we also know about her country"
(RTK, Trans).

2. Psychological Roles
This roles covered the following aspects:

No.	Aspects	Percentage (%)
1.	dents enjoy the learning	100 %
2.	dents are enthusiatic	96.2 %
3.	dents are more confident	92.5 %
4.	NEST is a good motivator	96.3 %

3. Language Roles
This roles covered the following aspects:

No.	Aspects	Percentage (%)
1.	prove students' pronunciation	100 %
2.	hance students'vocabulary	100 %
3.	provestudents'profiency	92.6 %
4.	provestudents' listening skill	92.6 %
5.	rich students' experiences	88.9 %

4. Target Cultural Knowledge Roles
This roles covered the following aspects:

No.	Aspects	Percentage (%)
1.	owledge on culture of the target language	96.3 %
2.	owledge on customs and practices	96.3 %
4.	owledge of English speaking countries	88.9 %

Conclusion
Referring to the results of this study, it can be concluded that:a NEST plays a few main roles of a NEST that provided positive effect on the students' motivation in learning English. Those roles were pedagogical roles, psychological roles, learning roles, language roles, and target cultural knowledge roles. All of those points provided significant positive effect on the students, because the students got the clear information about English and the occident culture from the teacher. The existence of a NEST in SMAN 2 Sumbawa Besar has given a huge effect on the students. The students were motivated and enthusiastic in learning English directly from the NEST.

Implications of the study

The findings of the study bear implications for education. Those implication are presented as follows: First, the involvement of a NEST in Indonesian formal education system is still needed since the existence of a NEST strongly provides a huge effect on the students. The students were motivated and enthusiastic in learning English directly from the NEST. Second, a new English environment to facilitate the English learners in improving and increasing their English proficiency should be created. Third, English teachers should be able to motivate their students to study English. Especially, their strategies in providing the English environment, for instance use full English during the class, create the class to feel free in learning process, try to use various of teaching methods to make the learners fun, enjoy, enthusiastic in learning process and confident to speak English inside the classroom or outside the classroom. Last, a quantitative research should be carried out to examine the effectiveness of NEST's in improving the learners' four skills.

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Influence of Small Group Discussion on the English Oral Communication Self-Efficacy of Filipino ESL Learners in Central Luzon

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Abstract

Attitudes toward a learning task deals with one's reaction to anything associated with the immediate context in which the language learning takes place. As such, the construct of self-efficacy, which is the belief in one's capabilities to carry out, organize and perform a task successfully, have always been underscored in the academic setting. Using a quasi-experimental, non-probability sampling method that included 30 senior high school students from a public secondary Science school in Central Luzon, the study examines the influence of small group discussion method on the students' English oral communication self-efficacy. Student satisfaction on EFL speaking classes questionnaire developed by Asakereh and Dehghannezhad (2015) was used to determine participants' self-efficacy. Results of the paired-sample t-test on English oral communication self-efficacy showed that the mean score after the small group discussion intervention ($\bar{x}$=3.605, SD=.356) is statistically equal to the mean score before intervention ($\bar{x}$=3.463, SD =.398, $t_{(29)}$= -1.273, p>.05), indicating that the intervention used did not statistically increase English communication oral self-efficacy.

Keywords: English, oral communication, self-efficacy, small-group discussion

Introduction

Background and Related Studies

Self-efficacy has always been stressed in the academe. It refers to the beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations. The higher the level of self-efficacy, the more willing a person is to try, exert more effort and persist to complete a task vis-à-vis the obstacles and adverse experience one encounters (Bandura, 1993). Self-efficacy can be enhanced through mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasion and physiological and emotional status of a person (Bandura, 1993; Woolfolk, Winne, & Perry, 2003).

Research from various academic areas have presented that students' self-efficacy affect their academic attitude and performance toward the subject (Ayoobiyan & Soleimani, 2015). For Ersanli (2015), researchers like Pajares (1996), Jackson (2002), Ching (2002), Margolis and McCabe (2003) concur with the contention that a person who rates himself capable on a specific task will engage more than when he does not consider himself competent enough. Likewise, Komarraju and Nadler (2013) posit that self-efficacy engenders a person with the potency to facilitate self-discipline and self-regulation of his behavior, more focus, effort and persistence, resulting in better academic achievement.

In the Philippines, Torres and Alieto (2019a) did one of the most recent studies on the relationship between English self-efficacy and learning. Using the researcher made English Self-Efficacy Scale inspired by the English self-efficacy scales of Clement and Kruidenier (1983), Clement et.al (1994) and Ely (1986) administered in the foreign settings, they reported the levels of English self-efficacy of 160 Grade 12 senior high school students in a city in Nueva Ecija. They found that of the 20 items related to English self-efficacy, delivering solo performances like oration and declamation and some modes of public speaking got the lowest mean score. Their study presented a challenge among ESL teachers and curriculum planners on how to come up with pedagogical programs, both in the micro and the macro-levels, that will be responsive to students' levels of English self-efficacy.

Of the four communication skills writing, reading, listening and speaking, speaking is intuitively the most important. Rivers (1981) argues further that people use speaking more than reading and writing in communication. Pica (1987) contends that language is best learned in the context of extended meaning communication of which speaking is rich in. The lack of speaking abilities is a hindrance for a student to share what he knows with a teacher or engage in social conversations, thus a feeling of low oral self-efficacy and a stumbling block to the social development of the student (Weiss, 2004).

The small group discussion method involves a series of meetings between the teacher and students or amongst students under the direction and guidance of a teacher that allows for free exchange of ideas on a particular topic (Garcia, 1989). The small group discussion method when conducted prudently allows for actual experience of speaking, vicarious experience of observing a group mate and boosts one's perception of one's ability. Hence, the small group discussion method/approach where English is used as a medium of communication/discussion may be a vehicle to improve one's oral English self-efficacy.

Though there is a study in the Philippine setting that examined Filipino ESL learners' English self-efficacy (e.g., Torres & Alieto, 2019a), still there is no specific study to date or to the researchers' knowledge that specifically endeavored on English oral communication self-efficacy in particular. Further, the researchers would want to validate the potency of the small group discussion technique in enhancing Filipino ESL learners' English Oral communication self efficacy. Hence, the present study.

Research Questions
1. How may the participants' English oral communication self-efficacy be described before and after the intervention?
2. Is there a significant difference on the participants' English oral communication self-efficacy before and after the intervention?

Methodology

Research Design
The present study follows a quasi-experimental, purposive non-probability sampling, design and method. Since the study makes no attempt to generalize its findings to a larger population due to its parochial nature, the purposive sampling method of research had been perceived to be the most appropriate.

Research Setting and Participants
The study was done in a public secondary science high school in a city in Central Luzon. The researchers chose this setting guided by the idea that Science High Schools in the Philippines are conceived as special schools being the home to intellectually promising students skilled on problem-solving and and equipped with critical thinking. Participants were 30 senior high school students during the Academic Year 2019-2020. The study was conducted from October to November 2019.

Research Instruments
The researchers adopted the 30-item English Oral Communication Self-Efficacy questionnaire developed by Asakereh and Dehghannezhad's (2015) and administered in EFL setting. The participants were asked to encircle their choice of preference from a Likert-patterned continuum. The continuum runs from a five-point continuum from "absolutely agree" to "absolutely not agree" numerically weighted from "one to five" of which "one" represents the highest degree in the continuum or "absolutely agree" and "five" represents the lowest degree in the continuum or "absolutely not

agree".

Data Gathering
Prior to the start of the study, a letter to conduct the experiment   was personally delivered to the school principal. Subsequent approval led the researchers to secure the permission from the parents since all the student-participants were minors during the conduct of the study. A co-operative teacher was chosen to administer the study. All the students were asked to answer the questionnaire adopted from the study of Asakereh and Dehghannezhad (2015) prior to the intervention (i.e., pre-intervention English oral communication self-efficacy).

The Co-operative teacher prepared five lesson plans executed during five classroom meetings. The co-operative teacher randomly divided the whole class into groups with five members each. Each group was given the topics embodied in the series of five lesson plans for each classroom meeting. A total of five classroom meetings were used for the study with the groupings randomly changed for the duration of the five series. The small group discussion technique was the intervention adopted for use of all the groups. After the five oral discussions, the participants then answered the same English oral communication self-efficacy questionnaire they had previously accomplished to determine their post-intervention English oral communication self-efficacy.

Analysis of Data
Descriptive statistics such as mean, frequency, percentage and standard deviation were used to describe the participants' English oral communication self-efficacy. Paired sample t-test was used to determine the changes in the participants' self-efficacy before and after the intervention.

Results and Discussion
The presentation and discussion of results begins with the description of the participants' English oral communication self-efficacy before (3.1) and after (3.2) the intervention. This is followed by the presentation of results on the difference between the participants' pre and post-intervention levels of English oral communication self-efficacy and skills (3.3).

Pre-intervention English oral communication self-efficacy
Data shows that out of the 30 items purported to measure the level of oral English self-efficacy, 14 participants ranked themselves efficacious to highly efficacious (3.5 up in the Likert-scale measurement) while 11 participants ranked themselves neutral to efficacious. Only five participants ranked themselves low in self-efficacy and none from the participants considered themselves to have for extremely low efficacy. A cursive look at the data shows that roughly half (46.66%) of the participants rated themselves quite high in their English oral communication self-efficacy while more than one-fourth (36.66%) settled for the middle ground, perceived to be undecided and a very low percentage ranked themselves to have low self-efficacy.

The relatively high English oral communication self-efficacy scores can be attributed to the fact the participants come from a Science High School as opposed to a regular high school in the Philippines. The Department of Education of the Philippines through DepEd Order 69 mandates the creation of Science High Schools that imposes more stringent entrance examinations for intellectually promising students with emphasis on problem-solving and critical thinking. Students of science high schools take pride in being in such premiere institution and believe more in their abilities over students of regular high schools. Such scenario is akin to the pride and beliefs of students of private schools vis-à-vis their public school counterparts, in the Philippine context. For Torres and Alieto (2019b), students in premiere institutions in the Philippines, such as Science high schools, exclusive schools and private schools (Cruz, 2014), have more access to intensive English training and exposure.

Worth highlighting are the items in the questionnaire with the highest scores. Close to highly efficacious items were: "I am sure that if I practice speaking more, I will get better grades in the course ($\bar{x}$ = 4.4)" as well as two others: "I can introduce my teacher to someone else in English ($\bar{x}$= 4.06)" and "I can introduce myself in English ($\bar{x}$ = 4.33)". The participants' high score on practice speaking is coherent with the findings of Egan (1999) who posits that opportunities for practice speaking builds one's self-efficacy. The high scores obtained by "introducing one's self and that of one's teacher" is congruent with the effect of practice. Man as a social being, interacts with others and it is fundamental that in interaction, one introduces one's self, the repeated introduction of which evokes practice-speaking that leads to building of one's self-efficacy. Knowledge of a topic, especially topical knowledge is knowledge structures

in long-term memory (Bachman & Palmer, 1996) impacts one's speaking efficacy. It posits that knowledge is needed to speak about a topic which is coherent to the need for real knowledge for self-efficacy (Rush, 2016). The study participants have knowledge of themselves and the people they are always with (their teachers) such that the two items of high scores in this study were expected.

On the other hand, the two items in the questionnaire with the lowest average scores are: "I can speak better than my classmates" and "I am one of the best students in speaking courses". The two items seem to show the respondents' dislike for comparison and superlatives in assessing their English oral communication self-efficacy. The researchers surmise that the respondents belonging to the same Science High would have the tendency to view themselves as relatively equal in intellect and capability that they desist from making comparisons, much more, feeling having the most capability in oral English speaking to the point of being branded as overly confident.

Post-intervention English oral communication self-efficacy
Data on participants' post-intervention English oral communication self-efficacy show that out of the 30 items purported to measure the level of English oral communication self-efficacy, 17 participants perceived themselves efficacious to highly efficacious (3.5 up in the Likert-scale measurement), while 10 participants considered themselves neutral to efficacious and only three participants perceived themselves low in self- efficacy. None from among the participants considered themselves to have extremely low self-efficacy. A cursive look at the data shows that more than half (56.66%) of the participants rated themselves quite high in their oral English self-efficacy while more than one-fourth (33.33%) settled for the middle ground, perceived to be undecided and a very low percentage ranked themselves low in efficacy

Comparison between participants' pre and post intervention English oral communication self-efficacy
A paired sample t-test was computed using SPSS to determine whether the pre and post intervention mean scores of the participants' English oral communication self-efficacy is significantly different from each other. The results show that the mean scores after intervention ($\bar{x}$ = 3.605, SD = .356) is statistically equal to the mean scores before intervention ($\bar{x}$ =3.463, SD= .398), $t_{(29)}$= -1.273, p >.05. It implies that the administration of the small group discussion did not statistically affect the participants' perception of their oral/ speaking English self-efficacy.

The small group discussion method adopts a face-to-face free exchange of ideas within groupings of five persons (Garcia, 1989) giving more equal opportunities for group mates to quality communication (Lowry et al., 2006). It can be deduced that small group discussion engenders oral interaction and is a method of increasing opportunities and the frequency for speaking which Misliyah (2006) posits increases the eagerness and confidence of a person to express thoughts orally. The present study, however, is non-congruent to the studies of Misliya (2006) and Gufron (2002). The statistical non-significant influence of small group discussion to participants' English oral communication self-efficacy is ascribed to several factors.

Self-efficacy is affected by the emotional reactions and self-evaluations that leads to under or over-estimation of one's real abilities (Bandura, 1986; Hackett & Betz, 1989). The researchers surmise that the respondents have over-estimated their self-efficacy ratings during the pre-test grounded on the Filipino culture of "*amor propio*". "*Amor Propio*" evokes self-love which develops a person's strongly wish to be recognized and be valued (Andres, 1996), thus prompts the participants to rate themselves high in their English oral communication self-efficacy with the aim to distinguish themselves from students of a regular high school in the Philippines. The latter is in consonance with the findings of Jin and Lin (2018). *"Amor Propio"* speaks of hypocrisy (Carson-Arenas, 2004) where one tries to hide one's inadequacies by pretension that one may not be looked down upon. The relatively high pre-test English oral communication self-efficacy scores would result in a small space for gains in the average scores for the post-test English oral communication self-efficacy test, thus no statistical difference between the two.

The findings of the study of Lee (2009) show that students' participation in small group discussions varies greatly among group mates. One's inability to speak fluidly is perceived by repeated failures that results in avoidance while being laugh upon in lieu of mistakes is perceived as vicarious experiences by group mates that results in inhibition (Bandura, 1977). Zhang et al (2012) contends that small group discussion offers fewer opportunities to disengage mentally from the discussion compared to big classes. The present study wanted to remove all plausible variables that could disengage mentally the respondents, but having to accomplish the post-test English oral communication self-efficacy questionnaire leading to the participants' feasibility study defenses constituted mental disengagement that was

beyond the researchers' control. The situation constituted a distraction that could influence the post-test results. The thought of having to prepare for the feasibility study defenses imposes a lot of stress and emotional strain on the respondents undergirds the fourth source of self-efficacy which anchors its wisdom on the physiological and emotional state of the person (Bandura 1995). The emotional stress and physiological strain of the participants at the time of accomplishing the post-test questionnaire may have taken its toll on the respondents.

The researchers may have likewise made an error in allowing certain degrees of accepting some infusion of the vernacular during the small group discussions that might have had a dent in the results for English oral communication self-efficacy. The decision to accept such circumstances was made by the researchers following Ur's (1996) observation to compensate for the fear of making mistakes on the part of the participants as well as to encourage a more relaxed milieu which likewise adds to probable increase in self-efficacy.

The disparity or non-congruence of the descriptive data showing the administration of small group discussion having a positive impact on oral English self-efficacy (post test $\bar{x}$ of 3.605 > pre test $\bar{x}$ of 3.463) and the statistical insignificance of the paired sample t-test can lead to probable inferences. It can be inferred that the small group discussion may have had an impact in increasing the oral-self-efficacy of the respondents. It may be induced that additional time per session and increase in the number of sessions (Lee, 2009) for small group discussion as well as carefully designing the topics for future small group discussions may well contribute to the oral English self-efficacy of the students.

Conclusion and Recommendations

The small group discussion method is a potent method in fostering interactive communication amongst students. When done properly i.e. topics are carefully designed (Morita 2000), it brings forth different knowledge, experiences and talents that are shared and built upon by the participants in a relaxed learning environment where passiveness is turned to activeness.

Results may provide insights among language educators as regards the amount of teaching that has to be done to ensure the mastery of the oral communication skills. Since self-efficacy is one of the most vital factors for learning, it is essential for teachers to include principles of learning and psychology in their respective practices. Teachers may acknowledge the fact that learners who have repeated experience success have higher self-efficacy than those students who experience repeated failures in class. Thus, giving an array of experiences and building positive beliefs in students is essential for them to develop their sense of self-efficacy. On the part of the learners, there is a necessity for them to have full awareness of their English oral communication skills for it will help them determine what are their strengths as well as the aspects they need to enhance to better perform in the subject (Torres & Alieto, 2019a).

Future studies could replicate this study with a larger number of participant as well as larger number of classes and participating schools to cover a wider area or district. The small number of participants may limit the findings' certainty and applicability. It is also suggested that the context of future similar studies be broaden as to incorporate the variables of gender, socio-economic status, difference in grade levels, difference in type of school i.e. a comparative study between public, private and regular (not science high school) schools, etc. to correspond to maximum variations. The length of time poses another limitation of the study. As it was only confined to five series of sessions of an hour to an hour and half each, the initial positive, neutral or negative findings cannot be sustained or ascertained with high degrees of accurateness. Future studies are suggested to increase the number of times with the small group discussions and provide for a longitudinal study, if possible. It is likewise recommended that more topics which are of students' interests and within their circumference of knowledge be adopted for the future studies.

The small group discussion method used in this study is the opinion exchange technique. Future studies may want to delve with the other techniques of small group discussion such as games, role-play, drama, projects and interview and their effect on English oral communication self-efficacy of students. The present study unravels the needs of the students for more varieties in teaching procedures so as to harness the creativities and thinking skills of the students, promote activity-oriented opportunities that could accord oral communicative practice, greater verbal interaction, expression, explaining and experiences to the students that could enhance their oral self-efficacy.

Likewise, it is recommended that with the increase in the number of sessions of the small group discussion method, encouraging the students to fear not speaking in English such as inculcating in the students that mistakes is committed by everyone and that "lathophobic asphasia", which is the fear of committing mistakes in speaking in English, can be conquered by practice. Praising and rewarding even little positive efforts to develop the students' self-efficacy

must be incorporated into the speaking/ oral curriculum, especially in English classes. The researchers strongly suggest the integration of more oral English activities into the curriculum of basic education. Lastly, qualitative researches on small group discussion methods with its different techniques deserves to be undertaken to get a clearer perception of the experiences of students with small group discussion vis-à-vis self-efficacy, academic performances, motivation, internal-external locus of control among others.

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