



TESOL International Journal

Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

Volume 16

Issue 7 2021

ISSN 2094-3938

Published by the TESOL International Journal

<http://www.tesol-international-journal.com>

© English Language Education

Publishing Brisbane Australia

This book is in copyright. Subject to statutory exception no reproduction of any part may take place without the written permission of English Language Education Publishing.

No unauthorized photocopying

All rights reserved. No part of this book may be reproduced, stored in a retrieval system or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic, mechanical, photocopying or otherwise, without the prior written permission of English Language Education Publishing.

Chief Editors: Dr. Custódio Martins
 Ramón Medriano, Jr.

ISSN. 2094-3938

TESOL International Journal

Chief Editors

Custódio Martins
University of Saint Joseph, Macao

Ramón Medriano, Jr.
Pangasinan State University – School of Advanced Studies

Senior Associate Editors

Jun Zhao
*Augsuta University,
USA*

Peter Ilić
*The University of Aizu,
Japan*

Farzaneh Khodabandeh
*Payame Noor University,
Iran*

Associate Editors

Mário Pinharanda Nunes
University of Macao, China

Sharif Alghazo
*University of Jordan,
Jordan*

Khadijeh Jafari
*Gorgan Islamic Azad
University, Iran*

Rining Wei
Xi'an Jiaotong-Liverpool University, China

Harriet Lowe
*University of Greenwich,
UK*

Editorial Board

Abdel Hamid Mohamed - Lecturer, Qatar University, Qatar

Adriano, Nina - Baliuag University, Philippines

Al-Dhaif, Amina - Northumbria University, UK

Alhilali, Tayba - Lecturer, Higher College of Technology, Sultanate of Oman

Badwan, Khawla - Manchester Metropolitan University, UK

Baker, John - Ton Duc Thang University, Ho Chi Minh, Vietnam

Balchin, Kevin - Canterbury Christ Church University, UK

Bekteshi, Edita - University of Tirana, Albania

Boonsuk, Yusop - Prince of Songkhla University, Thailand

Çakir, İsmail - Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Turkey

Chan, Chun Chuen - University of Sydney, Australia

Chen, Qi - Newcastle University, UK

Chung, Hiu Yui - The Open University of Hong Kong, China

Cutrone, Pino - Nagasaki University, Japan

Derakhshan, Ali - Golestan University, Gorgan, Iran

Dodigovič, Marina - Universidad de La Rioja, Spain

Essex, James - Waseda University, Japan

Farsani, Mohammad Amini - Iran University of Science and Technology, Iran

Geden, Ayşe Gür - University College London, UK

Ghannam, Jumana - Nottingham Trent University, UK

Hajan, Bonjovi H. - José Rizal University, Philippines

Hasan, Idrees Ali - American University of Kurdistan, Duhok, Kurdistan Region

Hos, Rabia - Rhode Island University, USA

Kambara, Hitomi - The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley, USA

Kazemian, Mohammad - Guilan University of Medical Sciences, Iran

Ku-Mesu, Katalin Egri - University of Leicester

Lin, Yu-Cheng - The University of Texas Rio Grande Valley, USA

Maher, Kate - Kyoto University of Foreign Studies, Japan

Mohamed, Naashia - University of Auckland, New Zealand

Munalim, Leonardo O. - Philippine Women's University, Philippines

Mustafa, Faisal - Syiah Kuala University, Banda Aceh, Indonesia

Niu, Ruiying - Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, China

Rozells, Diane - Sookmyung Women's University, South Korea

Salem, Ashraf - Sadat Academy for Management Sciences, Egypt

Saito, Akihiro - Hakuoh University, Oyama, Japan

Sakka, Samah Mohammed Fahim El - Suez University, Egypt

Slaght, John - University of Reading, UK

Stewart, Alison - Gakushuin University, Japan

Tzu-Shan Chang - Tamkang University, Taiwan

Ulla, Mark - Walailak University, Thailand

Venela, R. - National Institute of Technology, Warangal, India

Wong, Kevin - Pepperdine University, Los Angeles, USA

Yuanhua Xie - Guangdong University of Foreign Studies, China

Yusri, Y. - Fajar University, Makassar, Indonesia

Zayani, Emna Maazoun - Sfax and Exeter University, UK

Contents

Language across Cultures: The Influence of Students' Cultural Background on their Performances in EFL Speaking Class <i>Santri E. P. Djahimo</i> <i>Malkisedek Taneo</i>	6
English Language Proficiency Level of Junior Students from a State University in the Philippines <i>Abigail C. Gomez</i> <i>Anabella C. Gomez</i>	16
Causes of Problems in Learning English as a Second Language as Perceived by Higher Education Students <i>Paul Fairclough</i> <i>Keow Ngang Tang</i>	33
The Effect of Types of Blended Learning Strategies on EFL Students' Achievements <i>Elaf Riyadh Khalil</i>	49
The Effectiveness of Self-Regulated Strategy Development on Improving Students' Narrative Text Writing Achievement <i>Lamhot Naibaho</i>	62
Genre Analysis of Selected Graduate Research Abstracts <i>Aris S. Balagtas</i> <i>Mee Jay A. Domingo</i>	74
Thai Tertiary Learners' Composition Writing Performance and Self-Regulation towards EFL Writing Using Process – Oriented Approach <i>Roderick Julian Robillos</i> <i>Ong-Art Namwong</i>	87
Lexical Inferencing Strategies in L1 and L2 through Think-Aloud <i>Jimmylen Zuñiga-Tonio</i> <i>Melanie D. Cayabyab</i>	104
Bilingual Identity Crisis: Issues in Identity Formation and Language Learning in India <i>Sayant Vijay</i> <i>Anupama Nayar CV</i>	119
Emerging Language in Facebook Threads of College Students <i>Mee Jay A. Domingo</i> <i>Marlina L. Lino</i>	130

Language across Cultures: The Influence of Students' Cultural Background on their Performances in EFL Speaking Class

Santri E. P. Djahimo*

Nusa Cendana University, Kupang – NTT, Indonesia

Malkisedek Taneo**

Nusa Cendana University, Kupang – NTT, Indonesia

Abstract

This research paper is concerned with the issues of how to intertwine the teaching of language and culture in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) class and what happens if teachers fail to do so. Although the topic of language and culture has been commonly discussed, the influence of students' cultural background on their speaking performances, looking from the aspects of verbal and non-verbal communication has never been reported. In this study, 40 students were observed and interviewed in gaining the data which has then been analyzed. The findings show that most students can't communicate through the language well because they are still not able to integrate these two inseparable entities in their learning. Therefore, it is recommended that cultural elements, such as *specific usage of language* (making apologies, responding to compliments, taboos, hedging, terms of address, and family relationship) as well as *symbols* (facial expressions, nods/shakes, gestures, and tone of voice) in order to promote cultural understanding be taught together with elements of language in EFL classes.

Keywords: language elements, cultural elements, students' cultural background, speaking performances

Introduction

English is one of the most dominant languages learnt throughout the world. All levels of school in Indonesia, starting from kindergarten to university, have implemented the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL). Not all skills is taught to all levels but students of university, majoring in English, must master all skills and components of English, and speaking is one of them. Those who teach speaking should make efforts to create effective teaching and learning environment to develop their learners' speaking skill, including making sure how the role of culture can fit in the skill.

Being inseparable entities, language and culture have to be intertwined in language class. Language cannot stand alone without culture because it is a part of culture. This makes cultural content important to be employed in teaching ESL/EFL. Unfortunately, not many ESL/EFL teachers/lecturers are aware of the condition where language and culture have to be simultaneously taught in their class, particularly, speaking class. They focus only on the teaching of language itself and forget that cultural elements should be included to make their students able to communicate through the language they are learning.

**sunthree_dj@yahoo.com*

***taneomelky67@gmail.com*.

There have been many writings discuss about the various issues of the relationship between language and culture and how both of them can be applied in teaching EFL. However, there are not many studies that explore about how learners' cultural background influences their performance in speaking class and what teachers/lecturers can do to include the teaching of target culture in teaching the target language. This effort should be made to give the learners knowledge about the target culture of the language they are learning. This paper presents about the influence of students' cultural background on their speaking performance in both verbal and non-verbal communication. Additionally, it raises the issues of how to incorporate the target culture to teach speaking skill in an EFL class and what happens if teachers/lecturers fail to do so.

Literature Review

The inseparability between language and culture has frequently been discussed by many people through many studies (Brown, 1994; Nida, 1998; Jenkins, 2010; Samovar, Porter, and Jain, 1981), which have been seen from various angles as mentioned here; Jenkins (2010) and Mackay (2000, 2002, and 2004) raise the issue about incorporating learners' native culture in EFL class. According to them, teaching EFL/EIL is beneficial if L1 language and its culture are included. Other studies are about integrating target culture into the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) (Purba, 2011; Hammerly, 1982); relating learning a language and understanding its culture (Chastain, 1971), identifying cultural elements to be taught in language class (Tomalin and Stempleski, 1993; Brooks, 1983, Carter, 1995; Herron et al., 1999), facing difficulties in integrating target culture in teaching EFL (Baker, 2003); highlighting what teachers should do in teaching international culture to English as an International Language (EIL) learners (Fang, 2011), finding out non-native English teachers' perceptions about English culture and accent (Özmen, Çakır, Cephe, 2018), looking at how cultural elements are incorporated in EFL textbooks (Hollenback, 2017; Ashikaga, Fujita, & Ikuta, 2001; Matsuda, 2002; Yamada, 2011; Yamanaka, 2006), and many more. Although those studies cannot be considered as novel topics of research, they worth being references for present or even future studies of ELT because this issue is still seen as an interesting topic.

Despite the emergence of many assumptions and conflicts relate to the issues of integrating culture into language teaching, not many writings have highlighted on how students' cultural background can influence their performance in EFL class, particularly, their speaking skill which is going to be discussed in this paper.

The term culture has been defined in many ways by many people, starting from simple to complex definitions. This writing only provides operational definition which directly relates to this recent study. Based on the definitions proposed by many experts, it can be summed up that culture is a kind of tradition or way of life which contains values, customs, behaviors, beliefs, attitudes, practices, symbols, including language, of a particular system to be shared by a group of people and inherited to the next generations (Danesi & Perron, 1999; Kuo & Lai, 2006; Cook, 2003; Taga, 1999). Looking at the definition, it is clear that language is a part of culture and cannot be separated from it. Teaching language means teaching its culture to make the learning of language complete without losing its important elements (Peck, 1998). This is one of the reasons why many researchers have focused their attention on the issues of teaching EFL/ESL/EIL and establish a link between English as the target language and either the target culture or the native one (Sysoyev & Donelson, 2002).

Many learners find it hard to be fluent in their speaking skill because they are hindered by their limited knowledge of not only linguistic components but also cultural ones

(Chenowith, 2014; Herminingsih & Jazeri, 2020). These two obstacles have to be well managed by foreign language teachers to achieve a better result in language learning, particularly, in their students' speaking performances. Teachers need to consider that cultural assimilation should be experienced by language learners to help them learn the language better and use it in an effective way and the same way as the native speakers do (Moran, 2001; Omar, 2015; Ziegenfuss, Odhiambo & Keyes, 2014). Real life communication can only normally occur if learners have the knowledge of the target language's culture (Tzotzou and Kotsiou, 2015; Peterson & Coltrane, 2003; Farooq, Soomro & Umer, 2018), otherwise they will have the label of being *fluent fools* who can speak the language fluently without comprehending "the social and philosophical content of that language" (Bennett, 1993:16). The cultural knowledge will help learners to be able to build up their perceptions and have more understanding on ambiguity which will result in their performances in having effective and appropriate communication. In this case, the learning objective is not only to communicate by using the language, but also to be able to communicate through the language they are learning.

Exposing learners to target cultural experiences is a way to facilitate cultural learning in language class in order to help promote cultural understanding. It can be done through the use of technology which can make learners possible to travel across time and space, for example by showing them using social media, videos in YouTube, etc. to facilitate learning. Online multi (media) tools and applications are easy to be implemented in the teaching and learning process. Social media is the most popular media source used by teachers to deliver cultural messages for their students to learn. Lack of supporting devices and/or poor internet connection can strategically be replaced by the use of paper-based authentic materials.

In the learning process, there are three ways proposed by Agar (1994) to be implemented in learning to adjust to a new culture; learners might be started by *making mistakes* when they still do not have sufficient knowledge, they will then be *aware* of their mistakes after getting the information and knowledge about the new culture, and in the last way, the *corrections* or *repair* is needed to enable them to have cultural adjustment.

Methods

This study has employed a case study method and attempted to partially shed a light on the issue of the influence of students' cultural background (i.e. East Nusa Tenggara / NTT Province) on their speaking performances, looking from the aspects of verbal and non-verbal communication. A total of 40 English Department students in speaking 1 class with different cultural background have participated in this study. They consist of 20 males and 20 females whose ages are between 17 to 19 years who come from different parts of East Nusa Tenggara (NTT) Province. These students have just enrolled in university after graduating from high school, so this speaking 1 class has been the first lesson for the students in learning specifically about speaking skill. There have been 16 meetings within six months and they have been observed and interviewed during the period of data collection.

Classroom observations _ particularly, during students' individual and group performances _ have been done for three times out of sixteen meetings (the 1st, the 6th, and the 16th meetings) to look at whether or not their verbal and non-verbal communication has appropriately performed and been improved from time to time. The aim is to assess if they have sufficient knowledge about cultural understanding of the language they are learning, in this case, English, provided by their lecturers. Interviews have also been conducted to have more perspective which will lead to comprehensive understanding of this matter. As an international language, the culture of English cannot be seen as the culture of a specific English speaking country, such as England, America or Australia but it has been seen as an international culture.

The cultural aspects to look at from the students' performances in this study are specific usage of language and symbols. The data has then been qualitatively analyzed to come to the results. The questions will then be posed about what type of culture to be taught and how to teach cultural aspects concurrently with linguistics aspects of the language being learnt?

Findings and Discussion

The analysis of the findings showed that most students could not perform well in their speaking performances regarding their failure to understand the issues of cross culture understanding. Their lack of cultural knowledge of English as the target language made them fail to be able to communicate through the language. The findings of the three observations are presented in the forms of bar graphs as can be seen throughout this section.

There have been six types of cultural elements appeared in the first cultural aspect, *specific usage of language*, as the results of observations, they are: making apologies, responding to compliments, taboos, hedging, terms of address, and family relationship. It can be seen from the first diagram that during the first observation (first meeting), students tended to use their L1 culture in their speaking performances. In other words, they were speaking English with their L1 culture.

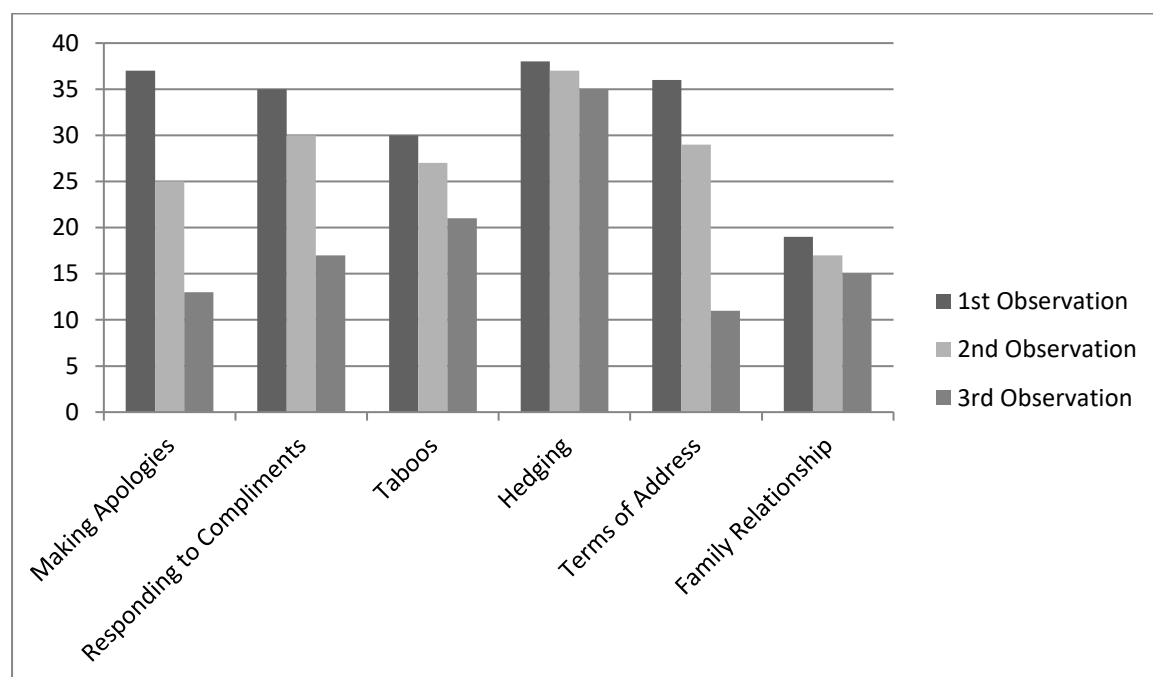


Chart 1: *Specific Usage of Language*

There were 37 students always *said sorry* every time they made mistake in their presentations. When they were asked why they kept on saying sorry while they did not really have to do that, they said that it was mistakenly used by them because they always did that in their L1. This has obviously showed that there is a different concept of apology between the culture of L1 and target language because every culture has its own rules. The students did not have enough knowledge to the meaning of and occasion for saying "I'm sorry", that is why they thought that they could apply their L1 concept of apology when they were using target language. In solving this problem, their lecturers showed them videos of English conversations related to apology followed by a task, in which they had to perform role-plays on similar topic.

Being informed about the difference in concept on making apologies, the students started being aware of the issue on cultural differences in their speaking class and making a better change in their next presentations as can be seen in the diagram that the number of students who was influenced by their L1 culture in their speaking performances kept on decreasing, from 37 in the first observation (1st meeting) to 25 in the second observation (6th meeting), and the number eventually dropped to 13 in the third observation (16th meeting).

The second type is responding to compliments. It has been recorded during the first observation that as many as 35 students did not give appropriate responses to compliments (greet, thank, and praise), pragmatically speaking, as normally happened in the culture of English as the target language. Most students were not familiar with the responses like:

"I'm fine/doing well/great. Thank you/thanks for asking. And you?/How about you?" for *how are you?*; and

"My pleasure/It's okay/No worries/ No problem/Don't mention it/Anytime/Sure/Thank you" for *Thank you*.

This happened because they never did that kind of responses in their L1 and it influenced them in their EFL performance. In replying to *how are you?* all they knew was to say *I'm fine* which was always done in their culture and directly translated from their L1. The same cultural issue happened in responding to *thank you*. In Bahasa Indonesia, whenever people say *terima kasih* (*thank you*) the response will be *terima kasih kembali/sama-sama* (*thank you/you're welcome*) and this way of responding influenced the students' performances in EFL speaking class. They automatically used that kind of response in English conversations.

Another type worthy of discussion is the way they responded to praises. Instead of saying *thank you*, they would feel shy, embarrassed, discomfort and even tried to deny it as they thought they did not deserve it. Asking them to use social media to be able to interact with native speakers was one way to overcome this problem. After doing this for some time, many of them could finally do better in giving responses to greet, thank, and praise. The total number of 35 students who could not do well in the first observation became 30 in the second and ended up by 17 in the last observation.

Issue of taboos has been another type of cultural element found in this study. When it came to this issue, the students had difficulty in understanding the types of taboos which were not the same as theirs and what was acceptable and what was not. For example, it was hard for them to understand why several personal questions, like asking *someone's age, family status, financial status, religion*, etc. could not be asked in conversations and why topics like *religions, race/color, citizenship, gender identity*, etc. were inappropriate to be discussed with someone they just met. According to them, they could talk about all those questions and topics in their L1 culture and this also influenced their way of thinking to apply the same concept in their target language. Taboos have been discussed in class by using authentic materials and although not many, some students could change their perceptions and showed better performances after learning about this cultural issue. There were 30 students failed to be aware of this cultural difference in the first observation, 3 students could make it in the second observation, and the total number who could finally contend with this difference was 19.

This study has also identified hedging as one type of cultural element. It is commonly known that the use of hedging in writing and/or speaking is to show politeness and there are various forms of it, such as *modal expressions* using *could*, *vague language* using *kind of*, *verbs* using *feel* and so on. Most students did not know how to use hedging because of cultural and linguistic differences between English as the target language and their L1. The hedging was not commonly used in their L1 culture was the reason why they could not use it in their EFL speaking performances. Considering from the total number of students who failed to

appropriately use it, this type was assumed as the most difficult one to be mastered by these students. It might have happened because of the influence of their L1 culture which was very strong and so they could not adjust with the culture of the target language. It was started by having only 2 students who were properly able to use it. The number then became 3 in the second observation and it became 5 in the last observation, after they had been through the process of teaching and learning by using authentic texts.

The differences in address terms have been pinpointed as the fifth cultural element related to *specific usage of language*. To give you an idea, in students' L1 culture, all old ladies and old men could be addressed as *grandma/grandmother* and *grandpa/grandfather* or *nenek* and *kakek* in Bahasa Indonesia. So, when they called someone *nenek* or *kakek*, it did not necessarily mean that s/he had blood ties with them. The students applied this rules in their EFL speaking performances. They used the terms to refer to the ones who did not have any blood ties with them and this created confusion in the communication. Looking at the result that 36 students could not use the proper terms of address in the first observation made the lecturers work hard to find the way out. Lessons were taken from YouTube channels to provide the students with cultural knowledge and understanding corresponded to the use of address terms. In addition, role-plays had also been used to facilitate them in learning. In the second observation, there were 29 students still struggled with this issue, and in the third observation, there were only 11 students could not fully understand this type of cultural element.

The last type of cultural element is *family relationship*, which is almost identical with *terms of address* discussed earlier. Culturally speaking, family systems vary from one culture to another and this will affect students in their performances unless they have sufficient knowledge about cultural differences. The finding showed that 19 students were influenced by their L1 culture in their speaking performances. After receiving treatment through role-plays, 2 out of those 19 could perform better in the second observation and during the last observation, it was found out that there were still 15 students failed to perform well.

Another equally important aspect of culture is *symbols*, which consist of four types of non-verbal communication, they are: facial expressions, nods/shakes, gestures, and tone of voice. The results of the three observations may be viewed in the following bar graph.

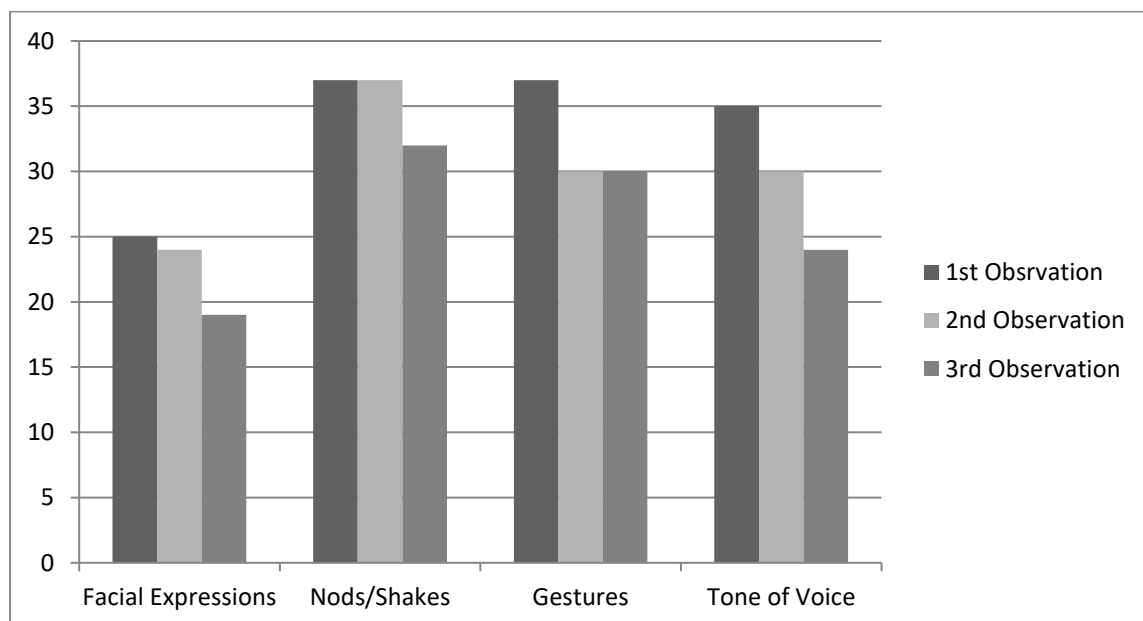


Chart 2: *Symbols*

Speaking performance has a close relationship with both verbal and non-verbal types of communication. Different people from different cultural background have different ways of expressing both types. Various signs, signals, and meanings are owned by people from different cultures all over the world and similar symbols might have different meanings for different culture. Cross-culture understanding is essentially needed when conversations are made among people from different cultural background, otherwise miscommunication will exist.

Based on the findings, it could be revealed that there were 25 students who did not show the appropriate target expressions during their performances. They spoke English using their L1 expressions and failed to show that they were able to speak through the language they were learning. For instance, they did not show their attitudes, feelings and emotions through their eye contacts when they were using English in communication. This made their performances become unsuccessful ones because no messages could be well delivered by blank face expressions and no eye contacts. This came from their L1 culture, in which they would be considered impolite if they gave strong expressions as well as eye contacts while talking to others. When it came to head nodding/shaking, there were 37 students did not use these symbols properly when they agreed/disagreed to something. Normally, head nodding is the symbol of agreement and head shaking is for disagreement. Since these symbols were not parts of their L1 culture, so it affected their performances in EFL speaking performances.

Additionally, these 37 students did not use gestures at all in their presentations. They did not make any moves at all while talking; even they did not let their hands speak. Their reason was that in their culture, it would be seen as impolite to have many gestures or make many moves when they were communicating with others in their L1. Another type of symbols found was voice tone and there were 35 students did not have variations of voice tone in their performances. Voice tone is not about what to say but how to say something in order to strengthen the points to be stated to make other people undoubtedly impress. This can be done by using good variations in voice tone. All these symbol types cannot be learnt through texts but videos can help to facilitate this kind of learning. Nothing much changed in the second and third observations. It was assumed that it took longer time to learn and get used to the target culture related to these symbols because it was about starting new habits.

Evidences from this study demonstrated that most students could not communicate through the language well because they were still not able to integrate these two inseparable entities in their learning. Their cultural background, in this case, L1 culture, still strongly influenced them in their speaking performances. This led to their failure or unsuccessful performances as they were recognized as *fluent fools* (Bennett, 1993). However, there was improvement in the other two observations after going through several learning sessions facilitated by various learning sources. This learning process (i.e. the integration of language and culture) was in line with the methods proposed by Agar (1994), starting from students' *mistakes*, followed by their *awareness* of their mistakes, and ended up by learning to *correct themselves*.

This study has proved that cultural elements are important to be included in EFL class in order for students to get better results. Language can be produced with L1 culture but it will be salient to speak the language with its culture to make it more powerful. Therefore, it is recommended that cultural elements be taught together with elements of language in EFL classes.

Conclusion

The results of the study apparently showed that students did not perform well in their EFL speaking performances due to their insufficient cultural background knowledge of the target language. They learnt the language and spoke it well but their performances could be far better if they learnt the language together with its culture as shown in the results of the second and third observations. This study also revealed that it was advantageous to teach language elements as well as cultural elements to enhance students' communication skills. Many different learning sources have been used in facilitating the teaching and learning process, such as social media and authentic materials.

Pedagogical Implication

Considering that cultural assimilation is essentially important in EFL class, particularly, in teaching and learning speaking, teachers should help their students experience it to make them learn the language better and able to use it in an effective way and the same way as the native speakers do. This has been supported by what has been stated by Moran (2001), Omar (2015), and Ziegenfuss, Odhiambo & Keyes (2014) in their studies related to intertwining language and culture in ELT class.

In a more specific way, EFL teachers can use the findings of this study as the basic principle to start considering integrating and incorporating cultural elements of the target language in the teaching and learning process of EFL, especially, speaking skill. Dramas, movies, songs, stories, role-plays, and other authentic materials can be used to facilitate students in learning culture through language to make them able to use the language they are learning appropriately.

References

- Agar, M. (1994). *Language Shock: Understanding the Culture of Conversation*. New York, NY: William Morrow.
- Ashikaga, T., Fujita, R., & Ikuta, Y. (2001). A Study of Cultural Aspects in Japanese EFL Communication Textbooks. *JACET Bulletin*, 33. Pp. 1-10.
- Baker, Will. (2003). Should Culture be an Overt Component of EFL Instruction outside of English-Speaking Countries? The Thai Context. *The Asian EFL Journal*. Vol. 5, Issue 4, (December 2003).
- Bennett, M. J. (1993). How not to be a Fluent Fool: Understanding the Cultural Dimension of Language. *The Language Teacher*, 27(9). Pp. 16-21.
- Brooks, Nelson. (1983). Teaching Culture in the Foreign Language Classroom. *Foreign Language Annals*, 16. New York: ACTEFL, Inc.
- Brown, H. D. (1994). *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching* (3rd Ed.). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Regents.
- Carter, Ron. (1995). *Bridging Culture through Literature*. Retrieved December 10, 2020, from <http://www.sciway.Net/edu/kl2/cet9495/contents.html>.
- Chastain, K. (1971). *The Development of Modern Language Skills: Theory to Practice*. Chicago: Rand McNally.
- Chenowith, Natasha, H. (2014). Cultural and Linguistic Obstacles for English Language Learners. *Beyond Words*, Vol. 2, No. 2, (November 2014).
- Cook, G. (2003). *Applied linguistics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Danesi, M. and Perron, P. (1999). *Analyzing Cultures: An Introduction & Handbook*. Indiana: Indiana University Press.

- Fang, Fan. (2011). International Cultures in the Framework of World Englishes: What should EFL Teachers Do? *The Journal of Asia TEFL*. Vol. 8, No. 1, Spring 2011. Pp. 111-137.
- Farooq, U., Soomro, A. F., & Umer, M. (2018). English Language Teaching and Cultural Implications in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 8(3). Pp. 177-185.
- Hammerly, H. (1982). *Synthesis in Language Teaching*. Blaine, WA: Second Language Publications.
- Heminingsih, Dwi, Ima & Jazeri, Mohamad. (2020). Elevating the Speaking Ability through a Culture Talk in the Video: Evidence from Universitas Tulungagung, Indonesia. *The Asian ESP Journal*, Volume 16, Issue 5.2, (November 2020).
- Herron, C., Cole, S. P., Corrie, C., & Dubreil, S. (1999). The Effectiveness of Video-based Curriculum in Teaching Culture. *The Modern Language Journal*, 83(4). Pp. 518-533.
- Hollenback, M. D. (2017). A Critical Look at Culture in EFL Textbooks in Japan. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & H. Brown (Eds.). *Transformation in Language Education*. Tokyo: JALT.
- Jenkins, S. (2010). Monolingualism: An Uncongenial Policy for Saudi Arabia's Low-Level Learners. *ELT Journal*, 64(4). Pp. 459-461.
- Kuo, Ming-Mu & Lai, Cheng-Chieh. (2006). Linguistics across Cultures: The Impact of Culture on Second Language Learning. *Journal of Foreign Language Instruction*, Volume 1, No. 1, (November 2006).
- Matsuda, A. (2002). Representation of Users and Uses of English in Beginning Japanese EFL Textbooks. *JALT Journal*, 24. Pp. 182-200.
- McKay, S. (2000). Teaching English as an International Language: Implications for Cultural Materials in the Classroom. *TESOL Journal Winter*, 1(1). Pp. 7- 11.
- McKay, S. (2002). *Teaching English as an International Language: Rethinking Goals and Approaches*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- MacKay, S. (2004). Teaching English as an International Language: The Role of Culture in Asian Contexts. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, 1(1). Pp. 1-22.
- Moran, P. (2001). *Teaching Culture: Perspectives in Practice*. New York: Heinle& Heinle.
- Nida, E. (1998). Language, Culture, and Translation. *Foreign Language Journal* 115/3. Pp. 29-33.
- Omar, Y. (2015). Culture Awareness and Learning English as a Second Language (ESL). *Journal of Modern Education Review*, 5(8). Pp. 739-757.
- Özmen, K. S., Çakır, Abdulvahit. & Cephe, P. T. (2018). Conceptualization of English Culture and Accent: Idealized English among Teachers in the Expanding Circle. *The Asian EFL Journal*. Vol. 20, Issue 3. Pp. 8-31.
- Peck, D. (1998). *Teaching Culture: Beyond Language*. Retrieved November 23, 2020 from <http://www.yale.edu/ynhti/curriculum/units/1984/3/84.03.06.x.html>
- Peterson, E., & Coltrane, B. (2003). *Culture in Second Language Teaching*. Washington DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistic.
- Purba, Hemat. (2011). The Importance of Including Culture in EFL teaching. *Journal of English Teaching*. Vol. 1, No. 1, (February 2011).
- Samovar, L., Porter, R. & Jain, N. (1981). *Understanding Intercultural Communication*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Sysoyev, P. V. & Donelson L. R. (2002). *Teaching Cultural Identity through Modern Language: Discourse as a Marker of an Individual's Cultural Identity*. Retrieved December 1, 2020, from <http://www.actr.org/JER/issue4/11.htm>
- Taga, H. A. (1999). *Sociology: An Introduction*. Lahore: Ismail Brothers Publishers.

- Tomalin, B., & Stempelski, S. (1993). *Cultural Awareness*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Tzotzou, M. D., & Vassiliki, K. (2015). Exploring the Position of Target Culture Awareness in the EFL Classroom of the Greek State School. *Research Papers in Language Teaching and Learning*, 6(1). Pp. 68-85.
- Yamanaka, N. (2006). An Evaluation of English Textbooks in Japan from the Viewpoint of Nations in the Inner, Outer, and Expanding Circles. *JALT Journal*, 28. Pp. 57-76.
- Yamada, M. (2011). Awareness of Racial and Ethnic Diversity in Japanese Junior High Schools' English Language Textbooks. *Critical Inquiry in Language Studies*, 8. Pp. 289-312.
- Ziegenfuss, R. G., Odhiambo, E., & Keyes C. (2014). How Can We Help Students Who Are English Language Learners Succeed? *CIMLE Current Issues in Middle Level Education*, 19(1). Pp. 58-62.

English Language Proficiency Level of Junior Students from a State University in the Philippines

Abigail C. Gomez*

Cavite State University Imus Campus, Republic of the Philippines

Anabella C. Gomez**

Cavite State University Imus Campus, Republic of the Philippines

Abstract

Various local researches show that Filipinos are proficient in English. This evidence was even reflected in the Education First Index. However, the Philippines ranked lowest in reading in the 2018 Program for International Student Assessment of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2019). In order to fully understand which among the macro skills of communication must be improved by educators, researchers assessed the proficiency levels of junior students from a selected state university.

This study aimed to determine the English language proficiency of junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus. As suggested by a language expert, the researchers utilized the free Cambridge Practice Test of the University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES, 2015). It is divided into four parts: Reading and Use of English, Listening, Writing, and Speaking to gather necessary data. Moreover, the test aimed to classify students into Beginner, Elementary, Intermediate, Upper-Intermediate, Advanced, or Proficient. From a total population of 1,543, 277 junior students participated voluntarily in the study.

Findings revealed that there are differences between the results of reading- listening and writing - speaking. Junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus are advanced in writing and speaking elementary but not in reading and use of English and listening. Despite results, the Bachelor of Secondary Education and B.S. in Psychology had an overall proficiency level interpreted as Upper-Intermediate proficiency level. The rest of the programs fell under the Intermediate Proficiency Level.

This study yielded significant results in assessing the proficiency level of the students where reading and listening examinations became difficult for the participants. Therefore, continuous remediation must be done by the University to expose the students to various accents of English and to provide more reading power tasks that could stimulate their critical thinking, which can be useful in their daily lives.

Keywords: Language Proficiency, Proficiency Level, English, Language Testing

Acknowledgment

The researchers would like to acknowledge the following: Dr. Ma. Cynthia R. Dela Cruz, Dr. Liza Costa, Dr. Ruel Mojica, Dr. Camilo A. Polinga, and Dr. Hernando D. Robles for serving as inspiration to a research journey and for the support given to the researchers. Moreover, heartfelt gratitude is extended to Dr. Eunice Mercado, Dr. Gloria Fulgado, Dr. Cherrielyn Casco, and Dr. Mario Mecate, for academic support and supervision.

Lastly, this research is being attributed to the inspiration and unconditional love of Charles Michael Gomez.

**abigailgomez@cvsu.edu.ph or abigail.gomez23@yahoo.com.ph*

***anabellelegomez@yahoo.com.ph*

Introduction

The Education First (E.F.) English Proficiency Index shows that the Philippines ranks 15th in the worldwide evaluation of English proficiency. In the same index, Singapore had a very high proficiency level, thus, ranking first in Asia. Only Malaysia (2nd) and the Philippines (3rd) had a high proficiency level. E.F. categorized the rest of the other Asian countries as moderate, low, and very low (Education First, 2017). This index is a positive result of the standing of Filipinos who utilize English as a medium of instruction among schools and universities.

According to the Board of Investments as cited by Hernandez (2015), “The Filipinos are highly educated, making them among the largest English-speakers in the world. Over the years, assessment has been a fundamental key to measure and improve the quality of education (Kellaghan & Greaney, 2001). The use of assessment information showcasing levels of proficiency will reach a judgment about the adequacy of education system performance.

For Dandanoli, proficiency tests assess the general competence in a second language, regardless of the curriculum or course of study (Hadley & Johnson 1993, p. 412). Proficiency tests like TESOL International Association, International English Language Testing System (IELTS), Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL), and Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) assess the speaking, writing, listening and reading performances of students prior admission to a university.

Filipinos’ exposure to the English Language can be associated with many factors. History had a significant contribution to the proliferation of this language. Gonzales (2009) states that the American language made a prominent goal of settling in the country. The educated elites widely spoke English with significant levels of competence. It took almost two decades of spreading before the transplanted language created a new variety of English, the Philippine English. Exposure provides reinforcement. Therefore, this language promoted writing, poetry, and literature and embedding in the country, in schools, businesses, tourism, and other sectors.

The English language then became an integral part of the Filipino culture. Though there were continuous arguments regarding which medium of instruction must be used, the country has made language policies to follow. After bilingualism, Executive Order 210 by President Gloria- Macapagal Arroyo has been established. It is a policy to strengthen the use of English as a medium of instruction in the educational system.

This policy tells that English shall be taught as a second language starting with the First Grade. Furthermore, it states that such language will be used “as the primary medium of instruction” (EO 210, 2003). This policy was, however, rectified by the Mother Tongue- Based Multilingual Education (MTB- MLE), which mandates the use of the language that students are familiar with (their first language) as a medium of instruction to allow them to grasp basic concepts more quickly. Researchers like Malana (2019), even recommended in her research concerning the English proficiency levels of students from Northern Luzon with various dialects, that at home, family members must speak in English to improve language proficiency further.

The language used in the tertiary is often following the one used in the course description. Therefore, teachers deliver the majority of the courses in English. Code-switching is predominant for students due to the change of language from Filipino to English to Filipino

and English again. Ediger (2013) reiterates the importance of language proficiency in the school and society.

Regardless of ranking 15th in the Education First Index, the Philippines ranked the lowest in reading in the 2018 Program for International Student Assessment of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD, 2019). This gap prompted the researchers to assess the proficiency levels of students from Cavite State University Imus Campus in reading, writing, listening, and speaking and see where do the students fall and assess which macro skill must be improved.

Statement of the Problem

Generally, this study aims to determine the English language proficiency level of junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus. Specifically, this research deems to answer the following:

1. What are the participants' profile in terms of
 - a. Age;
 - b. Gender; and
 - c. Degree Program?
2. What is the level of English language proficiency level of the participants with regard to:
 - a. Reading and Use of English;
 - b. Listening;
 - c. Speaking; and
 - d. Writing?
3. How significant is the relationship between the participants' profile and the English language proficiency level of the junior students?

Conceptual Framework

The researchers employed the Input- Process- Output (IPO) model in conducting the study.

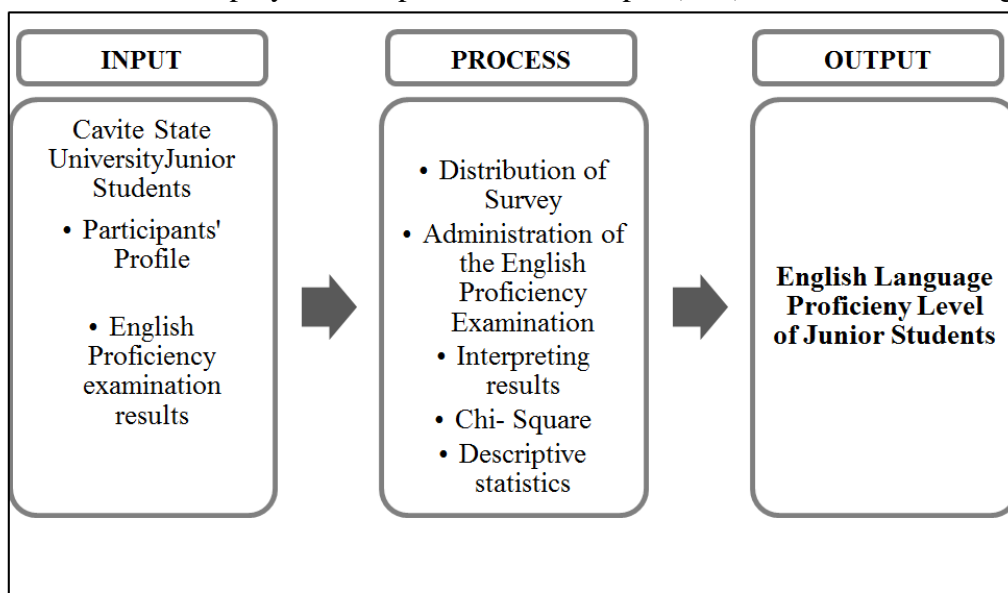


Figure 1. Conceptual framework of the study

Figure 1 shows that the input comprises the vital data gathered from the participants of the study. These are the participants' profiles, such as age, gender, and degree program, and the English proficiency examination results.

In collecting the data, the researchers employed the processes of distributing the survey for the participants' profiles before administering the examinations, interpreting the results, using descriptive statistics, and chi-square. This model produces the English language proficiency level of the junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus.

Hypotheses

Based on the statement of the problem and the conceptual paradigm in Figure 1, the hypotheses below were formulated:

Ho1: There is no significant relationship between the age and the English language proficiency level of junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus.

Ho2: There is no significant relationship between the gender and the English language proficiency level of junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus.

Ho3: There is no significant relationship between the degree program and the English language proficiency level of junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus.

Method Research Design

The study is descriptive and quantitative by nature. The descriptive research method categorizes the facts and characteristics of a given population of participants factually and accurately.

Participants and Sampling Procedure

There is a total of 1,543 junior students from Cavite State University- Imus Campus across all degree programs. Using Slovin's formula into the study, researchers had a total of 277 participants.

Instrumentation

Cavite State University- Imus Campus has no existing standardized English Proficiency Examination. Thus, in order to measure their English language proficiency level, the researchers were able to access the Cambridge Practice Test without any membership fee account needed. Moreover, this was also suggested by another language expert. However, in consideration that Filipinos are Asians, instead of using practice tests which are intended for college students, it was suggested by the consulted language expert to use the lower level. Furthermore, this practice test answered the needed constructs for English language proficiency, which are competencies in reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

A description of the Cambridge Practice Test (UCLES, 2015) is seen in Table 1.

Table 1. Contents of the Cambridge Practice Test (University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, 2015)

EXAMINATION	DURATION	PARTS	NO. OF QUESTIONS	TOTAL COUNTS/ MARKS
Reading and Use of English	1 hour and 30 minutes	7 parts	53	72
Listening	45 minutes	4 parts	30	30
Writing	1 hour and 30 minutes	2 parts	2	40
Speaking	19 minutes	3 parts	3	25
TOTAL		16 parts	88	167

1. Reading and Use of English

There are 53 questions in this paper. Questions 1- 24 carry one mark. Questions 25 – 30 carry up to two marks. Questions 31 – 43 also carry two marks. Questions 44 – 53 carry one mark. This part of the test bears a total of 72 marks. Using frequency counting, the highest score to be attained here is also 72. In order to ensure that reading materials are still fit or appropriate to the level of junior students or third year college students, the researchers ran the texts under Flesch–Kincaid readability tests. Among the seven texts, Topic 7 is the only one with a reading level suitable for college. The rest are for lower levels.

Topic 1: Adventure Travel

Task: Sentence completion (verbs or adjectives)

Flesch Reading Ease Score: 64.1

Reading Level: 8th & 9th grade

Topic 2: Mobile Communication

Task: Sentence completion (prepositions)

Flesch Reading Ease Score: 65.4

Reading Level: 8th & 9th grade

Topic 3: Power Naps

Task: Converting words with proper affixes to complete the sentence

Flesch Reading Ease Score: 57.3

Reading Level: 10th to 12th grade

Topic 4 : Random sentences (min 5 words, max 12 words)

Task: Complete the paraphrased sentence using the given key word

Flesch Reading Ease Score: 53.6

Reading Level: 10th to 12th grade

Topic 5: Lucy gets a new job on a newspaper

Task: Answer the questions (comprehension)

Flesch Reading Ease Score: 70

Reading Level: 8th & 9th grade

Topic 6: The fog catcher's forest

Task: Choose the missing seven paragraphs to complete the article

Flesch Reading Ease Score: 64.9
 Reading Level: 8th & 9th grade
 Topic 7: Photography: A Historical background
 Task: Choose which paragraph were the extracts taken from.
 Flesch Reading Ease Score: 48.2
 Reading Level: College

2. Listening

Here, each question carries one mark. Students will hear each piece twice. The Cambridge Practice Test has already provided audio as part of the test. Using frequency counting again, the highest score to be attained here is 30. There are four parts to this type of test which were reviewed by the researchers.

Part 1:

Extract one: First person narrative of improving tourism through messages in bottles found at the seashore. (2 questions)

Extract two: Conversation between two persons wondering why there is a change in the genre of a specific painter: from family portraits to landscapes. (2 questions)

Extract three: Narration on the effect of music (on the ears or headsets) transforming somebody into a different space or setting. (2 questions)

Part 2: Narration on the uses of a spice called mastic, from the tree of a pistachio nut family. (9 questions)

Part 3: Interview extract of two marine biologists who shared their stories when they were young that inspired them to film the marine wildlife. (5 questions)

Part 4:

Task 1: Choose what each speaker did during their gap year or vacation (from their studies)

Task 2: Choose which benefit was attained by the speaker during their gap year or vacation (from their studies)

3. Writing

The writing test has two parts. Part 1 focuses on the writing skills of summarizing, evaluating, and paraphrasing. Part 2 is more about writing texts for specific needs or situations given in the test. Answers are marked using assessment scales, where 0–5 marks are given for each of the following criteria: content, communicative achievement; organization; and language. Full marks only are awarded; there are no half marks given. Marks for each of the criteria are combined to give 20 possible marks for each question. There are 40 possible marks for the whole paper.

4. Speaking

The speaking test has three parts. Part 1 is approximately 2- 3 minutes for a group of three participants. Part 2 is approximately 4- 6 minutes and has a topic of T.V. Documentary- Working in the food industry. Part 3 consumes 10 minutes with a topic on making decisions.

Researchers assessed the speaking performances generally across the three parts. The assessor gives 0–5 marks for each of the following criteria: grammar and vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation, and interactive communication.

Marks for all criteria are then combined, meaning there are 25 marks available in the Speaking test.

There is a total of 167 marks in this free Cambridge Practice Test (UCLES, 2015).

Data Gathering Procedure

The researchers sought permission from Cavite State University Imus Campus to conduct the study. After being permitted, a survey was distributed to identify the participants' profile before the free Cambridge Practice Test (UCLES, 2015) was administered through proper scheduling.

After the administration granted permission to conduct the study at Cavite State University Imus Campus, the researchers were able to administer the free Cambridge Practice Test (UCLES, 2015) to 277 junior students from the third week of January up to the third week of March in 2018.

The examinations for reading and usage of English and writing were first rendered. After each batch had finished the two examinations within 3 hours, checking of answers was done immediately, so the scores were recorded.

For the listening examination, the researchers uploaded the audio in Google Drive, where the students may listen and answer the questions uploaded through another online platform, i.e., www.kwiksurveys.com. Students have the option to playback the audiofiles and make the speed slower for better understanding of the audio. This online practice is real-time, and the researchers saw the results and answers immediately in the administrator account.

Afterward, scheduling was done to conduct the speaking test for each individual. Among the four tests, administering the speaking test is the most time consuming and required proper scheduling.

Scoring

Since there is a total of 167 items, researchers used frequency counting to get the total scores.

In order to accurately identify the English language proficiency level of the participants, the following scaling and quantification were used:

Table 2. Scaling and quantification of Cambridge Practice Test Results per Area

LEVEL DESCRIPTOR	READING	WRITING	LISTENING	SPEAKING
Beginner	1-12	1-6	1-5	1-4
Elementary	13-24	7-12	6-10	5-8
Intermediate	25-36	13-18	11-15	9-12
Upper Intermediate	37-48	19-24	16-20	13-16
Advanced	49-60	25-36	21-25	17-20
Proficient	61-72	37 above	26-30	21-25

Table 2 presents the range of various scores per examination and their equivalent level descriptor as beginner, elementary, intermediate, upper-intermediate, advanced, or proficient.

Likewise, the following scaling and quantification were used in the overall results of the free Cambridge Practice Test (UCLES, 2015):

Table 3. Scaling and quantification of Cambridge Practice Test for overall results

LEVEL DESCRIPTOR	SCORES	MEAN SCORES
Beginner	1-27	1-27.49
Elementary	28- 54	27.50-54.49
Intermediate	55- 81	54.50-81.49
Upper Intermediate	82-108	81.50-108.49
Advanced	109-135	108.50-135.49
Proficient	136 above	135.50 above

Table 3 presents the specific level for the overall results or the total marks attained per student. The mean scores place the level of the students per degree program. The scales helped the researchers to put an equivalent description for the results quickly.

The researchers used the common descriptions in the Common European Framework level, which is also the basis of the Cambridge Practice Tests for proficiency levels.

English Basic Users	Beginner	Can understand and use familiar everyday expressions and very basic phrases aimed at the satisfaction of needs of a concrete type. Can introduce him/ herself and others and can ask and answer questions about personal details such as where he/she lives, people he/she knows and things he/she has. Can interact in a simple way provided the other person talks slowly and clearly and is prepared to help.
	Elementary	Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance. Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate need.
English Independent Users	Intermediate	Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes & ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.
	Upper-Intermediate	Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.
Proficient English Users	Advanced English	Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning. Can express him/ herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing a controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.
	Proficient	Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations.

Figure 2. The six English language proficiency levels and their general description (Council of Europe, 2001)

Statistical Analysis of Data

To provide accurate results in this study, the researchers used the following statistical treatment of data:

1. To determine the participants' profile, frequency count, and mean were used.
2. To determine the English proficiency level of the students, the frequency count of the scores was done, and the mean was computed.
3. To determine the relationship between and among the variables, the chi-square test of independence was used.

After considering the degree of freedom, the researchers interpret the p-value. If the p-value is less than the significant level of 0.05, reject the null hypothesis; if the p-value is higher than the significance level, accept the null hypothesis.

Results and Discussion

1. Participants' Profile

Table numbers five to seven include the participants' profile in terms of age, gender, and degree program.

Table 4. Frequency and percentage distribution of participants according to age

AGE	FREQ.	PERCENTAGE (%)
17	10	3.61
18	215	77.62
19	28	10.11
20 above	24	8.66
TOTAL	277	100.00

Table 4 shows that among the 277 participants who took the Cambridge Practice Test (UCLES, 2015), 77.62% of them or 215 are 18 years old. Despite the age distribution from 17 to 20 above, all of the participants are in their junior year or third year. They finished all English courses such as Study and Thinking Skills (ENGL1), Writing in the Discipline (ENGL2), Business Communication (ENGL 5), Speech Communication (ENGL 6), and Scientific Reporting and Thesis Writing (ENGL7), as prescribed by their respective curriculum.

This result, therefore, shows that there is age variation across all the levels, and students are not confined to a specific age group.

Table 5. Frequency and percentage distribution of participants' gender per degree program

DEGREE PROGRAM	FEMALE		MALE		TOTAL
	FREQ.	%	FREQ.	%	
A.B. Journalism	12	7.02%	10	9.43%	22
B.S. in Business Management	26	15.20%	11	10.38%	37
B.S. in Computer Science	6	3.51%	21	19.81%	27
B.S. Education	22	12.87%	4	3.77%	26
B.S. in Entrepreneurship	21	12.28%	6	5.66%	27
B.S. in Hotel & Restaurant Management	19	11.11%	17	16.04%	36
B.S. in Information Technology	13	7.60%	24	22.64%	37
B.S. in Office Administration	27	15.79%	7	6.60%	34
B.S. in Psychology	25	14.62%	6	5.66%	31
TOTAL	171	61.73%	106	38.27%	277

Table 5 shows the gender distribution per degree program. The majority of the female participants came from B.S. in Office Administration program. However, the majority of the male participants are from B.S. in Information Technology.

Overall, 61.73% are female students, and 38.27% are male students. Among all the programs, only B.S. in Computer Science and B.S. in Information Technology, have male participants dominate the female participants in terms of population frequency.

Table 6. Frequency and percentage distribution of participants' population per degree program

DEGREE PROGRAM	FREQ.	PERCENTAGE
AB Journalism	22	7.94%
B.S. in Business Management	37	13.36%
B.S. in Computer Science	27	9.75%
BS Education	26	9.39%
B.S. in Entrepreneurship	27	9.75%
BS in Hotel & Restaurant Management	36	13.00%
B.S. in Information Technology	37	13.36%
B.S. in Office Administration	34	12.27%
BS in Psychology	31	11.19%
TOTAL	277	100.00%

Table 6 presents the actual frequency and percentage distribution of the participants for the study. Though the figures are not equal, they adequately represent the total population of the students from their degree program as dictated by the Slovin's formula. The highest in the population with 37 participants or 13.36% is the B.S. in Information Technology and B.S. in Business Management. Next to the highest population are 36 participants or 13.00%, which is coming from the program B.S. in Hotel and Restaurant Management.

2. English Language Proficiency Level of the Participants

Succeeding tables show the English language proficiency level of the participants with regard to Reading and Use of English, Listening, Speaking, and Writing. The results are presented according to age, gender, degree program, and the overall performance.

Table 7. Mean score and English language proficiency level according to age

AGE	TOTAL SCORE	POPULATION	MEAN SCORE	VERBAL INTERPRETATION
17	594	10	59.40	Intermediate
18	14,878	215	69.20	Intermediate
19	2,080	28	74.29	Intermediate
20 above	2,033	24	84.71	Upper Intermediate
TOTAL		277	70.70	Intermediate

Table 7 presents the total score, population, mean score, and proficiency level attained per age. It is evident that those who are already 20 above, with a small population of 24, attained a mean score of 84.71, which is also interpreted as Upper-Intermediate level. The rest of the ages are interpreted as Intermediate. This data reveals that those aged 20 above can achieve most goals and express themselves on a range of topics.

Table 8. Mean Score and English language proficiency level according to gender

GENDER	TOTAL SCORE	POPULATION	MEAN SCORE	VERBAL INTERPRETATION
Female	12,642	171	73.93	Intermediate
Male	8,072	106	76.15	Intermediate
TOTAL		277	74.77	Intermediate

Table 8 presents that when the participants were classified according to gender, both attained Intermediate English language proficiency level, which is described as having the ability to express oneself in a limited way in familiar situations and to deal in a general way with nonroutine information.

Table 9. English language proficiency level of the degree programs attained across four examinations

DEGREE PROGRAM	READING	WRITING	LISTENING	SPEAKING
AB Journalism	Intermediate	Advanced	Elementary	Advanced
BS in Business Management	Elementary	Advanced	Elementary	Advanced
BS in Computer Science	Elementary	Intermediate	Elementary	Advanced
BS Education	Intermediate	Advanced	Elementary	Advanced
BS in Entrepreneurship	Elementary	Upper- Intermediate	Elementary	Upper- Intermediate
BS in Hotel & Restaurant Management	Elementary	Advanced	Elementary	Advanced
BS in Information Technology	Elementary	Advanced	Elementary	Advanced
BS in Office Administration	Elementary	Upper- Intermediate	Elementary	Advanced
BS in Psychology	Elementary	Advanced	Elementary	Advanced

Table 9 presents the English language proficiency level attained per degree program across the four examinations of Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking. It is highly evident that all degree programs attained Elementary proficiency levels in the Listening examination. Most of them or 7 out of 9 programs got the same Elementary proficiency level for the Reading examination. For the Speaking examination, only the B.S. in Entrepreneurship got Upper-Intermediate proficiency level while the rest of the programs attained an Advanced proficiency level. The English language proficiency level for the writing examination varies per degree program.

The Reading and Listening examination of the Cambridge Practice Test (UCLES, 2015) provided difficulty to junior students of Cavite State University Imus Campus. The low mean scores and interpretation of Elementary proficiency levels are pieces of evidence. This result further explains that the Junior student of Cavite State University Imus Campus can understand short, simple texts on familiar matters of a concrete type, which consist of high frequency everyday or job-related languages.

Listening is usually associated with speaking. However, the results shown in Table 9 presents those junior students of Cavite State University are more competent with speaking than with listening. They can understand enough to be able to meet the needs of a concrete type provided speech is clearly and slowly articulated. Since the students attained an Elementary proficiency level for the Listening examination, faculty members in the University must emphasize listening activities in various accents and platforms.

Similarly, this result coincided with Adnan, Norman, and Nordin (2020), who specified that when teaching English as Second Language to learners, underdeveloped English reading and listening proficiencies must be considered.

Table 10. Overall English language proficiency level and rank according to the degree programs

DEGREE PROGRAM	MEAN SCORE	ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY LEVEL	RANK
A.B. Journalism	81.39	Intermediate	3 rd
B.S. in Business Management	78.30	Intermediate	5 th
B.S. in Computer Science	78.26	Intermediate	6 th
BS Education	81.76	Upper-Intermediate	1 st
B.S. in Entrepreneurship	74.00	Intermediate	8 th
BS in Hotel & Restaurant Management	77.00	Intermediate	7 th
B.S. in Information Technology	80.11	Intermediate	4 th
B.S. in Office Administration	61.38	Intermediate	9 th
B.S. in Psychology	81.71	Upper-Intermediate	2 nd
OVERALL MEAN SCORE	77.10	Intermediate	

Table 10 shows that first in rank is the Bachelor of Secondary Education students with a mean score of 81.76 or Upper-Intermediate proficiency level. Second is the B.S. in Psychology with a mean score of 81.71, which is also Upper-Intermediate proficiency level. The rest of the programs fall under the Intermediate proficiency level. The overall performance of the junior students of Cavite State University Imus Campus for the free Cambridge Practice Test (UCLES, 2015) is 77.10 or Intermediate proficiency level. This level shows that junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus can express themselves in a limited way in familiar situations.

3. Significant Relationship

Table 11. Table of the relationship between participants' profiles and English language proficiency level

PARTICIPANTS' PROFILE	COMPUTED CHI- SQUARE	DF	P VALUE	INTERPRETATION
Age	3.96	3	.27	Not Significant
Gender	9.18	9	.42	Not Significant
Degree	66.11	24	.00	Significant

As seen in Table 11, the Chi-Square result between age and English language proficiency level is $X^2 = 3.96$, $df = 3$, $p = .27 > 0.05$; therefore, the H_01 is accepted. There is no significant relationship between Age and English language proficiency level of junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus. The result implies that the ages of the participants did not affect or influence in any way their English language proficiency level.

Likewise, the chi-square result between gender and English language proficiency level is $X^2 = 9.18$, $df = 9$, $p = .42 > 0.05$; therefore, the H_02 is accepted. There is no significant

relationship between gender and English language proficiency level of junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus. The result implies that the gender of the participants did not affect or influence in any way their English language proficiency level.

However, the Chi-Square result between the degree program and English language proficiency level is $X^2=66.11$, $df= 24$, $p=.00 < 0.05$; therefore, the H_0 is rejected. There is a high significant relationship between the degree program and the English language proficiency level of junior students from Cavite State University Imus Campus.

The findings imply that the degree program of the participants somehow affects or influences the English language proficiency level of the participants. Furthermore, it could be gleaned from the findings that those with higher English language proficiency levels came from junior students under the Bachelor of Secondary Education and Bachelor of Science in Psychology.

Summary of Findings and Conclusions

The following were the significant findings and conclusions of the study:

Among the 277 participants, 77.62% are 18 years old. There are more female participants in the study, with 61.73% of the total of 277 participants. However, male participants are more dominant in the degree programs BSIT and BSCS. The highest populations among the participants are BSIT and BSBM, with 37 participants or 13.36% of the entire population.

The participants have an overall score of 77.11, also categorized as intermediate level, which means participants are part of the “English Independent Users.”

Participants received an elementary proficiency level in both examinations for reading (with a mean score of 22.76) and listening (with a mean score of 9.46). This means that they are “English Basic Users.” According to Ok (2003), the language curriculum, reference materials, and instructional materials must include various activities aligned with various types of learners. Moreover, the listening test must be according to the variety of English in the Philippines. Chaipapae (2019) reiterates that native accents are preferable in listening tests.

Relative to the result of the reading examination, the findings on the study of Arik and Arik (2018), instructors were not the reasons for having difficulty in reading comprehension. There should be a developmental approach to allocate resources to more pedagogical materials.

However, for the tests in writing and speaking, the participants fall under the advanced proficiency level making them “Proficient English Users.” Students who participated felt more at ease of writing and speaking about their opinions and personal experiences than to answer objectively.

There is no significant relationship among age, gender, and English proficiency as attested by the chi-square test result with values .27 and .42, which is > 0.05 significance level. Nevertheless, there is a significant relationship between the degree program and English proficiency level with a chi-square test result of $.00 < 0.05$ significance level.

With the aforementioned results, researchers reflected on the pedagogical implications of this study:

1. The importance of selection of assessment tools or language proficiency instrument. In assessing the language proficiency level of the students, it is equally important to choose valid and reliable tests which are appropriate to their year level. However, providing external tests also provides an idea on the macro skills which educators may rigorously improve to meet the demands of globalization.

2. The importance of all macro skills in communication. While it is the goal of language courses to continuously improve the communication skills of students, other disciplines also play a part to seriously integrate activities which could contribute to the development of

lifelong skills. Other educators who are not teaching language courses must be empowered to make the macro skills of the students an asset in any other output.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are offered based on the findings and conclusions of the study.

Cavite State University Imus Campus should provide English proficiency tests every semester to their students to trace their progress.

The Department of Languages and Mass Communication should provide remediation to all students to improve the results for the Listening examination. There should be a continuous exposure of students to American accent, British accent, and International English.

Vocabulary and comprehension are the two common considerations to increase the results for Reading examination. Faculty members not just from the Languages Department should provide more reading power tasks with topics about any discipline from newspapers, journals, editorials, speeches, position papers, and other written texts. Reading tasks should allow students to stimulate their critical thinking skills.

All macro skills, more especially, listening and reading, must continuously be integrated across all courses or subjects as part of the learning tasks of the students.

The University must have a tie-up with testing centers providing Test on English as Second Language (TESL), Test on English as Foreign Language (TOEFL), International English Language Testing System (IELTS) by the terms stipulated in a Memorandum of Agreement. This kind of move would allow state university students easy access to such testing centers and a competitive edge when applying for work in other countries.

The Campus may devise a university-made English Proficiency Test, which is valid and reliable. Lastly, to continuously improve and develop the English proficiency of students, interventions, remediation, tutorials, and an enhanced language program must be created.

References

- Adnan, N., Norman, H., and Nordin, N. (2020). Instructor-generated hand-drawn 2D animations for ESL vocabulary learning in secondary education. *The Asian ESP Journal* Volume 16, Issue 1.2. p. 67- 81.
- Arik, B, and Arik, E. (2018). English-medium instruction in Turkish higher education: The current state of English in psychology departments. *The Journal of English as an International Language*. Volume 13, Issue 1. P. 20- 36.
- Chaipapae, P. (2019). Insights into the effects of accents on English listening comprehension. *Asian EFL Journal*. Volume 23, Issue 4.1 p 30- 52.
- Council of Europe (2001). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Cambridge University Press. Retrieved from <https://rm.coe.int/1680459f97>
- Ediger, M. (2011). Oral communication across the curriculum. *Journal of Instructional*. Volume 38. Retrieved from <https://eric.ed.gov/?q=ediger&id=EJ966928>
- Education First (2017). *English proficiency index*. Lund, Sweden. Retrieved from www.ef.com/epi/
- Executive Order no. 210. (2003). *Establishing the policy to strengthen the use of the English language as a medium of instruction in the educational system*. Malacanang. Retrieved from www.officialgazette.gov.ph
- Gonzales, A. (2009). A favorable climate and soil: A transplanted language and literature. In M. L. Bautista and K. Bolton, *Philippine English linguistic and literary perspectives* (pp. 13- 27). Hong Kong University Press. Anvil Publishing. Pasig City, Philippines.

- Hadley, A. (1993). *Teaching language in context*. Third Edition. Cengage Learning, Inc.
- Hernandez, B. (2015) English proficiency as a competitive edge. *Philippine Daily Inquirer*. Retrieved from <http://opinion.inquirer.net>
- Malana, M. (2019). Language background and English proficiency levels of the Ibanag, Ilocano, and Itawes. *Asian EFL Journal*. Volume 23, Issue 3.4 p. 98- 108.
- Ok, L. (2003). The relationship of school year, sex, and proficiency on the use of learning strategies in learning English of Korean junior high school students. *Asian EFL Journal*.
- The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development's (OECD) Programme (2015) for International Student Assessment (PISA). Reading Competency: An International Perspective. Retrieved from: <https://www.humanitiesindicators.org/content/indicator/doc.aspx?i=174>
- University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (2015). Cambridge Practice Test: Cambridge English Level 3 Certificate in ESOL International. Retrieved from <https://www.cambridgeenglish.org/exams-and-tests>

Causes of Problems in Learning English as a Second Language as Perceived by Higher Education Students

Paul Fairclough*

International College, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen 40002, Thailand

Keow Ngang Tang**

Institute for Research and Development in Teaching Profession for ASEAN, Khon Kaen University, Khon Kaen 40002, Thailand

Abstract

English as a second language (ESL) becomes attached and obligatory in Thailand's Higher Education system. English courses in Thailand Higher Education Institutions particularly to students who are studying on international programmes is significantly important as it is a measurement tool to the intellectual transformation and its initial impact on student's academic achievement and employability in the future. Physical, intellectual, and emotional involvement is needed to learn a second language, to successfully send and interpret linguistic messages. This research is designed to analyse the leading causes of the problems in learning ESL in a public university, Khon Kaen province, Thailand. Specifically, this research was aimed to investigate the leading causes of the problems in learning ESL; to examine whether there was any significant difference in the causes of problems faced by the higher education students on the basis of different attribute variables such as nationality, programme, faculties, the academic year of their study toward their learning habits, learning environment, learning attitude, and lecturer's competence using Second Language Acquisition Model. The methodology employed was a survey method. The research instrument so-called as SeWi's Scale on Causes of Problems in Learning ESL, consists of 62 items, adapted from William Dharma and Selvi (2011). A total of 528 higher education students are randomly selected from the six undergraduate programmes of an international college (Global Business, International Marketing, International Entrepreneurship, Communication Arts, International Affairs, and Tourism Management) and other faculties (Pharmaceutical Sciences, Engineering, Education, and Economics) which are offering international programmes. The collected data will be treated using a mean score, percentage, one-way ANOVA, Pearson correlation, and multiple regression Enter method. The descriptive results showed that 63.6 percent of the samples are taught by foreign lecturers and 36.4 percent of them are taught by Thai lecturers. Most samples are Thai nationality 511 (96.8%). The inferential results using one-way ANOVA reported that there are statistically significant differences between group means of the learning environment as determined by samples who studied different English language courses ($F = 9.395, p = .000$).

*paul@kku.ac.th

**tangng@kku.ac.th

Besides, results also indicated that students from the different programmes are significantly facing the causes of problems, differences in their learning attitude ($F = 5.391$; $p = .005$), and their learning environment ($F = 4.540$; $p = .011$). Nevertheless, results also showed that students from different faculties and academic year of their study are significantly different, not only in their learning attitude ($F = 2.880$, $p = .001$; $F = 4.401$, $p = .002$), and learning environment ($F = 3.987$, $p = .000$; $F = 4.206$; $p = .002$) but also their perceptions towards lecturer's competence ($F = 3.026$, $p = .000$; $F = 2.780$, $p = .026$). Furthermore, intercorrelation analysis showed that the four causes of problems faced by samples are found intercorrelated with the r -value ranging from 0.198 to 0.579. This implies that the causes of problems in learning ESL were significantly related at a significant level of 0.01. Finally, the significant predictors were learning habits, learning attitude, lecturer's competence, and English language courses that samples attended. All four significant predictors were successfully contributing 44.0 percent of the variance towards their learning environment as shown in the multiple regression analysis. The results contribute significantly to the knowledge of proposing the causes of problems in learning ESL of higher education students in Thailand.

Keywords: Learning attitude; learning environment; learning habits; lecturer's competence

Acknowledgment

This research has been supported by the Khon Kaen University International College Research Grant. Grant number: No 09 F 20.

Introduction

Language is a very vital means of communication and English is being treated as a world language because of its vast presence all over the world (Yudha Pratama & Fitriani, 2020). Yudha Pratama and Fitriani emphasized that the aspect of language learning in higher education institutions is closely related to the use of English For Specific Purposes (ESP) approach. Thailand is one of the developing countries where Thai people learned English as a Foreign Language (EFL) to communicate and negotiate in international commerce, trading, and even learning in international higher education programmes (Wichanpricha, 2020). However, Thailand has encountered diverse problems in teaching and learning English over the past several decades (Noom-Ura, 2013). Besides, higher education students in Thailand are found to have lower English proficiency, and Thailand was ranked 55 out of 60 countries worldwide in EF English Proficiency Index 2017 (Luanganggoon, 2020). Nevertheless, Yunus, Mohamad, and Waelateh (2016) found that Thai first-year undergraduate students only reach the lower mean of receptive English vocabulary size at about 2,000-word families which were relatively under the standard of word families at 8,000, which mostly appear in general texts (Laufer & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, 2010).

As globalization makes advancement, call for increased English proficiency ability as an international language is a necessity. Although English is a key subject starting in elementary basic education of Thailand, Thai people seldom have the opportunity to use the English language in their daily conversation and most of them are still not reaching sufficient proficiency including the higher education students (Tsuboya-Newell, 2017). Generally, students' poor achievement is blamed on the way the English language is taught in educational institutions. Phantharaphong, Sudathip, and Tang (2019) found that there is too much emphasis on grammar with very little time devoted to actual conversation practice while teachers are teaching ESL students. Besides, they also found that English language teachers are mainly

emphasizing the silent skills of reading and writing. Listening is rather passive as opposed to being an active part of the conversation. The focus is on accuracy and avoiding grammatical mistakes. The English language is in particular a key success to higher education students because it can sharpen their thoughts, guide, and control their entire activity (William Dharma & Selvi, 2011).

The Thai culture or character is another common cause for the poor development of the English language. This is because the Thai cultural norms are that Thai people are not willing to speak up in front of others in the case, there is a disruption, and they are also afraid of making mistakes and feel that they must speak perfect English. Therefore, they impose silence on themselves while they are learning the English language. There are so many factors that affect the process of learning English as a second language, including attitude, self-confidence, motivation, duration of exposure to the language, classroom conditions, environment, family background, and availability of competent teachers (Verghese, 2009).

Singaravelu (2001) found that there is a significant relationship between the problems faced by students in pronunciation, learning grammar, knowledge of sentence pattern, the habit of hearing news, the rectification of homework, memorization without understanding, remedial teaching, and different variables regarding gender, locality, and type of management. Furthermore, Jalaluddin, Awal, and Bakar (2009) highlighted those structural differences between English and Thai have also been identified as another problem faced by higher education students in learning the English language. The environment that is not conducive to English language learning further adds to the problem.

Tang (2020) pointed out the challenges of teaching English as a medium of instruction and its impacts on the institutional setting of an international college in Thailand. The escalating currency of ESP is an index of its growing popularity in Thailand where its predominance creates several pedagogical issues and problems for the lecturers and students who enrol in international programmes delivered via English as a medium of instruction. Tang interviewed 12 lecturers using a purposive sampling technique and analysed data using thematic analysis. Her results showed that there are four challenges regarding implementation of ESP in Thailand's higher education institutions, namely linguistic, cultural, structural, and identity-related (institutional) challenges which underline four important aspects of EMI implementation, namely, the importance for language improvement, subject matter learning, career prospects, and internationalization strategy. Tang implied her results can yield a double dividend, which will bring about a beneficial internationalization and the promise of improved ranking with it for raising Thailand higher education institutions' local and global position. Such recognition should help alleviate a deficit modelling of ESP that is characteristic of native speaker bias by assuaging the negatives of ESP with its positives.

In the Thai higher education context, English has been used as a medium of instruction for international programmes. Causes of problems in learning English is an essential area for this research as it would help the higher education students identify the problems which will hinder their learning in other core courses and make them learn English with ease and comfort. As a result, researchers conducted the research to analyse the various reasons for the problems faced by second language learners.

Conceptual and Theoretical Framework

Second Language Acquisition Model (SLA) which was created by Rod Ellis (1994) to build the framework for investigating higher education students' choice or use of language learning strategies (Izawati @ Siti Zawiyah, 2008) was employed by researchers as their conceptual framework. This model identifies three sets of dimensions that explain the process of second

language learning, namely individual learner differences, learner strategies, and outcome. The first set deals with individual learner differences that come in seven different categories, namely age, aptitude, motivation, learning styles, beliefs, affective states, and personality. While higher education students are learning the second language, these diverse individuals operate in a different situational and social environment which affects the strategies that they choose. The choice of strategies is the second set of the dimensions by looking at cognitive, metacognitive, affective, memory, compensation, and social. This then goes to the third set which is the outcome. This deals with the level of achievement in attaining the second language. It has a two-way relationship with the earlier set. In other words, the result of acquiring the second language depends on the strategies used (Mat Saad, Mohd Sidek, Baharun, Idrus & Md Yunus, 2016).

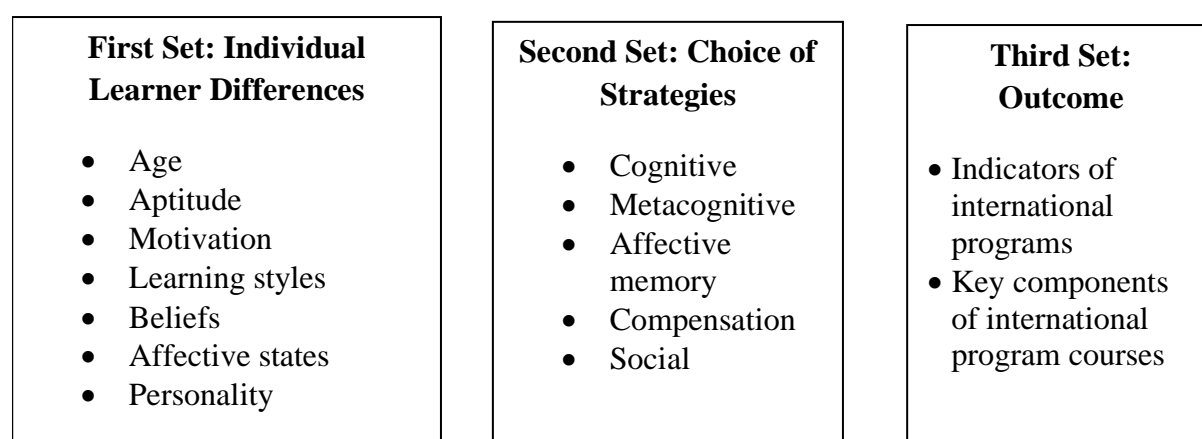


Figure 1: Second Language Acquisition Model adapted from Mat Saad et al. (2016)

There are two theoretical underpinnings of the research framework above, namely the Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) and Sociocultural Theory (SCT). The characteristics of ELT are the propositions derived from these earlier theorists, namely John Dewey, Kurt Lewin, and Jean Piaget (Kolb, 1984). The main tenet from ELT is parallel to this research as learning involves transactions between the students and the environment (Kolb & Kolb, 2005). This is further supported by Beard and Wilson's (2007) handbook on ELT that indicates learning a language is a 'sense-making process of active engagement between the inner world of the student and the outer world of the environment' (p.2). Kolb and Kolb (2005) further strengthen this concept by discussing learning space theory that emphasizes the setting that the student is in; for instance, an immediate setting which is termed as microsystem involving the course and the classroom. Besides the environment, it also takes into account the people around the student like in a mesosystem that includes family members. In other words, the concept of environment in ELT also comprises of the people around the student who are always using their mother tongue in their interactions.

SCT was proposed by Lev Vygotsky including six germane tenets, namely mediated mind, genetic domains, unit of analysis, Activity Theory, internalization and inner speech, and Zone of Proximal Development. However, this research only embraces characteristics from Activity Theory and Zone of Proximal Development. This is in line with the concept of mediation where the mediator can be a tool or a person (Mamour, 2008). Zone of Proximal Development is defined as a distance between the actual developmental level and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in

collaboration with more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978). In other words, the Zone of Proximal Development emphasizes the role of other people such as lecturers and friends in enhancing the learning process.

Research Objectives

The general objective of this research is to empirically investigate the leading cause of problems in learning English as a second language (ESL). The specific objectives cover the identification of the leading causes of problems in learning ESL, the significant differences in the leading causes of problems between different group attributes, intercorrelations between the four causes of problems, and the significant predictors toward the learning environment as the cause of problems in learning ESL. The factors that affect the process of learning ESL are hypothesized as attitude, self-confidence, motivation, duration of exposure to the language, classroom conditions, environment, family background, and availability of competent lecturers.

This research embarks on the following specific research objectives:

1. To identify higher education students' perceptions of the leading causes of problems while they were learning ESL.
2. To examine whether there were any significant differences in the causes of problems faced by the higher education students on the basis of different attribute variables such as nationality, programme, faculties, the academic year of their study, and English language courses that they attended towards their learning habits, learning environment, learning attitude, and lecturer's competence using Second Language Acquisition Model.
3. To examine the intercorrelation between the four causes of problems faced by higher education students.
4. To examine the significant predictors towards higher education students' perceptions of the learning environment as the cause of problems while learning ESL.

Method of Study

The researchers utilized a survey research design using a questionnaire to accumulate quantitative data. The questionnaire was used as a research instrument to investigate various causes for the problems in learning ESL. The target group was all higher education students who were studying on the undergraduate international programmes at the International College, Faculty of Pharmaceutical Science, Faculty of Engineering, Faculty of Education, and Faculty of Economic at a public university, located in Khon Kaen province, Thailand. The multistage sampling technique followed by the stratified random sampling technique was administered to select samples according to class size. The final samples were selected proportionally from the different stratum. The required sample size is 528 higher education students according to Krejcie and Morgan's Table at a 95 percent confidence level. The sample size of each stratum in stratified random sampling is proportionate to the population size of the stratum when viewed against the entire population. This means that each stratum has the same sampling fraction. In total, the 528 samples consisted of 268 (50.8%) students from the International College, 161 (30.4%) students from the Faculty of Engineering, 59 (11.2%) students from the

Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences, 30 (5.7%) students from the Faculty of Education, and 10 (1.9%) students from the Faculty of Economics. Table 1 below shows the distribution of samples.

Table 1
Distribution of the samples

Faculties	Programmes	Frequency	Percent
International College	International Affairs	62	11.7
	Tourism Management	59	11.2
	International Marketing	46	8.7
	Global Business	45	8.5
	Communication Arts	37	7.0
	International Entrepreneurship	19	3.6
Faculty of Engineering	Digital Media Engineering	50	9.5
	Logistics Engineering	38	7.2
	Telecommunications Engineering	39	7.4
	Chemical Engineering	34	6.4
Faculty of Pharmaceutical Sciences	Pharmaceutical Sciences	59	11.2
Faculty of Education	TESOL	30	5.7
Faculty of Economics	Economics	10	1.9
Total		528	100

Survey questions in the form of a questionnaire were distributed to the 528 students who are studying English for Specific Academic Purposes by Cambridge University through online survey software. The original questionnaire is the so-called SeWi's Scale on Causes of Problems in Learning ESL adapted from William Dharma and Selvi (2011) to collect information on their perceptions. This method benefits this research in terms of obtaining data more efficiently as time, energy, and costs are minimised (Wyse, 2012), and it provided an excellent means of measuring attitudes and orientations in a large population which can, therefore, be generalised to a larger population (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2012).

The survey instrument was administered in the English language to ensure that the respondents could understand all the 68 items. Section A of the instrument consists of six items, was intended to gather information regarding demographic factors of the respondents which included information pertaining to their background such as their nationality, lecturer's ethnicity, study programme, attached faculties, the academic year of their study, and their attended English language courses. Section B was specifically adapted from SeWi's Scale by the researchers to gauge the frequency of higher education students' perceptions in terms of their causes of problems while they were learning ESL. This section is comprised of 62 items. There were four causes of problems in learning ESL: Habit of learning the English language (2 items), Learning environment (18 items), Learning attitude (19 items), and Lecturer's competence (23 items), giving a total of 62 items. To measure the samples' responses, a four-point Likert scale was used, ranging from never, rarely, sometimes to always.

Pilot testing of the instrument was conducted on five experts and 30 undergraduate students who were studying in an international programme of a public university located in Bangkok, Thailand. A panel of five experts was required to give comments and feedback on the validity of the instrument. On the other hand, the 30 undergraduate students were required to respond to the instrument so that researchers could check on the reliability of the instrument

using Cronbach alpha value identification. It could be concluded that the instrument was reliable and good to use as the Cronbach alpha value was 0.94. Besides researchers made the necessary revision according to the feedback from the five experts. In addition to the experts' advice, confirmatory factor analysis was used to examine the construct validity of the instrument. The items with validity indices of 0.20 and above were selected for the final draft.

Descriptive statistics including means score, standard deviation, and percentage while inferential statistics, namely one-way ANOVA, Pearson's correlation coefficients, and multiple regression Enter method were employed to analyse the collected data. The responded questionnaires were collected and scored with the help of a scoring key. By using the item whole analysis, the total scores obtained by each sample would be correlated with the total score for each item. The intercorrelations among the four leading causes of problems in learning ESL were calculated using the Pearson product-moment correlation formula. Finally, the researchers examined the predictors of the learning environment as a cause of problems using the multiple regression Enter method. In this research, the level of significance is taken as $p \leq .05$.

Results

Researchers deployed the online surveys to 528 samples parallel to the proposed sample through emails on the 25th of September 2020. Although the online surveys were accessible to samples, they were not responding immediately. After several reminders had been sent, all 528 distributed online questionnaires were successfully collected by the 20th of November 2020, giving a response rate of 100 percent. The results are presented according to the research objectives, which have been indicated previously. The initial results were the descriptive results of attributes of the samples and four variables of perceptions on the leading causes of problems in learning ESL. This is followed by examining the gap between the different groups towards their perceptions on leading causes of problems in learning ESL using the Second Language Acquisition Model. Then the intercorrelations between the four variables were analysed. Finally, the effects of samples' attribute variables and leading causes of problems in learning ESL on their learning environment were examined using Enter multiple regression.

Descriptive Results of Attributes of the Samples

Of the 528 samples who were responding to an email invitation to participate in this research, 511 (96.8%) were local Thai, 10 (1.9%) from the Republic of China, four (0.8%) were mixed Thai with other ethnicities, and three (0.6%) samples, each from the three respective countries, namely the Philippines, France, and Cambodia. English is not only an ESL but also a foreign language to all the 528 samples. However, 212 (40.2%) of them were taught by foreign lecturers so-called native speakers of English, 192 (36.4%) samples were taught by local Thai lecturers, and 124 (23.5%) samples were taught by a lecturer who is Thai but has American citizenship.

The majority of the samples are first-year students, a total of 446 (84.5%). This is followed by 57 (10.8%) of them are second-year students and 18 (3.4%) of them are final-year students. The smallest group is the third-year students, which comprises of only seven of them. All samples were taking one of the following English language courses offered by the International College, namely Creative Reading and Writing (CRW), English for Communication in Multicultural Societies (ECMS), English for Specific Academic Purposes (ESAP), Public Speaking (PS), and University Study Skills in English (USSE). Table 2 gives an overview of the general profile of all samples.

Table 2

The general profile of the samples

General information	Frequency	Percent
<i>Their Nationality</i>		
Thai	511	96.8
Chinese	10	1.9
Mixed Thai with other ethnicities	4	0.7
Filipino	1	0.2
French	1	0.2
Cambodian	1	0.2
<i>Their Lecturers</i>		
Foreigner	212	40.2
Thai	192	36.4
Thai with US citizenship	124	23.4
<i>Their Academic Year</i>		
First-year	446	84.5
Second-year	57	10.8
Third-year	7	1.3
Final year	18	3.4
<i>English Language Courses</i>		
Creative Reading & Writing	315	59.7
English for Communication in Multicultural Societies	72	13.6
English for Specific Academic Purposes	96	18.2
Public Speaking	39	7.4
University Study Skills in English	6	1.1

Descriptive Results of Causes of Problems in Learning ESL

The descriptive results of four variables of perceptions on the leading causes of problems in learning ESL have identified their levels based on mean score. Table 3 shows the interpretation of the levels of variables as proposed by Sauro (2011).

Table 3

Interpretation of variable level based on the mean score

Mean Score Range	Interpretation
4.50 – 5.00	Highest
3.50 – 4.49	High
2.50 – 3.49	Medium
1.50 – 2.49	Low
1.00 – 1.49	Lowest

Table 4 shows the mean score and standard deviations of four variables of the samples' perceptions on the leading causes of problems while they were learning ESL. The mean score for the four leading causes of problems ranged from 2.60 to 3.33. This implies that the four leading causes of problems were at a medium level according to Sauro's (2011) interpretation scale as elucidated in Table 3. The first order found that the highest frequency level was students' perceptions toward the lecturer's competence ($\bar{x} = 3.33$, $SD = 0.46$). The second order was their learning environment ($\bar{x} = 2.79$, $SD = 0.37$). This is followed by their learning habits ($\bar{x} = 2.67$, $SD = 0.62$). The cause of problems with the lowest level was their learning attitude ($\bar{x} = 2.60$, $SD = 0.38$).

Table 4

Leading causes of problems in learning ESL

Leading Causes of Problems	Mean Score	Standard Deviation	Level
Lecturer's competence	3.33	0.46	Medium
Learning environment	2.79	0.37	Medium
Learning habits	2.67	0.62	Medium
Learning attitude	2.60	0.38	Medium

One-way ANOVA Results of Causes of Problems in Learning ESL

Before the researchers started to analyse data using one-way ANOVA, the researchers must confirm the population means are all equal, the researchers then determined the significance level of 0.05 indicating a 5% risk of concluding that a difference exists when there is no actual difference for the analysis. Results reported that there were statistically significant differences between group means of the learning environment as determined by samples who studied in different English language courses ($F = 9.395$, $p = .000$) as shown in Table 5.

Table 5

One-way ANOVA results of learning environment between samples with different English language courses

Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Learning environment / English language course					
Between groups	31.716	42	.755	9.395	.000
Within groups	38.983	485	.080		
Total	70.699	527			

Moreover, one-way ANOVA analysis indicated that samples from the different programmes are significantly facing the causes of problems differences in their learning attitude ($F = 5.391$; $p = .005$) and their learning environment ($F = 4.540$; $p = .011$). However, samples from different programmes are not significantly different between their group means in their learning habits and their perceptions of the lecturer's competence because the significance values are 0.890 and 0.707 which are above 0.05. This implies that samples from different programmes are statistically different in their learning environment and learning attitude, but they are not different in their learning habits and their perceptions of lecturer's competence as the causes of problems while they are learning ESL as elucidated in Table 6.

Table 6

One-way ANOVA results of leading causes of problems between samples in different programmes

Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Learning habits					
Between groups	.090	2	.045	.117	.890
Within groups	201.380	525	.384		
Total	201.470	527			
Learning environment					
Between groups	1.202	2	.601	4.540	.011

Within groups	69.497	525	.132		
Total	70.699	527			
Learning attitude					
Between groups	1.561	2	.781	5.391	.005
Within groups	76.017	525	.145		
Total	77.578	527			
Lecturer's competence					
Between groups	.148	2	.074	.346	.707
Within groups	112.062	525	.213		
Total	112.209	527			

Furthermore, Table 7 shows the output of the one-way ANOVA analysis and the researchers found that samples from different faculties are significantly different in the group means to face the leading causes of problems, namely learning environment ($F = 3.987$; $p = 0.000$), learning attitude ($F = 2.880$; $p = 0.001$), and their perceptions towards their lecturer's competence ($F = 3.026$; $p = 0.000$) except their learning habits ($F = 1.656$; $p = 0.073$).

Table 7

One-way ANOVA results of leading causes of problems between samples in different faculties

Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Learning habits					
Between groups	7.484	12	.624	1.656	.073
Within groups	193.986	515	.377		
Total	201.470	527			
Learning environment					
Between groups	6.010	12	.501	3.987	.000
Within groups	64.690	515	.126		
Total	70.699	527			
Learning attitude					
Between groups	4.879	12	.407	2.880	.001
Within groups	72.700	515	.141		
Total	77.578	527			
Lecturer's competence					
Between groups	7.390	2	.616	.346	.000
Within groups	104.819	515	.204		
Total	112.209	527			

Nevertheless, results also showed that samples from the different academic years of their study have significant differences, not only in the learning attitude ($F = 4.206$, $p=.002$), and learning environment ($F = 4.401$; $p=.002$) but also their perceptions towards lecturer's competence ($F = 2.780$, $p=.026$). Table 8 shows the one-way ANOVA results of the causes of problems in learning ESL in terms of the academic year of their study. However, there are no significant differences in their learning habits ($F = 2.030$; $p=.0089$) regardless of they are juniors or seniors in their study.

Table 8

One-way ANOVA results of leading causes of problems between samples in the academic year of their study

Variables	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	p
Learning habits					
Between groups	3.081	4	.770	2.030	.089
Within groups	198.389	523	.379		
Total	201.470	527			
Learning environment					
Between groups	2.204	4	.551	4.206	.002
Within groups	68.495	523	.131		
Total	70.699	527			
Learning attitude					
Between groups	2.526	4	.632	4.401	.002
Within groups	75.052	523	.144		
Total	77.578	527			
Lecturer's competence					
Between groups	2.336	4	.584	2.780	.026
Within groups	109.873	523	.210		
Total	112.209	527			

Intercorrelations between the Four Causes of Problems in Learning ESL

The intercorrelations results between the four causes of problems in learning ESL would determine their strengths of association according to de Vaus's (2002) interpretation of correlation coefficients as shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Designation strength of association based on the size of correlation coefficients

Strength of association	Negative	Positive
Low to moderate	-0.29 till -0.10	0.10 till 0.29
Moderate to substantial	-0.49 till -0.30	0.30 till 0.49
Substantial to very strong	-0.69 till -0.50	0.50 till 0.69
Very strong	-0.89 till -0.70	0.70 till 0.89
Near perfect	-0.99 till -0.90	0.90 till 0.99
Perfect	-1.00	1.00

Table 10 provides the coefficients of correlation of each subscale with each other subscale of causes of problems in learning ESL, showing the relationships between the pairs of subscales, and between the individual subscales. The subscale intercorrelations range from 0.198 to 0.579, which is composed of items from the other subscales. The Pearson's correlation coefficients between the four subscales of causes of problems in learning ESL showed a significant association ($p < .01$), with the strength of association being 'Low to moderate' to 'Substantial to very strong', and positive. In other words, the intercorrelation analysis showed that the four causes of problems faced by samples are found intercorrelated with the r-value ranging from 0.198 to 0.579. This implies that the causes of problems in learning ESL were significantly related at a significant level of 0.01.

As indicated in Table 9, the strength of intercorrelation results ranked in order from high to low as follows. The strongest strength was the Learning environment vs Learning attitude ($r = .579$; $p < .01$). The second strongest strength was the Learning environment vs Lecturer's competence ($r = .370$; $p < .01$). This is followed by the Learning environment vs Learning habits ($r = .357$; $p < .01$), Learning attitude vs Learning habits ($r = .258$; $p < .01$), and Learning attitude vs Lecturer's competence ($r = .219$; $p < .01$). The Lecturer's competence vs Learning habits had an interaction with the weakest association ($r = .198$; $p < .01$) but it still had a positive and significant correlation. This indicates that only the Learning environment was associated 'substantial to very strong' with an increase in learning attitude. Table 10 shows the details of the intercorrelation results.

Table 10

Intercorrelation results of four leading causes of problems

Variables	Learning Habits	Learning Environment	Learning Attitude	Lecturer's Competence
Learning Habits	1	.357**	.258**	.198**
Learning Environment	.357**	1	.579**	.370**
Learning Attitude	.258**	.579**	1	.219**
Lecturer's Competence	.198**	.370**	.219**	1

Significant Predictors of the Learning Environment as Leading Cause of Problems

The researchers used Enter regression analysis to identify the significant predictors for learning environment as a leading cause of problems. The learning environment was chosen because it was found to be the most essential leading cause of problems in learning ESL based on the initial results of one-way ANOVA and intercorrelations as presented above. In this analysis, the six attributes of samples and the other three leading causes of problems were created as predictive variables, while the learning environment as a cause of problems was treated as the dependent variable. The purpose of estimating this regression equation was to identify the predictive variables that have a significant impact on the learning environment as a cause of problems, that is either the attributes of samples or the other three leading causes of problems that constitute the predictors for the learning environment as a cause of problems while the higher education students were learning ESL.

The estimated regression equation was significant at .05 ($p < .05$), implying that from the nine predictive variables, students' learning habits, students' learning attitude, their perceptions towards lecturer's competence, and English language courses that they attended had an impact on their learning environment as a cause of problems: thereby qualifying these to be the predictors for the latter. In brief, these four variables had a linear association with the learning environment as a cause of problems in learning ESL. The R^2 (.440) indicates that the impact of the four significant predictors accounts for 44.0 percent of the variation in the dependent variable.

In this analysis, the size of the standardised coefficient (β) directly indicates the importance of these predictors relative to one another. In this context, the learning attitude ($\beta = .480$) was the most essential predictor, followed by their perceptions toward the lecturer's competence ($\beta = .223$), and their learning habits ($\beta = .182$). The predictor with the least impact

was the English language courses that they attended ($\beta = -.083$). All the other leading causes of problems and one attribute of samples were included in the regression model at $p < .05$ indicating that only four predictive variables were relevant factors of the learning environment as a cause of problems. It can be concluded that the other attributes of samples such as their nationality, foreign or local lecturers teaching them, their programmes, faculties, year of academic study, are not factors affecting their learning environment as a cause of problems while higher education students are learning ESL. Table 11 illustrates variables for which the coefficients are statistically significant as the results obtained from the Enter regression analysis.

Table 11

Regression analysis results of learning environment cause of problems in learning ESL

Learning environment	B	Std. Error	β	t	p	R ²
Constant	.891	.134	-	6.668	.000	.440
Learning habits	.108	.021	.182	5.224	.000	
Learning attitude	.459	.033	.480	13.764	.000	
Lecturer's competence	.177	.027	.223	6.500	.000	
English courses	-.029	.014	-.083	-2.087	.037	
Student's nationality	-.040	.032	-.041	-1.249	.212	
Lecturer's ethnicity	-.022	.019	-.047	-1.138	.256	
Programme	-.001	.005	-.009	-.150	.881	
Faculty	-.022	.018	-.070	-1.177	.240	
Academic year	.006	.020	.011	.321	.748	

Discussion and Conclusion

The results of the research stressed that environment is the leading cause for the problems in learning English as perceived by higher education students while comparing it with the other three dimensions, namely learning habits, learning attitude, and lecturer's competence. Besides, there is a significant difference in perceiving the environment as the cause of problems in learning ESL with regard to the English language courses that they attended. Moreover, there are significant differences in perceiving the environment, lecturer's competence, and attitude as the causes of problems in learning ESL regarding their programmes, faculties, and academic year of their study. However, there is no significant difference in their learning habits as the cause of problems in learning ESL in relation to any of their attributes. The research results provide indications to international programmes of all higher education institutions in Thailand with regard to how to increase English language proficiency as second language learners. Therefore, international programme courses in the future can be designed to have clear instructional goals in place for English language development along with support systems for lecturers and students throughout the entire educational experience and not just in pre-academic support programmes such as Academic English Preparation (AEP).

The SeWi's Scale on Causes of Problems in Learning ESL used in this research consists of four subscales, namely learning habits, learning environment, learning attitude, and lecturer's competence. Intercorrelation of subscales revealed generally 'low to moderate', 'moderate to substantial', and 'substantial to very strong' relationships among measures, indicating that there may be considerable variability in a higher education student's perception across the four leading causes of problems in learning ESL. Since the

intercorrelations range from 0.198 to 0.579 have significant clinical and research implications.

Finally, the results of this research revealed that higher education students' learning attitude, their perceptions of lecturer's competence, learning habits, and the English language courses that they attended were the four significant predictors of the learning environment as the cause of problems in learning ESL. This result has broken new ground suggesting teachers should focus on these four predictive variables if they plan to improve student's learning environment. Educational officers from the Ministry of Education may arrange guidelines and orientation programmes in English. Moreover, the Ministry of Higher Education should conduct in-service training to provide information on students' development in English at regular intervals.

In conclusion, the research results will add to the previous research investigating lecturers' perceptions of students' ability (Craig & Pepler, 2007), studies related to coping strategies for English language learners in higher education (Harrison & Shi, 2016), and research into English language improvement made during university study (Humphreys, Haugh, Fenton-Smith, Lobo, Michael, & Walkinshaw, 2012) as a contribution to experts' knowledge.

Pedagogical Implications

The results from the current research have pedagogical implications for the implementation of international programmes, particularly at Thailand Higher Education Institutions. This is because one of the reasons for implementing international programmes is to improve the higher education students' English proficiency in content-based professional expertise. Therefore, higher education students' perceptions toward the leading cause for the problems in learning ESL, namely learning environment should be considered by lecturers to improve their student's limited English proficiency ability. Based on these results, it seems that lecturers need a clear understanding of the significant predictors, namely learning attitude, their perceptions of lecturer's competence, learning habits, and the English language courses, and how those predictors should be put into practice. Besides, this particular issue is necessary to be clearly understood by the university authorities. This is because university authorities can provide clearer guidance that allows the commonality of understanding about the leading causes for the problems and their factors that affect higher education students in learning ESL.

References

- Beard, C., & Wilson, J. P. (2007). *Experiential learning: A best practice handbook for educators and trainers* (2nd ed.). New Delhi, India: Kogan Page.
- Craig, W., & Pepler, D. (2007). Understanding bullying: From research to practice. *Canadian Psychology*, 48(2), 86–93.
- de Vaus, D. (2002). *Surveys in social research* (5th ed.). London, United Kingdom: Routledge.
- Ellis, R. (1994). *The study of second language acquisition*. Oxford, United Kingdom: Oxford University Press.
- Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. W. (2012). *Educational research competencies for analysis and application* (10th ed.). Massachusetts, United States of America: Pearson.
- Harrison, J., & Shi, H. (2016). English language learners in higher education: An exploratory conversation. *Journal of International Studies*, 6(2), 415-430.
- Humphreys, P., Haugh, M., Fenton-Smith, B., Lobo, A., Michael, R., & Walkinshaw, I. (2012). Tracking international students' English proficiency over the first semester of

- undergraduate study. *IELTS Research Report Online*, no. 1. Retrieved January 12, 2021 from: (3) (PDF) IELTS Research Reports Online Series | Rowan Michael, Michael Haugh, and Pamela Humphreys - Academia.edu
- Izawati @ Siti Zawiyah, I. (2008). *English language strategies used by polytechnic students* (Unpublished master thesis), Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Malaysia.
- Jalaluddin, N. H., Awal, N. M., & Bakar, K. A. (2009). Linguistics and environment in English language learning: Towards the development of quality human capital. *European Journal of Social Sciences*, 9(4), 627-642.
- Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Learning styles and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 4(2), 193-212.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. New Jersey, United States of America: Prentice Hall.
- Laufer, B., & Ravenhorst-Kalovski, G. C. (2010). Lexical threshold revisited: Lexical text coverage, learners' vocabulary size, and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 22(1), 15-30.
- Luangangoon, N. (2020). Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Teaching Practices in Thailand Higher Education. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16(4), 233-258.
- Mamour, C. T. (2008). The relevance and implications of Vygotsky's sociocultural theory in the second language classroom. *ARECLS*, 5, 244-262.
- Mat Saad, N. S., Mohd Sidek, H@H., Baharun, H., Idrus, M. M., & Md Yunus, M. (2016). A conceptual framework to explore the English language learning experiences of international students in Malaysia. In *Proceedings of ADVED 2016 2nd International Conference on Advances in Education and Social Sciences*, 10-12 October 2016 (pp. 460-471). Istanbul, Turkey.
- Noom-Ura, S. (2013). English-teaching problems in Thailand and Thai teachers' professional development needs. *English Language Teaching*, 6(11), 139-147.
- Phantharakphong, P., Sudathip, P., & Tang, K. N. (2019). The relationship between reading skills and English proficiency of higher education students: Using online practice program. *Asian EFL Journal*, 23(3), 80-103.
- Sauro, J. (2011). *How to interpret survey responses: 5 techniques*. Retrieved January 7, 2021, from www.measuringu.com/
- Singaravelu, G. (2001). A study of the problems of students of higher secondary classes in learning English as a second language in Thiruvavur District. *Indian Educational Abstract*, 6(2), p. 22.
- Tang, K. N. (2020). Challenges and importance of teaching English as a medium of instruction in Thailand international college. *The Journal of English as an International Language*, 15(2), 97-118.
- Tsuboya-Newell, I. (October 29, 2017). Why do Japanese have trouble learning English? *The Japan Times*. Retrieved December 30, 2020, from: [Why do Japanese have trouble learning English? | The Japan Times](https://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2017/10/29/asia/why-do-japanese-have-trouble-learning-english/)
- Verghese, P. C. (2009). *Teaching English as a second language* (9th ed.). New Delhi, India: Sterling Publishers.
- Vygotsky, L. (1978). *Interaction between learning and development mind and society* (pp. 79-91). Cambridge, United States of America: Harvard University Press.
- Wichanpricha, T. (2020). Fostering collaborative activities in vocabulary learning: Thai EFL lower-proficiency undergraduate students. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16(5.2), 33-52.

- William Dharma, R. B., & Selvi, K. (2011). Causes of problems in learning English as a second language as perceived by higher secondary students. *Journal on English Language Teaching*, 1(4), 40-45.
- Wyse, S. E. (2012). 4 main benefits of survey research. Retrieved January 2, 2021, from www.snapsurveys.com/
- Yudha Pratama, M. G., & Fitriani, S. (2020). The perception of teacher and students on the use of content-based instruction in teaching speaking at P4M Mataram. *The Asian ESP Journal*, 16(4), 22-32.
- Yunus, K., Mohamad, M., & Waelateh, B. (2016). The breadth of receptive vocabulary knowledge among English major university students. *Journal of Nusantara Studies (JONUS)*, 1, 7-17. <https://doi.org/10.24200/jonus.vol1isspp7-1>

The Effect of Types of Blended Learning Strategies on EFL Students' Achievements

Asst. Prof. Elaf Riyadh Khalil (Ph.D)*

University of Baghdad - College of Education (Ibn-Rush) -English Department

Abstract

This work aims at finding out the impact of teaching types blended learning strategies on academic students' achievement. A review of related literature indicates that almost no study has ever attempted to focus specifically on the effect of the different kinds of blended learning strategies on EFL students' achievement in the educational research writing, and the present study attempts to fill this gap. The study focused on the students at the Master's degree in Educational Research Writing in the first semester of the academic year 2020/2021. The sample has selected from the college of Education Ibn-Rushd (18) students. Material has been designed for the Master candidates' participants of the study was divided into two groups: one an experimental group (9) and the other a control group (9). A teaching program has taught according to blended learning strategies and an achievement test was designed to confirm the study's validity and reliability. SPSS was used to analyze the data. The findings revealed that there were statistically significant differences between the experimental and the control groups, in favor of the experimental group, due to positive effects towards the using of blended learning strategies. The study recommends further research into the use of blended learning strategies in higher educational institutions.

Keywords: Teaching blended learning strategies, Blended Learning strategies, EFL, and achievement.

Introduction

Some EFL teachers face problems represented with the aid of how they can grant a higher and interactive academic environment and which techniques can lead them to their aim. Blended learning strategies represent educational techniques that convert the curriculum into interactional communication technology subjects and multimedia such as pictures and sounds to make the instructional manner more high-quality and valuable, and convert classrooms into digital classes and students center, what is critical is that the two educators and students get engaged with instructing and learning for quite a while. (Khalil,2019). Traditionally, teaching and learning of grammatical rules are the focus of language learning (Alzebaree, 2020).

Instructors can enlarge it evaluate via a platform (google classroom) that uses a digital whiteboard, PPT presentation, storing the information, simulation, and instantaneous evaluation. While the ordinary approach of "using the book", has a restricted impact on students. Using google classroom as an educational platform method is a necessary device due to the integration with face-to-face instructions and improvement of the computer systems and digital multimedia (Vaughan, 2007). Moreover, google classroom as an academic platform method offers an interactive environment.

**dr.elafriyadh@gmail.com*

**elaf.riyadh@ircoedu.uobaghdad.edu.iq*

The potential gaining information that students can analyze higher via integration and interplay with the face-to-face instructions and the computerized academic applications for the topic's textbooks, get their homework and activities online, engage with other students and take part in pair/group work in instructional discussions. A growing wide variety of colleges rely on e-learning programs to enhance the quality of student education. At the establishing of the pandemic Ministry of Higher Education launched a free e-learning platform. This platform offers free instructional multimedia in the structure of videos, a whiteboard, blank quiz, structure of google homework, task quiz in the google classroom.

Among these, the types of cognitive strategies used to be via the most and considerably more frequently than the different three sorts. Yoon and Jo (2014) determined that students utilized 4 kinds of mastering strategies: metacognitive (e.g., planning, self-evaluation/monitoring), cognitive (e.g., making use of materials, association, grouping, and translation), affective (e.g., decreasing nervousness and self-encouragement), and social (e.g., questioning for clarification).

The predominant function of the blended learning strategy is making the entire operation rely on students' interplay by way of google classroom and assist them to be extra innovative and positive, and the teacher's function is to manipulate the workflow of the computerized topics (Osguthrape and Graham, 2003). The ordinary academic device considers an instructor as the important participant and the total gaining knowledge of operation relies totally on the teacher. But, in blended learning strategies, instructors characterize one of the equipment supplied with the aid of the instructional corporation.

Thus, the integration of ordinary learning and e-learning is an urgent requirement to acquire returns of the gaining knowledge of method in blended learning. Also, the English lessons through the usage of platform programs to assist materials such as power-point, this approach are helpless because the students had been simply listening and watching. Most of the college outcomes point out that the achievement assessments supply logical results.

In general, the significant blended learning strategy targets learners' multi-educational techniques to reap the ultimate intention behind training (Tsoi, 2009). The specialty of the blended learning strategy is represented with the aid of its capability to use the subtle methods from both, digital and ordinary methods, thus, the output will be a model of the high quality from every method. As a result of the use of blended learning strategy in the methods and strategies of education, which furnished the capacity to assist grant English material to college students in an easy, speedy and clear, originated in a number varieties of e-learning, to go well with the desires of beginners and the nature of the tools reachable to join to consisting of training relies upon on the use of digital media instructions in the classroom, and verbal exchange between teachers and learners, and acquire information and the interplay between the scholar and the instructor and the student and the sources of information accessible in the colleges.

To fill the gap of the theoretical background, so the current work is proposed to entire the works of the preceding studies. This learns about objectives to pick out the effect on of educating kinds of the use of blended learning approach in students' achievement. The importance of this finds out about due to the following:

1. This study helps to discover the impact of instructing blended mastering strategies for students' fulfillment alternative for ordinary strategies frequent in teaching.
2. The outcomes of the study can be used in the improvement of education applications in the improvement of blended learning methods, techniques, and strategies pursued with the aid of the teachers, using blended mastering techniques in the educational system which displays on growing the effectiveness of training quality.

This study has the following most important question that leads to identifying the have impact of instructing English thesis writing via blended learning techniques in achievement: What is the effect of using blended learning strategies on students' achievement?

The study aims to find out the effect of teaching blended learning strategy on students' achievement.

Blended Learning

The term mixed learning is utilized to portray the combination of web-based coaching or tutoring, independent learning, and 'ordinary', disconnected, face-to-face methods. It can successfully blend the advantages of e-Learning activity and arrangement face-to-face with an educator in a class the utilization of the combos of innovation-based materials and ordinary print materials. Good examples can be taken from English Language Teaching (ELT) on account that foreign language education especially ELT has constantly been at the forefront of e-learning and blended learning as well, which is proved by way of the huge online language instructing applications available in the world huge web, e.g., guides provided by the British Council or the BBC World Service. Consequently, a mixture of face-to-face instructing and interactive (frequently electronic) exercise activity may want to result in a more motivated, efficient, and positive teaching-learning manner.

According to Kavitha and Jaisingh (2018) Blended learning is one of the varieties of e-learning in which e-learning is built-in into usual classroom learning, the use of a computer, intranet, or platform of the classroom, the place the instructor meets the student face-to-face and interplay between students and instructors is constructed into the direction design. It arose as a herbal improvement of programmed and digital learning. From the preceding definitions of blended learning, the researcher identified blended learning as new gaining knowledge of method that blends usual studying in its several types and e-learning in its a variety of models, to make bigger student motivation and enhance their learning achievement.

Additionally, the traits of blended learning are summarized as follows (Driscoll, 2002; Graham, 2006; Whitelock and Jelfs, 2003):

1. The blended learning method combines one-of-a-kind sorts of internet-based technological know-how to acquire academic goals.
2. The blended learning strategy is a hybrid of normal techniques of training with technological know-how and the internet.
3. Blended learning integrates unique instructing strategies primarily based on a couple of theories such as Constructivism and Behavioral theory.
4. Blended learning is a training software that consists of in-person classroom time as well as a character learning about online thru e-learning utilized and the internet.

Table 1
Blended Learning Models based on NIIT categories given by Valiathan

<i>Category</i>	<i>Basic Features:</i>	<i>Event-based activities:</i>
Skill-driven learning	To combine self-paced learning with instructor or facilitator support to develop specific knowledge and skills	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Group-learning and self-paced learning tasks with tightly scheduled and strict supervision - Synchronous or asynchronous learning labs - Long-term project work
Attitude-driven learning	To mix various events and delivery media to develop specific behaviors (new attitudes)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Role-play simulations - Synchronous online meetings (peer-to-peer interactions) - Offline group project work (risk-free environment)
Competency-driven learning	To blend performance support tools with knowledge management resources and mentoring to develop workplace competencies.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Interaction with experts in the profession - Availability of a knowledge repository (LCMS⁴/LMS)

In addition, Susan and Chris (2015) factor out that the most salient benefits of blended learning are: it is extra positive in its use of lecture room time, college students are greater active, college students will be greater creative, students are higher prepared, it is greater fascinating for students, and it presents the opportunity of presenting many instructional sources for students. Blended learning processes are ‘characterized by customization, integration, purpose, flexibility, and redundancy. The choice – one-size-fits-all – is no way to serve an international workforce’ Preitl, and et al (2006). The National Institute of Information Technology (NIIT) has put blended learning into three fundamental fashions as written in the paper with the aid of (Valiathan, 2002) as shown in the table (1).

Skill-Driven Model

The skill-driven model constructs on the interplay between the trainer and the students, In blended learning, the interplay with aiding digital capacities such as e-mail or chat boards or a face-to-face assembly in a class. This model focuses on the trainer taking part in a virtual part in the online education program. The self-paced learning technique is constantly motivated and tutorial to the students experience in easy instructions. The skill-driven model has proved to be a benefit and great work with students gaining knowledge of content material at the different levels.

Attitude-Driven Model

The context, as properly as the skill improves, requires face-to-face conferences or technology-based collaborative events. This strategy can be utilized to train students’ competencies like dialogue skills, discussion skills, or dealing with difficult interlocutors. Online dialogue forums, chat modules as properly as team tasks are suitable to be covered in the instruction plan.

Competency-Driven Model

To improve these skills students, want tacit expertise that can be ‘learned’ from professionals employing watching and interacting with specialists in the materials. As the identity of this strategy suggests the success of information relies upon how in a position the freshly recruited students are in rapid decision making. An information depository, a dialogue forum, online performing possibilities, and additionally online mentoring ought to enhance abilities.

Blended Learning Strategies

At the same time, there are some equipment and methods that get blended learning applications. In addition to these three blended learning techniques have been explained. Khalil (2021:146) says that cooperative education leads to the need for community-based tasks to build better learning and teaching atmosphere. In a class, interactive teaching strategies may work either together with individually training and combined tasks or individuals of all other techniques. The authors Preitl, et, al (2006) indicate that virtual classes provide instructions to college students as traditional classes despite the instructing system relying upon services. Virtual and Live/Non-Virtual learning's highest possible level of quality is mixed in blended learning. The basic kinds of such devices are virtual discussion, workshop, teaching instructional text, off-line and stay consulting, the transmission of assignments online, reflective knowledge, and instructing. A traditional educating method can also be coordinated into groups or individually, and it additionally consists of discussing, workshop, face-to-face lecturing, assignments, and evaluations. The following table(2) puts some of the virtual and non-virtual strategies in coordination into many phases of gaining instructional material.

Table 2
Blended Learning Strategies based on NIIT and Rossett- Douglass-Frazee categories

	<i>Virtual</i>	<i>Live/Non-virtual</i>
<i>Information transfer Instruction</i>	LMS Email Online bulletin boards	Phone Notice board Face-to-face meeting
<i>Demonstration/Self-study</i>	e-books online resource links web-based tutorials EPS Web-learning modules Knowledge databases	Library Books Printed material Workbooks Conventional classroom
<i>Emulation session</i>	Webinar	Face-to-face, traditional classroom Workshops,
<i>Discussion/queries</i>	Online chat forums Discussion forums Instant messenger Email Online communities	Workshops Group meetings
<i>Assessment</i>	Online self-assessment Web-based test	Print test
<i>Support/feedback</i>	Email LMS e-mentoring	Print report Personal tutorial

The sufficient mixture of the two particularly blended learning may want to create healthful stability between traditional and '21st century ICT improved way of lifelong learning. In addition to the training full time, learners have the chance to observe guides in the conventional classes and at the identical time make the most of the benefits of getting extra tutoring and mentoring via the platform of e-learning and the digital classroom.

Previous Studies of the Blended Learning

Different studies in the educational field that have direct or indirect relation to the present study, the following represent a summary for the researches:

In Maguire's study (2005), the primary factor is to look at the impact of the blended learning method on the student's success in mathematic. The find out about pattern represented through intermediate school in Toronto place in Canada, the place the find out about used to be carried out on 56 instructors who are the use of blended getting to know as a technique to educate mathematics. According to the results, the blended learning method helps students to perform and rate higher than the others.

Mofeed and Al-Sous (2010) aimed in their study to identify the impact of making use of blended learning strategy on the capacity of instructors in designing and producing instructional multimedia. This finding out about is a descriptive one. It primarily describes the elements of the education software and determines the percentages of blended between special models of learning. The subjects of the find out about consisted of (120) instructors and technological specialists. The outcomes reveal that the instructors had been capable to plan and produce instructional multimedia, which makes them greater assured in dealing with e-learning and create their mannequin of blended learning.

Research Methodology and procedures

3.1 Experimental Design

The basic experimental design adopted in the present investigation was Pre-test Post-test group Design. Two groups were taken for the experimental study namely the experimental group and the control group. The purpose of the present study was to find out the effect of blended learning strategy on Students' achievement in the English Department, as well as to collect the responses of students regarding the feasibility and practicability of the blended learning strategy. In the control group, the students were taught the topics via using direct teaching (Face – to – face teaching). The experimental group was taught the same material using blended learning. The sample was taught during the first semester of the academic year of 2020 /2021.

3.2 The Sample of the Study

The sample size comprised (18) majoring in MA Candidates from the English department serving two groups in the first semester of the 2020-2021 academic year. The participants were selected purposefully divided into experimental (9 students) and control (9 students) groups, which studied English Educational thesis writing via Blended Learning strategies and traditional methods, respectively. Experimental Group gets the treatment or using blended learning strategies. Control Group is taught in conventional way group and doesn't get any treatment.

The two groups are equalized according to the following variables: the academic level of the mother, the academic level of the father, students' age, and pre-test results. The two groups are equalized in all these variables.

3.3 Tools

The following tools developed and standardized by the researcher were used for collecting data:

3.3.1 Teaching Blended Learning Strategies for Educational thesis writing.

This Educational teaching program has been set up lessons to be followed a blended learning strategy adopted from (National Institute of Information Technology (NIIT) and Rossett-Douglis-Fraze categories) on some topics from MA Candidates, Educational thesis writing. These lectures are designed with multiple effects such as images, PPT presentations, video clips, diagrams effects, and text together which guide to attract students and clarify the concepts, meanings of the subject. With experimental group has used the following Blended Learning strategies: Information transfer Instruction, Demonstration /Self-study, Emulation session, Discussion/queries, assessment, and Support/feedback. Combinations of resources, media, technologies, and facilities were used to support and facilitate learning, based upon the learning context, nature of student needs, and discipline requirements.

Blended Learning Strategy developed in this study is a combination of Objectives (Cognitive, Affective & Psychomotor), Methods (Exploratory, Guided Discovery, Self-paced learning), and Media-Synchronous – (Instructor-led Classrooms, Field visits) and Asynchronous-(Surveys, Web/Computer-Based Learning). The strategy encourages task-based learning which includes specific tasks for the pupil to be completed within a specific time through consequent events which are executed through specific activities. Each lesson in the strategy is assessed both qualitatively and quantitatively. This has proven to be effective in enhancing the achievement of students. The elements of the blended learning strategies teaching instruction included the following components:

- *Information transfer Instruction /Live Events.*

Synchronous, instructor-led learning events in which all learners participate at the same time, such as in a face-to-face or live “virtual classroom”.

- *Demonstration /Self-study/ Self-paced Learning.*

Learning experiences that the learner completes individually, at his speed, and on his own time, such as interactive, internet-based, or CD-ROM learning. Self-paced learning helps to acquire knowledge and to support performance and practice skills.

- *Emulation session /Collaboration.*

Environments, in which learners communicate with others, for example, groups of learners working together to solve a problem, complete a task, or create a product. Learners have the opportunity to converse with peers, present and defend ideas, exchange diverse beliefs, question other conceptual frameworks, and are actively engaged.

- *Performance Support Materials.*

Reference materials that enhance learning retention and transfer, including Resource CDs, downloaded videos, and PDFs.

- *Assessment.*

A measure of learners' knowledge utilizing both qualitative and quantitative methods (Cook, 2001). Pre-assessments can come before live or self-paced events, to determine prior knowledge and post-assessments can occur following learning events, to measure learning transfer. Rubrics as an authentic assessment tool were used to measure students' work as a scoring guide that seeks to evaluate a student's performance based on the sum of a full range of criteria rather than a single numerical score.

3.3.2 Achievement test

To measure participants' learned knowledge of the English language, the researcher developed an achievement test consisting of five questions derived from the goals of the educational content of the lessons. The maximum possible score was 40 points, with difficulty transactions ranging from 0.30 to 0.85 and the discrimination power for the questions from 0.36 to 0.95.

The test has been prepared and it includes (5) questions, the maximum mark of the test (100), and the test time of 3 hours. The test was conducted after distribution to the pilot of the study to test the reliability of items (difficulty and discrimination power) and allocated suitable time with scoring. After completion of the instructional material of educational thesis writing directly and it was used to measure the level of the two groups. Achievement test consists of five Questions Q1: true-false question (10 items) out of (10) marks, Q2: multiple-choice test question (10 items) out of (10), Q3: completion test question (10 items) out of (10) marks, Q4: short answer question (5 questions) out of (20) marks and Q5: Two essay writing questions out of (50) mark.

- *Achievement Test Validity*: Face validity has been confirmed through comments of (5) doctorate and master's degree holders in curriculum and methods of teaching English language education. The content was adjusted according to their recommendations.
- *Achievement Test Reliability*: To ensure the reliability of the test, the researcher administered the amended version to a group of 10 students from literature MA Candidates who were not a part of the study sample but studied the same major educational thesis writing. The students took 3 hours to complete the test. After 14 days, the test was again administered to the same group of students, using the test-retest method of reliability. Reliability was calculated using the Alpha Cronbach Formula, and the percentage of reliability was (0.83). Thus, this test was shown to possess acceptable reliability and validity.

3.4 Procedure

Designing lecture outlines utilizing blended learning strategies in teaching Educational Thesis Writing as indicated by the experimental group. The instructive program and its exercises utilize blended learning strategies in educating. The researcher showed students how to manage the applicable mechanical strategies needed for blended learning. The achievement test was set up as indicated by the student's level, the necessary material, and the instructive goals, to direct examination and execution of the test experimental group lessons through blended learning and execution of the control group in the conventional strategy.

The investigation sample was divided into two groups: the experimental comprising of (9) learners, who were instructed through blended learning techniques, and the control group, comprising of (9) learners who were educated in the conventional strategy. The application of teaching for both the experimental and control group included a time of fourteen weeks, with an allotted season of two hours each week.

After the instructional program, an achievement test (post-test) has constructed for the two groups (experimental and control), to gauge the improvement of learners in the experimental group following finishing the instructive parts of the material. The results were collected and analyzed statistically. The instructing of blended learning methodologies stages is as the accompanying all through the exercise arranging:

- 1- *Starter Phase*: In the beginning stage, which begins one week before the face-to-face session, students gain essential data about blended learning strategies. They have the

primary chance to become acquainted with their substance conveyance techniques. Thusly, as they now gain into contact with different prerequisites reasonable for blended learning.

- *Face-to-Face Session*: In the normal lecture, specialized and educational information is communicated by utilizing diverse educational strategies. Additionally, project work is started which will be finished during the subsequent stage in blended learning.
 - *Creating Collaborative Learning Communities*: Many methodologies can assist in engaging learners in collaborative learning environments:
 - a. Clearly Define Roles – Describe the connection between the various jobs in the learning local area (consisting of the educator, subgroups, group pioneers/facilitators, and individual students) and framework their duties and bonding.
 - b. Make Sub-Groups – Create sub-groupings of students that have their obstacles for little gathering learning exercises and gathering project cooperation.
 - c. Support Individuality – Provide a way for learners to create personal profiles that contain their collections and salient information on the topic at hand.
- 2- *Follow-up Phase*: The students keep on working in up close and personal and collaborative blended learning conditions.
- 3- *Review Phase*: The strategies received were investigated regarding their level-headed and adequate alterations made through a correction after the test with specialists. After the fundamental test, a system was laid out dependent on the important alterations needed for students by mulling over the advantages of various conveyance modes, strategies, and media.

Results and Discussion

To answer the question of the study: (What is the effect of using blended learning strategies on students' achievement?), the researcher calculated the arithmetic means of the pre and posttests, and standard deviations of both tests, depending on the difference between control and experimental groups (Table 3).

Table 3

T-Test Value of the Differences between the Mean Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups in pre-and post-Achievement tests.

Achievement Test	Group	N	Mean	SD	T- Value		DF	Level of sig.
Pre –test	experimental	9	24.92	8.083	Calculated	Tabulated	16	
	control	9	24.61	7.904				
Post-test	experimental	9	32.37	6.609	2.269	0.777		
	control	9	21.36	5.995				

(Table 3) shows that there are no statistical differences between the mean scores in the experimental and control groups in the pre-test, while it shows the existence of the differences between the means of the experimental and control groups in the post-test. To check for

statistically significance differences, depending on the teaching strategies questionnaire, a one-way ANOVA was conducted for the posttest to neutralize the effect of the post-test according to the study variable, teaching BL strategies (Table 4).

Table 4
Results of the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA).

Source of variance	Sum of squares	DF	Mean of squares	Value of calculated F	Value of error	Level of significance
between means	2.871	4	1,081	1.724	0.025	0.05
Within groups	22.840	5	0.840			
Overall	25.711	9				

As shown in (Table 4), attributes the experimental group according to students' achievement level in using the blended learning strategies, indicate that there are statistical differences in students' post-test according to the variable student academic achievement in English Thesis writing, at the level of 0.025, which is lower than the required the statistically significant effect ($\alpha = 0.05$) on the English language achievement posttest was attributable to teaching strategies, in which the students in the experimental group, who were taught via a combination of both the BL and the traditional teaching, performed better than their counterpart in the control group, who were taught using the traditional method only.

4.1 Discussion of Results

The findings of the present study can interpret as follow:

- The results demonstrated that the high achievement of the experimental group could be attributed to the advantages of the blended learning strategies in providing information. These advantages may have contributed to the better achievement of the students in the "Information transfer Instruction" of the experimental group who were taught via BL Strategies through google classroom platform material designed to be attractive, interesting, autonomous, and enjoyable for students and contain sight and sound features that far outweigh the rigid drawings in the book. Also, indicate that blended learning strategies affect students' achievement.
- Blended learning strategies "Emulation session /Collaboration" create an effective environment for the development of communication skills which reflect on students' skills such as the activities and techniques of natural life. In addition, students were passing experience during the learning process because of the use of various electronic media multi-throwing lessons in the classroom, communication between teachers and learners, receiving information, and the interaction between the student and the teacher. A blended learning strategy saves time for both the teacher and the student.
- Moreover, the result shows that the new teaching strategies have led to increasing the student's interaction and understanding of the content and material, which contributed to an increase in achievement and the existence of an impact on the teaching method.

There may be another reason behind this result of the “*Demonstration/Self-study*”, using blended learning strategies caused of the development of communication skills, verbal as they focus on direct interaction in the classroom through the use of modern communication mechanisms.

- d) Blended learning strategies help students to organize their information, attitudes, and educational experiences that provide the learner through multimedia offered by modern technology or information technology, this led to the results of *online self-assessment*. Also, through the *Supporting and feedback* of the educational instruction, the students get more benefit via blended learning strategies. These findings are also, consist with Mofeed and Al-Sous's (2010) study in terms of a saves time for both the teacher and the student. But in the present study focuses on the blended learning strategies that affect students` achievement.

Conclusion

Blended learning strategies are uncovered a compelling methodology in showing English classes, and it reflects decidedly in the student's accomplishment in the particular subject. These strategies take their significance because of the utilization of both, synchronous -learning and conventional learning, and therefore, the student's accomplishments in English proposal writing and their abilities were developed.

The utilization of blended learning strategies assumes a significant part in transforming the instructive climate into an innovative and intuitive one; they include the students and their instructor in the training cycle. The instructor and the students, address a significant piece of the blended learning system, accordingly, the classroom and material transform into interesting and alluring. Also, the connection between the student and the learning subjects in the technological climate without the requirement for the appearance of the educator foster the expertise of self-mastering, as such, permits the change from teaching to learning and focus on the instructor to be focused on the student and in this manner improve the nature of the learning cycle training overall using blended learning system as a showing technique, ponder raising understudy accomplishment.

Besides, it fosters student's abilities, such as conversational abilities, gets data, and the communication between the students and the instructor, the student's feeling towards this strategy, they feel that they assume a significant part during learning and because they have the choice to pick which technique for learning suit to them. Blended learning techniques consume the time for both the educator and the student.

The fundamental thought here blended learning strategies address the kind of instruction that conveys the data in a brief time frame, exertion and cost, additionally, the educator can have the option to deal with the instructive cycle and tune and estimating and assess the accomplishment of students. In addition, the blended learning procedure raises inspiration and breaks the stop by giving an equivalent chance to all, and to improve and raising the degree of accomplishment of students, and considering singular contrasts among students.

Pedagogical Implications

The teaching and learning implications of blended learning strategies provided a positive atmosphere that is as a benefit than both face-to-face and online classes in learning separately as done in teaching higher levels of student participation and fostering cognitive and metacognitive interactions between teacher and students. Teachers should avoid the teacher-centered approach of taking classrooms and shift to a student-centered approach. Making

learners practice on strategies, types, and implementation of blended learning strategies is a prerequisite for establishing BLA in schools and higher education. Teachers need to create interactive classes claimants so that students should apply the resources inside and outside the classroom. Teachers, students, and the education system should intend to continue to explore the use of technology-facilitated learning to optimize teaching and learning abilities.

Recommendations and Suggestions for Further Studies

Considering the results of this investigation, the researcher suggests the accompanying for additional innovative work: Blended learning strategies ought to be associated with different subjects because of the impacts in educating of different spaces of the fields. As the examination results showed that students performed better when BL techniques were utilized in showing Education Research writing:

1. Future comparative investigations could be estimated the effect of BL procedures on different factors, like textual style, spelling, and elocution, and look at different subjects and classes.
2. The researchers may direct further researches on the utilization of mixed learning techniques in student accomplishment in other training regions and consider different factors like sex, student's scoring rate, and student's involvement with the field of the IT and web.
3. Also, numerous cases influence mixed taking-in technique from the point of view of students and instructors and their mentalities direct it.
4. More investigations ought to be centered around this space to develop the utilization of these strategies to show the effect of utilizing mixed learning systems in other logical materials or different degrees of training.

References

- Alzeebaree, Y. (2020). Realization of Speech Act of Permission by Kurdish EFL University Students. *Eastern Journal of Languages, Linguistics and Literatures*, 1 (1), 18-33.
- Bøe, T. (2018). E-learning technology and higher education: the impact of organizational trust. *Test. Educ. Manag*, 24 (4), 362–376.
- Driscoll, M. (2002). Blended Learning: Let's Get Beyond the Hype. *IBM Global Services*. Retrieved from: http://www07.ibm.com/services/pdf/blended_learning.pdf.
- Graham, C.R. (2006). Blended learning systems: definition, current trends, and future directions. In: Bonk, C.J., Graham, C.R. (Eds.), *Handbook of Blended Learning: Global Perspectives Local Designs* (pp. 3–21) .San Francisco , CA:Pfeiffer Publishing
- Kavitha, R., Jaisingh, W.(2018). A study on the student experiences in blended learning environments. *Int. J. Recent Technol. Eng.* , 7 (4S), 2277–3878.
- Khalil, Elaf Riyadh (2019) The Effect of Using PBLA on Iraqi EFL Academic Students` Learning Achievement. *Al-Ustath Journal for Human and Social Sciences Special Issue of the 7th Scientific Conference*.https://www.researchgate.net/publication/349324816_The_Effect_of_Using_PBLA_on_Iraqi_EFL_Academic_Students_Learning_Achievement
- Khalil, Elaf. (2021). The Effect of Kagan`s PIES on Iraqi EFL Academic Students Achievement in Grammar Jigsaw. *Asian EFL Journal*, 28(1.3), 142-156.
- Manguire, K. (2005). Professional development in blended e-learning environment for middle school mathematics teachers (M.A. dissertation). University of Toronto, Canada.
- Mofeed, A., & Al-Sous, S. (2010). The effect of utilizing blended learning Strategy on the ability, of teachers in designing and producing educational Media. *Arab Open*

- University Retrieved March 18, 2017, from:
<http://kenanaonline.com/files/0035/35495/mofeedjordan-paperfinal.doc>.
- Osguthrape, R. T and Graham, C.R (2003). Blended learning and environment: Definitions and Direction the, *Quarterly Review of Distance Education*, 4 (3) ,227 – 233.
- Preitl, S., Precup, R. E., Gáti J., Kártyás Gy., Szénási S. (2006) Enhanced Mixed Campus and Distance Higher Education, *3rd Romanian-Hungarian Joint Symposium on Applied Computational Intelligence*.
- Singh, H. (2003). Building an effective blended learning program. *Issue Educ. Technol.* ,43 (6), 51–54.
- Susan, P., Chris, S. (2015). *Maximizing Competency Education and Blended Learning*. New York: Oncol Competency Works.
- Tsoi, M. (2009). Applying TSOI Hybrid Learning Model to Enhance Blended Learning Experience in Science Education. *Interactive Technology and Smart Education*, v6 (n4),223-233. (Eric reproduction service no. EJ868118).
- Valiathan, P. (2002). Blended Learning Models. Retrieved from: <http://www.purnima-valiathan.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/09/Blended-Learning-Models-2002-ASTD.pdf>.
- Vaughan, N. (2007). Perspectives on blended learning in higher education. *International Journal on E-learning*, 6 (1) ,81 – 94
- Whitelock, D., Jelfs, A. (2003). Editorial: Journal of educational media special issue on blended learning. *J. Educ. Media*,28 (3), 99–100.
- Yoon, H., & Jo, J. W. (2014). Direct and indirect access to corpora: An exploratory case study comparing students' error correction and learning strategy use in L2 writing. *Language Learning & Technology*, 18(1), 96-117.
- Zare, M., Sarikhani, R., Salari, M., Mansouri, V. (2016). The impact of e-learning on university students' academic achievement and creativity. *J. Tech. Educ. Train. (JTET)*, 8 (1), 25–33.

The Effectiveness of Self-Regulated Strategy Development on Improving Students' Narrative Text Writing Achievement

Lamhot Naibaho*

Universitas Kristen Indonesia, Jakarta

Abstract

This study is about the effectiveness of self-regulated (SRSD) strategy development on improving students' narrative text writing achievement. Narrative writing is a text that tells a story with a corresponding chronological sequence of events to entertain the reader. This study was done to find out whether SRSD is sufficient to improve the students' narrative text writing achievement. It was done at Teruna Muda School, and the method of the study was used as a classroom action research method. The subject of the study was 43 students who were learning narrative text have participated in this study. They were taught to write narrative text using SRSD. The result of this study was an improvement of students' scores in writing narrative text; it is about 62% of improvement. The conclusion is that the SRSD improved the students' essay writing achievement.

Keywords: improving, narrative text, SRSD, and classroom action research

Introduction

Some students will find it anxious when talking about writing since it is more complicated than other language skills. Therefore, the teacher should teach it well at the school or university level, especially to students majoring in language education or literature. "Since writing is one of the most challenging skills in language, of course, the teacher must be familiar with learning methods, strategies and techniques of writing in order to make the class as attractive as possible, to make the students more comfortable to understand writing, and to encourage the students to be creative students in mastering writing" (Harris & Graham, 2009). Therefore, an English teacher must apply a proper and appropriate technique because writing is an extraordinary complex that incorporates thought processes, feelings, and social interaction (Graham, Macarthur, Reid & Mason, 2011).

Writing is problematic because it is arranging the idea we have in our brain and the form of the word, sentence or paragraph, and grammatically putting the ideas. So, the message can be delivered to the reader. "To be able to produce good writing, students should be able to follow the proper language use, think as they write, and provoke the language development as they resolve problems when they put their ideas into the written form. Students fail to do the writing. Some weaknesses and failures factors are structure and limited vocabulary. The students are not able to compose their thoughts, ideas because they have a limited number of words, limited patterns of sentences, and lack of motivation" (Graham & Harris, 2003).

*lamhot.naibaho@uki.ac.id

The students' difficulties in writing are “(1) limited vocabulary, (2) difficulty in organising ideas, (3) no ideas to write about, (4) no motivation to write, (5) and lack of confidence in grammar” (Barras, 2005). “Writing is a highly complex process; the writer not only must negotiate the rules and mechanics of writing, but also maintain a focus on important aspects of writing such as organisation, form, and features, purposes and goals, audiences' need, perspectives, and evaluation of the communication between author and reader” (Graham, 2018; Harris & Graham, 2017). The writer has also experienced it when he finds it challenging to organise ideas into good writing. He did not know how to produce details to give relevant evidence to support selected topics and organise them into effective writing and, by an initial observation, he knew that most of the students at Senior High School 1 Sidikalang could not write well narrative writing. At the same time, the curriculum requires that that student should have mastered narrative writing. Besides, “it is expected that the students have to be able to write all kinds of writing such as “genre (e.g. Poetry, fiction, nonfiction), modes (e.g. narration, description, argument), the elements in the writing process (e.g. generating, revising, copy-editing), parts of rhetoric (e.g. invention, arrangement, style), purposes (e.g. persuading, informing, entertaining), or even by topics or themes (science writing, religious writing, technical writing)” (Elbow, 2000; Mourad, 2009).

“Writing is not only putting ideas on a paper, but it is the combination of the thinking process and the product of the process itself. On the other hand, writing is defined as an extraordinary complex that incorporates the thought process, feelings, and social interaction” (Graham & Santangelo, 2008; Naibaho, 2016; Tracy, Reid & Graham, 2009). In terms of skills, “To producing a coherent, fluent extended piece of writing is probably the most difficult things there is to do in language” (Mason, Harris & Graham, 2011; Graham, Harris & McKeown, 2012). Theoretically, “the text consists of some type, such as; narrative, recount, spoof, procedure, descriptive, report, explanation, exposition, discussion, news item and anecdote” (Harris, Graham, & Adkins, 2015; Baker et al., 2009). The only narrative text was discussed in this study.

Narrative text “is defined as literature written primarily to tell a story” (Herrera, 2013; Pao, 2016). Narrative “is not simply about entertaining the reader even though it generally does so, but also a powerful medium for changing social opinions attitudes and some soap operas and televisions drama as the narrative to raise the topic issue and present their complexities and different perspectives in ways that are not possible in news reports and current affair program. Formally, narrative sequences people/characters in time and place” (Cummins & Quiroa, 2012; Guerrero, Munoz & Nino, 2016).

The narrative text has a generic structure: orientation, evaluation, complication, resolution, and re-orientation. Besides the generic structures of narrative mentioned above, there are some typical linguistic realisations of narrative text, such as material process, the simple past, location relation, and circumstance of location. As it is quoted in Reid (1993), he said:

“...in evaluating the students' improvement in writing the narrative text, there are five components will be measured, such as content, organisation, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. The score for content is 30 points, the organisation is 20 points, vocabulary is 20 points, language use is 25 points, and mechanics is 5 points. So for all components, students will get a score of 100 points. Writing is called good when the writing score is within 70-80, and 90-100 is called excellence....”

In solving this problem, one of the techniques that are suitable to apply is applying the SRSD technique. “SRSD technique is a structured process for helping a presenter thinks more expansively about a dilemma” (Zumbrunn & Bruning, 2013; Mason, 2013; Ennis et al., 2014;

Harris & Graham, 2016). The SRSD technique "involves self-directed prompts that require the students to consider their audience and reasons for writing, develop a plan for what they intend to say using frames to generate or organise writing notes, evaluate possible content by considering its impact on the reader, and continue the process of content generation and planning during the act of writing" (Reid, Hagaman & Graham, 2014; Lane et al., 2011; Lane et al., 2020; Berry and Mason, 2012; MacArthur, Philippakos, Lanetta, 2015).

SRSD "is built to make use of strategies to become more flexible and automatic, and besides, the SRSD strategy is very comprehensive" (Bakry & Alsamadani, 2015; Adkins & Gavins, 2012; Losinski et al., 2014). It ensures that crucial steps are not overlooked. a) assisting the students to develop the "knowledge about writing and essential skills and strategies involved in the writing process, including planning, writing, revising, and editing; b) supporting the students develop the abilities needed to monitor and manage their writing; and c) promoting students' development of positive attitudes about writing and themselves as writers" (Sreckovic et al., 2014; Bak & Asaro, 2013; MacArthur & Philipakos, 2013; Asaro, 2014). "How do students achieve such developments in their writing? Children like Vanessa, who enjoy writing and do not struggle with it, may merely need opportunities to share, discuss, and try out strategies for different genres or forms of writing. For other students, needed-more explicit instruction, more support, and more attention to their attitudes, beliefs, and feelings about writing" (Hacker et al., 2015; Palermo & Thomson, 2018).

The SRDS has "six instructional stages, and these stages represent a meta-script, providing a general guideline; they can be reordered, combined, revisited, modified or deleted to meet student and teacher needs" (Malpique, 2014). Furthermore, "the stages are designed to be recursive so that if a concept is not mastered at a particular stage, students and teachers can revisit or continue that stage as they move on to others" (Liberty & Conderman, 2018; Sanders et al., 2019). The "six stages in the SRSD model are: a) developing background knowledge; b) discussing; c) modelling; d) memorising; e) supporting, and f) independent performance" (Johnson et al., 2013; El-Sakka, 2016; Ennis & Jolivette, 2014).

That was why the researcher was very interested in proving it scientifically by doing a study on it. Then a study is designed entitled "The Effectiveness of SRSD on Improving Students' Narrative Text Writing Achievement", and the problem of the study is "Does SRSD effective on improving students' narrative text writing achievement?" and the purpose of this article is "finding out whether SRSD is useful to improve the students' narrative text writing achievement".

Research Design

A classroom action research was chosen to be the study's design, and the study was conducted at Teruna Muda School. The subject of this study was 43 students as the participants who were studying the narrative text. Those participants were taught narrative text and SRSD and finally taught how to implement SRSD on writing narrative text. The data (students' test score) were taken by conducting a narrative writing test that consisted of five tests; pre-test, progressing test 1, post-test in cyle one, progressing test 2, post-test in cycle two. Those tests were analysed calculated using the following formula to find the mean score:

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N}$$

Where: \bar{X} : Mean of Score
 $\sum X$: Total of Students' score
 N : Number of students

After finding the mean score, those mean scores were compared and calculated again to see the improvement from the first test mean score to the next test mean score. Some steps were gone through in conducting such as; planning the action, observation and reflection, doing the action, doing the observation and doing the reflection (Naibaho, 2018).

Result and Discussion

The data were obtained from the test result, which had been conducted during the two cycles were analysed. Each cycle consists of six times meeting (The activities done in cycle two were giving treatment (Second, third and fifth) meetings, and besides, the researcher also conducted the test to the students (fourth and sixth) meetings. The quantitative and qualitative data were analysed, as is shown in the following explanation.

Table 1. Cycle One

No	Initial	Pre-Test	Second & Third Meeting	Fourth Meeting	Fifth Meeting	Sixth Meeting
1	Lin	56		62		73
2	Par	59		61		72
3	Res	65		60		71
4	Sar	66		67		78
5	San	67		67		78
6	Tim	54		69		72
7	Dy	55	Giving Treatment	60	Giving Treatment	69
8	Son	50		60		71
9	Ful	55		69		79
10	Rut	53		54		62
11	Ren	48		51		63
12	Rin	54		51		62
13	Ria	52		66		77
14	Nur	49		67		78
15	Nuv	49		59		64
16	Nic	49		54		65
17	Oca	47		61		72
18	Mar	49		60		71
19	Ari	47		61		72
20	Mei	48		63		74
21	Ani	48	Giving Treatment	63	Giving Treatment	74
22	Tha	45		51		62
23	Lut	51		56		67
24	Oli	51		67		67
25	Ad	51		60		71

26	And	47	58	69
27	Des	61	69	80
28	Dry	50	60	71
29	Sy	48	57	63
30	Na	48	63	74
31	Rik	50	66	77
32	El	48	56	65
33	Bi	48	67	78
34	Red	49	58	68
35	Hel	60	66	73
36	Ris	61	60	69
37	Her	53	63	74
38	Ati	51	63	75
39	Jh	50	61	72
40	If	55	64	75
41	Joe	64	68	79
42	Jun	46	62	73
43	Lam	51	60	68
TOTAL		2258	2580	3015

The table shows that during cycle one, there was an improvement in the student's tests. It can be seen from the students' test results that they are improved from the first test until the third test. Although the score of the students improved from the first test to the next test, it was found still that some of the students have not achieved the passing minimum criteria score (70 – 80).

To know the improvement of the students' narrative writing achievement. The improvement was counted in the following part. The mean of the pre-test

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N} \quad \bar{X} = \frac{2258}{43} \quad \bar{X} = 53$$

The mean of the progressing-test (4th)

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N} \quad \bar{X} = \frac{2580}{43} \quad \bar{X} = 60$$

The mean of the post-test

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N} \quad \bar{X} = \frac{3015}{43} \quad \bar{X} = 70$$

So the percentages of improvement from the pre-test into progressing test as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Mean of Progressing-test (4th) - Mean of pre-test} \\ &= 60 - 53 \\ &= 7 \\ &= 13\% \end{aligned}$$

The improvement from the progressing-test₁ into progressing test₂ as follows

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Mean of Post-test - Mean of progressing-test} \\ &= 70 - 63 \\ &= 7 \\ &= 11\% \end{aligned}$$

Table 2 Frequency Distribution of Cycle One

Range	Frequency	Σ	Percentage
90-100	0	0	0%
80-89	1	80	1,86%
60-79	42	2987	69,46%
50-69	0	0	0%
40-59	0	0	0%

From the distribution of frequency table, it is known that from 43 students, only one of the students who passed achieved a good standard of narrative writing, and 15 students failed on achieving the minimum score criteria (<70). It happened because the students who failed to achieve the minimum score criteria paid less attention to the teaching-learning process. Therefore, it was decided to carry out cycle two, but before conducting cycle two, the researcher re-planned the teaching process by motivating the students about the purpose of the research and persuading them to be more enthusiastic during the teaching and learning process. The following table presents the data taken from the activities done in cycle two. The activities done in cycle two were giving treatment (^{seventh and ninth}) meetings, and besides, the researcher also conducted the test to the students (8th and 10th) meeting. The score on the 6th meeting was taken from table 1. The result shows that all students significantly improved writing the narrative text by getting a score above 80.

Table 3. Cycle Two

No	Initial	Sixth Meeting	Seventh Meeting	Eighth Meeting	Ninth Meeting	Tenth Meeting
1	Lin	73		78		88
2	Par	72		77		88
3	Res	71		76		87
4	Sar	78	Giving Treatment	83	Giving Treatment	89
5	San	78		83		92
6	Tim	72		77		87
7	Dy	69		74		88
8	Son	71		76		83
9	Ful	79		84		90
10	Rut	62		67		85
11	Ren	63		69		71
12	Rin	62		67		85
13	Ria	77		82		90
14	Nur	78		81		86
15	Nuv	64		69		71
16	Nic	65		70		80
17	Oca	72		77		80
18	Mar	71		76		80
19	Ari	72		77		89
20	Mei	74		79		88
21	Ani	74		79		83
22	Tha	62		67		78
23	Lut	67		72		81

24	Oli	67		72		89
25	Ad	71	Giving Treatment	80	Giving Treatment	91
26	And	69		74		87
27	Des	80		85		90
28	Dry	71		76		83
29	Sy	63		68		88
30	Na	74		79		86
31	Rik	77		82		89
32	El	65		70		84
33	Bi	78		82		93
34	Red	68		82		87
35	Hel	73		78		85
36	Ris	69		74		85
37	Her	74		79		84
38	Ati	75		80		90
39	Jh	72		77		84
40	If	75		80		89
41	Joe	79		84		92
42	Jun	73		78		88
43	Lam	68		73		82
TOTAL		3067		3292		3685

The percentage of improvement in each test as follows:

The mean of the progressing-test (8th)

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N} \quad \bar{X} = \frac{3292}{43} \quad \bar{X} = 77$$

The mean of the post-test (cycle 2)

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum X}{N} \quad \bar{X} = \frac{3685}{43} \quad \bar{X} = 86$$

Mean of Progressing-test (8th) - Mean of post-test (cycle one)

$$= 77 - 70$$

$$= 7$$

$$= 10\%$$

The improvement from the progressing test (8th) into post-test as follows;

Mean of Post-test - Mean of progressing-test

$$= 86 - 77$$

$$= 9$$

$$= 11\%$$

Based on the table above could be described the distribution of the students' scores was as described as follows.

Table 4. Frequency Distribution of Cycle Two

Range	Frequency	Σ	Percentage
90-100	8	728	16.93%
70-89	32	2737	63.65%
60-79	3	220	5.11%
50-69	0	0	0%
40-59	0	0	0%

From the distribution of frequency table, it is known that from 43 students, there were only three students who did not achieve the minimum score criteria (≥ 70), and there were 40 students who achieved the minimum score criteria, and 8 of them achieved the excellent achievement in writing narrative text. By then, because most of the students (93%) had passed the minimum score criteria, it was decided not to continue this research to the 3rd cycle.

From the two cycles of this study, the total improvement percentage from the pre-test into post-test was counted as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mean of post-test} - \text{pre-test,} \\ &= 86 - 53 \\ &= 33 = 62\% \end{aligned}$$

The calculation above showed that the incremental improvement of the students' narrative text writing was 62%. So it could be said that students' narrative text writing increased as much as 62%. From the analysis, it is found that SRSD effectively improves the students' narrative text writing achievement. It was conducted using a classroom action research method. The problem of the study was answered.

Students who get the improvement score about 35-45 points - Their ability increased in every meeting. They were so active during the teaching process and paid excellent attention.

When they were taught, they listened carefully and thoughtfully, and also, in writing their narrative text, they felt so enthusiastic without asking their friends. If they did not understand the material, they kept asking questions, and they were responded excitedly. That was why their score improved in every test.

Students who got an improvement score of about 25-35 - Got improvement in every meeting. Some of them were not as serious as the students who got 35-45 points. Sometimes they did not pay attention to the teacher explaining in front of the class. However, some were active and enthusiastic as they got 35-45 during the narrative text writing and learning process.

They were active during the narrative text writing process. However, they showed improvement in every test.

The students who got an improvement score of about 15-25 - Got improvement in every meeting. During the learning process, some of the students paid excellent attention to the teacher. Then from the complete data analysis, it is concluded that all of the students had score improvement during teaching and learning.

In cycle one, twelve meetings were conducted with the students. The first meeting was conducted to formulate the problems that were found by the students in writing the narrative text and to find out the students' entry behaviour level. At the end of the teaching and learning process, the students wrote a narrative text. The narrative text writing of the students was checked. In the pre-test, it was found that the students were not right in their narrative text.

Nevertheless, after treating them with SRSD, the test was re-conducted, and the result was improved. Some of the students had good narrative text, including content, organisation, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Nevertheless, some were not, and then the tests were analysed to know what the problem was.

So after knowing the problem, the researcher decided to continue into cycle two and in cycle two. This cycle had six times meeting, and the expectation was that the result was getting better than cycle one. For that, the problem in cycle one really must be solved. The students were also motivated to show their best writing skills and use their creativity in using words. In this phase, the students were treated the SRSD back in the group, and they were given some narrative text writing and analysed in the group. They analysed the advantages and the disadvantages of the texts. After analysing the text's advantages and disadvantages, they were given some topics to be developed into narrative text writing. The students were divided into some groups and were given some texts of narrative text to be discussed, and they must be kept on controlling to lead them might avoid the wrong analysing. After they had finished analysing the texts, they were tested to know how far they got improvement. The test was done one a half hours. After checking the students' tests, the result showed that their scores improved. It is known from the calculation of the score in each test by comparing the mean score, which gets higher and higher every test was conducted. The mean of the pre-test was 53, the mean of the progressing-test was 60, the mean in the post-test in cycle one was 70, the mean in the progressing-test in cycle two was 77, and the mean in the post-test was 86. While the percentages of the students score improvement was that the pre-test to progressing-test was 13%, the progressing-test and post-test in cycle one was 11%, the post-test in cycle one to progressing-test in the cycle two was 10%, and the progressing-test to post-test in the cycle two was 11%. The total score improvement from pre-test to post-test cycle two was 62%. The same result also has shown that SRSD improved student writing ability (Harris et al., 2012; Andrzejewski et al., 2016; Sanders, 2020; Ennis et al., 2015). After analysing all the data, it was found that each student had improved from the pre-test until the post-test. It was described as follows.

Conclusion

From the complete data analysis, it is known that all of the students improved narrative text writing using SRSD Strategies. Thus the use of SRSD on students' narrative text writing achievement worked well. This study shows that the use of SRSD on writing ability improved the students' narrative text writing. It is proved by the result of the study that shows the total score improvement from pre-test to post-test cycle two. This study shows that English teachers should use the SRSD strategy when teaching narrative text to the students; students are also suggested to use the relevant topic to conduct further research by using SRSD, and may this research brings the reader to have a good insight on writing the narrative text.

References

- Adkins, M. H., & Gavins, M. V. (2012). Self-regulated strategy development and generalisation instruction: Effects on story writing and personal narratives among students with severe emotional and behavioural disorders. *Exceptionality*, 20(4), 235-249.
- Andrzejewski, C. E., Davis, H. A., Bruening, P. S., & Poirier, R. R. (2016). Can a self-regulated strategy intervention close the achievement gap? Exploring a classroom-based intervention in 9th-grade earth science. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 49, 85-99.

- Asaro-Saddler, K. (2014). Self-regulated strategy development: Effects on writers with autism spectrum disorders. *Education and Training in Autism and Developmental Disabilities*, 78-91.
- Bak, N., & Asaro-Saddler, K. (2013). Self-regulated strategy development for students with emotional, behavioural disorders. *Beyond Behavior*, 22(3), 46-53.
- Baker, S. K., Chard, D. J., Ketterlin-Geller, L. R., Apichatabutra, C., & Doabler, C. (2009). Teaching writing to at-risk students: The quality of evidence for self-regulated strategy development. *Exceptional Children*, 75(3), 303-318.
- Bakry, M. S., & Alsamadani, H. A. (2015). Improving the persuasive essay writing of students of Arabic as a foreign language (AFL): Effects of self-regulated strategy development. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 182, 89-97.
- Barrass, R. (2005). *Students must write a guide to better writing in coursework and examinations*—psychology Press.
- Berry, A. B., & Mason, L. H. (2012). The effects of self-regulated strategy development on the writing of expository essays for adults with written expression difficulties: Preparing for the GED. *Remedial and Special Education*, 33(2), 124-136.
- Cuenca-Carlino, Y., Freeman-Green, S., Stephenson, G. W., & Hauth, C. (2016). Self-regulated strategy development instruction for teaching multi-step equations to middle school students struggling in math. *The Journal of Special Education*, 50(2), 75-85.
- Cummins, S., & Quiroa, R. E. (2012). Teaching for writing expository responses to narrative texts. *The Reading Teacher*, 65(6), 381-386.
- Elbow, P. (2000). *Everyone can write Essays toward a hopeful theory of writing and teaching writing*—Oxford University Press on Demand.
- El-Sakka, S. M. F. (2016). Self-Regulated Strategy Instruction for Developing Speaking Proficiency and Reducing Speaking Anxiety of Egyptian University Students. *English Language Teaching*, 9(12), 22-33.
- Ennis, R. P., & Jolivet, K. (2014). Existing research and future directions for self-regulated strategy development with students with and at risk for emotional and behavioural disorders. *The Journal of Special Education*, 48(1), 32-45.
- Ennis, R. P., & Jolivet, K. (2014). Using self-regulated strategy development for persuasive writing to increase students' writing and self-efficacy skills with emotional and behavioural disorders in health class. *Behavioural Disorders*, 40(1), 26-36.
- Ennis, R. P., Harris, K. R., Lane, K. L., & Mason, L. H. (2014). Lessons learned from implementing self-regulated strategy development with students with emotional and behavioural disorders in alternative educational settings. *Behavioural Disorders*, 40(1), 68-77.
- Ennis, R. P., Jolivet, K., Terry, N. P., Fredrick, L. D., & Alberto, P. A. (2015). Classwide teacher implementation of self-regulated strategy development for writing with students with E/BD in a residential facility. *Journal of Behavioral Education*, 24(1), 88-111.
- Graham, S. (2018). A revised writer (s)-within-community model of writing. *Educational Psychologist*, 53(4), 258-279.
- Graham, S., Harris, K. R., & McKeown, D. (2014). Redux, the writing of students with learning disabilities, a meta-analysis of self-regulated strategy development writing intervention studies, and future directions.
- Guerrero Moya, M. E., Muñoz Ortiz, L., & Niño Díaz, A. M. (2016). Evidence of Intercultural Communication Competence in Tenth Grader's Narrative Texts. *GIST Education and Learning Research Journal*, 13, 111-130.

- Hacker, D. J., Dole, J. A., Ferguson, M., Adamson, S., Roundy, L., & Scarpulla, L. (2015). The short-term and maintenance effects of self-regulated strategy development in writing for middle school students. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 31(4), 351-372.
- Harris, K. R., & Graham, S. (2009). Self-regulated strategy development in writing: Premises, evolution, and the future. *BJEP Monograph Series II, Number 6-Teaching and Learning Writing* (Vol. 113, No. 135, pp. 113-135). British Psychological Society.
- Harris, K. R., & Graham, S. (2016). Self-regulated strategy development in writing: Policy implications of evidence-based practice. *Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 3(1), 77-84.
- Harris, K. R., & Graham, S. (2017). Self-regulated strategy development: Theoretical bases, critical instructional elements, and future research. In *Design principles for teaching effective writing* (pp. 119-151). Brill.
- Harris, K. R., Graham, S., & Adkins, M. (2015). Practice-based professional development and self-regulated strategy development for Tier 2 at-risk writers in second grade. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 40, 5-16.
- Harris, K. R., Graham, S., MacArthur, C., Reid, R., & Mason, L. H. (2011). Self-regulated learning processes and children's writing. *Handbook of self-regulation of learning and performance*, 187-202.
- Harris, K. R., Lane, K. L., Graham, S., Driscoll, S. A., Sandmel, K., Brindle, M., & Schatschneider, C. (2012). Practice-based professional development for self-regulated strategies development in writing: A randomised controlled study. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 63(2), 103-119.
- Harris, K. R., Santangelo, T., & Graham, S. (2008). Self-regulated strategy development in writing: Going beyond NLEs to a more balanced approach. *Instructional Science*, 36(5-6), 395.
- Herrera Ramírez, Y. E. (2013). Writing skill enhancement when creating narrative texts through collaborative writing and the Storybird Web 2.0 tool. *Colombian Applied Linguistics Journal*, 15(2), 166-183.
- Johnson, E. S., Hancock, C., Carter, D. R., & Pool, J. L. (2013). Self-regulated strategy development as a tier 2 writing intervention. *Intervention in school and clinic*, 48(4), 218-222.
- Lane, K. L., Graham, S., Harris, K. R., Little, M. A., Sandmel, K., & Brindle, M. (2010). Story writing: The effects of self-regulated strategy development for second-grade students with writing and behavioural difficulties. *The Journal of Special Education*, 44(2), 107-128.
- Lane, K. L., Harris, K., Graham, S., Driscoll, S., Sandmel, K., Morphy, P., ... & Schatschneider, C. (2011). Self-regulated strategy development at tier 2 for second-grade students with writing and behavioural difficulties: A randomised controlled trial. *Journal of Research on Educational Effectiveness*, 4(4), 322-353.
- Liberty, L. M., & Conderman, G. (2018). Using the self-regulated strategy development model to support middle-level writing. *The Clearing House: A Journal of Educational Strategies, Issues and Ideas*, 91(3), 118-123.
- Losinski, M., Cuenca-Carlino, Y., Zablocki, M., & Teagarden, J. (2014). Examining the efficacy of self-regulated strategy development for students with emotional or behavioural disorders: A meta-analysis. *Behavioural Disorders*, 40(1), 52-67.
- MacArthur, C. A., & Philippakos, Z. A. (2013). Self-regulated strategy instruction in developmental writing: A design research project. *Community College Review*, 41(2), 176-195.

- MacArthur, C. A., Philippakos, Z. A., & Lanetta, M. (2015). Self-regulated strategy instruction in college developmental writing. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 107(3), 855.
- Malpique, A. D. A. D. S. (2015). Implementing self-regulated strategy development for teaching argumentative writing: a multidimensional approach.
- Mason, L. H. (2013). Teaching students who struggle with learning to think before, while, and after reading: Effects of self-regulated strategy development instruction. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 29(2), 124-144.
- Mason, L. H., Harris, K. R., & Graham, S. (2011). Self-regulated strategy development for students with writing difficulties. *Theory into Practice*, 50(1), 20-27.
- Mourad, A. E. (2009). The effectiveness of a program based on self-regulated strategy development on the writing skills of writing-disabled secondary school students.
- Naibaho, L. (2016). Improving Students' Essay Writing Ability through Consultancy Prewriting Protocol at the Christian University of Indonesia. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 3, 147-160.
- Naibaho, L. (2018). Improving Students' Essay Writing Ability through Consultancy Prewriting Protocol at the Christian University of Indonesia. *Asian ESP Journal*, 14 (3), 67-80.
- Palermo, C., & Thomson, M. M. (2018). Teacher implementation of self-regulated strategy development with an automated writing evaluation system: Effects on the argumentative writing performance of middle school students. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 54, 255-270.
- Pao, B. (2016). The Influence of Reading Habit and Grammar Knowledge on the Students' capability of Writing Narrative Texts. *LingTera*, 3(2), 122-129.
- Reid, J. M. (1993). *Teaching ESL writing*. Prentice-Hall.
- Reid, R., Hagaman, J. L., & Graham, S. (2014). Using self-regulated strategy development for written expression with students with attention deficit hyperactivity disorder. *Learning Disabilities--A Contemporary Journal*, 12(1).
- Sanders, S. (2020). Using the Self-Regulated Strategy Development Framework to Teach Reading Comprehension Strategies to Elementary Students with Disabilities. *Education and Treatment of Children*, 1-14.
- Sanders, S., Losinski, M., Parks Ennis, R., White, W., Teagarden, J., & Lane, J. (2019). A Meta-Analysis of Self-Regulated Strategy Development Reading Interventions to Improve the Reading Comprehension of Students With Disabilities. *Reading & Writing Quarterly*, 35(4), 339-353.
- Sreckovic, M. A., Common, E. A., Knowles, M. M., & Lane, K. L. (2014). A review of self-regulated strategy development for writing for students with EBD. *Behavioural Disorders*, 39(2), 56-77.
- Tracy, B., Reid, R., & Graham, S. (2009). Teaching young students strategies for planning and drafting stories: The impact of self-regulated strategy development. *The Journal of Educational Research*, 102(5), 323-332.
- Zumbrunn, S., & Bruning, R. (2013). Improving the writing and Knowledge of emergent writers: The effects of self-regulated strategy development. *Reading and Writing*, 26(1), 91-110.

Genre Analysis of Selected Graduate Research Abstracts

Aris S. Balagtas*

Mariano Marcos State University, Philippines

Mee Jay A. Domingo**

Mariano Marcos State University, Philippines

Abstract

Problems regarding the what and how of abstract writing have always been the perennial concern of graduate students. Although there is an abundance of international studies in this area, only a few were conducted in the Philippines. Particularly, nobody has attempted to do genre analysis in the context of abstract writing in the locale of the study. Thus, abstract writing among graduate students in the university following an institutional standard is still a challenge.

Realizing the importance of addressing this concern, the researchers examined the language structure and rhetorical pattern of the graduate theses and dissertations of the MMSU-Graduate School. Specifically, it identified the moves and move patterns reflected in the abstracts. It also described their linguistic features such as verb tense, sentence structure, and point of view.

The study used the descriptive research design to determine the standard pattern used by MMSU graduate students in writing their abstracts. Specifically, it used the Genre-based Approach and Hyland's Framework for Abstract Analysis (2000).

The analyses made on the samples found variations in the moves, move patterns, and linguistic features reflected in the abstracts. Based on the findings, the MMSU-GS is encouraged to create a guideline that standardizes the move to be included and move patterns to follow in writing an abstract. Also, the school is encouraged to formulate a guideline that shall foster consistency in the use of tense of the verbs, sentence structure, and point of view in writing the abstracts.

Keywords: research abstract, genre analysis, move analysis

**arisbalagtas1118@gmail.com*

** *mjadomingo@mmsu.edu.ph*

Introduction

Background of the Study

An abstract is a description or factual summary of a much longer report. Its purpose is to give the reader an exact and concise knowledge of the entire article (Bhatia, 1993). It is a brief statement that outlines the rationale behind the study by conveying the basic facts of the objectives, methods, results, and conclusions of the project (Pintos & Crimi, 2010).

The abstract of a research article, a paper, or a thesis is one of the most important sections of any research article. Hyland (2002) states that the abstract is generally the readers' first encounter with a text and is often the point at which they decide whether to continue and give the accompanying article further attention or ignore it. With the phenomenon of information overload, many readers, as clarified by Tippet (2005), will read it only and separately from the rest of the paper. Therefore, writing an excellent abstract is vital to encourage readers to read and cite the research article. The importance of abstracts has been acknowledged by scholars as reflected in the growing number of research on abstract writing.

The body of research on abstracts includes studies focusing on the analysis of the organizational pattern in terms of its constituent moves (Cross & Oppenheim, 2006; Lim, 2006) and the analysis of the grammatical and stylistic features that characterize these moves (Pho, 2008; Busch-Lauer, 1995). Most of the studies are cross-linguistic, which examined the structural variations of abstracts of a single discipline across different languages.

In contrast to the flourishing study on abstracts of published research articles, the study of abstract writing at the postgraduate level was seemed to be neglected and not given much attention despite its great importance. It might be because thesis and dissertation abstracts do not usually play the role of helping people process the ever-growing information in this information age (Ventola, 1994). Another is that these abstracts were not able to win a wider readership as those of published research articles do.

This little attention given to abstract writing at the postgraduate level was one of the reasons why problems were noted by a few of the studies conducted in this area. The results of Tseng's (2011) study reveal that different disciplines have different conventions in writing abstracts, particularly the move structures. It was also found that despite the structure suggested in the handbooks in abstract writing, the actual practice of abstracting does not seem to conform to the model completely. Besides, there seems to be a different understanding of the communicative purpose of the abstracts among graduate students (Ren & Li, 2011), which can affect the way they write their abstracts.

Problems such as lack of awareness of the standard format, no prescribed organization of writing the different rhetorical moves, and lack of awareness of the standard content to be included in writing the abstract were revealed in Bonifacio's (2019) study on abstracts written by the graduate students of MSU-IIT. Similarly, Montesi and Urdiciain (2005) pointed out different types of problems like terminology, over-condensation, lack and excess of information, expectations and coherence, structure, register, and layout. Furthermore, it was also suggested that different disciplines may adopt different move structures in their abstracts (Anderson & Maclean, 1997).

At Mariano Marcos State University (MMSU), the problems in abstract writing at the postgraduate level that the aforementioned studies have identified might also be existing. Graduate students might be experiencing problems as the above studies have mentioned. This could be so since up to this writing, no genre analysis as to abstract writing has been conducted in the university. The possibility that graduate students of MMSU also experience the same problems in writing their abstracts gave way to the conduct of this study. The present study sought to evaluate the thesis and dissertation abstracts written by students of MMSU at the

postgraduate level using the Genre-based Approach and Hyland's (2000) Framework for Abstract Analysis. The findings could also shed light on determining if there is an existing format in abstract writing that each GS program follows and/or if there are similarities and/or differences in how RAs are written across programs. Findings could also be used as bases in the planning of lessons specifically for the teaching of abstract writing. As Yang (2012) puts it: 'conscious instruction in the use of genre-appropriate words, sentence structures, and moves' is an effective strategy.

This study aimed to examine the theses and dissertation abstracts written by MMSU-GS students to determine the moves and move patterns evident in the abstracts. It also sought to identify the linguistic features used in writing the abstracts in terms of tense, sentence structure, and point of view.

Literature Review

Genre Analysis

Genre, as a term, has its roots in the French language and its first uses have been recorded in literature and art. Its range of definitions is overwhelming as it is used in many different fields and disciplines with a long evolutionary history behind it.

According to Swales (1990), genre in different fields has been assigned different meanings. In folklore studies, it is thought of as a permanent form that is used as a classificatory concept while clarificatory in literary studies. The other trend is genre in rhetoric. In this trend, researchers classify a discourse into broad categories depending on what is being foregrounded in a piece of writing or speech. Another trend is genre in linguistics. Swales (1990) talks of genre's meaning in this trend as a distinctive category of any discourse type. Here, genre receives its due right in being completely dynamic and multidisciplinary, as it has been a focus of attention and used in miscellaneous fields such as composition studies, professional writing, rhetoric, linguistics, and English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

A genre has been defined by Swales and Feak (2009) as a type of text or discourse designed to achieve a set of communicative purposes. These communicative purposes, which are reflected in distinctive structural patterns, are both the most important common features shared by the texts belonging to the same genre and, at the same time, the most important unique features differentiating one genre from another (Holmes, 1997).

According to Bhatia (1993), genre analysis is used to analyze a specific text based on its linguistic features, schematic structures, and social functions, including its move structures and its patterns (Osman, 2004). He formulated three functions of orientation in genre analysis: linguistics and genre analysis (the use of language in a certain genre), sociology and genre analysis (due to the social functions it carries and the use of language and its variations in various societies), and psychology and genre analysis (cognitive structure behind every genre known).

Genre analysis has aroused great interest, specifically in applied linguistics because of its noteworthy pedagogic implications for the practitioners in the communicative ESP and EAP classroom (Brett, 1994). According to Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998), genre analysis is used to define the kinds of discourse the students need to be able to produce, and also - considering its social context and purpose - it can explain why a discourse is the way it is. Also, Poole (2002), considered genre analysis to be the best-realized link between discourse analysis and contemporary second languages (L2) pedagogy because it aids writing instructors via yielding analyses of different academic texts, and also helps them provide appropriate discourse awareness for their students. Although the focus is on the teaching of writing, it was contented

by Lin (2006) that genre approach and its principles are applicable to the effective learning of other language skills.

Moves Analysis

A move in genre analysis is defined as a discursual or rhetorical unit that serves the communicative function of correlating and cohering written or spoken discourse (Lorés, 2004; Swales, 2004). Simply put, each move has its purpose but each contributes to the general communicative function while having its purpose. A brief elaboration of the most pervasive move theory in terms of three, four, and five moves is described in sequence.

Three-move theory. Create a Research Space (CARS) model, proposed by Swales (1990), has been widely used by scholars to outshine their publication in this competitive academia (Cheng, 2006). CARS model is divided into three moves: a) establishing a territory that consists of three steps (claiming centrality, making topic generalizations, and reviewing items of previous research); b) establishing a niche (presentation of research gap); c) occupying the niche (provision of a solution of criteria of evaluation).

Four-move theory. The most well-known and considerably applied structure in academic writing is the IMRD (Introduction, Method, Results, and Discussion) structure (Golebiowski, 2009). Furthermore, Swales and Feak (2000) pointed out that the IMRD format is a very useful model to use in conducting research.

Five-move theory. Differing from the above-discussed structures, the five-move theory – IPMPPrC (Introduction, Purpose, Method, Product, and Conclusion) structure proposed by Hyland (2000) is specially designed to access the research article abstracts. The introduction (M1) establishes the context of the paper and motivates the research or discussion; the purpose (M2) indicates the objective, thesis, or hypothesis and it outlines the intention behind the paper; the method (M3) provides information on the design, procedures, assumptions, approach, and data; the product (M4) states the main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished; and conclusion (M5) interprets or extends the results beyond the scope of the paper, draws inferences, and points to applications or wider implications.

Rhetorical Structures of Research Abstracts

In the past two decades, few studies have examined the move structures of RA abstracts from different perspectives. Some worked on cross-linguistic description of move patterns (Melander, et al., 1994; Martin-Martin, 2003; Connor et al., 2007; Marefat & Mohammadzadeh, 2013). These studies showed that the rhetorical variations of the abstracts are attributed to the discipline (Martin-Martin 2003), socio-cultural factors (Melander, et al 1994; Martin-Martin, 2003; Connor et al., 2007), and the relationship between writers and the discourse community (Martin-Martin, 2003; Connor et al., 2008).

Aside from the cross-linguistic studies regarding the move patterns of RA abstracts, some researchers have dealt with cross-disciplinary researches: electrical and electronics engineering, surgery, and finance (Ge and Yang, 2005), applied linguistics and educational technology (Pho, 2008); chemistry and linguistics (Li, 2011); and TEFL and microbiology (Nikpei, 2016). All these studies found that there are is no universal way of writing an abstract.

Linguistic Analysis of Research Abstracts

Another equally important consideration in the evaluation of abstracts is the linguistic realizations of the moves. Nevertheless, most studies appeared to structural and stylistic features (Keogh, 1995; Abdollahpour and Gholami, 2012), verb tenses (Salager-Meyer, 1992;

Swales and Feak, 2009; Pezzini, 2003; Bonifacio, 2019); the point of view (Tang and John, 1999; Harwood, 2005; Hyland, 2001; White, 2012). Generally, the findings reveal that there is no universal way of expressing the moves. On one hand, each move requires a specific verb tense and stylistic features. The use of point of view, on the other hand, is discipline and culture-based.

Methodology

Research Design

The study used the descriptive research design in determining the moves present, the move patterns, and the linguistic features used in the thesis and dissertation abstracts written by MMSU graduate students. Moreover, it was used to determine how the abstracts across programs are written in terms of move patterns and the use of linguistic features.

Corpus

The abstracts written by all MMSU-GS students both in the master's and doctoral programs served as the sources of data. Said abstracts were chosen as these were the latest copies of abstracts in the last five years before the conduct of the study. Also, compared with the abstracts of the undergraduate research, the chosen corpus is believed to manifest a higher degree of quality; thus, are expected to meet the qualities of an abstract published in refereed international journals.

Table 1 shows the programs where the sample abstracts were taken from and the breakdown of the number of abstracts per program.

Table 1. Breakdown of the number of abstracts per program

Specialization	Number of Abstracts
Master of Arts in Education	50
Master of Arts	36
Master of Science	23
Doctor of Philosophy	8
Doctor of Education	3
Total	120

As shown in Table 1, a total of 120 abstracts written by graduate students from all the programs were collected. The samples were grouped according to specializations. The groupings resulted in five classifications namely: Master of Arts in Education, Master of Arts, Master of Science, Doctor of Philosophy, and Doctor of Education.

Out of the 120 abstracts, 11 were from the doctorate programs, of which eight were from the Doctor of Philosophy program and three were from the Doctor of Education program; 50 were from MA in Education program, 36 from Master of Arts program, of which, 18 from MA in English Language and Literature program, 11 from MA in Nursing program and seven from the MA in Public Administration program. The remaining 23 abstracts were from Master of Science (MS) program, wherein, eight were from MS in Agriculture major in Crop Science, six from MS in Rural Development, five from MS in Biology, two from MS in Mathematics, one from MS in Soil and Water Resources Engineering, and one from MS in Agricultural Engineering.

Instruments

Three research instruments in the form of checklists were utilized in this study. These are the move checklist, the move pattern checklist, and the linguistic features checklist. These instruments were designed to facilitate coding and data analysis.

Move checklist. It contains a list of moves based on the five-move (Introduction-Purpose-Method-Results/Product-Conclusion) pattern by Hyland (2000) and a list of the Graduate School programs where the samples were taken from. The checklist was used to identify the moves present in each abstract and to count the occurrences of each move in the samples.

Move pattern checklist. This checklist also contains the list of moves based on Hyland's (2000) five-move pattern and the list of GS programs. It was used specifically to identify the move patterns that surfaced in the abstract by determining the order of their moves. Likewise, it was used to count the number of occurrences of the pattern used in the abstracts that were investigated.

Linguistic features checklist. It was used to identify the linguistic features used in writing the abstracts. Specifically, the following linguistic features were observed in the abstracts: verb tense, sentence structure, voice, and point of view.

Procedures

After permissions were obtained from University Officials, the researcher collected the copies of the abstracts from the MMSU-Graduate School library. To create a corpus, each abstract was first randomly coded from number A1 to A120 for the ease of reference and the anonymity of thesis writers. Finally, the abstracts were analyzed using Hyland's (2000) five-move framework to identify the rhetorical structure of the selected corpus. According to this framework, five moves are involved: Introduction (M1), Purpose (M2), Method (M3), Product (M4), and Conclusion (M5). Each move represents the realization of a communicative purpose. Each move represents the realization of a communicative purpose.

After the identification of moves, move patterns were identified. This was done by documenting the order of the moves in each abstract.

Lastly, the linguistic features were coded as well using the linguistic features checklist.

To ensure accuracy in the coding processes, a group of three human coders was formed. These coders are experts in their fields as reflected in their years of experience in doing such. Each coder used the research instruments in identifying the moves, move patterns, and linguistic features of the abstract. In cases where there were differences in the coding, a fourth encoder was asked to settle the differences.

Data Analysis

Since this study dealt with quantitative data, frequency count was used to treating the data. Specifically, the researcher counted the moves, the occurrences of various move patterns, and linguistic features observed in the abstracts.

Results and Discussions

Moves Present in MMSU – GS Abstracts

In identifying the moves present in the sample abstracts, Hyland's (2000) Framework for Abstract Analysis was used. The framework consists of five moves: Move 1 (Introduction); Move 2 (Purpose); Move 3 (Method); Move 4 (Result/Product); Move 5 (Conclusion).

Table 2 shows the moves present in the corpus.

Table 2. Summary of Moves Present in the Abstract

Moves	F	%	Rank
(Move 4) Product	120	100.00	1
(Move 2) Purpose	119	99.16	2
(Move 3) Method	118	98.33	3
(Move 5) Conclusion	117	97.50	4
(Move 1) Introduction	12	10.00	5

Based on the analyses made on the 120 sample research abstracts, it was found that most of the abstracts written by MMSU graduate students contain four moves. These moves are: product (100%), purpose (99.16%), method (98.33%), and conclusion (97.50%), respectively. The writing of an introduction in an abstract was only observed in 12 of 120 abstracts (10%).

Move 1 (Introduction). As shown in the table, only 12 abstracts were observed to have the move introduction. Of the 12, there were only four out of 50 from the MAEd programs, five out of 36 from the MA programs, two out of 23 from the MS programs, and one out of eight from the Ph.D. programs contain *introduction* in the abstracts. Furthermore, none of the three sample abstracts from the EdD programs contain this move.

According to Berndtsson, et al. (2008), a good abstract should contain the part that should give a high level of presentation of the area studied and this can be stated mostly in the Introduction part. However, this is not that deemed necessary in the case of MMSU – Graduate School research abstracts.

It was observed in the analyzed abstracts that the introduction establishes the following: 1) the context of the paper; 2) the justification of the essence of the research in the field; 3) the research gap.

Move 2 (Purpose). Of all the moves found in the sample abstracts, purpose, the most prevalent, is present in the abstracts of almost all the programs except one from the Ph.D. programs. It is the move that indicates the reason, and thesis or hypothesis. Further, it outlines the intention of the paper. The realization of this move is done in two ways: one is to show the general purpose of the research and the other is to present its specific objectives. In the case of MMSU, almost all the abstract use both ways.

Move 3 (Method). Method, a move that was found in 118 abstracts, is the second most prevalent move identified in the study. Two abstracts, one from the MAEd programs and one from the MS programs do not have this move.

Writing the method of an abstract shows how the study was conducted, where it was conducted, who the respondents were, what instrument or tool was used in gathering the data, and how the data were analyzed and treated. According to Lorés (2004), the presence of this move in the abstracts means that these abstracts can provide readers information on how the research was carried out. This guides other researchers in the field who want to replicate the study in their contexts.

Move 4 (Result/Product). This states the main findings or results, the argument, or what was accomplished. Like Move 2, it also has only one step which is, describing the main features or properties of the solution or product.

Move 5 (Conclusion). This is the move that interprets or extends results beyond the scope of the paper, draws inferences, points to applications, or wider applications. In the analyzed abstracts, the following were evident: a) drawn conclusion from the results; b) weighing the value of the research; forwarded recommendations.

Generally, moves that occurred regularly in a genre are considered obligatory and moves with lower frequency are considered as optional (Li, 2011). Following previous studies (e.g. Kanoksilapatham, 2005), a move is viewed as obligatory if its frequency is no less than 60% of the corpus in each discipline and it is regarded as optional if it occurs less than 60% of the corpus. Hence, Move 4 (Product), Move 2 (Purpose), Move 3 (Method), and Move 5 (Conclusion) are found to be obligatory moves while optional for the Move 1 (Introduction).

The findings on the analysis of the moves in research abstracts show that most graduate students of MMSU did not follow Hyland's (2000) Framework. The results also show that there is no standard format in terms of the moves that should be present in the abstract of the thesis and dissertation in all the programs. These findings agree with Bonifacio's (2019) study when found that most of the MSU-IIT graduate students from different disciplines wrote their abstracts based on the suggested content as mandated in their guidelines. They were not able to put into consideration the coherent arrangement of the rhetorical moves, thus, they were not also able to observe the standard format in writing the abstracts.

Move Patterns in MMSU – GS Abstracts

A move pattern is the arrangement of moves in the research abstracts with varying arrangements which are maybe composed of three to five moves. In genre analysis, it has always been considered to be one of the influential elements for it serves the function of correlating and cohering within the written context. Also, move pattern contributes to the overall communicative purpose of the genre (Santos, 1996).

After the identification of the moves present in the abstract, the order of the moves in each abstract was identified. This was done to determine the common move patterns exemplified in the MMSU – GS abstracts.

Table 3 shows the summary of move patterns evident in the abstracts.

Based on the analyses made, of the 18 move patterns identified, the pattern $P \rightarrow M \rightarrow Pr \rightarrow C$ (Purpose-Method-Result/Product-Conclusion) ranked first with 86 occurrences. This means that it is the pattern most frequently used by MMSU graduate students in writing their abstracts. Specifically, it was found in most of the abstracts from all specializations as it was observed in 42 sample abstracts from the MAEd programs, 30 from the MA programs, 11 from the MS programs, eight from the Ph.D. programs, and two from the EdD program.

Next to it are the following: $I \rightarrow P \rightarrow M \rightarrow Pr \rightarrow C$ pattern; $M/P \rightarrow M \rightarrow Pr \rightarrow C$ pattern, $P \rightarrow I \rightarrow M \rightarrow Pr \rightarrow C$ pattern; $P/M \rightarrow Pr$ pattern; $P \rightarrow Pr \rightarrow C$ pattern; and $P \rightarrow M \rightarrow C$ pattern, respectively. Though base on the number of occurrences (7, 6, 3, 2, respectively), these rhetorical patterns are rarely used by the students. The rest of the patterns was only observed once.

In terms of the number of moves found in each abstract, the data could be further classified into three categories: 1) five – move pattern (numbers 2, 4, 13, and 18); 2) four – move pattern (numbers 1, 3, 10, 11, 14, 16, and 17); 3) three-move pattern (numbers 6, 7, 8, 9, 12 and 15); and 4) two – move pattern (number 5).

Table 3. Move patterns observed in the MMSU – GS Abstracts.

No.	Move Patterns	Total	Rank
1	$P \rightarrow M \rightarrow Pr \rightarrow C$	86	1
2	$I \rightarrow P \rightarrow M \rightarrow Pr \rightarrow C$	7	2
3	$M/P \rightarrow M \rightarrow Pr \rightarrow C$	6	3
4	$P \rightarrow I \rightarrow M \rightarrow Pr \rightarrow C$	3	4

5	P/M → Pr	2	6
6	P → Pr → C	2	6
7	P → M → C	2	6
8	P → M → C	1	13
9	P → Pr → M	1	13
10	M → Pr → C → P	1	13
11	P/M → M → Pr → C	1	13
12	P → Pr → C	1	13
13	P → I → M → Pr → C	1	13
14	M/P → M → Pr → C	1	13
15	P → M → Pr	1	13
16	I → M → Pr → C	1	13
17	P → I → M → C	1	13
18	P → I → M → Pr → C	1	13

Legend: I (Introduction) P (Purpose) M (Method) Pr (Product) C (Conclusion)

The result of this study reflects several move models. These are the five-move model of Hyland (2000) and Bhatia's (1994), Golebiowski's (2009) four-move model with variations, and Swales' (1990) three-move model with a variation. These data imply that there is no standard institutional format being used in the MMSU – Graduate school as to the writing of their abstracts.

Linguistic Features of the MMSU – GS Abstracts

Table 4 shows the tense of the verbs and sentence structure used in each move in the abstracts. In determining the frequency of the said linguistic features, each sentence in the abstracts was analyzed. Point-of-view, as the other linguistic feature, was no longer presented on the table since all the abstracts are written in the third person.

Linguistic Features	Moves					Total	Rank
	I	P	M	PR	C		
Tense							
• Simple Past	8	149	257	317	137	868	1
• Simple Present	21	15	58	227	171	493	2
• Future	0	0	6	5	15	26	3
Sentence Structure						1387	
• Complex	42	119	386	504	336	1091	1
• Simple	1	15	84	79	29	213	2
• Compound-complex	6	0	18	37	27	83	3

Tenses of Verbs. The top three verb tenses that were observed in the research abstracts are the following: simple past, simple present, and future tenses.

As shown in Table 4, the simple present tense is more preferred than the simple past tense in writing the introduction (M1) and conclusion (M5). The preference for using simple present tense in writing the research abstracts could be attributed to the fact that these researches were written to convey immediate factuality and state current ideas. In writing the purpose (M2), method (M3), and product (M4), on the other hand, the simple past tense is more

preferred than the simple present tense. This is attributed to the fact that the studies were done in the past.

According to Bhatia (1993), most researchers used the simple present tense in writing the introduction (M1), purpose (M2), product (M4), and conclusion (M5) while past tense for the method (M3) of their research attracts. The results in this study prove to be otherwise as only M1 and M5 are expressed in the present tense while the other moves are written in the past tense.

It is interesting to note that the abstracts manifest various tenses even in the writing of the same move. For instance, in writing the introduction eight were noted to have been written in the simple past and 21 were written in the simple present tense. This is true in the writing of the other moves. This implies that students do have different perspectives in writing the various moves in their abstract as far as verb tenses are concerned. The result also suggested that some graduate students lacked the awareness of the consistency of using verb tenses because of the variations of the tenses of the verb that were found in the samples.

Sentence Structure. This pertains to the structures of sentences found evident in the abstracts written by MMSU-GS students. The data show that three sentence structures were dominantly used in writing the abstracts of all programs. These sentence structures are complex sentences, which ranked first; simple sentence, which ranked second; and compound-complex sentence, which ranked third. The compound sentence which was also used in the abstracts was no longer shown on the table for it was used very seldom.

The result reveals that the research abstracts exhibit varied sentence structures that did not affect the coherence of the sentences. Instead, the variations of the sentence structures allowed diversity and minimized the monotony of the research abstracts. Moreover, the result implies that there is no standard sentence structure in writing the different rhetorical moves because the sentence structures were not the same in all of the samples.

Point of View Used in the Abstracts. Point of view refers to the perspective from which the essay or article is written. The evaluation of the sample abstracts written by MMSU graduate students reveals that the point of view that was used evidently in all the abstracts is the third person point of view. This shows that the writers of the abstracts do not want to refer directly to themselves as the researchers who conducted the study but rather merely reporters of the results. This finding agrees with Hyland's (2001) study when he pointed out in research writing manuals that novice writers avoid reference to themselves. As he stressed out in his study, avoiding reference to self is to state that they are objective reporters of the result of the study that they have conducted.

Furthermore, the observations from the study show that there is a guideline that governs the use of point of view in writing the abstracts. It is revealed by the findings that the third person point of view is specifically used by the graduate students of MMSU in writing their abstracts as evident in the samples.

Conclusions

After the evaluations and analyses that have been made, the researchers have arrived at the following conclusions:

There is no standardized content of the research abstracts at the MMSU – Graduate School. Students were given the freedom to choose what to discuss in their abstract as shown by the three to five move observation in the corpus.

In terms of the rhetorical pattern, it is safe to conclude that the MMSU Graduate School has no prescribed convention in writing the abstract as reflected in the 18 move patterns that were identified in the study.

There is no consistency in the use of verb tense nor a standard sentence structure to be followed in writing the abstracts as shown in the samples. Finally, the third person point of view was used by all graduate students in writing their abstracts to convey that they are objective in reporting the results of the study.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the current study present interesting implications for academic writing instruction and research. The MMSU Graduate School should prescribe the moves that are considered obligatory and optional and the move patterns that students must follow. As to the linguistic features, the tenses of the verbs in each move and the point of view should also be prescribed to standardize the linguistic features of all the abstracts. It is also recommended to allow researchers to use different sentence structures in writing their abstracts.

References

- Anderson, K. and MacLean, J. (1997). *A genre analysis study of 80 medical abstracts*. Edinburgh Working Papers in Applied Linguistics 8: 1-23.
- Berndtsson, M., Hansson, J., Olsson, B., Lundell, B. (2008). *Thesis projects: A guide for students in computer science and information systems*. Switzerland: Springer
- Bhatia, V.K. (1993). *Analyzing genre: Language use in professional settings*. Harlow, Essex: Longman.
- Bonifacio, R. (2019). Genre analysis of research abstracts in Central Mindanao University. *International Journal of Education, Psychology, and Counseling*. 4. 225-236. 10.35631/IJEPC.4310019.
- Brett, P. (1994). A genre analysis of the results section of sociology articles. *English for Specific Purposes*. 13: 47-69
- Busch-Lauer, I. A. (1995). Abstracts in German medical journal: A linguistic analysis. *Information Processing and Management*, 31(5), 769-776. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0306-4573\(95\)00024-B](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0306-4573(95)00024-B)
- Cheng, An. (2006). Understanding learners and learning in ESP genre-based writing instruction. *English for Specific Purposes*. 25. 76-89. 10.1016/j.esp.2005.07.002.
- Connor, U., Upton, T. A., & Kanoksilpatham, B. (2007). Introduction to move analysis. In D. Biber, U. Connor, & T. A. Upton (Eds.), *Discourse on the move: Using corpus analysis to describe discourse structure* (pp. 23-41). Amsterdam, The Netherlands: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Cross, C., & Oppenheim, C. (2006). A genre analysis of scientific abstracts. *Journal of Documentation*, 62(4), 428-446
- Ge, D. M., & Yang, R. Y. (2005). A genre analysis of research article abstracts. *Modern Foreign Language (Quarterly)*, 28, 138-146.
- Golebiowski, Z. (2009). Prominent messages in education and applied linguistic abstracts: How do authors appeal to their prospective readers?". *Journal of Pragmatics* 41(4): 753-769.
- Harwood, N. (2005a). "Nowhere has anyone attempted... In this article, I aim to do just that": A corpus-based study of self-promotional I and we in academic writing across four disciplines". *Journal of Pragmatics*, 37(8), 1207- 1231. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2005.01.012

- Holmes, R. (1997). Genre analysis, and the Social Sciences: An Investigation of the Structure of RA Discussion Sections in Three Disciplines. *English for Specific Purposes*, 16(4), 321-327. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906\(96\)00038-5](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S0889-4906(96)00038-5)
- Hyland, K. (2000). *Disciplinary discourses: Social interactions in academic writing*. Harlow, UK: Pearson Education Limited, Longman
- Hyland, K. (2001). "Humble Servants of the Discipline? Self-Mention in Research Articles". *English for Specific Purposes*, 20(3): 207-226.
- Hyland, K. (2002). *Teaching and researching writing*. Harlow, England: Pearson Education.
- Kanoksilapatham, B. (2005). Rhetorical structure of biochemistry research articles. *English for Specific Purposes*, 24 (3)., pp 269 – 292.
- Kay, H, and Dudley- Evans, T. (1998). Genre: what teachers think? *ELT Journal*, 52 (4) 308-314
- Li, Y. (2011). *A genre analysis of English and Chinese research article abstracts in Linguistics and Chemistry*. Master's thesis at San Diego State University, USA.
- Lim, J. M. H. (2006). Method sections of management research articles: A pedagogically motivated qualitative study. *English for Specific Purposes*, 25(3), 282–309. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.esp.2005.07.001>
- Lin, B. (2006). Genre-based teaching and Vygotskian principles in EFL: The case of a university writing course. *Asian EFL Journal*, 8(3). Retrieved from https://asian-efl-journal.com/September_2006_EBook_editions.pdf
- Lores, R. (2004). On RA abstracts: From rhetorical structure to thematic Organization. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23, 280-302.
- Marefat, H., and Mohammadzadeh S. (2013). Genre analysis of literature research article abstracts: A cross-linguistic, cross-cultural study. *Applied Research on English Language*, 2(2). Pp. 37 – 50.
- Martín Martín, P. (2003). A genre analysis of English and Spanish research paper abstracts in experimental social sciences. *English for Specific Purposes* 22 (1): 25-43.
- Montesi, M. and Urdiciain, B. (2005). Recent Linguistic Research into Author Abstracts: Its Value for Information Science. *Knowledge Organization*, 32(2). 64-78. 66 refs.
- Nikpei, H. (2016). Rhetorical Moves of Abstracts Written by TEFL Students and Molecular Biology Graduate Students- A Comparative Study. *International Journal of English Language & Translation Studies*, 4(4), 172-179. Retrieved from www.eltjournal.org
- Osman, H. (2004). Genre-based instruction for ESP. Retrieved from <http://www.melta.org.my/ET/2004/2004-13.pdf>
- Pezzini, O. (2003). Genre Analysis and Translation - An Investigation of Abstracts of Research Articles in Two Languages. *Cadernos de Tradução*, 2. 10.5007/6201.
- Pho, P D. (2008). Research article abstracts in applied linguistics and educational technology: A study of linguistic realizations of rhetorical structure and authorial stance. *Discourse Studies* 10(2). 231-250.
- Pintos, V., Crimi, Y. (2010). Unit 2: The Research Article: Introduction, Literature Review, and Methods Section. Universidad CAECE: Buenos Aires, Argentina, Re
- Poole, D. (2002). Discourse analysis and applied linguistics. In R. B. Kaplan (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 73-84). Oxford: OUP
- Ren, H., & Li, Y. (2011). A comparison study on the rhetorical moves of abstracts in published research articles and master's Foreign- language theses. *English Language Teaching*, 4, 162-166.
- Salager-Meyer, F. (1992). A text-type and move analysis study of verb tense and modality distribution in medical English abstracts. *English for Specific Purposes*, 11, 93-113.

- Santos, M. B. D. (1996). The textual organization of research paper abstracts in applied linguistic. *Text*, 16(4), 481–499. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1515/text.1.1996.16.4.481>
- Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swales, J. M. (2004). *Research genres: Explorations and applications*. Cambridge: CUP.
- Swales, J. M., & Feak, C. B. (2009). *Abstracts and the writing of abstracts*. Michigan: University of Michigan Press
- Tang, R. and John, S (1999). “The ‘I’ in identity: Exploring writer identity in student academic writing through the first-person pronoun”. *English for Specific Purposes*, 18(S1), 23-39. doi:10.1016/S0889-4906(99)00009-5
- Tippett, J. Mark (2005): *Down to Earth Research Advice: Abstracts*. Retrieved from <http://www.earthresearch.com/writing-abstract.shtml>
- Tseng, F.P. 2011. Analyses of move structure and verb tense of research article abstracts in applied linguistics journals. Retrieved from www.ccsenet.org.
- Ventola, E. (1994). Abstract as an object of linguistic study. In Cmejrkova, S., Danes, F. & Havlova, E. (Eds.). *Writing vs. speaking: language, text, discourse, communication*. (pp. 333-352). Tübingen: Günther Narr.
- White, G.B. (2018). First-Person Pronoun Use in Abstracts: Asian Doctorate Students versus SSCI Journal Writers. *The Asian ESP Journal*. 14 (1)., pp. 9-30
- Yang, W. (2012). Evaluating the Effectiveness of Genre-Based Instruction: A Writing Course of English for Hospitality and Tourism. *Asian EFL Journal*. (14)4, pp174-193
- Yaofei, Z. (2018). *A Systemic Ideational Analysis of Pharmaceutical Research Article Abstract*. *The Asian ESP Journal*. 14 (1)., pp. 246 - 271

Thai Tertiary Learners' Composition Writing Performance and Self-Regulation towards EFL Writing Using Process – Oriented Approach

Roderick Julian Robillos*

Faculty of Education, Khon Kaen University, Thailand

Ong-Art Namwong**

Faculty of Education, Khon Kaen University, Thailand

Abstract

Writing is viewed as a laborious task which necessitates attentional control to manage the processes involve in writing and extensive self-regulation of learning (SRL). Literature has shown that students in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) generally face difficulties in acquiring practical skills such as lack of approaches to improve their writing skill and lack of awareness on SRL strategies in writing. The current study is set out to investigate the effect of process-oriented approach on Thai university learners' composition writing performance and on their self-regulation towards EFL writing. A total of 27 Second Year college students were purposively selected as the subject of the study. The researchers employed an exploratory case study specifically a mixed-mode method type of research using a pre- and post-test design.

Additionally, a Writing Self-Regulation questionnaire was utilized to track the development of their self-regulation towards EFL writing. Data was collected while the respondents participated in the 8 sessions employing the process-oriented approach on their writing processes. Quantitative results reveal that the approach used by the respondents made noteworthy gains on their writing performance across organization, content, word choice, and language as indicated by a significant difference between their pre- and post- test results. Interestingly, six of the seven components of writing self-regulation reveal a significant relationship with students' writing performance indicative that they could apply self-regulatory skills to aid them write efficiently. These are: goal-setting, strategies for attaining the goal, restructuring one's physical and social context, managing one's time efficiency, attributing causations to results, and adapting future methods. On the other hand, qualitative findings reveal that respondents showed positive responses towards using the aforesaid approach both in developing their written composition and enhancing their writing self-regulation. In conclusion, the findings of this study have provided significant support for the instruction and use of the approach to be included as a useful pedagogical method not only to improve students' writing performance in the classroom but also to foster their self-regulation towards EFL writing.

Keywords: Process-oriented writing approach; EFL composition writing performance; Self-Regulation of Learning strategies

* *rodero@kku.ac.th*

** *ongartna@kku.ac.th*

Introduction

Writing is an active, productive skill; however, it is a difficult language skill to learn (Bayat, 2014). In fact, EFL students face multiple challenges as they learn to write (Erkan & Saban, 2011) particularly in the tertiary level. One of the main problems among students is the fact that many of them cannot improve their writing skill, mostly the ones who are writing compositions in English (Batalla & De Vera, 2019). Since writing has always been a necessary requirement for learners in their undergraduate studies, developing an effective writing competency is a tough undertaking for them (Malmir & Khosravi, 2018). Apart from knowledge of the task and lexical complexity, generating ideas and developing them into a well-organized written expression are just some of the difficulties students have been encountering in their writing classes. Since writing is a complex and laborious activity, it requires thinking strategies and approaches that allow learners to express their ideas effectively.

However, most Thai universities have been traditionally teaching writing through product-oriented approach emphasizing mainly on grammar and has been assessed in the form of test or exam scores. Students are producing their own texts by merely imitating the model text given by the teacher. It is observed that focusing on language and vocabulary accuracy may ignore other writing important characteristics, such as organization, thought, coherence, or audience awareness. Student's creativity and capability to learn through writing are as well overlooked. Besides, most of the time in writing class, students work individually without interacting with one another. It might be useful, however, to both teachers and students focusing on the process of writing, and not just on the product itself. If learners are given time to communicate with their classmates about their written products orally, learners may be able to express their own opinions and may be able to exchange ideas to their peers. Learners should be encouraged to feel free to convey their own thoughts in written messages by providing them plenty of time and opportunity to reconsider and revise their writing and at each step seek assistance from outside resources like their peers and teachers.

Recent research studies, on the other hand, reported that individual differences such as personality traits, learning styles and strategies, motivation, beliefs and self-regulation, could predict success in language learning (Dornyei, 2005; Wang Kim, Bong, Ahn, 2013). Self-regulated learning (SRL) is a core conceptual framework to understand the cognitive, motivational, and emotional aspects of learning (Zimmerman, 1986). Researchers have concentrated their attention on the learners' perceptions of the task and the learners' beliefs in their abilities to perform a task in order to understand the reasons why some learners learn language more successfully than others with almost the same aptitudes and capabilities (Bandura, 1997). Moreover, researchers of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) are increasingly directing their research efforts towards the important role of learners' thoughts, beliefs, and cognitive/metacognitive behaviors to learn different L2 skills successfully and writing skill is no exception to this. It has been suggested that learners who self-regulate well must: (i) plan how to approach a task in advance of their actions, (ii) self-monitor their improvement during task performance, (iii) evaluate the process and outcome after the execution of their plan, (iv) during cycles of planning, self-monitoring, and evaluation, reflect upon the learning process, meaning that they put their knowledge into action and increase the number of strategies they can use, which gives them more possibilities to approach and perform future tasks (Ertmer & Newby, 1996). It has been assumed that, besides knowing what aspects to improve and how to improve these aspects, self-regulated learners must be motivated to improve (Zimmerman, 2006).

Writing seems very difficult to accomplish for EFL learner. This is because the difficulty does not only to produce and organize ideas (Pahlavani & Maftoon, 2015) but also

to decode these ideas into readable writings. It also involves complex skills such as planning, monitoring, evaluating, skills apart from writing characteristics such as organization, word choice, content and the like. Learners' awareness on their self-regulation of learning enables them to succeed in their learning endeavors (Robillos, 2019). In previous studies, the effectiveness of self-regulated strategies on L2 / EFL writing has been investigated (Harris et al., 2008; Magno, 2009). Furthermore, approaches to the teaching and learning writing has been used to further aid learners generate ideas and vocabularies and content to further shape their writing into a well-developed composition. Thus, this paper attempts to investigate how the process – oriented approach increases Thai tertiary learners' writing performance and how it helps enhance their SRL strategies towards EFL writing.

Conceptualization Of The Study

A number of approaches and techniques have been provided regarding L2/EFL writing during the last decade. The process-oriented approach in particular, which many researchers started to highlight as vital in L2/EFL writing from the late 1970s to 1980s, has been influential in developing writing competency. The process – oriented approach, on the other hand, centers on the process of writing not on the final product. On that note, a number of EFL teachers have found its benefits and are using this approach in the teaching of writing in their classrooms. The present study was based on this approach, the process-oriented approach. White and Arndt (1991) propose this framework in which there is a brief explanation about each stage.



Figure 1. A writing model by White and Arndt (1991)

The focusing stage has to do with the purpose for writing, the real reasons for writing. Structuring deals with the organization of ideas in an acceptable way for the reader. Drafting shows the transition from writer-based into reader-based text because multiple drafts are produced and each one has feedback from the teacher or from peers. Re-viewing means standing back from the text and looking at it with fresh eyes and asking oneself: "Is it right?" Evaluation is given during the process to assist students permanently and not merely at the end. Finally, it should be pointed out that generating ideas is the most important stage when the process is starting. Here the writer looks for a topic and considers a purpose to initiate the writing task. There are number of advantages offered by this writing approach: (i) it focuses on the process, not on the final product; (ii) it is reader-based, not writer-based; (iii) it finds a real audience; (iv) it offers a variety of techniques; (v) the teacher plays the role of guide, facilitator, and reader; (vi) the student's role is one of sharing and collaborating; (vii) grammar is a tool (a

means, not an end); (viii) meaning is essential (not form); (ix) it is a creative process; and (x) evaluation and feedback are given permanently (not only at the end).

In EFL classroom, process-oriented writing approach has dominated the teaching of writing. A number of researchers have dealt with this approach. For example, Coffin et.al. (2003) explain that writing process includes eight different stages namely: pre-writing, planning, drafting, reflecting, peer reviewing, revising, and editing. For Brown (2001), he claimed that writing is a thinking process and it always contains stages such as prewriting, drafting, revising and editing. The aforesaid stages of process writing approach are similar to Karatay's (2011a) and Simpson's (2013), describing that the stages of process writing approach started from prewriting, drafting, editing, revising, and publishing. According to Karatay (2011a), ideas are generated, and the topic and target reader are determined in the prewriting stage. During the drafting stage, specified ideas are put on paper. Ideas and the organization are addressed again in the revision stage (Simpson, 2013). In the editing stage, mistakes in logical coherence among sentences and paragraphs are corrected. Lastly, in the publishing stage, the written product is shared to peers. The realization of the functions of these five stages is carried out if process writing approach is applied in the classroom.

On the other hand, SRL has emerged as an important new construct in education. Self-regulation is defined as the 'degree to which individuals become metacognitive, motivationally and behaviorally active participants in their own learning processes (Zimmerman, 1986). Researches of SLA gradually adapted the concept of self-regulation to student learning and educational practices leading to the current concept of Self-Regulation of Learning in the field of education. Zimmerman and Campillo (2002) formulate a cyclical phase model of Self-Regulation, which explain learning processes and motivational beliefs in three phases: forethought, performance, and self-reflection. The proposed model is presented in Figure 2:

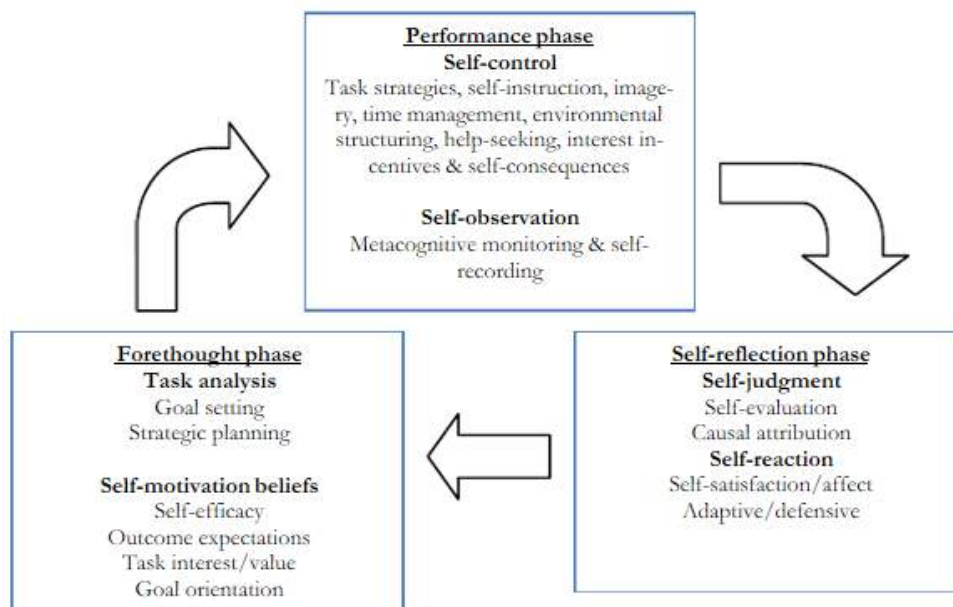


Figure 2. Zimmerman and Campillo's (2002) cyclical phase model of Self-Regulation (SR)

The SR model to the study of writing shows that planning phase in writing can be tailored in the *forethought phase* of SR. Learners establish goals in the planning phase in order to accomplish the given writing task. They are also required to decide upon strategies, employ their schematic knowledge for the writing task, and analyze the requirements for the given task.

The next phase is the *performance phase*. Here, the students start expressing their viewpoints on a paper. This stage is as well vital to the planning phase. The student needs to apply appropriate strategies to overcome problems experienced during writing process. Self-regulatory strategies can have considerable influence on the amount of attention paid to various stages of the writing process and how learners allocate their attention between various stages of writing. The final SR phase is self-reflection which can be paired to the *monitoring stage* of writing. According to Zimmerman (2000), this stage involves self-evaluation of one's writing processes and outcomes. Monitoring the sufficiency of the content, organization, and form of one's written product and also carrying out necessary revisions are not only a cognitive process but often an affective process, whereby writers make different self-evaluative judgments about the text they produce. Written products might be evaluated positively by learners, which can provide motivation for engaging in further revisions and future writing activities. However, negative evaluations might be detrimental for task engagement (Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2002). Self-regulatory capacity interacts with cognitive factors, and they separately and jointly affect writing processes, which include the planning, formulation, transcribing, and editing of writing (Pahlavani & Maftoon, 2015).

Noticeably, some significance is linked to this study by looking into this important issue in the Thai context where most of the time writing is taught through product-oriented approach emphasizing mainly on grammar and has been assessed in the form of test or exam scores which may ignore other important characteristics of writing. Further, student's creativity and capability to learn through writing are as well overlooked. Moreover, there is also an issue regarding the relationship between the success of EFL learners in composition writing performance and awareness on their self-regulation towards EFL writing using a process-oriented approach; however, these factors to date have not been amply explored in Thailand. Therefore, the study attempts to address this gap with the end-in-view of improving Thai tertiary learners' composition writing performance and fostering their self-regulation towards EFL writing.

Methodology

Research Design and Samples

The present study employed a mixed-mode method using a pre- and post-test design to explore the explicit instruction of composition writing using a process-oriented writing approach as a strategy intervention. The quasi-experimental nature of the study implies that the group of students is an intact class. Furthermore, the researcher utilizes a time series design to monitor the students' progress in writing their essays. There are 10 sessions involved which constituted of two sessions for the administration of pre- and post- writing tests, eight sessions for the implementation of the intervention. A total of 27 Second Year college students were purposively selected as the subject of the current study constituting of 10 males and 17 females and are majoring in TESOL program of the Faculty of Education in the study-university.

Methods of Data Collection

The researcher employed four methods of data collection to capture quality evidence that leads to the formulation of convincing and credible data to achieve the aims that have been posed above. The four methods of data collection namely writing pre- and post- tests, writing Self-Regulation Questionnaire, Observation Field Notes and Interview protocol are necessary as it ensures that the data gathered can be triangulated and that subsequent decisions based on arguments embodied in the findings are valid.

The **writing pre-test**. Students were asked to develop a composition for at least 200 words in an hour. The composition writing topic was entitled “*A Memorable Time in My Life*” which is also aligned to the topics they study in their Writing class. This topic was checked by two English lecturers of the Faculty in the study-university for its cultural and cognitive appropriateness. Moreover, building their background knowledge such as question posing, clustering strategy were some of the activities that were carried out first before they start writing their draft. These activities are usual activities they are undertaking in their regular class before writing. Furthermore, the respondents’ written compositions were corrected by two inter-raters (two English lecturers from the study-university) based from the writing scoring rubric adapted from Bayat (2014) constituted of four writing aspects such as: *organization, content, word choice, language*. Ten compositions written by the respondents were read and checked by two inter-raters and the correlation among scores marked by each inter-rater was calculated. The inter reliability scores of the first and second inter-raters were .87 and .84 respectively which indicate a strong agreement to each other.

A **Writing Self-Regulation Questionnaire**. This standard questionnaire for writing performance was first developed by Kanlapan et al. (2009) and was recently utilized in the study conducted by Pahlavani and Maftoon (2015). The current study adopted the questionnaire and administered to the participants before and after the implementation of the intervention.

The participants were given at least 40 minutes to complete the questionnaire. This questionnaire is a self-report questionnaire constituting of 100 items across three areas of personal, behavioral, and environmental effects in seven categories namely: Goal-setting; strategies for attaining the goals; restructuring one’s physical and social contexts; managing one’s time efficiency; evaluating one’s method; adapting future methods; and attributing causation results (beliefs about the cause of one’s errors or successes). All categories have 15 items each except the last aforementioned category having only 10 items. The evaluation is based on a five-point Likert scale measuring how students frequently use such strategies and ranges from 1=Not at all true to myself to 5=True to myself.

The **writing post-test**. This was administered after the strategy intervention. The participants were given another topic to develop into at least 200-word composition. However, they were not reminded anymore what strategies or instruments they should use. The teacher-researcher just put on his table the revising and editing checklists and the students may or may not use those. The written compositions were evaluated by two writing experts to determine the participants’ writing success. Evaluators were two English lecturers and earn more than 3 years of experience in teaching writing courses to students of the study-university.

Observation Field-notes were used by researcher to record any issues encountered during the course of the study. The notes are intended to be read as evidence that gives meaning and aids for further understanding of the phenomenon. Immediate recordings of field-notes were done after leaving the class to avoid forgetting important details.

Interviews were conducted voluntarily to students to provide more details about how often and when the respondents would use the process-oriented writing approach in their writing endeavor after the intervention. The interview protocol was designed and carried out to examine the prewriting, drafting and revising strategies that would aid respondents’ writing processes as well as how the process-oriented writing approach assists them to their writing processes and to their self-regulation of learning strategies in writing.

Research Procedures and the Intervention Program

To achieve the purpose of the study, a program was designed and was carried out during the course of 10 sessions constituting 8 sessions implementing the process-oriented approach as a

strategy intervention and one session each for the pre and post writing tests. The programme is presented in Table 1.

Table 1 The Intervention Programme

Session/s	Phase/s	Activities
1 st Session	<i>Before intervention</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Administration of writing pre-test. Introduction and prior activities were carried out.
2 nd to 6 th Sessions	<i>During intervention</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduction of the 1st stage. Brainstorming and organizing of ideas were implemented. Brainstorming, concept mapping and clustering techniques were carried out. • Writing part. Students were asked to write a composition and were given the chance to share their drafts to gain more ideas from their peer's comments and suggestions and to solve issues regarding organization of ideas. The teacher, on the other hand, would just be around ready to respond if there are issues needed to be addressed. • These sessions comprise of post writing stage that involved revising and editing sub-stages. Under the former, each respondent's written composition was by students themselves checked using a revision checklist. This is to further let the students discover if their ideas were already complete or not yet. Furthermore, they would be given several minutes to share their revised paper to their peers to gain more insights as well as resolve issues regarding lexical and organization of ideas. For the latter, students had the chance to edit their written piece using the editing checklist to further spot minimal errors before they write their final draft.
7 th to 9 th Sessions		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • These last three sessions were another round of composition writing; different writing topic would be developed. This round is to give them ample practice using the approach before they have the post writing activity which happened on the 10th session.
10 th session	<i>After intervention</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Another topic would be developed by the students and would be using at least 200 words in 60 minutes.

Test Marking and the writing scoring rubric

For the evaluation of the participants' written compositions, four criteria were identified and used as the writing scoring rubric: *organization*, *content*, *word choice*, and *language*. This scoring rubric criteria was adapted from Bayat (2014), however, few revisions were made and was piloted to other group with almost the same cognitive level, gaining .763 Cronbach's alpha which means that the instrument was reliable and good to use as the Cronbach alpha value was high. A descriptive checklist of these four criteria was prepared in order to standardize the evaluation of written compositions. Each criterion was assigned a possible 25 points as the

highest mark and the subsection of each criterion also determined by the consensus of the evaluators, were assigned a possible 5 points each.

Under *organization*, the subsections were the presence of introduction, body, and conclusion; the use of the thesis statement in the introduction; the specification of the points to be discussed in the thesis statements; the presence of topic sentences at the beginning of the paragraphs reflecting the topic to be addressed, and reference to the thesis statement in the conclusion. Under *content*, the subsections were the presence of specific main idea in the essay; explanations supporting the main idea, the absence of redundant information, the suitability of the narrative technique for the topic. *Word choice* included avoidance of ambiguous word, and effective use of words for expression. Finally, under *language*, it contained style establishing logical and semantic links between sentences; constructing appropriate relationships between ideas through conjunctions; making use of techniques of effective expression such as exemplification, description, *etc.* and ensuring continuity in the text. The inter reliability scores of the first and second inter-raters were .84 and .81 respectively which indicate a strong agreement to each other.

Data Analysis

Quantitative data were evaluated based on descriptive and inferential statistics, whilst qualitative data were analyzed using thematic analysis. The Descriptive Statistics such as mean, frequency, percentage were calculated and presented in a tabular form. The t-test statistical analysis was used to compare the means of both sets of tests to indicate the effect of the intervention employed. The t-test verified whether or not the null hypothesis could be accepted. The Pearson Moment Correlation Coefficient was also used to determine the relationship between the process-oriented writing approach to those of respondents' composition writing performance and their writing self-regulation.

Furthermore, data from questions in the interview protocol were subjected to frequency counts and were analyzed using the process of thematic coding (Cresswell & Plano Clarch, 2011). Table 2 presents the themes that emerged from the respondents' responses after a semi-structured interview was conducted:

Table 2 Themes emerged from the respondents' responses to semi-structured interviews

Themes	Sub-themes
Usefulness of Process Writing Approach	-Pre-writing
	• concept-mapping
	• clustering technique
	-Drafting
	-Post-writing
Challenges of using Process Writing Approach	• revising
	• editing
Enhances Self-Regulation In Writing	-Time-consuming
	-challenging
	-Goal-setting
	-Strategies for attaining the goals
	-Restructuring one's physical and social context
	-Attributing causation to results
	-Evaluating one's method

 -Adapting future methods

Results

Quantitative Part

Test of difference on the respondents' composition writing performance

Table 3 presents the test of difference on the respondents' composition writing performance before and after the strategy intervention. As shown, the mean and SD scores before the strategy intervention ($\bar{x}=7.71$; $SD=2.13$) and after the strategy intervention ($\bar{x}=12.83$; $SD=1.71$) show that when compared statistically, the differences between the two results were significant as evidenced by a computed p-value of 0.000 which is less than 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the research hypothesis claiming 'using process-oriented writing approach had no significant difference on the respondents' composition writing performance before and after the strategy intervention', was rejected indicating that the use of process-oriented writing approach made significant change towards students' achievement on their written tasks.

Table 3 Test of difference on the respondents' composition writing performance before and after the intervention

Variables	Mean	SD	t-computed value	p-value	Interpretation
Before the Intervention	7.71	2.13	-8.31	0.000	Significantly Different
After the Intervention	12.83	1.71			

Table 4 presents the test of difference on the respondents' writing self-regulation before and after the strategy intervention. As shown, the mean scores before the strategy intervention ($\bar{x}=12.32$; $SD=1.76$) and after the strategy intervention ($\bar{x}=19.69$; $SD=2.51$) show that when compared statistically, the differences between the two results were significant with a t-value of -17.34 and yielding a computed p-value of 0.000 which is less than 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, the research hypothesis claiming 'the use of process-oriented writing approach had no significant difference on the respondents' writing self-regulation before and after the strategy intervention', was rejected manifesting that the writing approach being used has significantly affected students' writing self-regulation towards EFL.

Table 4 Test of Difference on the Respondents' Writing Self-Regulation before and after the intervention

Seven Components of Writing Self-Regulation	Before Intervention		After Intervention		t-compute d-value	p-value
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD		
Goal Setting	12.33	2.12	18.83	2.79	-14.32	0.000
Strategies for attaining the goals	13.17	2.23	20.82	2.23	-14.59	0.000
Restructuring one's physical and social context	12.82	1.84	22.93	2.37	-15.68	0.000
Managing one's time efficiency	11.34	1.56	18.64	2.71	-13.34	0.000

Evaluating One's method	12.61	1.87	18.36	2.86	-12.87	0.000
Attributing causation to results	12.68	1.49	19.82	2.48	13.90	0.000
Adapting Future Methods	11.34	1.18	18.44	2.17	-13.33	0.000
Overall	12.32	1.76	19.69	2.51	-17.34	0.000

Test of Relationship between the Respondents' Composition writing performance and their Writing Self-Regulation after the strategy intervention

Table 5 presents the test of relationship between the respondents' composition writing performance and the seven components of writing self-regulation after the intervention. As revealed, six of the seven components of writing self-regulation showed significant relationship with the aforesaid variables since the components on goal setting (-2.29), strategies for attaining the goal (-2.26), Restructuring one's physical and social context (-2.21), Managing one's time efficiency (-2.24), Attributing causations to results (-2.22) and Adapting future methods (-2.32) are higher than the t-critical value of 2.08. However, there is one component (evaluating one's method) that is found no relationship between the two variables aforementioned yielding a t-computed value of 2.01 which is lower than the indicated t-critical value.

Table 5 Test of Relationship between the Respondents' Essay writing performance and their Writing Self-Regulation after the Intervention

Seven Components of Writing Self-Regulation	Pearson <i>r</i> -value	<i>t</i> -computed value	<i>t</i> -critical value
Goal Setting	-0.24	-2.29*	2.08
Strategies for attaining the goal	-0.41	-2.26*	2.08
Restructuring one's physical and social context	-0.32	-2.21*	2.08
Managing one's time efficiency	-0.39	-2.24*	2.08
Evaluating one's method	-0.38	-2.01	2.08
Attributing causations to results	-0.42	-2.22*	2.08
Adapting future methods	-0.35	-2.31*	2.08
Overall	-0.37	-2.27*	2.08

Table 6 presents the test of relationship between the respondents' composition writing performance and their self-regulation towards writing after the strategy intervention. As gleaned, the respondents' composition writing performance and their self-regulation towards EFL writing showed a significant relationship since the t-computed value of 2.71 is higher than the t-critical value of 2.08. Therefore, the research hypothesis claiming, 'there is no significant relationship between the respondents' composition writing performance and their writing self-regulation after the strategy intervention', was rejected.

Table 6 Overall Test of Relationship between the Respondents' Composition Writing Performance and their Self-Regulation towards EFL Writing

Variables	Pearson <i>r</i> -value	<i>t</i> -computed value	<i>t</i> -critical value	Interpretation
Essay Writing Performance	0.47	2.71	2.08	

Variables	Pearson <i>r</i> -value	<i>t</i> -computed value	<i>t</i> -critical value	Interpretation
Writing Self-Regulation				Significantly Related

Qualitative Part

Effects, Use, and Challenges of Process-Oriented writing approach

Knowledge activation is identified as an effective activity during planning stage. Students' schemas could actively make connections to the new topic. R3 conveyed her feelings towards the effectiveness of those aforesaid strategies:

"The clustering technique allows me to explore many ideas before committing them to a particular order. It helped me discover that some words have many related words about which to write. Random associations eventually become patterns of logic." R3

The above interview results were triangulated with researcher's field-note record as follows:

Observation Field-note #1

Some students after exposing them to strategies of planning stage such as brainstorming and clustering became more concentrated on what they are writing. They became more interested in gaining more vocabularies and ideas as their peers keep on sharing their background knowledge towards the writing topic. They believe that planning develops their schemas toward the topic which assists them to construct their draft.

A good writer must learn how to evaluate their own language - to improve through checking their own text, looking for errors and structure. This way, students will become better writers. R2 revealed what she experienced when she was exposed to revising and editing techniques during and after her writing process.

"I do not revise nor edit my draft after writing it on paper but after I was taught of techniques such as revising and editing, it has become more meaningful and free from grammatical errors due to the useful reminders the revising and editing checklists are providing." R2

To be effectively successful in using the process-oriented writing approach, it necessitates more time to accomplish all the stages. However, due to time-constraints, the students were not able to finish their written products on time. As R6 felt when she was trying to accomplish all the writing stages to finish her draft.

"I tried to follow various strategies to improve my essay writing from the planning stage to revising my final draft. They were very helpful however it takes a lot of time to finish those writing stages and this necessitates us to extend our time just to finish one draft." R6

Enhance Self-Regulation towards Writing

It has been suggested that individuals who self-regulate well must plan how to approach a task in advance of their actions, self-monitor their improvement during task performance, and evaluate the process and outcome after the execution of their plan. R14 and R9 stated their opinions regarding the importance of setting goals and knowing such strategies for attaining goals.

"Before I write, I set my mind that I would finish my written output. I always create my goals for every writing task I need to accomplish. Moreover, I make my own guidelines for my written output and try to compose a paper that uses a comprehensible vocabulary." R14

"I brainstorm for ideas before I write by using graphic organizers to manage my ideas. Then, trying to revise and edit it by using the revising and editing checklist that my teacher provided for us." R9

Positive comments can help build student confidence and create good feeling for the next writing class. It also helps if the reader is more than just the teacher. Pair and group work build students' confidence. R9 and R1 could attest this as they unfold their experience during collaboration stage. They tried to gain confidence in this stage through sharing of their thoughts and ideas to their peers without reservations:

"I gained more confidence in the class after having taught with collaboration strategies. Before, I was shy sharing my ideas because I feel that it is wrong. Since some of them also had same ideas as mine as we share, it gives me confirmation that I can also do what they can do." R9

"I prefer having people or friends around when I write so that I can gather ideas from them." R1

Guiding students to reflect their learning processes means asking them to reflect on what problems they encountered during writing process, which method they have used which method they would be using and how they would overcome their writing difficulties. Through self-evaluation process, the students had a better understanding of their writing processes so as to help them better prepare for future writing tasks: R7 revealed his insights regarding self-evaluation and emphasized that there are various evaluation strategies that she could use to come up with a more meaningful writing product:

"For me, I always make necessary revisions in my writing compositions whenever the teacher suggests me to. I always take down notes especially the useful comments coming from everyone who reads my writing output because I believe that I could use those notes to better my composition." R7

The above interview results were triangulated with researcher's field-note record as follows:

Observation Field Note # 2

Self-reflection in post writing phase was very vital for the students to become self-regulated learners as they mostly focused on the first stage and second stage such as prior knowledge activation and monitoring respectively. So when the teacher asked them to reflect on their learning processes, the students immediately spoke and shared their thoughts and self-evaluate regarding difficulties and successes they have encountered which lead them to strategy adjustments which enable them to overcome their writing difficulties and problems.

After the strategy intervention, the respondents stated that they learned a lot of writing strategies and these helped improve their writing performance. R10 voiced that she knows now how to write and can manage writing difficulties when she studied on her own:

"After being taught of writing strategies in the class, I learned to self-regulate my writing process and could perform better. Moreover, if writing difficulties arise, I think I can confidently overcome it and can manage to solve it myself by using the writing strategies I've learned." R10

Various writing strategies were used in the process of teaching writing in the classroom and these build self-confidence, motivation and positive habits on students' learning experiences. Just like R8 and R6 conveyed their thoughts regarding this:

"After the approach was taught, I started building confidence and discipline. I improved my confidence because I am directed to what I would be doing during writing activities. I also established discipline because it reminds me of what to follow before, during, and after writing." R8

"Since the teacher developed assessment for class activities and out of class activities, I became more motivated and disciplined to finish my work." R6

The aim of using process – oriented writing strategies in teaching writing is to guide students to be better writers. In the study, the students were guided to help themselves in learning writing not only for one day but for their future learning experiences. R11 expressed her feelings regarding this:

"Activating my background knowledge helps me know what is going to write. But this stage does not end only in my writing class. I believe that in any skill like reading, listening and even speaking, I can do the same thing. I also learnt handling situations and help me tackle writing problems as I studied on my own." R11

The above interview results were triangulated with researcher's field-note record as follows:

Observation Field Note # 3

After the students were taught of the approach, it's observed that they became more aware of using writing strategies. They realized that practicing those activities help regulate their own learning because they can manage their own writing problems and try to improve their strategies through applying strategies even to other skills.

Process writing strategies allow learners to better prepare for their writing tasks. It teaches them to strategically plan, monitor and evaluate their writing performance not only on that day of the class but also the next time around. Thus, helps them to become independent learners trying to manage their writing difficulties and tackle strategies that they may be using in the future.

Discussions

The study findings show that the writing program was successful and effective as it helped to bring about the positive results on most of the students' writing composition performance and on their self-regulation towards EFL writing. The intervention program also aided the learners to improve their composition writing performance and to further learn to use the techniques and strategies at each stage of the process-oriented writing approach. Process-oriented writing is a move that tests learners' language towards the communication of ideas, feelings and experiences. It requires that more classroom time is spent on writing, but as the previously outlined activities show, there is more than just writing happening during a session dedicated to process writing. One of the study findings is that the writing process approach affected the writing performance of the students in a positive and statistically significant way. This result is in the same vein with other studies which were made for improving process-oriented writing performance at different levels (Bayat, 2014; Diliduzgun, 2013; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Karatay, 2011a; Li, 2014). As the process writing approach focuses on the process of text construction, many dimensions underlying writing (Grabe & Kaplan, 1996) have been closely examined in the studies where this approach was employed.

The study findings also found out that the learners' likelihood of unsuccessful production of written composition decreased considerably at the end of the writing process. Another reason for the success of the approach is that written texts are evaluated several times in the studies in which this approach is implemented. Since evaluation is carried out by students themselves, their friends and their teacher, text contains fewer errors. A study conducted by Yayh (2009) found that lessons using process writing decreased students' negative views about writing. This outcome could result from errors being evaluated and corrected as soon as they emerge in the writing process. Writing is a complex process and can lead to learner frustration, thus, it is necessary to provide a supportive environment for the students and be patient. This

approach needs that more time be spent on writing in class, but as you have seen, not all classroom time is spent actually writing. Students may also react negatively to re-working the same material, but as long as the activities are varied and the objectives are clear, then they will usually accept doing so. In the long run, the students will start recognizing the value of the process-oriented writing approach as their written composition improves.

Meanwhile, the role of self-regulation for better writing performance was studied in earlier researches (Zimmerman, 2000; Zimmerman & Kitsantas, 2002). In congruence with this research, Manchon (2009) has highlighted the education and language learning of L2 writing, together with instructional practices as well as a great influence on writing goals, attitudes, and students' interest. From the present study, results showed that the students became more cognizant of their self-regulation towards writing. However, one of the seven components of writing self-regulation did not show significant relationship with the learners' written composition performance. This component is on "evaluation of one's method". This is expected to them because in the traditional EFL classroom, the students are not given the chance or allotted time to monitor and evaluate the strategies and methods they have been using to improve their written works and to self-reflect the mistakes they had in their drafts.

They were not also given the opportunity to share their difficulties and accomplishments to their peers and friends which is a potential activity to enhance improvement on their written drafts. Zimmerman (2000) and Zimmerman and Kitsantas (2002) highlighted that self-reflection as one of the phases of self-regulation which consisted of monitoring the adequacy of the content, organization, and form of one's written product, were not only cognitive but often affective processes whereby writers make different self-evaluative judgments about the text they produce.

Further, Winnie (1989) states that self-regulating strategies can be learned to a varying extent, but students need to be instructed and they need to be provided with plenty of practice and appropriate feedback in class. Furthermore, self-regulation is usually viewed as a cycle (Zimmerman, 2000), and it can even be imagined as a continuum (Dornyei, 2005), along which learners can be placed at each moment of learning not for attaining a foreign language but for reaching a sense of being a lifelong English learner. In addition to self-regulation, motivation and attitude can have key impacts on students' academic outcomes (Zimmerman, 2008). The findings of this study showed that using process-oriented writing approach helped the learners enhance their interests for accomplishing writing tasks, managing their own learning, and involving themselves to active and constructive procedures. It was revealed further that those who worked in groups during the strategy intervention affected significantly their writing performance. This is in line with previous studies which found the positive impact of collaborative learning in the classroom (Bayat, 2014; Onozawa, 2010). It should be noted that self-regulation does not occur automatically, and the factor of age does not develop self-regulated ability, as well (Lapan, 2010). However, self-regulated learning could be taught and can lead to increase in students' performance (Tseng et al., 2006). Therefore, learners should be given choices to practice self-regulation in writing classes through carrying out the related tasks and activities. In this regard, self-regulated learners view failure as constructive, realizing the fact that failure is not important but how to respond to it really matters (Paris & Winograd, 2010).

Conclusions

This study aimed at investigating the effect of the process-oriented writing approach on the composition writing skill of Thai EFL learners and on their self-regulation towards writing. From its study findings and results, it may be stated that firstly, the process-oriented writing

approach is efficient for enhancing their composition writing performance and their SRL strategies in writing. This simply means that the aforesaid approach to writing affected the composition writing of the students in a positive and statistically significant manner. This might be attributed to the fact that process-oriented writing approach involved the process of text construction which further lessened the likelihood of ineffective and unsuccessful text construction at the end of the writing process. Being aware of the strategies that influence the writing process, students can express themselves better in writing.

Secondly, process-oriented writing approach made the respondents more aware of their self-regulation towards writing as they showed predisposition on their goal-setting, strategies for attaining goal, restructuring one's physical and social context, managing one's time efficiency, effort, attributing causations to results and adapting future methods. Results also provided further empirical evidence that learners' self-regulation towards writing are remarkably enhanced after the employment of the intervention. Engaging students' interest in the nature of the teaching materials through working on them in some ways like implementing on them the process-oriented writing approach help generate a greater degree of commitment and sense of purposeful endeavor.

Furthermore, identifying personality traits and providing facilities to foster them would be a great accomplishment in EFL teaching and learning. Process-oriented writing pedagogy provides this opportunity for the teachers and learners to improve some of these personality traits such as self-regulation towards EFL writing.

Pedagogical Implications

This research study has made an important contribution to the field. This paper demonstrates that the process-oriented writing approach is beneficial to both teachers and learners. It can also be said that writing studies should be performed with this approach, not only in a tertiary EFL class but also in elementary and secondary educational institutions to better understand students' self-regulation in the writing process that would help empower learners to go through in an encouraging and lasting learning experience. That way, the writing process, which has been handled as a problem, will no longer be called a challenging endeavor after the needed studies are followed.

References

- Bandura, A. (1997). *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: Freeman.
- Bayat, N. (2014). The effect of the process writing approach on writing success and anxiety. *Educational Sciences: Theory & Practice*, 14(3), 1133-1141.
- Batalla, A.V., & De Vera, P.V. (2019). Integration in English writing skills of sophomore college students. *Asian EFL Journal*, 28(2), 232-275.
- Brown, H.D. (2001). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy* (2nd ed.). New York: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Coffin, C., Curry, M., Goodman, S., Herwings, A., Lillis, M., & Swann, I. (2003). *Teaching academic writing*. New York: Routledge.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clarch, V.L. (2011). *Designing and conducting mixed method research*. (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.
- Diliduzgun, S. (2013). The effect of process writing activities on the writing skills of prospective Turkish teachers. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 52, 189-210.
- Dornyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

- Erkan, D.Y. & Saban, A.I. (2011). Writing performance relative to writing apprehension, self-efficacy in writing, and attitudes towards writing: A correlational study in Turkish tertiary-level EFL. *Asian EFL Journal*, 13(1), 164-192.
- Ertmer, P. A. & Newby, T. J. (1996). The expert learner: Strategic, self-regulated, and reflective. *Instructional Science*, 24, 1-24. doi: 10.1007/ BF00156001.
- Grabe, W., & Kaplan, R.B. (1996). *Theory and practice of writing*. London: Longman.
- Harris, K., Graham, S., Mason, L., & Friedlander, B. (2008). *Powerful writing strategies for all students*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Karatay, H. (2011a). Surec temelli yazma modelleri: Planlı yazma ve değerlendirme. M. Ozbay (Ed). *Yazma egitiminde* (s. 21-43). Ankara: Pegem Akademi.
- Kanlapan, M., Theresa Carmela, E., & Velasco, J.C. (2009). Constructing a self-regulation scale contextualized in writing. Retrieved October 2012 from www.tesol-journal.com/PDF/A6V1_TESOL%5B1%5D.pdf
- Lapan, R.T. (2010). Empowering students to become self-regulated learners. Retrieved March 2014 from <http://www.sfu.ca/~sbratt/SRL/Empowering%20students%20to%20become%20self%20regulated%20learners.pdf>
- Li, C., Chu, S.K.W., Ki, W.W. (2014). The effects of a wiki-based collaborative process writing pedagogy on writing ability and attitudes among upper primary school students in Mainland China. *Computers and Education*, 77, 151-169.
- Magno, C. (2009). Self-regulation and approaches to learning in English composition writing. *TESOL Journal*, 1, 1-16.
- Malmir, A., & Khosravi, F. (2018). The effect of argument mapping instruction on L2 writing achievement across writing task and writing components: A case study of Iranian EFL Learners. *Applied Research on English Language*, 7(4), 514-538.
- Manchon, R.M., (2009). Individual differences in foreign language learning: The dynamics of beliefs about L2 writing. *RESLA*, 22, 245-268.
- Onozawa, C. (2010). A study of the process writing approach-A suggestion for an eclectic writing approach. *Proceedings of Kyoai Gakuen Maebashi International University, Japan*, 10, 153-163.
- Pahlavani, P., & Maftoon, P. (2015). The impact of using computer-aided argument mapping (CAAM) on the improvement of Iranian EFL learners' writing self-regulation. *The Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, 7(2), 127-152.
- Paris, S.G., & Winograd, P. (2010). The role of self-regulated learning in contextual teaching: Principles and practices for teacher preparation. Retrieved December 2013 from http://www.ciera.org/library/archive/2001_04/0104parwin.html
- Robillos, R. (2019). Crossing metacognitive strategy instruction in an EFL classroom: Its impact to Thai learners' listening comprehension skill and metacognitive awareness. *Asian EFL Journal*, 21(2), 311-336.
- Simpson, A. (2013). *A process approach to writing*. Retrieved January 2021 from <http://www.developingteachers.com>
- Tseng, W., Dornyei, Z. & Schmitt, N., (2006) A new approach to assessing strategic learning: The case of self-regulation in vocabulary acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, 27 (1), 22-32.
- Wang, C., Kim, D.H., Bong, M., & Ahn, H.S. (2013). Korean college students' self-regulated learning strategies and self-efficacy in learning English as a second language. *Asian EFL Journal*, 15(3), 81-112.
- White, R. & Arndt, V. (1991) *Process Writing*. London and New York: Longman.

- Winnie, P.H. (1989). Internal details in self-regulated learning. *Educational Psychologists*, 30, 173-187.
- Yayh, D. (2009, Ekim). *Hizmet onsesi Turkce ogretmenleri ile bir surec yazma uygulaması*. XVIII. Ulusal Egitim Bilimleri Kurultayı'nda sunulan bildiri, Ege Universitesi, Izmir.
- Zimmerman, B.J (1986). Becoming a self-regulated learner: Which are the key subprocesses. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 11, 307-313.
- Zimmerman, B.J (2000). Self-efficacy: An essential motive to learn. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 82-91.
- Zimmerman, B.J., & Campillo, M. (2002). Motivating self-regulated problem –solvers. In J.E. Davidson and R.J (Eds.), *The Nature of Problem Solving*, Sternberg, Eds. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Zimmerman, B.J., & Kitsantas, A. (2002). Acquiring writing revision and self-regulatory skill through observation and emulation. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 94 (4), 660-668.
- Zimmerman, B. J. (2006). Development and adaptation of expertise: The role of self-regulatory processes and beliefs. In K. A. Ericsson, N. Charness, P. J. Feltovich & R. R. Hoffman (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of expertise and expert performance* (pp. 705-722). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Zimmerman, B.J (2008). Investigating self-regulation and motivation: historical background, methodological development, and future prospect. *American Educational Research Journal*, 45(3) 166-185, doi: 10.3102/0002831207312909.

Lexical Inferencing Strategies in L1 And L2 Through Think-Aloud

Jimmylen Zuñiga-Tonio*

Catanduanes State University, Philippines

Melanie D. Cayabyab**

Dr. Sixto Antonio Elementary School

Abstract

The study investigates the comparison between the lexical inferencing in L1 and L2 by the same participants through think –aloud process. An examination of the learners’ strategies with think- aloud process may reveal the learners’ strategies in inferring the meaning of the unknown words. The strategies used by the learners help them discover the meaning of the words they inferred. The Psycholinguistic Theory and Schema Theory in Reading are the frameworks of the study. As for psycholinguistic theory, inferencing is recognized as an essential component of the process of reading comprehension which postulates that reading involves an interaction between textual information and prior knowledge of the reader. In Schema Theory, word inference can be seen as a process of search for and use of, relevant schemata to identify unfamiliar verbal stimuli. The participants in the study are ten (five male and five female) Grade 8 students. Through the analysis of the frequency, students mostly use the contextual knowledge sources in inferring both in L1 and L2. The difference is that they often use *one or two words from immediate co-text* as their knowledge source in inferring in L2 while the *immediate co-text* as a subcategory of contextual sources is frequently used in inferring in L1. The use of Interlingual knowledge source twice in inferring in L2 and only once in L1 apparently. An Intralingual knowledge source is used in inferring in L2 but never used in inferring in L1.

Keywords: Contextual knowledge source, Intralingual knowledge source, Interlingual knowledge source, Lexical inferencing, Psycholinguistic Theory, Schema Theory, Think-Aloud

*jztonio17@gmail.com

**melanie_cayabyab@dlsu.edu.ph

Introduction

Word knowledge is crucial in all aspects of language learning, be it in second language (L2) or first language (L1). A pre-requisite for learning a language is that the learner is exposed to the language, in writing and in speech. Such language exposure or input may either be comprehensible or incomprehensible to the learner. According to Soria (2001), vocabulary is a sizable component in the learning process, thus learners across proficiency levels will encounter situations where they can understand only part of the written text or a sentence due to the fact that they do not know all the words and encountering some unknown words while reading is true not only in second language context, but also in first language (L1) or mother tongue. Also, the inability to infer some unknown words might not hinder the overall understanding of the text, but if too many words or the most essential ones are unknown, the comprehension will suffer. As this is the case, learners are likely to come up with comprehension and communication strategies in order to address the inadequacy of their L2 or L1 resources. Haastруп (1991) explained that while in comprehension, learners utilize inferencing strategies to compensate for the absence of meanings attached to unknown words.

Inferencing involves the process of arriving at a hypothesis, idea, or judgment on the basis of other knowledge, ideas or judgment (Richard, Platt & Platt, 1992). Stated in this way, inferencing can be said to be one of the central cognitive processes in reading (Nassaji, 2002). Likewise, inferencing occurs at all levels of the reading comprehension process, ranging from integrating the text with background knowledge, to connecting the different parts of the text altogether, to linking known to unknown elements in the text in order to arrive at a coherent structure of the information in the text (Graesser & Zwaan, 1995). Lastly, inferencing, as a reception process, is considered an essential task in language use in the real world as well as inside the second language classroom (Soria, 2001). This in turn defines lexical inferencing or word-meaning inference as a process which involves “making informed guesses as to the meaning of a word in light of all available linguistic cues in combination with the learner’s general knowledge of the world and awareness of context” (Haastруп, 1991).

Related Literature

1.2.1. *Inferring the Meaning of Unknown Word in L2*

Several studies on lexical inferencing in L2 focused on a number of factors involved in the process. For example, it has been found that L2 learners tend to attempt to guess the meaning of an unknown word only if they think that the unknown word has central importance for text comprehension or that the unknown word bears a beneficial role in his/her understanding of the text (Bensoussan & Laufer, 1984; Parry, 2007). Moreover, the ability to arrive at a successful inference in L2 is relative and variable (Haastруп, 1991; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999). As a result, the way learners deal with unknown words during reading has become the focus of many empirical studies in recent years. These recent researches have tried to discover how lexical inferencing strategies function and what factors affect their success. Also, most research in this area has focused on identifying lexical strategies employed by second language learners in the target language, such as English. Some of the relevant studies conducted along this area are presented below:

Using think-aloud protocols among pairs of students, Haastруп (1991) studied the lexical inferencing procedures of Danish-speaking learners of English. Based on Carton's (1971) framework of knowledge sources for inferencing, Haastруп (1991) identified three main sources of knowledge that foreign language learners may use in lexical inferencing: contextual, intralingual, and interlingual. In her taxonomy, Haastруп (1991) divided contextual knowledge

into two subcategories: knowledge of co-text and knowledge of the world. Co-text includes four subcategories: (1) one or two words from the immediate co-text of the test word, (2) three or more words from the surrounding sentence, (3) any specific part of the co-text beyond the sentence containing the test word, and (4) more global use of the context knowledge of the world includes factual knowledge, attitudes, and beliefs. The study revealed that EFL learners used a wide range of inferencing procedures, many of which were considered to be ineffective. For example, some learners used exclusively at the phonological/orthographic level, trying to make an unfamiliar word sound like an L1 word. Others employed contextual cues only, without using other lexical and semantic sources. Furthermore, Haastrup claimed that L2 proficiency is a decisive factor in lexical inferencing procedures and that there seems to be a threshold level of L2 proficiency that learners have to reach first before learners can effectively and successfully infer unknown words.

Similarly, De Bot, Paribakht, and Wesche (1997) identified a set of eight knowledge sources used in inferring meanings of unknown words, based on evidence from their introspective verbal protocols of 10 English as Second Language (ESL) learners. The eight knowledge sources are: 1. sentence level grammar; 2. word morphology; 3. punctuation; 4. world knowledge; 5. discourse and text; 6. homonymy; 7. word associations; and 8. cognates. Although organized in a different way, these knowledge sources generally correspond to categories of Haastrup's (1991) taxonomy.

In another study with university students, De Bot et al. (1997) found that successful inference depends upon using various knowledge sources ranging from knowledge of grammar, morphology, phonology, and knowledge of the world, to knowledge of punctuation, word association, and cognates. Nassaji (2003) further emphasizes that successful lexical inference depends on how various kinds of knowledge sources connect to strategies. His findings indicate that success in lexical inference is directly related to the effective use of strategies and the use of various knowledge sources in and outside the text.

In a recent study conducted by Riazi & Babaei (2008) on Iranian EFL female students' lexical inferencing and its relationship to their L2 proficiency and reading skill using think aloud protocols showed that elementary students utilized contextual, intralingual and interlingual clues. The study further revealed that intermediate students used more contextual clues, while advanced students used both contextual and intralingual clues in making lexical inference. And although elementary students made the highest number of lexical inferences, the highest correct lexical inferencing were made by the advanced students.

On the other hand, Nylander's (2014) study on inferencing behaviour of Swedish EFL university students revealed that the students who possess lexical depth typically did not make use of different knowledge sources in contrast with the other learners. However, knowledge sources like homonymy, word morphology and sentence meaning were frequently employed by all learners. The lexically skilled students did, however, rely on their grammatical knowledge more often than the less lexically skilled learners.

1.2.2. *Inferencing the Meaning of Unknown Word in L1*

In the study by Kieffer and Lesaux (2012), it was found that, in general, the morphological components of vocabulary were favored by those learning an L2 instead of the reliance on L2 vocabulary knowledge. Generally, however, there are tendencies that show learners use their L1 while reading in an L2 through using their native language, which is a lexical inference strategy, or using strategies commonly used in their L1 reading (Hamada & Koda, 2010; Maeng, 2005).

Within the area of lexical inference, readers will include knowledge from their L1 as well as compensate for their lack of native intuitions by using a variety of strategies. According to Grabe (2009), reading in a second language requires more effort because the reader needs to interpret what the passage is saying in both their L1 and L2 followed by processing the overall message or ideas. In addition, vocabulary learning in L1 and L2 is different since both require a different level of mental processing. Schmitt (2000) explained that the process of learning L2 vocabulary involves relabeling of the things that are familiar; in contrast, learning the L1 involves learning about items and ideas at the same time as the initial labeling of that object. Thus, Schmitt (2000) suggests that learning an L2 is a system of restructuring the way of conceptualizing the world. Given the fact that both reading and vocabulary learning are more complex in a second language than in first language, it can be construed that lexical inference in an L1 is less complex than in L2.

In a study made by Tang (2007) on native Mandarin learners, it was shown that Mandarin learners transfer their reading strategies to English and the more proficient the learner is and the more challenging the task is, the greater the number of strategies employed. Similarly, Alsheikh's (2011) study on Arabic learners found that participants used more strategies when reading in English, but that in both languages (Arabic and English) their most common strategies used were consistent. Likewise, in two studies conducted with university level L2 English language learners, Abbott (2010) investigated whether L1 transfer affected the reading strategies used by native Mandarin and native Arabic speakers. The study found that native Mandarin speakers used more bottom-up approaches than native Arabic speakers. Arabic speakers tended to rely on top-down strategies. Furthermore, Abbott (2010) reported that when students came across an unknown word, they tended to "rely on their background knowledge or common sense, which is a top-down strategy." They also found that accuracy was not dependent on the number of strategies used, but rather the selection and proper use of the strategies (Abbott, 2010).

Finally, the closest research conducted in the local setting is Soria's (2001) study of Ilokano learner's lexical inferencing procedures through think-aloud which showed that the structure of the target language, Ilokano, helps explain the prolific use of morphology by the participants. He further claimed that in Ilokano, morphology is used not only to specify grammatical information, but also to create new lexical items, thus familiarity with the connotations of Ilokano affixes provide important and reliable information about word meaning. Further, Soria explained that morphological features provide cues to aspects of general word meaning as number, tense, manner, quality, and many other nuances.

1.2.3. *Infering the Meaning of Unknown Word in L1 and L2 by the same participants*

The need for a comparison between the lexical inferencing in L1 and L2 by the same participants is apparent. Albrechtsen et al. (2008) in their book *Vocabulary and Writing in First and Second Language* remarked that there is no published study that includes the processing aspect, and compares the L1 and the L2 dimensions for the same groups of informants. Also, the researchers of this present study noted that indeed it is undeniable that the early L2 lexical inferencing studies paid much attention to the target language used, such as English and the informants' source language was often a fairly closely related language, such as French or Danish. This claim is supported by the previous related studies discussed above. The dearth of studies relating to lexical inferencing in L1 and L2 by the same informants prompted the researchers to conduct this study. Although the focus of this study is the participants' second language, English, what constitutes a major difference, however, is the participants' L1 (Bicol), a language which is distantly related to L2. Moreover, Albrechtsen et al. (2008) argued that L1

lexical inferencing studies typically use very young children as informants. This means that the results from L1 studies are not really comparable with L2 lexical studies. Thus, the use of teenagers, aged 13-14 years old as informants for this study may provide new insights as to the L1 and L2 lexical inferencing procedures made by the same set participants.

One relevant study on L1 and L2 lexical inferencing procedures made by the same participants is the introspective study conducted by Paribakht in 2005. The said study focused on the influence of first language lexicalization on second language lexical inferencing. Paribakht (2005) included 20 Farsi-speaking learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in this study. Findings showed that these learners knew fewer and inferred meanings for more, non-lexicalized target words than lexicalized words. Based from the results of the study, Paribakht (2005) claimed that lexicalization in the L1 may be one of the factors influencing learners' differential success in L2 text comprehension and vocabulary development.

Statement of Problem

An examination of learners' lexical inferencing strategies proved useful in two ways. First, through analysis of data, the researchers explored a subset of learners' L1 and L2 inferencing processing strategies when given a language task. Second, through qualitative analysis, this study explored the differences and similarities of learners' L1 and L2 lexical inferencing strategies. It is along these lines that the study was probed and the findings provided significant insights into the pedagogical implications of the different textual and lexical cues learners attend to when presented with English and Bicol texts. Hence, it aimed to answer as to whether results from L2 lexical inferencing study should be generalized across L1.

In line with the background of the study, the problems of the study are formulated as the following:

1. What are the knowledge sources that students use when inferring the meaning of unknown L2 words?
2. What are the knowledge sources that students use when inferring the meaning of unknown L1 words?
3. How do students' L2 and L1 lexical inferencing strategies differ?

Methodology

This paper made use of descriptive method of research using Think-Aloud protocol. The participants in this study were ten (five male and five female) Grade 8 students who have Bicol language as L1 and English language as L2. Their ages range between 13 and 14 years old. Also, the participants were exposed to the same text with seven unknown test words for English inferencing test and eleven test words for Bicol inferencing test. The reading text for English was adapted from Haastrup's (1991) and Nassaji's (2003) studies which contains 165 words, seven of which are target words consisting of three nouns, two verbs, and two adjectives. The Bicol reading text used was *An Istorya kun tanu Maharang ang Lada* (The Story of Why Chili is Hot) which contains 726 words with three nouns, two verbs and two adjectives as target words. Moreover, the two reading passages were chosen according to the following criteria: (1) Student factors (Frantzen, 2003; Rappaport & Levine, 1998). The text should contain a minimum number of words that the participants would not know (Laufer, 1989; Na & Nation, 1985; Nation, 2001); (2) Text factor (Hu & Nation, 2000; Laufer, 1997 cited in Nassaji, 2003; Shafelbine, 1990). The topic should also be relevant to students' real-life experience with its topic; (3) Context factors (Haastrup, 1991; Diakidoy & Anderson, 1991; Frantzen, 2003). Words should invite the use of various knowledge sources and a range of word classes should

be presented. Lastly, a pilot study was conducted to ten students in order to test the text relevancy according to the above criteria.

Think-aloud procedures were used to collect data about learners' inferential strategies. Before data collection, the participants in the study participated in a mock think-aloud procedure. Then inferencing task in English was conducted, followed by the inferencing task in Bicol. The think-aloud procedure was done individually, thus a total of 20 protocols were made. Moreover, following Sugirin (1999) method, the researcher used a KEEP TALKING sign to remind participants to verbalize all thoughts without addressing them in speech which might interfere with their thoughts. Lastly, an exit-interview was conducted to expand on think-aloud protocols and to "validate" the researchers' interpretation of their think-aloud utterances. The participants were allowed to do the think-aloud either in English, Filipino or Bicol languages. The think-aloud protocols were video-taped, transcribed and translated from Filipino and Bicol into English. Another native Bicolano speaker verified the accuracy of the transcriptions.

Haastrup's (1998) taxonomy of knowledge sources served as a guide in the identification of the emerging themes and categories. The taxonomy of Haastrup was drawn from Carton's (1971) work which establishes three main knowledge sources: (1) contextual, (2) intralingual, and (3) interlingual. An inductive approach was used in the study through reading and re-reading of the transcriptions in order to identify the different knowledge sources employed by the informants. After the knowledge sources were identified, the reliability of the coding was established through an inter-coder reliability and percentage agreement set for an 81 per cent level of agreement.

Results and Discussion

There are three major categories found from the analysis of data: Contextual (immediate co-text, knowledge of world, one or two words from the immediate co-text, and specific parts of the text beyond the sentence of the test word), Intralingual (L2 word collocation and word class), and lastly, Interlingual (L1 word collocation and L_n phonology). These three categories were based on the think-aloud protocol transcripts and the review of literature.

3.1 Knowledge Sources Used in L2 Lexical Inferencing

Table 1

Categories and subcategories of knowledge sources used in L2 lexical inferencing

Category and subcategory	Number of Occurrence
Contextual	
Immediate co-text	9
Knowledge of the world	3
One or two words from the immediate co-text	10
Specific parts of the text beyond the sentence of the test word	2
Intralingual	
L2 word collocation	1
Word class	1
Interlingual	
L1 word collocation	1

Table 1 shows that the use of different knowledge sources by the participants generally differed. As for **contextual knowledge source** (use of text), participants mainly utilized contextual knowledge source using *one or two words from the immediate co-text and immediate co-text where the test word can be found*, while there was an occasional usage of *knowledge of the world and specific parts of the text beyond the sentence of the test word*. The sample protocol below illustrate these findings:

Use of one or two words from the immediate co-text

- (1) *Jaybee: Target word: PERMEATED – “Permeated *yung parang meron siya nun. Yung parang, yung cell na yun may **chemical**... **radioactive materials**, kumbaga, kung sa tao, parang may sakit... Yung sa cell naman yung parang siya may **chemical and radioactive materials**. Intoxicated, I think. Parang may toxic sa cell”*[Permeated means the presence of the disease to a person. Like the cells were exposed to chemical and radioactive materials, so it led to the disease. (Some more?) Intoxicated, I think. Like the cells are toxic]

Readers make use of *one or more words that is/are familiar to them from the immediate co-text* of the test word which serves as departure points for their analysis and reflections. Consequently, these reflections were utilized to generate the meaning of the target words.

Use of immediate co-text

- (1) *Percy: Target word: CONTRACT – “*Sa tingin ko yung contract yung naiisip nila or something. So baging di sila nkakaisip ng ideas kung paano mapapagaling yung mga serious diseases kaya maraming namamatay na patients. So contract ay di nila naiisip yung ideas or nafaound out yung way para maresolve isang problema.* [I think contract refers to their ideas. It is as if they cannot think of any ideas on how to cure the serious disease that is why many of their patients die. So, contract refers to the incapacity to think of ways to find solution to a problem]

Parang di nila mafound out, kumbaga, parang sa puzzle di nila namamatch yung mga ideas kung paano ba mapagaling yung serious and infectious diseases na nakamamatay ng maraming tao. [I think it means undiscoverable, like it is puzzling that their ideas fails to solve the issues regarding the cure to the serious infectious disease that cause death to a lot of people]

- (2) *Angel: Target word: CONTRACT – “*Ang alam ko po sa contract, hindi po nila alam kung ano ang main reason ng mga serious diseases na inamin nila na di nila alam kung bakit ang patients nila ay namamatay. Parang iba po yung nasa isip nila, ‘to spend much time’ sapag alam ng mga diseases and infections na nakakaffect sa mga patients nila na nagiging dahilan ng pagkamatay nila. Hmmm doctors seem unfamiliar sa mga diseases na pumapatay sa mga patients nila kasi nga sabi dito ‘they ought to spend much time thinking’ parang sinasabi na yung doctors kailangan pagisipan maayos ang reasons ng mga serious diseases.*” [What I know about contract is the (doctors) unfamiliarity to the causes of the disease that took the lives of some of their patients. It seems like they have the wrong idea, they spend much time in looking for reasons behind the disease that cause the death of their patients. Doctors seem unfamiliar with the diseases that caused their patients’

death because the text says ‘they ought to spend much time thinking’ like it means that doctors need to think hard of the reasons that cause serious diseases.]

In the two attempts presented above, the informants *Percy and *Angel employed immediate co-text or the sentence that contain the test word in order to arrive at certain conclusions. It should be noted as well that in using immediate co-text, the informants relied extensively on word-for-word translation of the surrounding text, automatically translating the different parts of the co-text. This distinct strategy is what readers usually resort into when confronted with unknown word/s. The direct translation of the text helped them come up with reasonable guess as to the meaning of the word. Next, the use of knowledge of the world indicates the informants attempt to incorporate general knowledge of the world, whether semantics, pragmatics, or lexical meanings. These interpretations are accompanied by the informants’ set of beliefs, attitudes, and prejudices which were not taken directly from the text.

Along **intralingual knowledge source** or the use of the features of the test word, only one participant relied on L2 word collocation, while another participant used the word class.

Also, in **interlingual knowledge source** or the use of the participants’ first language (Bicol), it was only L1 word collocation that was employed. Lastly, in some cases, the participants used varying knowledge sources to infer the meaning of the same word. The common knowledge sources activated in combinations are: immediate co-text plus one or two words from the immediate co-text; immediate co-text plus (intra) word class; immediate co-text plus (intra) L2 word collocation; immediate co-text plus/ one or two words from the immediate co-text plus knowledge of world; and one or two words from the immediate co-text plus (inter) L1 collocation. It is significant to emphasize that based from the qualitative data of this study, it was found that interlingual and intralingual knowledge sources did not appear to be used exclusively, and they are always supported by contextual knowledge sources.

The fact that the participants relied on context, especially, one or two words from the immediate co-text and immediate co-text, more than other knowledge sources in guessing the meaning of unknown words is in line with the result of the research done by Huckin and Bloch (1993), that readers relied mostly on local cues when they used context to infer the meaning of unknown L2 words. This might be related to the accessibility of contextual knowledge sources which include the surrounding words of a vocabulary item or even the whole text containing it which can help in getting the meaning of an unknown word (Riazi & Babaei, 2008). Moreover, the result of this study showing that different kinds of contextual sources were relied on lends support to constructionist hypothesis (Grasse, Singer & Trabasso, 1994) which claims that in the process of inferencing making, both local and global inferences are generated. Thus, constructionist hypothesis proved support to schema theory in reading, wherein schemata serve as fundamental elements upon which all information processing depends, that is, they function as the building blocks of cognition. As such, constructionist hypothesis complements the use of schema in the process of interpreting sensory data, in retrieving information from memory, in organizing actions, in determining goals and sub-goals, in allocating resources, and generally, in guiding the flow of processing in the system. In the area of intralingual strategy, the use of L2 word collocation suggests that the degree of effectiveness of this strategic attempt is heavily mediated by the learner’s lexical and semantic knowledge (Nassaji, 2006). As for interlingual strategy, the low number of its usage can be explained by the differences in semantic and phonological links of the Bicol language and the target language, English. In addition, the two probable reasons for the rare application of intralingual and interlingual strategies relate to the fact that such strategies seem to be demanding and students need some knowledge of the meaning of different affixes, as well as word class and collocations and also

learners cannot associate and make judgments about the structure similarities of the English test words and L1, Bicol or with other foreign languages. Finally, in an exit interview conducted by the researchers to the participants, the participants explained that limited vocabulary and unfamiliarity with some words that are not related to the test words were the difficulties they encountered in the task. These replies indicate that lexical inferencing is indeed a very difficult task either because of the complexity of the text or because of the limitations of the reader, or both. Some words do not have clues in the text in which they appear and when there are clues for such words foreign language learners will not necessarily look for them; and when they do look for these clues very often, they cannot locate or understand them. As Tonio (2019) averred, English language teachers in the country and in abroad and even ESL online tutors must aim to increase the language proficiency level of their students, for higher proficiency levels of the students can lead to higher intelligibility and in this case, comprehensibility.

3.2 Knowledge Sources Used in L1 Lexical Inferencing

Table 2

Categories and subcategories of knowledge sources used in L1 lexical inferencing

Category and subcategory	Number of Occurrence
Contextual	
Immediate co-text	13
Knowledge of the world	6
One or two words from the immediate co-text	4
Specific parts of the text beyond the sentence of the test word	11
Interlingual	
Ln phonology	1

Table 2 reveals that with respect to knowledge sources used in L1 lexical inferencing, the students employed contextual and interlingual lexical strategies to guess the meaning of L1 unknown words. Contextual cue types cover the learner's socio-cultural knowledge and use of co-text, while interlingual refers to the judgments made by learners about the identity and similarity of structures in two languages and all the possible derivations that may be made on the basis of loans between languages (Carlton, 1971). There are four subcategories of contextual knowledge sources emerged from the analysis of the data, these are arranged from highest to lowest: first, immediate co-text; second, the use of specific parts of the text beyond the sentence of the test word; third, knowledge of the world; and fourth, the use of one or two words from the immediate co-text. Likewise, there is a proliferation in the use of contextual sources in L1 inferencing, while interlingual (Ln phonology) or the use of another language other than Bicol or English, occurred only once. *Jaybee, the one of the male informants in the study said: "*Yung suruway, yun yung clue doon sa word. Suruway parang katunog niya ang Tagalog word na pasaway*" (The word *suruway* was the clue. It sounds like the Tagalog word *pasaway*). Lastly, the structural analysis of the test word itself to infer meaning of an L1 unknown word was never used.

The findings support the view that the ability to make use of contextual knowledge sources in inferencing, depends, to a large extent, on having adequate knowledge base in place (Laufer, 1996; Nation, 1993). The prolific use of contextual knowledge sources in L1

inferencing can be attributed to the use of L1 in the lexical inferencing task as a significant factor in generating the knowledge sources. Soria (2001) points out that a solid foundation in the target language was a major component for successful application of lexical inferencing strategies. Also, Nassaji (2006) explained that those learners who possess a deeper lexical knowledge have better access to the knowledge sources and hence, can construct more accurate semantic representations of the unknown word during lexical inferencing than those who do not. Hence, this suggests that L1 readers are different from L2 readers not only in terms of their breadth of vocabulary knowledge but also in the totality of lexical representation of each lexical entry in their lexicon wherein the different types of syntactic, semantic, and morphological information forming a lexical representation of a lexical entry in a learner's L1 are more strongly and highly integrated than those in L2.

3.3 Differences in the Knowledge Sources Used in L2 and L1 Lexical Inferencing

Table 3

<i>Categories and subcategories of knowledge sources used in L2 and L1 lexical inferencing</i>		
Category and subcategory	L2	L1
Contextual		
Immediate co-text	9	13
Knowledge of the world	3	6
One or two words from the immediate co-text	10	4
Specific parts of the text beyond the sentence of the test word	2	11
Intralingual		
L2 word collocation	1	-
Word class	1	-
Interlingual		
L1 word collocation	1	-
Ln phonology	-	1
TOTAL	27	35

Table 3 shows that there were more knowledge sources activated in L1 lexical inferencing than in L2 inferencing, that is 35 knowledge sources for L1, while 27 knowledge sources for L2. Also, the knowledge sources activated by the participants in their L1 and L2 lexical inferencing are similar to some extent, but differ along frequency distribution. Both in L1 and L2 inferencing, contextual knowledge sources played important role in the participants' lexical guessing procedures. However, it is noteworthy to highlight that in L1 lexical inferencing, specific parts of the text beyond the sentence of the test word is by far the most frequently used contextual knowledge source, while in L2 lexical inferencing, the use of one or two words from the immediate co-text earned the top spot. These findings have substantial relation to the processing types that participants use in their L1 and L2 inferencing. The use of specific parts of the text beyond the test word's sentence signifies top-rule processing since the entirety of the text is being used to contextualize the guess, while utilization of one or two words from immediate co-text represents bottom-rule processing due to limited integration of the whole meaning of the text. The findings of the study showed that the magnitude of the difference between informants' results in L1, which were clearly superior to those in L2, was large. The use of advanced processing in the L1 was three times its use in the L2. Thus, it can

be said that the native speakers' advantage appears to relate to L1 readers' more efficient language processing skills in the text language as well as to their richer and more established linguistic—especially lexical and cultural knowledge. In terms of intralingual knowledge sources or use of the target word itself, participants employed them in L2 inferencing but not in L1. This difference can be related to the participants' previous English and Bicol language learning experiences. As English language is taught explicitly as part of the school curriculum, Bicol language, on one hand, is acquired and received outside of class. English language as a second language of the participants is formally learned, along with its lexis, morphology, syntax, and vocabulary. In contrast, the first language, Bicol is acquired through constant exposure to the language without direct instruction as to the structure of the language. Although this was the case for L1 and L2, the first language is considered to be more established than the L2, this can be seen in the processing skills made by the participants in inferring the target words. As for scarcity of the use of interlingual knowledge sources (the use of first language and other languages) in both L1 and L2 inferencing may be due to the fact that the participants' L1 (Bicol), L2 (English) and Ln (Tagalog) are languages that are distantly related to each other.

According to Paribakht (2005), if there is no lemma equivalent present in the mental lexicon for L2 words that are not lexicalized in the L1, the lemma features assembled through inferencing are not recognized as part of a known construct, making it less likely that even an approximate (e.g. L1) meaning of the target word will be determined. Also, although both the Bicol and English languages are languages following the alphabet system, the participants possess limited knowledge of the structural and semantic similarities of the two languages. The participants seem to be constrained in making judgments about the similarities of the target language and their L1 or L1 and their L2 or Ln. The participants are not taught with other languages related to the English language where they can deduce clues in getting the meaning of an unknown word. After all, English language adopted foreign words from many countries and languages, this also true with the Bicol language which adopted many of its lexicons from Spanish, Chinese and other Bisayan languages.

Conclusion

The study shows that learners always relied on context to build their meaning of the word. Although they used some knowledge sources still they attached it with the contextual cues. Furthermore, learners also complement the constructed meaning with what they knew of the outside world. Previous experience is a great help in cognitive processes involved in constructing meaning. The often use of contextual knowledge sources indicates that learners easily construct meaning of unknown words through associating the words to the other words in the sentence. In addition, use of equivalent first language in inferencing is one of the significant factors generating the knowledge sources. Intralingual knowledge sources were not employed would reflect limited knowledge on the structures of the L1. The learners' inferencing in L1 and in L2 is similar but an advantage on the part of L1 readers as it proves that reading in a second language is more complex. The study shows more knowledge sources employed in L1 lexical inferencing than in L2 inferencing. The contextual knowledge sources used more on lexical guessing procedures but in different ways L1 lexical inferencing employed specific parts of the text beyond the sentence of the test word frequently while one or two words from the immediate co-text were mostly used in the L2 inferencing. Participants use intralingual knowledge sources in the L2 inferencing but not in L1. Although English learned formally and Bicol is acquired informally, the situation reflects reverse where L1 is more established than L2 as what evidently showed in inferring the target words. Interlingual knowledge sources in both L1 and L2 inferencing were not employed frequently because the

participants' L1(Bicol), L2 (English), and Ln (Tagalog), are distantly related to each other. One factor for L1 learners to infer meaning with the use of interlingual knowledge sources is to find similarities between the target language and L2 languages to have clues in formulating meaning of the unknown words.

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study suggest one great pedagogical implication—the teaching of inferencing through think-aloud should take place in the classroom. Think aloud strategy provides opportunities for learners to discuss the information presented in the text to assist them to differentiate fact from opinions, see underlying values and ideas and the connections made between them by the producers of text, as well as also whether the conclusions they have drawn and the connections they have made are acceptable and comprehensible. By means of discussion, think-aloud creates circumstances for alternative ideas and interpretations to emerge. According to Rillo, Tonio and Lucas (2019) in cases where learners are exposed to limited linguistic inputs, teachers may provide the necessary opportunities to augment what have been missed in the course of initial language learning. Moreover, the central goal of this study was to add to the literature on lexical inference by investigating connections between L1 knowledge sources and L2 knowledge sources. By understanding the connection between these two inferences by the same participants, one can better understand the strategies used during lexical inference in L1 and L2 reading, as well as develop methods of instructing learners to increase lexical inference skills. Learners use strategies in L1 reading which are similar to their L2 reading, but more advanced strategies can be observed in L1 inferencing, which can serve as a base for their approach to their L2 lexical inference strategy use. Thus, broadening the students' L1 and L2 strategy use must be emphasized as they develop knowledge within the second language. Understanding how students mentally process reading and vocabulary skills and strategies reveals how language acquisition works. In second language reading classes, both in ESL and EFL settings, there are certain reading strategies and lexical inference strategies that receive emphasis. Based on the findings of this study, it would appear that a combination of strategies is the most effective. One interesting observation in the analysis of the data was that the participants had certain preferential strategies. From this, it can be assumed that strategy use is dependent on the individual skill set of the language learner. By instructing students on how to use multiple strategies instead of focusing on one or two, and encouraging students to combine strategies, instructors can equip students to improve their lexical inferences as well as reading comprehension. In terms of L1 reading, the findings from the present study may benefit the teaching of Mother Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE). The implementation of K-12 program in the Philippines which highlights the teaching of MTB-MLE can be reinforced by the present findings. MTB-MLE or ESL teachers alike should take account by developing the students' vocabulary knowledge by using vocabulary enhancement activities in language teaching. Tonio and Ella (2019) even emphasized the value of acquiring familiarity with and application of theories and good practices relating to using L1 and L2 as languages of instruction. Teachers should devise vocabulary lessons that will motivate their students' attention on the potential transferability of effective processing types from L1 to L2. Moreover, as lexical inferencing processes are closely related to reading processes, teachers, parents or English tutors must teach reading strategies and word guessing strategies in combination, and that the development of both is supported by awareness-raising activities.

References

- Abbott, M. (2010). An introspective study of Arabic- and Mandarin-speakers' reading comprehension strategies. *TESL Canada Journal*, 28(1), 14-40.
- Albrechtsen, D., Haastrup, K., & Henriksen, B. (2008). Vocabulary and writing in a first and second language processes and development. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Alsheikh, N. O. (2011). An examination of the metacognitive reading strategies used by native speakers of Arabic when reading in English and Arabic. *English Language Teaching*, 4(2), 151-160.
- Bensoussan, M., & Laufer, B. (1984). Lexical guessing in context in EFL reading comprehension. *Journal of Research in Reading*, 7 (1), 15-32.
- Bialystok, E. (1983). Inferencing: Testing the 'hypothesis testing' hypothesis. In H. W. Seliger & M. H. Long (Eds.), *Classroom oriented research in second language acquisition* (pp. 104-123). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Carrell, P. L. (1983). Some issues in studying the role of schemata, or background knowledge, in second language comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 1(2), 81-92.
- Carton, A. S. (1971). Inferencing: A process in using and learning language. In P. Pimsleur & T. Quinn (Eds.), *The psychology of second language learning* (pp. 455-8). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Chikalanga, I. W. (1993). Exploring inferencing ability of ESL readers. *Reading in a Foreign Language Learning*, 10(1), 931-947.
- de Bot, K., Paribakht, T., & Wesche, M. (1997). Toward a lexical processing model for the study of second language vocabulary acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 309-329. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1017/S0272263197003021>
- Diakidoy, I., & Anderson, R.C. (1991). The role of contextual information in word meaning acquisition during normal reading. *Technical Report*, 531, 1-19.
- Frantzen, D. (2003). Factors affecting how second language Spanish students derive meaning from context. *The Modern Language Journal*, 87(2), 168-199. DOI: 10.1111/1540-4781.00185
- Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a second language: Moving from theory to practice*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Graesser, A. C., Singer, M., & Trabasso, T. (1994). Constructing inference during narrative text comprehension. *Psychological Review*, 101 (3), 371-395.
- Haastrup, K. (1991). *Lexical inferencing procedures or talking about words*. Tübingen: Gunter Narr.
- Hamada, M., & Koda, K. (2010). The role of phonological decoding in second language word meaning inference. *Applied Linguistics*, 31, 513-531.
- Hu, M., & Nation, I. S. P. (2000). Unknown vocabulary density and reading comprehension. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 13, 403-430.
- Huckin, T., & Bloch, J. (1993). Strategies for inferring word-meanings in context: A cognitive model. In T. Huckin, M. Haynes & J. Coady (Eds.) *Second Language Reading and Vocabulary Learning* (pp. 153-178). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- İstifçi, I. (2009). Lexical Inferencing Strategies of Turkish EFL Learners. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 5(1). <http://www.acarindex.com/dosyalar/makale/acarindex-1423913508.pdf>
- Jiang, N. (2000). Lexical representation and development in a second language. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(1), 47-77.

- Kern, R. (1989). Second language reading strategy instruction: Its effects on comprehension and word inference ability. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73(2), 135-149. DOI: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1989.tb02535.x
- Kieffer, M. J. & Lesaux, N. K. (2012). Knowledge of words, knowledge and words: dimensions of vocabulary in first and second language learners in sixth grade. *Reading and Writing*, 25, 347-373.
- Laufer, B. (1989). What percentage of text-lexis is essential for comprehension? In C. Lauren & M. Nordman (Eds.), *Special language: From humans to thinking machines* (pp. 316–323). Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Maeng, U. (2005). A comparative study of reading strategies in L1 and L2: Case study of five Korean graduate students. *Language Research*, 4(1), 457-486.
- McKoon, G. & Ratcliff, R. (1992). Inference during reading. *Psychological Review*, 99(3), 440-466.
- Moran, C. (1991). Lexical inferencing in EFL reading coursebooks: Some implications of research. *System*, 19(4), 389-400.
- Mori, Y. (2003). The roles of context and word morphology in learning new kanji words. USA: Georgetown University. DOI: 10.1111/1540-4781.00198.
- Morrison, L. (1996). Talking about words: A study of French as a second language learners' lexical inferencing procedures. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 53(1), 41-66.
- Murcia, M. (1991). Grammar pedagogy in second and foreign language teaching. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(3), 459-480.
- Na, L. & Nation, I.S.P. (1985). Factors affecting guessing vocabulary in context. *RELC Journal*, 16, 33-42.
- Nation, I.S.P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2003). Effective ways of building vocabulary knowledge. *ESL Magazine*, 6(4), 14–15.
- Nassaji, H. (2002). Schema theory and knowledge-based processes in second language reading comprehension: A need for alternative perspectives. *Language Learning*, 52(2), 439-481. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00189>
- Nassaji, H. (2003). L2 vocabulary learning from context: Strategies, knowledge sources, and their relationship with success in L2 lexical inferencing. *TESOL Quarterly*, 37(4), 645-670. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3588216>
- Nassaji, H. (2006). The relationship between depth of vocabulary knowledge and L2 learners' lexical inferencing strategy use and success. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(3), 387-401. DOI: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2006.00431.x
- Nemser, W. (1998). Variations on a theme by Haastrup. In: Albrechtsen, D., Henriksen, B., Mees, I.M. and Poulsen, E. (eds.). *Perspectives on Foreign and Second Language Pedagogy*, 107-118. Odense: Odense University Press.
- Nylander, E. (2014). *The inferencing behaviour of Swedish EFL university students: A quantitative analysis of lexical inferencing in relation to vocabulary depth*. Center for Languages and Literature. Lund University. http://cardinalscholar.bsu.edu/bitstream/handle/123456789/197506/HostetlerC_2013-3_Body.pdf.
- Parry, K. (2007). Building a vocabulary through academic reading. *TESOL Quarterly*, 25(4), 629-653.
- Paribakht, T. S., Wesche, M. (2010). *Lexical inferencing in a first and second language: Cross-linguistic dimensions*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.

- Paribakht, T. S. (2005). The influence of first language lexicalization on second language lexical inferencing: A study of Farsi-speaking learners of English as a foreign language. *Language Learning A Journal of Research in Language Studies*, 55(4), 701-748. DOI: 10.1111/j.0023-8333.2005.00321.x
- Paribakht, T. S., & Wesche, M. (1999). Reading and 'incidental' L2 vocabulary acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 195-224.
- Patton, M. (2001). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods*. Newbury Park: SAGE Publications.
- Rappaport, M. & Levin B. (1998). Morphology and lexical semantics. In A. Zwicky and A. Spencer, eds., *Handbook of Morphology*, Blackwell, Oxford, UK, 248-271.
- Riazi, A. & Babaei, N. (2008). Iranian EFL female students' lexical inferencing and its relationship to their L2 proficiency and reading skill. *The Reading Matrix*, 8(1). http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/babaei_riazi/article.pdf
- Richards, J. C., Platt, J. T., & Platt, H. K. (1992). *Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics*. Essex, England: Longman.
- Rillo, R.M., Tonio, J.Z., & Lucas, R.G. (2019). Features of Filipino infant directed speech (IDS) and maternal input. *The Asian EFL Journal*. 22(2), 4-27.
- Rumelhart, D. E. (1980). Schemata: The building blocks of cognition. In R. J. Spiro, B.C. Bruce, & W. F. Brewer (Eds.), *Theoretical issues in reading comprehension* (pp. 3358). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in Language Teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Shefelbine, J. (1990). A syllable-unit approach to teaching decoding of polysyllabic words to fourth- and sixth-grade disabled readers. In J. Zutell & S. McCormick (Eds.), *Literacy theory and research: Analysis from multiple paradigms* (pp. 223-230). Chicago: National Reading Conference.
- Soria, J. (2001). *A study of Ilokano learners' lexical inferencing procedures through think-aloud*. University of Hawaii. Retrieved from: <http://www.hawaii.edu/sls/wpcontent/uploads/2014/09/Soria.pdf>.
- Sugirin. (1999). *Exploring the comprehension strategies of EFL learners: A multi-method study*. Retrieved from: <https://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED428548>
- Tang, H. (1997). The relationship between reading comprehension processes in L1 and L2. *Reading Psychology*, 18(3), 249-301.
- Tonio, J.Z. (2019). Intelligibility of Philippine English to young international students. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 25(5.1), 427-452.
- Tonio, J.Z., & Ella, J.R. (2019). Pre-service teachers' attitudes toward the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 21(2.3), 231-253.

Bilingual Identity Crisis: Issues in Identity Formation and Language Learning in India

Sayant Vijay*

CHRIST (Deemed to be University), Bangalore, India

Anupama Nayar CV**

CHRIST (Deemed to be University), Bangalore, India

Abstract

In psychology, identity refers to an individual's self-esteem or self-image. It can be social identity, gender identity, cultural identity, religious identity, national, and many other identities. The shared values, customs, and historical characteristics of culture will also influence how people think, behave, and look at the world. This research paper looks at the problems bilingual language learners face in India and how knowing two languages influences their identity. The research analyses case studies from various schools in India to explore issues about curriculum and pedagogy and how the learning environment affects identity formations. This paper offers suggestions that will help correct some of the systemic concerns that impact Indian bilinguals learning.

Keywords: Bilingual, Identity, Self-esteem, code-switching

Introduction

An individual's cultural identity is determined by the language he/she uses. Language is a fundamental aspect, and culture is considered an essential feature of a person's identity. It is through language that we transmit and express our culture and its values. "Language – both code and content – is a complicated dance between internal and external interpretations of our identity" (Gibson and Kari, 1997, p.26). Bilingualism and its impact on the identity of such speakers have been widely discussed in the academic field. Asada opines that the relationship between a bilingual's self-perception and identity as bilingual/non-native English teachers has not found traction in research investigations. (Asada, 2013, p.18).

This research paper will explore Indian learners' problems who speak two or more languages or dialects in their everyday lives and how speaking different languages can influence their identity. If people can speak two languages, then which ones are they using at a given moment? How do the speakers differentiate between the two words? Does this influence their identity? These are a few questions that people come across when they talk about being bilingual. Being bilingual is not an accidental process; linguistic diversity is inherited and an integral part of nation-making philosophy and history.

* sayantvijay@gmail.com

** anupama.nayar@christuniversity.in

India is a postcolonial, pluralistic nation-state. The country inherited 179 languages and 544 dialects after independence, according to surveys carried out in 1886 and 1927. The unified princely states that constitute the nation, India, have always given importance to linguistic diversity. This is seen in the more than 60 languages that are used in the Indian education system alone. Each state in India has its language. In many states, multiple languages are given equal importance; all these construct an individual's identity in India and worldwide.

Language and cognition in bilingual and multilingual by Annette M.B. DE Groot is chosen as the primary source for this study as this book studies language acquisition, comprehension, and production from the standpoint of the bilingual and multilingual speaker. This paper will examine how being bilingual can affect a person and his identity. This research will also look at the role of language in developing a person's culture and identity.

We are now at a time in which intolerance is increasing day by day; the main reason for this is people's differences, from the language they speak to the culture they follow. People are becoming secluded and not ready to accept and celebrate diversity and understand that being intolerant to a particular culture or language is not expected. Lack of inclusivity is demonstrated in people being segregated based on their language and even geographies in certain instances. As language forms a person's ethnic identity, we can see much bias from North to South in India.

Bilingualism has become an interesting phenomenon to study, considering its potential positive and negative impact on the person. Bilingualism can be interpreted as speaking two languages or more: the mother tongue (native language) and a foreign language. Many bilinguals since early childhood have parents or families who spoke two different languages in their home or their community, and many people are bilingual because of studying a foreign language in the school or course (Bialystok et al., 2005). Previous researchers have researched bilingualism widely (Thomas-Sunesson et al., 2018; Bialystok et al., 2005; Verhoeven, 2007; Bialystok, 2009; Monaghan et al., 2017). Some of them examined aspects of bilingualism by relating them to several other aspects such as language exposure, language shift, learning skills, language transfer, and phonological awareness (R, M., Y., & J, 2019).

The identity of bilinguals is often highlighted when bilingualism is discussed. A few critical things that bilinguals face are fragmented identity, misunderstanding identity in a monolingual society, and linguistic interference. These issues in India's bilingual environment will be explored in detail, and the role of language in the identity formation and self-identification of an individual defined further.

Bilingualism has become an omnipresent phenomenon in modern society with large-scale migration, international markets, and finance, especially youngsters. The awareness that bilingualism is not exceptional anymore and may not have been so for a long time has recently led to steep growth in the number of studies on the implications of being bilingual for language use and cognition in general. Some theorists believe that to be classified as bilingual, a person must have equal competence in both languages, and some believe that the person must have the native-like knowledge and use of both languages. Some writers think that a person is only bilingual if functionally bilingual, meaning their language is measured by usage and the amount of language they use. This concept is framed in two different ways: the minimalist and maximalist approaches. The minimalist interpretation suggests that a person could be considered functionally bilingual if he can accomplish activities in the second language with specific knowledge of vocabulary and grammar. The maximalist interpretation reasons that a person would only be considered functionally bilingual if they could conduct all of their activities in either language. A related simple definition of being bilingual is using two or more languages (Grosjean, 1982).

Identity and Communication

Most of the young bilinguals in India face many challenges. The most common among them is the maintenance of heritage and culture. Since heritage and culture preservation is necessary, learning an additional language is considered part of a new culture and detrimental to original culture conservation. The family is an essential factor in determining one's being bilingual. The family's belief and influence in and of language learning and the parent's familiarity with a particular language significantly impact the young language learner and their views of the language. This parental influence will also influence the opportunities provided to the learner for particular language usage and reinforcement.

Bilingual speakers can have multiple identities, and this is also considered an issue because this sometimes gets conflicted with the public identity that others recognise them as possessing. The relationship between language and identity is abstract and theoretical and significantly impacts positive and productive language learning and teaching. Asada comments, "When interacting with various people using their L2, learners are engaged in identity construction and negotiation, possibly constructing multiple identities and affecting their perceptions of themselves, other people, and the world" (Asada, 13). Language determines not just the way we think but the way we live our everyday lives. Thus, it has a regulatory and communicative function; speaking a particular language creates and exists within a specific psychological setting. Moving into another setting and acquiring another language creates new psychological needs and can set up tensions that break down the regulatory function of language and destroy the person's emotional equilibrium. Can this emotional/cultural conflict be averted or avoided? The answer is positive because a person develops cultural competence on a par with speech competence. One of Eveline de Jong's interviewees, a Frenchwoman with an English husband and domiciled in England, writes that language is a way of life, including eating habits, discipline, children's bedtime, the way one is free time is spent. Her children learned both ways: in England, they knew how to be English, whereas, in France, they felt a part of the French community (Broadbent and Vavilova, 2015).

Research projects around the world have identified the advantages of bilingualism. "Bilingual children have more fluent, flexible, and creative thinking. They can communicate more naturally and expressively, maintaining a finer texture of relationships with parents and grandparents and the local and wider communities in which they live. They benefit from two sets of literature, traditions, ideas, ways of thinking, and behaving. They can act as a bridge between people of different colours, creeds, and cultures. With two languages come a wider cultural experience, greater tolerance of differences, and less racism" (Talebi and Maghsuodi, 2008, p.201).

Another significant influence upon the young bilingual is the kind of education that they receive. Language facilitators have a significant role in developing the student's self-esteem and feeling of power and agency in a particular language, whether monolingual or bilingual classroom. Even if it is a monolingual classroom, the teachers take care of the student's language proficiency.

The next important factor is the level of opportunity received from their mother tongue usage or the first accrued language. This lack of opportunity can strongly impact a young person's ability and comfort in the dominant societal language as they can transfer skills acquired in their home language to the language of education at school.

There have been some indications of situations in which young bilinguals react negatively to their association with two cultures. A study conducted in the US involved

36 bilingual English-speaking and Spanish-speaking fifth-grade students; they used a written questionnaire to investigate the student's uses of language brokering. It was found that in situations where young children feel they must act as an interpreter or language broker for their family, the children demonstrated discomfort with the power reversal involved, which means that the students were more linguistically powerful than their parents. The children translated for their parents when interacting with official organisations and landlords, this feeling of responsibility that the children encountered made many of them uncomfortable. The study also argued that children's developing cognitive skills can overcome the discomfort encountered in this situation. In other words, as the children grew older and developed more cognitive skills, their feelings of discomfort in these translation situations reduced (Weisskirch and Alatorre Alva, 2002).

Scholars like Loveday has also observed that it is impossible for bilingual users to be proficient in both languages all the time simultaneously and argues that it is practically impossible to achieve or maintain an equal level of competence in two languages. Matsumoto and Juang also affirm that almost all bilinguals feel that they can express themselves in certain situations and at specific periods better in one particular language than the other. (Asada, 2013, p.11).

Research Projects and Studies

Some theories related to language learning, like the Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, talk about linguistic relativity; it states that a language determines a person's thought. The hypothesis also talks about the independence of language and thought. Bilinguals feel different when using two different languages, and they also think differently depending on the language they use; the difference manifests directly or indirectly.

The language used by bilinguals depends on multiple factors like their inner speech, surroundings, and other needs; according to this, they keep switching between languages. Asada quotes from the book *Lost in Translation* by Eva Hoffman of an immigrant who experiences the loss of her inner speech when the immigrant says that her night talks to herself, which was always a spontaneous flow of inner language, just stopped and nothing came. (Asada, 2013, p.14). She continues the narration and observes how by "struggling with her mother tongue Polish, and her L2 English, she noticed that L2 learning or becoming bilingual had affected her inner speech" (Asada, 2013, p.35).

Language as a homogeneous code is just a massively simplified notion as we constantly use different languages. Another meaningful way Bilingual minds should be looked at is through code-switching, an overall process amongst bilingual minds. Code-switching is generally classified as the phenomenon of changing an entire language or a shift from one language to another. Cognitive linguistic ability is noticed in bilingual people when they switch between two languages simultaneously. The term code is a synonym for a language, and switching becomes the link between two languages. For such speakers, L1 will not be separated from L2; they keep switching between both languages. Also, there will be an unequal way of borrowing words from two languages. This borrowing is also called loanwords, which generally happens when one language takes the dominant hand.

Switching between languages can occur even within a single sentence. This is because of the languages' multilingual character and a phenomenon seen in bilingual speakers called borrowing. Borrowing happens when a speaker uses a different language, not considered the speaker's native language. This borrowing happens even before the speaker becomes fully equipped with it or becomes fully native to the language. The borrowed can even be a phrase

the speaker uses, and code-switching generally occurs due to this borrowing. Bilinguals are also observed to code-switch because of the lack of proficiency in one language. The argument is that when the speaker does not know two languages competently, or the speaker lacks proficiency in either of the two languages, then the act of code-switching happens. A significant limitation of this view is that it does not acknowledge that a person borrows another word or switch from one language to another because of the failure to find the right and apt word in one language, which is the inability of a person to remember a particular word in the language. So code-switching maybe because of the lack of retrieval, which is affected by a combination of closely related factors such as language use and word frequency. Another issue with this hypothesis is that it does not address the notion of language proficiency of the speaker. It does not define if reading and writing skills should be prioritised over spoken languages because writing determines language proficiency for most languages.

Some research projects suggest that language accessibility is one of the critical features in code-switching. Some studies suggest that a bilingual speaker will code-switch when given enough time over the lexicon of the languages.

The notion that people code-switch as a strategy in order to be better understood is another plausible alternative. Some ideas are better communicated in one language than another. For example, the Spanish word "cario" implies a combination of liking and affection. Neither of these English words alone truly conveys the meaning of the Spanish word. Thus, two Spanish-English bilinguals conversing in English would achieve a greater understanding by using this Spanish word to refer to this concept (Heredia and Altarriba, 2001, p.167).

In a multilingual country like India, code-mixing and -switching has become a norm rather than a deviation. Hinglish, a portmanteau of "Hindi" and "English", is a hybrid of English and South Asian languages. It is a code-switching variety of these languages whereby they are freely interchanged within a sentence or between sentences. While the name is based on the Hindi language, it does not refer exclusively to Hindi but is used in India, with English words blending with Punjabi and Hindi. Hinglish has become the lingua franca for most upper-class Indians, especially the youth. Although this is more commonly seen in urban and semi-urban centres of the Hindi-speaking states of India are now slowly spreading into rural and remote areas of all the states (Barnali, 2017, p.112).

This is one of the main issues that bilingual speakers face when they code-switch in India, as there are many languages. Each language has its own culture, and the speaker of the language tries to associate with a particular culture. However, when the speaker talks more than one language by switching from one to another, an association is established with a particular culture. The speaker is not just the one who is confused about placing himself in that culture, but also the listener who also finds it difficult to associate the person to one particular language.

Applied research has revealed that code-switching is often used strategically in counselling settings, as clients choose to speak in a second language when trying to distance themselves from emotional events. Language switching becomes a defence mechanism because the first language is often associated with a broader range of emotions than the second language (Heredia and Altarriba, 2001, p.168).

Crucial period for language acquisition

A learner's age is one of the most influential factors when it comes to language learning. So when a speaker learns L2 at the adult stage of his life, the speaker can experience a significant amount of struggle to learn the language and use it properly. Many studies consider the periods when L2 is acquired as an essential factor for the identity formation of the L2 learner. The earliest best is considered the ideal way to study L2, as this will ensure a relatively easy and smooth way of meeting a high degree of success. It is commonly believed that the young learn the language better. On the other hand, there are views by researchers suggesting that the adult learner will be able to master the language better and easier as the learner will have a certain amount of knowledge even before learning the language and also the general cognitive ability to deal with abstract formal systems.

The fundamental difference Hypothesis by Bley-Vroman says that there is a vast difference in language acquisition systems between youngsters and adults. He also says that an adult learner's existing knowledge can confuse the learner and make the acquisition. So the concept of the right time to learn a language or the critical period of language learning has always been a never-ending topic as it is purely subjective to an individual's cognitive ability.

To see how being bilingual influences a person's identity and culture and how language defines a person's identity in India, three case studies presented by the Chief Executive Officer of the Pratham Foundation, Rukmini Banerji, is analysed here.

Through her case study, she takes the reader to four different parts of India. She clearly shows the importance of language in a different community and how different languages become a priority in schools. Her case studies clearly show how taking or knowing more than one language defines a person's identity. Her target audience has always been young language learners, as she believes this period is crucial for learning a particular language. In her case study, the child is a bilingual learner who speaks two different languages with mom, which creates chaos in the learner's mind as the learner cannot associate with one particular culture. She also shows how difficult it is for the parents or the teachers to find a way to end this chaos in the learner's mind. Through her case study, she discards the standard language-learning solutions, as she considers it inappropriate. Through her case study, she gives recommendations to end this chaos or conflict between cultures. According to her, community-based education is efficient and effective than all the other existing language learning practices. Her organisation *Pratham* Foundation works in both rural and urban areas with primary school children.

Case study 1: Multiple languages in a Mumbai slum

Banerji talks about students who live in the slums of Mumbai, as she started her life by educating children from such spaces and who were underprivileged. She was not working alone in this case study; a colleague of hers, Rebecca Barr, an American scholar specialising in child literacy, also worked with her.

I will begin by taking you to a slum area in Mumbai. I started my life with education and children in places like this. Almost twenty years ago, a colleague of mine (from when I had worked in America previously) came to visit me. She was Rebecca Barr, an American scholar and an early literacy expert. As we walked down the lanes in one of Mumbai's slums, Rebecca continuously tried to match the theory she believed in with the context around her. At one point, we had a heated argument about 'home language' and 'school language.' I argued that it is complicated to say that, in places like this, there is a home language. There is undoubtedly a gully language, a language of the lane, and a mother tongue, the language the mother speaks. However, sometimes

the mother tongue and the father tongue are different from the mother, and the father speaks different languages. Sometimes older brother and older sister tongues are also different because they have different kinds of friends. Therefore, at least orally, the children that we saw in the lanes might not have been adept at any one language. Still, they seemed to navigate easily between the many languages they heard in their densely crowded slum environment (Banarji, 2015 p.42).

It can be inferred that there is also a cultural conflict in their minds because of the different languages, as they cannot associate themselves with one particular culture even at home. Banerji also says that the theoretical framework popular and used worldwide cannot be used in such contexts to end the cultural conflict, which goes through a bilingual language learner, as this theory does not hold any validity in their lives to the circumstances. She says that she feels like she is not equipped to know the right strategy to end this never-ending conflict in the minds of bilingual speakers. However, she feels there should be some strategy to deal with this and strengthen the richness of their environment and not distance them.

Case study 2: Odia-medium classrooms

In another case study, Sakshi Manocha, a research scholar at Jawaharlal Nehru University in New Delhi and Minati Panda, the Director of the National Multilingual Education Resource Consortium, compare the experience of Saora language speaking children who study in Odia medium schools in Odisha. Students of this particular school are equipped with two languages, one is the dominant language in the primary school, Odia, and the other is the tribal language, Saora. Saora is spoken in Odisha and West Bengal, and a group of the marginalised tribe. Students who get educated in an Odia-medium school do not give much importance to the concept of language and culture; even the school does not give much importance to the student's language and culture. Inside the classroom, when a student is heard talking in the home language, he is subjected to punishment and abuse by the authorities and teachers, resulting in the student getting distanced from the language and the culture he/she is born into and part of. Being a tribal language, Saora has a rich tradition to talk about, but as the language is not under the limelight and given less importance by the teachers and authorities, speakers of the language do not feel like they own the language, nor do they feel like associating themselves to the language and the culture behind it. They instead experience cultural cringe.

The way that Odia-medium classrooms and teaching-learning practices were designed undermined the role of Saora linguistic and cultural resources. The Saora language, stories, history, symbol systems, metaphors, and local concepts were effectively kept out of the classroom and were not counted as knowledge in the social world of the classroom. The medium of instruction, textbooks, and TLMs was Odia, and all the interactions within the classroom and with the texts were confined to Odia. Even the artefacts used to decorate the classrooms posters, soft-boards, charts, and paintings lacked any trace of Saora language or culture. The only place assigned to Saora art in the school was on the borders of the outer walls of the school building; this location reflected the status assigned to Saora cultural resources and children in Odia-medium schools. Saora language and artefacts were excluded from the classroom design and practices on the grounds of being incompatible with the purpose of teaching-learning. The supremacy of Odia (and English) language, artefacts, concepts and terms in the classroom and pedagogic practices reproduced the cultural and ideological hegemony, thereby turning the Odia-medium classroom into a figured world where dominant cultural meanings were valued more than the local meanings produced in the cultural practices of the Saora community (Manocha and Panda 2015, p.127).

Through this path-breaking case study, the authors find a heartbreaking observation that because of the power play between the dominant language and the home language of the student, where the home language is not given priority or accepted by the school authorities, the students often tend to drop behind as they do not respond much like other students nor are they proactive like other students. There are even cases where the students felt like they did not belong to that rarefied atmosphere and left education during early childhood. In this case study, Sakshi Manocha and Minati talk about MLE plus school and how they ensure the association between language and culture is considered of utmost importance, and the student feels like he owns the language and is associated with it after learning the language. At first, the student's language, culture, and understanding of their environment will be considered while planning and designing learning materials. Some research talks about students taking advantage of the dominant language and its culture to exert power inside a bilingual classroom. Research also shows students belonging to dominant groups or popular languages enjoying numerous advantages in the classroom because of the culture, the history of the culture and the language, and such students are also given much importance in the classroom. Their voices are echoed even in the school syllabi. At the same time, the students who associate themselves with other languages or cultures develop inferiority complexes driving them to drop out of school or become silent in the classroom. When the syllabus and the curriculum talk about the dominant culture and its language, students belonging to minority groups are classified as worthless and blamed for everything they do.

Distrust and asymmetrical power relations, in which only the teacher spoke from a position of authority, resulted in establishing a traditional hierarchical student-teacher relationship in the classroom community. This led to an unequal distribution of resources in the classroom. The teacher in the Odia-medium school controlled all the resources, and he made Odia the language associated with prestige and power in the classroom community. Gaining proficiency in Odia was a valued enterprise and was the goal of the teaching-learning practices. By re-establishing the linguistic hierarchy in the classroom structure, the Odia-medium school positioned Saora children in an unfavourable position as learners. The unequal distribution of resources curtailed their possibilities of participation in the community (Manocha and Panda 2015, p.129).

Sakshi Manocha and Minati also point out the differences between Odia medium schools and the MLE Plus program-installed schools. They say that the role of language learning and the cultural tool follows a submersion model of language learning in Odia medium schools. Even when there were enough teaching-learning materials available in Odia medium schools, teachers never bothered to use them to enrich the student's knowledge; they never used them for any academic discourse. The old and traditional method of copying the notes and teaching-learning process made the Saora students passively adopt the knowledge passed on by their teachers. At the same time, students taught in schools that used the MLE Plus program gave importance to culture and language, and they also considered knowing two languages and understanding and accepting the culture of it as the real goal that should be achieved and worked for it. This program also ensured that students learned things by practising and showing interest in things they felt like learning. They also used their linguistic and cultural tool to take part in the classroom discourses actively. With the help of this, students were able to participate in almost all the activities actively and learn many things that were new to them, this also influenced their minds, and they started accepting all the language and were able to accept the culture associated with it.

While solving problems in a math class, Rahul, oblivious of the teacher's presence in the classroom, asked Vikhyat to pass his notebook in Saora. Within seconds, Rahul

received a tight slap on his head and was scolded for using Saora in the classroom. The teacher yelled at Rahul, saying, 'Why were you talking in Saora? Speak in Odia. All of you sit at a distance and do not talk while doing sums.' Rahul trembled with fear and got back to work with tears in his eyes. Seeing Rahul being scolded for talking, other children too distanced themselves and quietly worked on the problems (Manocha and Panda 2015, p.128).

Everyday interaction plays an essential role in the MLE Plus classrooms; it has also influenced the academic discourse. The program is based on the early exit-transitional model. According to this model, the L1 of the student is used as the medium of instruction until the student is in grade 3, and then it is changed to the state language of L2. By educating the student in this model, they could learn and understand two languages without any confusion, associate with one, and learn the importance of both cultures.

Case study 3: Elementary schooling in Bastanar

In another study by Stanley John, Assistant Professor in the District Institute of Education and Training in Bastanar, a small town in Chhattisgarh, India, a particular situation called one block is explicated. Adult literacy was low compared to the children's literacy rate in this context, and the parents had little idea and knowledge about education and its importance. Children who study in primary school were from different economic and linguistic backgrounds, and the teachers were monolingual speakers of Hindi; in such a situation, classroom communication becomes difficult. Teachers find it difficult to learn and understand the language and culture of the different students. John also says that the standard vocabulary list helped the teachers associate with the learner's language, and when the student sees the teacher associating with their language, they feel like their language and culture are respected and given importance. Teachers found this vocabulary list helpful because it helped them connect with the students.

"All villages in Bastanar block have access to primary schooling within a range of one kilometre or less. A large proportion of the children enrolled in elementary schools here belong to the Gond tribal families of Bastanar, known for their rich traditional heritage. However, children from other tribal groups initially came from other places for family occupations and marriage. Consequently, most classrooms are multilingual. Most of the teachers placed in schools in Bastanar come from other parts of the state. These teachers are primarily monolingual in Hindi, with little or no knowledge about the children's diverse cultural backgrounds. Children enter school with experience only of their home community and struggle to understand the teacher's language and the textbooks. Parental support for children's education is problematic. Parents constitute most members, but teachers and elected representatives of local bodies also sit on the committee, and a teacher acts as chair or coordinator. Meetings take place every month to discuss issues raised by the members. However, even if parents attend, they scarcely ever express their views. They often say that they will just put their signatures or thumbprints wherever the coordinator wants them to. They are often unwilling to listen to what is being said; they just put their signature or thumbprint where needed and then leave. On the other hand, when issues such as supplies of rations or land are being discussed, the same parents become very vocal and active.

Fifty Class 1 and Class 2 teachers from 50 schools were randomly selected from the 153 government primary schools in Bastanar block. A total of 907 children were enrolled in Classes 1 and 2 in these schools. First of all, I observed several teachers using new books in their classrooms. Next, teachers in the sample were asked to complete a questionnaire that I prepared. The questionnaire asked respondents whether they

preferred the previous version of the book or the newer version and asked them to give reasons for their preference. Respondents were also asked whether they pointed out that their languages were given importance in the new books. The questionnaire also asked teachers whether they employed traditional games, activities, and stories in their classrooms" (John, 2015, p.190).

This case study shows, students and parents change their behaviour and learning attitude and aptitude when their language is given importance, and this acceptance also played an essential role in enriching the learner's knowledge and making them feel like they belong to the classroom and their culture. This case study also finds a positive link between the performance of the student and the language used for class transactions. When different vocabulary registers from the student's L1 are represented in the book, they tend to associate more with what is being taught in the classroom.

Conclusion

From the three case studies and other discourses analysed in this paper on bilingual language learners and the impact that languages can have on the identity of this group, it is evident that in the current Indian education system and linguistic societies, there is no balanced approach where both languages and two cultures go hand in hand. The education system, especially in a country like India, where there are so many languages, should provide a balanced education that terminates identity crises by foregrounding ethnic identities and accepting the plurality of identities an individual accrues. Promoting a person's self-perception of identity as versatile with speech capability realised in different cultures and linguistic environments is also wise. This approach gives value to the role of bilingualism in self-identification. When a learner is taught a language, they should also be taught the importance of valuing their culture. When they learn L2, which is a different language and not the mother tongue, they should be sensitised to the cultures associated with it and accept and value that language and culture, just like how they would value their L1, the mother tongue. There should be a balanced education, which ensures no cultural conflict between languages and ensures that a person's identity is protected even when bilingual. This parity can be enforced through a formal education program like MLE Plus program indicated in case study two.

Pedagogical Implications

The research paper analyses a few case studies from Indian schools to establish an intricate link between languages and the formation of cultural identity in a postcolonial, pluralistic, multilingual space like the subcontinent. They also point to the fact that there is a cultural conflict in the minds of bilingual learners because of the different languages since they cannot associate themselves with one particular culture even at home. The study reveals that there is no theoretical framework or strategy designed to account for this cultural conflict specific to particular contexts, and there should be some strategy to deal with this alienation and strengthen the richness of their environment and not distance them. Another issue revealed by the study is that because of the power play between the dominant language and the home language of the student, where the home language is not given priority or accepted by the school authorities, the students often tend to drop behind as they do not respond much like other students nor are they proactive like other students. A programme to overcome learner problems like the MLE plus school and how they ensure the association between language and culture is of utmost importance, and the student feels like he owns the language and is associated with it after learning the language is a suggestion made. Another observation made is that students and parents change their behaviour, learning attitude, and aptitude when their language is given

importance, and this acceptance also plays an essential role in enriching the learner knowledge and making them feel like they belong to the classroom and their culture. The insights gleaned from this paper could contribute to decisive inputs in curriculum design and developing pedagogic strategies in schools. The limitation of the study is that the number of case studies used for analyses is small. It also looks at only tribal/rural schools of north India. The scope of the paper would have increased if there were representative case studies from the east, west, north and south of India to gauge the unique learning experiences of bilingual learners, concerns and best practices to resolve identity conflicts in them. Another variable that was not considered for this study was that of urban students and their code-switching experiences, which would differ from those of rural students.

References

- Asada, A. (2013). An Investigation of the Impact of Bilingualism on the Identity of a Sample of Bilingual English Teachers (master's thesis TESOL). *Asian-efl-journal*. Canterbury Christ Church University.
- Banerji, R. (2015). Language and learning: The challenges of primary education in India. *Multilingualisms and development*.
- Barnali, C. (2017). Code-switching and mixing in communication—A study on language contact in Indian media. *Research association for interdisciplinary studies*.
- Broadbent, J. T. (2016). Bilingual identity: Issues of self-identification of bilinguals in Malaysia and Tatarstan. *The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*.
- Clingingsmith, D. (2014). Industrialisation and bilingualism in India . *The Journal of Human Resources*.
- Coleman, H. (2015). *Multilingualisms and development*.
- Dean, B. (1999). Language, culture and power: intercultural bilingual education among the urarina of peruvian amazonia . *Practicing Anthropology*.
- Fishman, J. A. (1982). Sociolinguistic foundations of bilingual education . *Bilingual Review / La Revista Bilingüe*.
- Heredia, R. R., & Altarriba, J. (2001). Bilingual Language Mixing: Why Do Bilinguals Code-Switch? *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 10(5), 164–168. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-8721.00140>
- John, S. V. (2015). Unleashing potential in multilingual classrooms: The case of Bastar in Chhattisgarh State, India. *Multilingualisms and development*.
- Kracht, M and Klein, U. (2014). The Grammar of Code Switching. *Journal of Logiv, Language and Information*, 313-329.
- Portier-Young, A. E. (2010). Languages of Identity and Obligation: Daniel as Bilingual Book. *Brill*.
- R, M., Y., & J. (2019, November). The Role of Bilingualism in Increasing Children's Cognitive Ability at Primary School. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 23(6.2), 42–55. <https://www.elejournals.com/asian-efl-journal/volume-23-issue-6-2/>.
- Sakshi Manocha, M. P. (2015). Comparing the learning and participatory trajectories of Saora children in 'MLE Plus' and Odia-medium schools in Odisha. *Multilingualism and development*.
- Talebi, S.H & Maghsuodi, M. (2008). Monolingual and Bilingual English Learners in one Classroom: Who is at a Disadvantage? *The Asian EFL Journal*, 10(3), 199–214. <https://www.asian-efl-journal.com/main-editions-new/monolingual-and-bilingual-english-learners-in-one-classroom-who-is-at-a-disadvantage/index.htm>

Emerging Language in Facebook Threads of College Students

Mee Jay A. Domingo*

Mariano Marcos State University, Philippines

Marlina L. Lino**

Mariano Marcos State University, Philippines

Abstract

Digital technology in the 21st century has caused a shift in language. It has created a shortened language system with its own rules. As a result, users have changed the written discourse to comply with technology. This has adversely affected the way the language is used in a computer-mediated communication context.

With the premise that the advancement of technology, particularly in new media of communication, demands alterations in language and how people use it, the researcher felt it necessary to study the emerging language in Facebook threads of college students.

Hence, the study was conducted to determine the language used and the linguistic features that surface in the Facebook threads of college students. It employed the descriptive research design using a survey questionnaire and content analysis. Data were taken from the Facebook threads of bona fide MMSU students.

Results show that the emerging language in the Facebook threads of college students is characterized by the use of a mixture of two or three languages and the prevalence of linguistic features that cover *typographical practices, syntactic complexity, lexical, and the use of emoticons*. The findings imply that college students can adapt to language change and use it to suit the conditions of the current setting that they are into. This is triggered by the students' desire to increase communication efficiency and gain social approval.

Keywords: computer-mediated communication; Facebook; language codes; linguistic features

**mjadomingo@mmsu.edu.ph*

***mlino@yahoo.com*

Introduction

Background of the Study

In this technologically advanced world, computer-mediated communication (CMC), a predominantly text-based human-human interaction mediated by networked computers or mobile telephony (Herring, 2007), has become an important alternative to conventional means of communication in an age of rapidly developing electronic communication technology. However, using the computer as a communication tool is not as easy as it may seem. Communicators need to adjust and embrace the changes that CMC brings. For instance, certain circumstances force interlocutors sometimes to use special codes or languages to communicate. Specifically, they mix between two codes or shift from one language to another. Other times, they code-switch or even create a new language to meet the changing needs. Also, as the majority may have noticed, CMC in the form of real-time chatrooms, makes people communicate in certain ways in which they would not ordinarily do. It becomes simplified in various ways; otherwise, it would take too long for them to get their message across, and consequently, their chat-mate(s) would be tired of waiting. This, in turn, is a consequence of the very nature of the media that they are hooked into.

Indeed, new practices of language and literacy may be attributed to a set of unique properties in new communications technology (Bodomo, 2009). The change in language use in CMC happens because language and communication are interdependent with each other. On one hand, to succeed, communication needs some form of language system. On the other hand, language exists to enhance communication. Hence, CMC cannot survive without the use of some forms of the language system. As communication crosses the borders of languages and cultures, CMC has become the tool of international and intercultural communication (Mi-Kyung, 2005). Among these international and intercultural communication intermediaries are the social networking sites (SNSs) such as Facebook.

Facebook.com has become one of the most visited social media technology today. It has been playing a key role in communication across contexts. It is also causing a profound effect on many aspects of education (Pfaffman, 2008). Due to the network's popularity, researchers conducted empirical studies that identified the impact of SNSs on the academe, communication, marketing, etc. Despite this, most of these studies have focused on identity construction (Domingo, 2017), language learning (Syafrial, Rumadi, and Fatimah, 2019) as an instructional resource (Inayati, 2015), language functions in Facebook statuses (Delos Reyes, et al., 2018), its technological aspect among others. However, not much has been done using a linguistic approach though users keep adapting their languages to fit into the technologies while manufacturers try to adapt their technologies to fit the users' languages.

In this premise, the researchers felt it necessary to study the language of college students in their Facebook threads. Results could provide benchmark information in reshaping the teaching of in language classrooms, particularly in a multilingual context like the Philippines.

Objectives

This study aimed to describe the language used by college students in their Facebook threads. Specifically, it aimed to identify the languages that students use in their threads and the linguistic features evident in these threads.

Scope and Delimitations of the Study

This study was limited to the analysis of the languages used by college students in their Facebook threads and the linguistic features evident in these threads. The college students considered in this study involved 174 bona fide AB in English Language (ABEL) and AB

Communication (BA Comm) students of the College of Arts and Sciences (CAS), Mariano Marcos State University (MMSU) who were officially registered, and have at least one Facebook account.

Moreover, the students' Facebook threads analyzed in this study included only those with at least five communication exchanges. The study assumed that the 10 messages of each student in the thread would reflect his or her language use and would manifest certain linguistic features.

Review of Literature and Studies

Facebook: One of the Leading Social Networking Sites (SNS) in the 21st Century

Facebook, a form of CMC, is a social utility that helps people talk to one another in an efficient and effective way. Since September 2006, Facebook use has widened its coverage as it has impacted not only educational institutions but has connected those with registered email address as well. It is also in this year when Facebook added features such as status message, chat, messages and inbox, wall and newsfeed to its website. Moreover, the features of the platforms are enhanced regularly. Now, users can send virtual gifts to their friends, post advertisements in their accounts, play games online, use emoticons, share links, watch videos, to name a few. These updates on the features that Facebook.com offers to its users have made it the most used social networking site with more than one billion active users as of 2013 (Facebook Inc., 2013). In fact, the Philippines ranked second among countries with the highest growths in Facebook users: 400,000 people joined Facebook in the first two months of 2013, raising the total number of Filipinos to 30.2 million. The total population in the Philippines is almost 95 million which means that one out of three Filipinos is on Facebook.

TeLCU Framework

Since the creation of Web 2.0, new language forms used in CMC have started to attract the attention of language experts in the academe. In 2001, Bodomo and Lee published their Technology-conditioned Language Change and Use (TeLCU) Framework which tries to explain the emergence of 'new language' in CMS contexts. Particularly, it defends the view that there is a causal relationship between the emergence of new tools and media of communication and the creation of new forms of language and literacy. These new forms compete with existing forms and ways of communication, leading to changes in the way people use language in its various forms. Thus, the evolution of new forms of language and literacy is conditioned by dynamic social contexts and the origin of the linguistic-communicative practice. Also, the TeLCU model suggests that the more of the above features a new technology carries, the more likely new forms of language and literacy will be introduced and the more widespread these new forms will be (Bodomo & Lee, 2001).

Studies on Language Change and Use

One of the main outputs of Technology-conditioned Language Change and Use (TeLCU) by Bodomo and Lee (2001) is the determination of new forms of language and their associated practices – technobabble, a language characterized by the pervasive use of technical jargon. Examples of these are acronyms, unconventional use of punctuation, and the use of emoticons. Studies were done to describe this language: Zhao (2002) investigated the linguistic features of English on Chinese Internet relay chats; Al-Harashsheh (2019) on the language used on the internet and mobile telephones; van Gass (2006) attempted to identify languages other than English in CMC; Bosco (2007) studied language use of text messaging in Hong Kong; and Cvjetkovic (2010) examined the linguistic features of written English used in online chatrooms.

Moreover, in the context of multilingualism on the internet, the following topics are not well-researched: the dominance of English in international discourses and the representation of linguistic diversity. These could shed light on the synergy of global and local forces in advancing linguistic diversity on the internet. Among these researchers are those conducted by Warschauer (2002), Al-Tamimi and Gorgis (2007), and Pasfield-Neofitou (2011).

Methodology

The study employed the descriptive research design in determining the language use of Mariano Marcos State University (MMSU) students in computer-mediated communication, particularly in Facebook. It used content analytic procedures, specifically textual analysis in determining the language codes, lexical features, syntactic patterns, and typographical practices

In realizing the objectives of the study, it involved college students who: a) are taking AB in English Language and BA in Communication at MMSU; b) are officially registered during the approved duration of the study; and c) have at least one Facebook account. Since, inclusion/exclusion criteria were set in identifying the sources of data, purposive sampling method was used.

A two-part survey questionnaire was used in this research. Part I aimed to collect the background information of the students such as name, age, sex, course and year level and their name in their Facebook account. The last information is necessary as this was used as basis in searching the respondents' Facebook account in the social network. Part II, on the other hand, aimed to determine the students' length of use of their Facebook account.

The researchers followed a definite procedure in conducting this study. They first secured permissions from university officials. As soon as their request was approved, the respondents of the study were identified. Then the researchers met them for the explanation of the research protocol and to have them sign the Informed Consent Form. After that, the survey questionnaires were distributed to and retrieved from the students to obtain data regarding their profile.

Afterwards, when all the questionnaires were collected, the researchers established connections with the students using the 'friend request' feature of Facebook.com. After the request was accepted by the respondents, the researchers looked into their personal Facebook accounts and captured five screen shots of their Facebook threads with at least five communication exchanges with their fellow participant in the thread. To protect the identity of those who are in the thread, their names and pictures were covered. Lastly, the most prevalent language codes used by the students as well as the linguistic features manifested in their Facebook threads were determined through text analysis.

Results and Discussions

Languages Used in Students' Facebook Threads

As shown in Table 1, four language codes were found to be used by the students: a mixture of two or more languages (English, Filipino, Ilokano or the respondents' vernacular and gay lingo), Ilokano, English, and Filipino, respectively

Table 1. Languages used by students in their Facebook threads.

Language Codes	Rank
Mixed	1
Ilokano (vernacular)	2
English	3
Filipino	4

Mixed Codes. As shown in the table, the most commonly used language code in the Facebook threads of college students is mixed. Of the examples that were noted, two styles were identified. These are mixtures of two or three languages (Tables 1a and 1b).

As shown in the Tables, it is noteworthy to emphasize that the top four in the two-word combination (Table 1a) and all the three – language combination cluster (Table 1b) always have the English language either as the base or as one of the elements of the mixed languages.

Table 1a. Two – language combinations identified in the students' Facebook threads.

Mixed Language	Rank
Ilokano – English	1
Filipino – English	2
English – Filipino	3
English – Ilokano	4
Ilokano – Filipino	5
Ilokano – Gay Lingo	6.5
Filipino – Ilokano	6.5
Filipino – Gay Lingo	8

Table 1b. Three – language combinations identified in the students' Facebook threads.

Mixed Language	Rank
Ilokano – English – Filipino	1
Ilokano – Filipino – English	2
Filipino – Ilokano – English	3
Ilokano – English – Gay Lingo	4
English – Ilokano – Filipino	5
English – Ilokano – Gay Lingo	6
English – Filipino – Gay Lingo	7.5
English – Filipino – Ilokano	7.5
Gay Lingo – Ilokano – English	9.5
Filipino – English – Gay Lingo	9.5

This is attributed to the fact that Filipinos are so much accustomed to English influences and, therefore, choose to mix English to the vernacular and or other languages common to Facebook users as it is believed to be more convenient in the context of social networking. Moreover, the presence of English in all the combinations reflects the degree programs of the students - ABEL and AB Com, whose medium of instruction is English.

The findings support the argument of Cunliffe, Morris, and Prys (2013) when said that bilingual Facebook users do not want to exclude any member of their online social network and, therefore, decide to use both languages or the language which is more widely understood.

Meanwhile, the prevalence of Ilokano in both combinations implies that Ilokano is still the most commonly used language that is mixed with the other languages and that the data on mixed languages show the pervasiveness of code-switching in electronic mediated communication.

The emergence of code-switching pattern in the students' messages may also be attributed to the fact that the respondents are genuine bilinguals. This happens because, in all instances, communicators want to fit in and put their messages across. Some linguists, like Bautista (2004), claim that codeswitching is a mode of discourse and the language of informality among middle-upper class, college-educated, urbanized Filipinos. Also, code-switching is done because of the following factors: 1) use of habitual expressions (thank you, sorry, good, morning, etc.); 2) mood of the speaker (when respondents are at the peak of their emotion); 3) address an audience (*bakla, baket, kabsat*, etc.); 3) lack of knowledge of one language or a lack of facility in it; 4) a style to exclude some persons from an interaction; 5) way of introducing a new subject; and 6) to impress others. Lastly, whenever necessary, respondents switch to a language that is most commonly used by their target readers. Thus, the prominence of mixed languages in all contexts: school, at home, offices, and even in social networks.

Ilokano. Table 1 also reveals that Ilokano is next to mixed languages in terms of the codes used by the students. The occurrences of the messages expressed in Ilokano can be attributed to the fact that majority of the participants in the thread used Ilokano. It can be deduced from the threads observed that the use of Ilokano in the threads is neither solely attributed to the status' language nor the language of the other participants in the thread. Rather, it can be inferred that the use of Ilokano is really the preferred language of the Facebook users.

The use of the mother-tongue/national language is important as this is said to be a particularly important aspect of (ethnic) identity of the students. The results concur with the findings of sociolinguists like Romaine (1984), Eckert (1997) and Androutsopoulos & Georgakopoulou (2003) who carried out extensive studies on youth discourse that the typical sociolinguistic features of adolescent's or youth language include heavy vernacular use.

English. It can be gleaned in Table 1 that English ranks third only among the languages used by the students in their Facebook threads. The respondents use English in order to create more thought-provoking updates and to generate cohesiveness among users who speak different languages. In addition, the respondents use English when they think something is more natural, funnier or easier to express in English than in their vernacular.

In general, the data on the use of English online corroborates with Wright's (2004) findings that the use of English decreases when CMC resources become available in users' own languages. This further implies that English is no longer the exclusive domain of native speakers (Lantz-Anderson, 2017). However, it is necessary to account that the use of English in the threads are not that surprising since the respondents are English language studies and communication arts students and that they are using Facebook, a communication platform that is universal. The percentage implies that their facility in the English language is carried over even outside their language classrooms, in this case, in the social networking site. Further, the result supports the finding that English is by far the most frequently used language, other than respondents' own, when going online (Flash Eurobarometer, 2011).

Filipino. The occurrence of messages expressed in the national language is rare. This is reflective of the ongoing language politics in the country; that English is more favored than the national language, more so that English is associated to the language of the learned and those in the upper level of the social strata.

In general, unlike in the 1990s when English dominated the Internet landscape (Androutsopoulos, 2006; Christison and Murray, 2014), the finding of the study reveals that there is linguistic diversity now on the internet and that these linguistic repertoires represent new modes of language use (Lantz-Anderson, 2017) on a communicative playing field (Kramsch, 2014). In the case of Facebook, the use of other languages in the threads is a reflection of spoken discourse - messages are less structured since they happen spontaneously as they are outright reactions to someone's posts. Also, messages in the threads are directed to a more limited number of audiences since only those who are concerned of the message and those who are personally related to the person are expected to comment on it. This causes the use of mixed languages, the language of the mass.

Linguistic Features Identified in the Facebook Threads of Students

Through textual analysis, the linguistic features of messages in Facebook threads were identified. The TeLCU model was adopted for this purpose. Table 2 presents the linguistic features of students' Facebook threads in four areas: lexical features; syntactic complexity; typographical practices; and use of emoticons based on the textual data from the corpus.

Table 2. Linguistic features identified in the students' Facebook threads.

Features	Rank
Typographical Practices	1
Syntactic Complexity	2
Lexical Features	3
Use of Emoticons	4

Among the various linguistic features observed in the corpus, typographical practices rank first. These are followed by syntactic complexity, lexical features and use of emoticons, respectively. The result implies that the students are more comfortable in defying the conventions of the use of spaces, cases, spelling, and punctuations than the other linguistic features. Meanwhile, the use of emoticons ranks last since not all students in this research use emoticons in the threads.

Typographical Practices

These refer to the structural form of CMC language in terms of the *use of space* (concerns on the omission of blank space between words and punctuations), *case* (the use of all lower-case, all capitals and a blend of lower-case and capitals), *spelling* (the use of unconventional spoken-like spelling, the emergence of typos or mispredictions, repetition of letters and words, consonant writing, and split compounds), and *punctuation* (use of unconventional punctuation). Table 3 shows the typographical practices observed in the students' Facebook threads.

Among the typographical practices observed, defying the conventions of the use of punctuation marks was observed the most. This is followed by case, spelling, and space.

Table 3. Typographical practices identified in the students' Facebook threads.

Features	Rank
Punctuation	1
Case	2
Spelling	3
Space	4

Punctuation. In this part, the significant differences between the use of punctuations in Facebook threads and that in traditional written language are discussed with particular reference to seven different aspects including the *omission of full stops* which tops the list. This means that students rarely put a period at the end of their messages. This is followed by overuse of: a) *ellipsis*; b) *exclamation marks*; c) *question mark*; and d) *parenthesis*. The least observed is the omission of apostrophes and the overuse of commas.

Omission of full stops. In standard writing, the use of period signals the end of a statement or marks abbreviation. However, the use of such is rarely observed in the threads. Done intentionally, this reflects the distinct style of the respondents and the trend now in SNS. Also, full stops are replaced with emoticons.

Overuse of ellipsis. In this context, the real use and structure of ellipses are sometimes ignored or overused. This occurrence is due to the necessity of speed in synchronous exchanges.

Overuse of exclamation marks. Instead of using just one exclamation mark, students use two or more marks. Apparently, this is to intensify the meaning of the message and the manner of saying it.

Aside from the omission of full stops, overuse of ellipses and exclamation marks, the *overuse of parenthesis* as an offshoot to the usage of emoticons was also noticed. It attempts to compensate for the absence of facial expressions that signify various types of laughter and simulations of expressive prosody. Meanwhile, the *absence of apostrophe* is observed to satisfy the necessity of speed in CMC. Likewise, the *overuse of question marks* used to show that someone is in doubt which reinforces the act of asking. It is also possible that the use of such is a clear manifestation of the creative style of the students. Lastly, *the overuse of commas* is also used to create the effects of spoken language, in this context, pauses in oral communication.

In general, it can be said that the traditional orthographic norms are routinely violated not only at the expense of saving keystrokes but also of shifting the written words closer to their phonetic representations (Gong & Ooi, 2008).

It is interesting to note that there seem to be no conventions for using punctuation in CMC, at least, in informal communication such as in the observed threads. The data imply that the non-standard ways of using punctuation may serve the following functions: a) for the ease of communication; b) to indicate hesitations and thoughts; c) to emphasize the tone and mood of the author; d) to indicate incompleteness of sentences; and e) to show informality and familiarity in informal situations.

Case. Conventionally, capital letters are used to signal the start of a sentence, the first letter of a proper noun, and in initialisms and acronyms. However, in CMC settings, it is a common practice to type a particular word or even a whole sentence in all capital letters for emphasis.

The use of upper and lower cases in SNS can be characterized as non-standard. It was observed that words in the messages are capitalized though they need not be and vice-versa. The following are some examples: *visaYa* for Visaya); joan for (Joan); *naGGapu* (came from); *naGpas2yar* (visited), *agVac* (a clip term for the mixed term *agvacation* which means to have a vacation), *cBL* (also a clip term of the Ilokano term *imposible* which means impossible), etc.

Also, the expression of emotion such as the laughs (HAHAHA) is also capitalized to indicate emphasis or to create the impression of loudness or shouting (Driscoll & Brizee 2013). Moreover, the first-person pronoun, I, is rarely capitalized.

In general, the use of all upper case, all lower case or a combination of both could be seen as a replacement for intonation and the loudness variable (Crystal, 2006). However, one should not discount the idea that most messages can be written in those ways due to various reasons: from mechanical issues in the form of malfunctioning keyboards or a lack of proper training in keyboard use, to laziness or hastiness (Hårdaf Segerstad, 2002; Halmetoja, 2013) or to save a keystroke Crystal, 2006).

Spelling. One way to simulate speech through the written language is to use colloquial verbalizations and non-standard spellings (Halmetoja, 2013) called textism (Albasheer and Alfaki, 2016).

. These phonetic spellings require initial conscious reading as the unfamiliarity with their shape prevents one from automatically recognizing the words and processing them (Stevenson, 2000).

Three eccentric spelling styles were observed in the threads. These are the repetition of letters, the addition of letters and letter substitution.

Repetition of letters. This refers to the recurrence of letter or letters in a word. The letter or letters that is/are duplicated can be found at the middle (e.g. *girrrrrl*, *commmmmmme*, *bessssy*) or at the last segment of the word (*happy vaccayyyy*; *I mean itttt*).

Addition of letters. This refers to the adding of letter or letters in a word. Usually, the letters that are added are silent when read or if not, they are pronounced distinctly to exaggerate the pronunciation and/or blend in the trend. For instance, in one of the threads, the word *datwe(ate)*, a Filipino politeness marker was added with the letter (w). It is pronounced as /athwɛ/ with an aspirated /t/ and a distinct /hw/ sounds. Moreover, two occurrences of addition of letters are noted in the thread. First is the addition of the sound /s/ in the word *truth*; thus the word *truths* which is pronounced as /truts/. This means that the sound /s/ is distinctly pronounced. Also, the letter h is also added in some words: instead of just saying *truths a* (It is true) or *siak ah* (It is me), the letter *a* in those statements was added with h. This, however, is silent when pronounced.

Letter Substitution. This happens when a Facebook user intentionally or unintentionally alters the spelling of a word by changing the letter/s of the word to a letter whose pronunciation is almost the same as the original. For instance, the sound /z/ is used as a substitute to the sound /s/ as in the Ilokano word *mapukizn* (to do a haircut). It has been observed that /z/ is used as a substitute to sibilant sounds, /x/ for /ks/ in *thanks*, and /t/, /d/, /p/, /b/ for the following English sounds: /θ/, /ð/, /f/ and /v/. These occurrences in the thread may be attributed to the nature of the sounds. Sibilant sounds can replace a sound belonging to the same group. Also, bipolar sounds such as /p/ and /f/ are used interchangeably.

It can be surmised that letter substitution happens when students opt to use: a) the spoken-like spelling of the target word because of ignorance on the orthographic practices, specifically on the vernacular; b) a sound that is pronounce like the target sound as in the case of diphthongs and vowels; and c) their creativity in mixing and matching sounds without totally sacrificing clarity in their messages.

Space. In formal writings, spaces are used to separate words and sentences. However, in CMC context such as Facebook, the non-use of spaces was observed. First, instead of using a space, college students use punctuation marks. Second, students intentionally drop the use of spaces, a reflection of their creative minds and the emerging trend in CMC writings. Lastly, students sometimes do not use a space in between related sentences. This is caused, probably by the speed of communication exchanges in the thread that students need to deal with.

This implies that participants of online communication generally have a different attitude to the function of the space between words (Rumsiene, 2006) and even related

sentences. This has been tolerated by Facebook users since understanding does not cause any problems to the participants of the communicative process.

Syntactic Complexity

Syntactic complexity refers to the simplicity or difficulty of the structures used by the students in their Facebook threads. It was noted that students usually express their ideas in simple sentences. This is followed by related sentences, phrases, one word, sentence and phrase combinations and run-on sentences, respectively. In the field of linguistics, a run-on sentence is considered ungrammatical since a sentence should only have one idea. There are possible reasons why students post run-on sentences in Facebook: a) ignorance of the rule; b) to save time; c) laziness in using punctuations; d) one would want to approximate spoken interaction; and e) style of the Facebook user.

Compared with the syntactic complexity of SMS, the messages in the Facebook threads are longer since there is no limit as to the number of characters that must be used in a single post. Moreover, the dominance of simple and related sentences is attributed to the spoken-like feature of the Facebook threads. This supports Baron's (1998) and Hinrichs' (2006) claim when they said that CMC language is a new phenomenon resulting from contact between the modalities of speech and writing.

Lexical Features

Results show that the Facebook threads manifest a large number of shortenings: omission of vowel-indicating letters; partial acronym of sound segments; contractions; letter homophones; acronyms; acronym of sound segments; jejemon; letter and number homophone; and number homophone. Most of the shortenings are not formed by traditional methods such as acronym and abbreviations. Thus, they reflect a high degree of creativity.

Omission of vowel – indicating letters. This refers to a process of shortening the language quickly by dropping the vowels from a word, retaining the consonants of the word for the aim of recognition (e.g. *grd* for the Ilokano *ngarud* (then); *lng* for the Ilokano *laeng* (must); and *hnd* for the Filipino *hindi* (no). It must be emphasized that majority of the samples under this shortening scheme are Ilokano and Filipino terms. This may be attributed to the nature of the languages. It is said, that Filipino and Ilokano are syllabic languages and that all words in both languages do contain a vowel in each syllable. Thus, the majority of the syllables are emphasized.

Partial acronym of sound segments. This is a blend of omission of vowel-indicating letters and acronym of sound segments. This means that not all the vowel sounds of a word are dropped from the word structure (e.g. the vowel *a* was dropped in the word *apy* (apay), for the English term why; instead of writing *ibagbagan*, an Ilokano term which means (saying it), the first vowel *a* was dropped twice (*ibgbgan*).

Contractions. In using this technique, the beginning, middle or end of words are deleted. For instance, the first syllable and letter of the Ilokano word, *isupay* is dropped; thus the word, *supay*. Likewise, the vowel, *i*, was deleted in the Filipino word, *ninyo* (you), thus the word *nyo*.

Letter homophone. This refers to using letters to represent a word. This letter can either be a homophone to the target word or be approximately similar to the pronunciation of the word: *u* for *you* and *t* for *ti*. It is worthy to point that *t* and *u* are pronounced exactly the same as *ti* and *yo*; thus, the usage of the said letter homophone. It can be gleaned from the examples that letter homophones are used primarily to substitute a monosyllabic word whether it be in English, Filipino or Ilokano.

Abbreviation. This can be in the form of initialism (words that are formed from the initial letters but are pronounced letter wise) such as RS for River Side; CR for Comfort Room; and OTW for On The Way or acronyms (words that are formed by the initial letters in a string of words and are pronounced like a word) such as lol for Laugh Out Loud. It can be noted that majority of the abbreviations gathered are already being used in spoken communication except for new terms created by the influence of the social network such as the acronym LOL.

Acronym of sound segments. Traditional acronyms make use of the initial letters of a sequence of words. In acronym of sound segments, on the other hand, letter homophones are used to represent the syllables. For instance, the phrase, *di ba*, a two-syllable word was written as db. Technically, the phrase, *di ba* (isn't it) is a contraction of the Filipino phrase, *hindiba* (isn't it).

Most of the examples observed in the threads are two to three syllables. Longer words are difficult to subject in this shortening scheme since doing so may just affect the clarity of the message.

Jejemon. This is a texting trend in the Philippines. It is done by replacing the original letters of a word with number and signs. Moreover, words are considered *jejemon* when letters are changed with the letter j such as the laughter that is usually expressed in writing as *hahaha* or *hehehehe* is replaced with *ajajajajaja* or *jejejejeje*. This means that one feature of this lexical feature is the use of the letter j.

There are also cases when a word is composed of letters and words: the number two in the Ilokano word, *nagpas2syar* (gallivant), and the Filipino term, *naka2tawa* (funny), are used to denote that the syllable before it should be read twice; thus, the *nagpas2syar*, and the *naka2tawa*, should be read as *nagpaspasyar* and *nakakatawa*.

Letter and Number Homophones. This is a combination of two lexical features. Both letter and number are used to represent an idea in the post. Examples of which are the following: *t2* for *tito* (a word for endearment); *b4* for *before*; *B8* for the Ilokano word, *biit* (wait); and *D2* (for the Filipino term, *dito* (here)). Though rarely observed in the corpus, however, it can be noted that combinations of letters and numbers are seen as a normal feature in online language (Squires, 2010; Berman, 2006; and Baron, 2008).

Number homophone. This happens when users may, in a word, try to manipulate numbers to replace syllables having the same sounds. Among the identified lexical features, number homophone is the least noted. This observation is caused by the limited number of options to represent a word or idea. Aside from number two which could mean two or too, two more numbers were observed in the threads: 4 for *four* and 8 for *its*.

In general, the data on lexical features show that respondents seek to achieve some economy of symbols to increase the speed of communication. In effect, shortening is a widely established derivational process in Facebook users' language structures. A substantial part of terms are of foreign origin being polysyllabic words, and at the same time, their initial syllables are sufficient to make them understandable and distinct.

Findings of this study concur with sociolinguists like Eckert (1997) and Androutsopoulos & Georgakopoulou (2003) when they said that typical sociolinguistic features of adolescents' or youth's language include modifications such as clipping and syllable reordering.

Use of Emoticons

In this section, the use of emoticons, one of the distinctive characteristics in computer-mediated communication contexts is studied. In face-to-face communication situations, response is immediate and ideas are expressed using linguistic (segmentals) and paralinguistic features

(stress, tone, intonation pattern, juncture, etc.) of the language. In addition, a communicator can also use nonverbal means (facial expression, movements, posture and gestures) in putting his message across. However, in the context of CMC, these methods are not possible as both the sender and the receiver are not able to see and listen to each other.

Three major areas of emoticons were considered in this study. These are the types that are commonly used by the college students, the placement, and functions of emoticons.

Types of emoticons. There are two types of emoticons that were noted in this paper. These are the use of graphics or emotional attitudinal emoticons (the use of cartoon-like representations of ideas such as food, objects, people, animals, actions, and appearance and emotions) and figures (manual creation of emoticons through keyboard letterings). Table 4 shows the observed emoticons used by the college students.

Table 4. Emoticons identified in the students' Facebook threads.

Features	<i>f</i>	%
graphics	752	92
figures	64	8
Total	816	100

As shown in the table, graphics (92%) are more preferred than figures (85%). This maybe because the former can be used with just one click while the latter needs the keyboard to create one. However, there are students who still prefer figures over graphics because the former can be personalized.

Placement of emoticons. It was found in this paper that the placement of emoticons was most generative. Four codes were identified as the placement of the emoticons: *start* (emoticons appear first in the utterance), *middle* (appears mid-phrase, separating two clauses), *end* (emoticons appear last in the utterance), and *alone* (emoticons appear by itself as the utterance).

Functions of emoticons. Although 'verbal message content prevails over emoticons' contributions, these nascent symbols appear as cartoon-like representations, they serve a variety of important functions: redundancy (when the emoticon expresses the same meaning as the verbal phrase); antiphrasis (when the emoticon contrasts the meaning of the verbal message); entire turn (when the emoticon serves as the message itself); and syntactic marker (when the emoticon is used as punctuation mark). These functions corroborate with the findings of Amaghlobeli (2012), although hers was on the functions of emoticons in SMS discourse.

Conclusions

The emerging language in the Facebook threads of college students is characterized by the use of a mixture of two or three languages. Most of these combinations are dominated by the first language of the students, that is Ilokano, and combined with English the most and Filipino with the others. Secondly, the language of college students in their Facebook threads is characterized by the prevalence of linguistic features: *typographical practices* such as defiance to the conventions on the use of punctuation marks, case, spelling, and space; *syntactic complexity* which means that students usually express their ideas in simple sentences. This is followed by related sentences, phrases, one word, sentence and phrase combinations and run-on sentences, respectively; lexical, and use of emoticons.

Lastly, college students have the ability to adapt to language change and use it to suit the conditions of the current setting that they are into. This is triggered by the students' desire to increase communicational efficiency and gain social approval.

Pedagogical Implications

Virtual environments provide rich testing grounds for language use. However, literatures and studies on the linguistic aspect of social networking sites are very scarce. Thus, results of this study could contribute to the existing body of work in the field of research on language use in virtual contexts.

Also, the new language use and its features hope to shed light on the issue of communication barriers that have emerged among users from different backgrounds, ethnicity, cultures and age groups; thus, making them more competent language users in the CMC context.

Lastly, the results could also provide teachers baseline information related to the emerging language of college students in the CMC context which the former can use as bases for developing or updating their methodologies and strategies to suit the present learning environment.

References

- Albasheer, N., & Alfaki, I. (2016). The effect of text messaging on the English language aspects and communication. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 3(2), 13 – 29.
- Al-Harashsheh, Ahmad. (2019). A study of linguistic techniques in the language of the internet and mobile telephones. 10.13140/RG.2.2.16382.13129.
- Al Tamimi, Yasser & Gorgis, Dinha. (2007). Romanised Jordanian arabic e-messages. *The International Journal of Language Society and Culture*. 21, 1-12.
- Amaghloubeli, N. (2012). Linguistic features of typographic emoticons in SMS discourse. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(2), 348 – 354. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4304/tpls.2.2.348-354>
- Androutsopoulos, J. (2006). Introduction: Sociolinguistics and computer-mediated communication. *Journal of Sociolinguistics*. 10/4, pp. 419 – 438.
- Androutsopoulos, J., & Georgakopoulou, A. (Eds.). (2003). *Discourse Constructions of Youth Identities (Pragmatics and Beyond New Series)*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Bautista, M.L.S. (2004). Tagalog-English code-switching as a mode of discourse. *Asia Pacific Education Review*, 5, 226-233.
- Baron, N. (1998). Letters by phone or speech by other means: the linguistics of e-mail. *Language and Communication*, 18, 133-170.
- Baron, N. (2008). *Always on: Language in an online and mobile world*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Berman, I. (2006). Email-"Inspired" changes in non-native legal discourse. *Language@Internet*, 3(4), 1-11.
- Bodomo, A. B. (2009). *Computer-mediated communication for linguistics and literacy: Technology and natural language education*. USA: IGI, Global Hershey.
- Bodomo, A. B. & Lee, C. (2001, May). *Language and literacy in the information age: new forms, new media, new tools*. Paper presented at the Conference on Critical Perspectives on Language & Literacy: Students, Teachers & the Curriculum.
- Boldea, O., & Norley, N. (2008). Emoticons and their role in computer-mediated communication. *Journal of Linguistic Studies*, 1(1), 43-46.
- Bosco, L. S. (2007). SMS gener@tion: A study on the language of text messaging in Hong Kong (Unpublished master's thesis). The University of Hong Kong, Hong Kong.
- Christison, M., & Murray, D.E. (2014). *What English language teachers need to know*. New York: Routledge: Designing Curriculum.

- Crystal, D. (2006). *Language and the internet* (2nd ed.). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Cunliffe, D., Morris, D. & Prys, C. (2013). Young bilinguals' language behaviour in social networking sites: The use of Welsh on Facebook. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, (18), 339–361.
- Cvjetkovic, S. (2010). *Computer-mediated communication: A study of language variation on internet chat*. Goteborgs University.
- Delos Reyes, R. J. V., De Vera, K. L. M. & Medriano, R. S. Jr. (2018). The functions of language in facebook posting. *Asian EFL Journal*, 20 (3), 196-206.
- Derks, D., Bos, A. R., & von Grumbkow, J. (2008). Emoticons in computer-mediated communication: Social motives and social context. *Cyberpsychology & Behavior*, 1(1), 99-101.
- Domingo, M. (2017). Identity construction on Facebook: The case of ABES students. *Journal of Society & Technology*, 7(1), 30-37.
- Driscoll, D. and Brizee, A. (2013). Visual-textual devices for achieving emphasis. Retrieved from <http://owl.english.purdue.edu/owl/resource/601/01/>
- Eckert, P. (1997). *Language variation as social practice: The linguistic construction of identity in Belten high*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Facebook. (2013). <https://www.facebook.com/>
- Flash Eurobarometer. (2011). *User language preferences online. Analytical Report*. Retrieved from http://ec.europa.eu/public_opinion/flash/fl_313_en.pdf.
- Gong, W, Ooi, Y. (2008). 'Innovations and Motivations in Online Chat'. In: Kelsey, Sigrid, Kirk St. Amant (eds.). *Handbook of Research on Computer Mediated Communication* (Vol. 2). Hershey: Information Science Reference, 917-933.
- Halmetoja, T. (2013). *Gender related variation in CMC language: A study of three linguistic features on Twitter*. Undergraduate Thesis. GoteborgsUniversitet.
- Hard afSegerstad, Y. (2002). *Use and Adaptation of Written Language to the Conditions of Computer-Mediated Communication*. Sweden: Goteborg University.
- Herring, S. C. (2007). A faceted classification scheme for computer-mediated discourse. *Language@Internet*, 4 (1), 1-37.
- Hinrichs, L. (2006). *Codeswitching on the web: English and Jamaican Patois in E-Mail communication*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Inayati, N. (2015). English language teachers' use of social media technology in Indonesian higher education context. *Asian EFL Journal Research Articles*, 17 (4), 6-36.
- Kramsch, C. (2014). Teaching foreign languages in an era of globalization: Introduction. *The Modern Language Journal*, 98 (1), 296 – 311.
- Lantz-Andersson, Annika. (2017). Language play in a second language: Social media as contexts for emerging Sociopragmatic competence. *Education and Information Technologies*, 23. 10.1007/s10639-017-9631-0.
- Mi-Kyung, B. (2005). *Insider at border: Interactions of technology, language, culture, and gender in computer-mediated communication by Korean female learners of English*. (Thesis). Ohio State University.
- Pasfield-Neofitou, S. (2011). Online domains of language use: Second language learner's experiences of virtual community and foreignness. *Language Learning & Technology*, 15(2), 92–108.
- Pfaffman, J. (2008). Computer-mediated communications technologies. In J. M. Spector, M. D. Merrill, J. Van Merriënboer & M. P. Driscoll (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on*

- Educational Communications and Technology. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Priddis, D. (2013). *Adding personality to the college online classroom: A comparative study between students and educators regarding the use of emoticons*. Paper presented at CSCA.
- Romaine, S. (1984). *The language of children and adolescents: Acquisition of communicative competence*. Cambridge, MA: Blackwell Publishers.
- Rumšienė, G. (2004). Development of Internet English: alternative lexis, syntax and morphology. *Kalby Studijos*, (6), 48-55.
- Squires, L. (2010). Enregistering internet language. *Language in Society*, 39, 457-492.
- Stevenson, J. (2000). *The language of internet chat rooms*. Retrieved from <http://www.netting-it.com/Units/IRC.htm>
- Syafria, Rumadi, H., and Fatimah, R. (2019). The empowerment of Facebook in language learning at the University. *Asian EFL Journal Research Articles*, 25 (5.1), 43 – 61.
- Vandergriff, I. (2013). "My major is English, believe it or not - Participant orientations in non-native/native text-chat. *CALICO Journal*, 30(3), 393 – 409.
- Vandergriff, I. (2014). A pragmatic investigation of emoticon use in non-native/native speaker text chat. *Language@Internet*, 11 (4). Retrieved from [Urn:nbn:de:0009-7-39846](http://nbn:de:urn:nbn:de:0009-7-39846).
- vanGass, K. (2006). "Watsêjy?" The linguistic characteristics of Afrikaans on IRC. *Stellenbosch Papers in Linguistics PLUS*, 33, 69-96.
- Warschauer, M. (1997). Computer-mediated collaborative learning: Theory and practice. *The Modern Language Journal*, 81(4), 470–481.
- Wright, Sue, ed. (2004). Multilingualism on the Internet. *International Journal on Multicultural Societies*, 6 (1).
- Yigit, O. T. (2005). *Emoticon usage in task-oriented and socio-emotional contexts in online discussion boards*. Thesis. Florida State University.
- Zhao, Y. (2002). Linguistic features of English in Chinese IRC. *Journal of HIT (Social Science Edition)*, 4(2), 99-102.