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Virtual Reality (VR) - possibilities for use in tertiary language centres

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Abstract

This paper starts with an overview of how Virtual Reality (VR) has been used, and can be used, in language education. Using VR together with video technology in language education may sound innovative; however, such technology is actually well-developed and has been adopted in various places. For example, in Taiwan, tertiary students developed knowledge on English phonology, morphology, grammar and syntax, as well as a more advanced level of thinking with the assistance of an online 3D English VR learning program (Chen, 2016). In light of this, a VR Space has been created in a self-access language centre of a university in Hong Kong. This self-contained room contains a high-performance PC with HTC Vive headset and controllers. The paper will consider student opinions of VR as a learning tool for languages, and language centre teacher perceptions of the VR room's possible use by students as an independent learning tool and/or in their subjects. The paper looks forward as to how a VR Space can better cater for students who want to use VR to study independently, and more effectively target teachers who are interested in using the VR room to integrate VR apps into their teaching.

Keywords: Virtual Reality, VR, immersive education

Introduction

The English Language Centre (ELC) at The Hong Kong Polytechnic University (HK PolyU) constructed a Virtual Reality (VR) Space in its self-study centre (Centre for Independent Language Learning, CILL) during the summer of 2019. While the CILL was decided to promote independent language learning (Suriaman, 2015), the Space was constructed as part of a wider remit to re-think the purpose and usage of the self-study centre to make it more relevant to students.

VR equipment and apps

The Space, formerly a resource room accommodating teaching and student books measuring around 3 square metres, was furnished with a high-performance PC and HTC Vive VR equipment. A small number of VR apps and games were installed on the computer, including an ELC created app on *VR Job Interviews* (ELC, 2020), and *Becoming Homeless: A Human Experience*, an app created by the Virtual Human Interaction Lab at Stanford University (Virtual Human Interaction Lab, 2020).

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Usage issues in first year

The VR Space was accessible from September 2019 and a booking system was created and students started to use the equipment. Promotion of the VR Space began with mass emails and social media posts. However, usage levels have been very low for two reasons. First, the HK PolyU occupation and siege in November 2019, and second, the onset of coronavirus and suspension of face-to face teaching from January 2020.

The autumn of 2019 was marked by social unrest in Hong Kong, and this culminated with the occupation and siege of the HK PolyU campus in November 2019 (BBC News, 2019) with the CILL being on the front line of the protests. The occupation and siege finished at the end of November. However, there were concerns about the safety of the campus given the amount of tear gas that had been fired as well as other factors (HKFP, 2019). While parts of the campus were opened in January 2020, staff were not allowed back into the ELC until March 2020, and the renovation of CILL was not completed until summer 2020.

The HK PolyU also suspended most face-to-face teaching in the spring of 2020 in order to mitigate the effects of coronavirus. While restrictions had been somewhat relaxed by autumn 2020, most teaching still continued in online mode and the number of students on campus was significantly reduced through to summer 2021. This has negatively affected the usage patterns of CILL and consequently the number of students who might pass by the VR Space and be tempted to use it has been reduced. However, promotion of the VR Space continued through email and social media and students started to use it again from autumn 2020.

Literature Review

While the use of video technology combined with Virtual Reality is seen to be ground-breaking, the technology is actually quite mature and has already been used in language education. Yang et al. (2010) studied the use of video-capture virtual reality technology being integrated into a classroom. Their system, designed for primary school level English classes, enabled students to interact with the system through physical movements. There were positive results from surveys including the questionnaires on students' learning motivation and the SFQs. They showed that the system strengthened students' learning motivation. The interviews from teachers demonstrate that the teacher believed this system was beneficial in assisting English learning. All findings collectively demonstrated that the video-capture virtual reality technology effectively assisted English learning in a classroom environment.

These results have also been repeated in Europe. Ibáñez et al. (2011) looked at students learning Spanish as a foreign language in a mixed-reality experience. Their results also showed positive effects on student motivation and improvement in learning outcomes.

More recently, Chen (2016) reports that Taiwanese tertiary students, when using an online 3D English VR learning program, improved their phonological, morphological, grammar and syntax knowledge, and virtual world learning assisted in the development of a more complex and higher level of thinking. Further results from Taiwan demonstrate that a proposed 3D immersive and interactive virtual English classroom promoted a positive student attitude and interactive learning experiences (Shih & Yang, 2016).

The studies above show that VR technologies can have beneficial effects on student attitudes and motivation. While human to human interaction would generally be preferable, VR technologies enable the students to practise more frequently, to repeat their performances using the same or different scenarios, and to reflect upon a recording of their performance.

There are some studies that show that teacher attitudes towards VR can be positive. The EFL teacher participants in a study by Ozkan (2017) developed positive attitudes towards VR tools although they did not have any experience of using VR technology before. However, they

did participate in a series of workshops which promoted the benefits of VR immediately prior to the study.

Majid et al. (2018) found that student perceptions when using VR in the English classroom was positive, although strongly related to its perceived usefulness. This study adapted the Technology Acceptance Model (Davis, 1989) to assess students' acceptance in using new technology. The relationship between different factors were tested in the study, including perceived ease of use of VR, perceived usefulness of VR, and attitude towards using VR. These factors informed the questions that the researcher asked during interviews.

Regarding teacher perceptions, Peixoto et al. (2019) point out that the application of VR in language learning is an unexplored area, and set out to investigate the perceptions of language teachers on using VR to deliver listening activities. This small-scale study involved seven participants and got the teachers to try out the Virtual Environment and then answer a short questionnaire. Results showed that the participants found the VR experience attractive and that it was also able to help motivate students and increase the likelihood of students' being able to improve their listening skills in a foreign language.

There has been some recent work on how VR applications can be pedagogically applied in the classroom that focuses on language learning. Lege et al. (2020) have developed the VR Application Analysis Framework so that the usefulness of apps can be determined before they are recommended for individual students or classroom use. The framework includes four 'lenses': immersive capacity; cognitive load; purpose; and communicative capability. Immersive capacity refers to the sense of presence in VR applications, i.e., the ability to be transferred to an unfamiliar environment. Cognitive load relates to how much effort the learner needs to spend to complete the activity, both physically and mentally. Purpose refers to the original design purpose of the application, for example, educational, informational, entertainment or other purposes. It is worth noting that the application might be used for purposes other than that for which it was originally designed. Finally, communicative capability refers to the extent that the application allows users to communicate.

Methodology

A project assistant was employed to conduct interviews with diverse groups of subjects including students who have used the VR Space and ELC teachers. As mentioned earlier, the number of students using CILL and therefore, the number of students who have been in the VR Space is quite limited.

Initial data was collected in the autumn of 2020 and continued in 2021. Interviews were conducted with teachers and students. All interviews were conducted by Zoom, and subjects signed a consent form. No personal information of the interviewees, such as name, student ID (for students), staff ID (for teachers), has been retained nor recorded in the interviews. In the data-reporting phase, all interviewees were identified by codes shared between the project assistant and the principal investigator.

Teachers were asked the following questions.

1. Are you aware of the VR Room in CILL?
2. Do you think VR can benefits students' language and communication skills? Why?
3. Do you think VR can be regarded as a self-learning tool or a tool for classroom teaching?
4. Would you consider integrating VR into your classroom teaching? (If the teacher regarded VR as a tool for classroom teaching)
5. Do you have any recommendation for VR apps that can installed in the VR Room? / what kind of skills do you think students in your subjects need to learn (then we look for an app that cover these areas).

Students were asked these questions:

1. Which discipline do you belong to?
2. How did you learn about the VR Room?
3. What apps have you tried in your visits? (If they have used the Job Interview app, then ask Q4 & 5; if not, then ask Q6)
4. Do you think that the VR Job Interview app helped to enhance your performance in simulated job interviews?
5. Do you think the VR Job Interview app assisted you in providing some original answers to challenging interview questions?
6. Do you think the apps in the VR Room were relevant to your needs? Which apps are more or less relevant?
7. Do you have any recommendation for other apps to be installed in the VR Room?
8. Would you recommend other students to use the VR Room?

Interviews were recorded on Zoom and then summarised by the project assistant. The summary was shared with the principal investigator. Students who were interviewed were given a small value book token in recognition of the time spent answering questions.

As mentioned earlier, there are plans for further interviews when face-to-face teaching returns. One group of students we would like to interview includes students who have used CILL but have *not* used the VR room. There are quite a sizable number of students who make use of CILL, for example by attending workshops, or one of the non-credit bearing initiatives that are offered, or as a place for independent study, but do not make use of the VR Room. There are plans to also interview these students about the VR Room. Questions such as the following would be asked:

- Do you know that there is a VR Room in CILL?
- Do you think VR can be used to improve language skills?
- Are you interested in using the VR Room in the future? Why/ Why not?

Interviews were conducted in Cantonese or English to allow interviewees expressing their opinions and ideas more freely.

Results

Teacher interviews

In total 11 teachers from the ELC of the HK PolyU were interviewed on their perception to the VR Room in CILL. The teachers were chosen as a representative sample of all the teachers in the Centre of which there are around 75. They included both males and females, those with a local and overseas background, and were from various levels, from language instructors to subject coordinators. While all teachers in the ELC use technology in their teaching to some degree, those interviewed had a range of views about the use of technology in the teaching (e.g., some treat technology as ‘invisible’ and integrate it seamlessly into their classes, while other see it more as a ‘fun add-on’ to gain the interest of students by, for example, using quizzes such as Kahoot).

Semi-structured questions were asked on how VR technology can benefit the language and communication skills of students from various disciplines. The HK PolyU has its origins as a technical polytechnic, and its faculties include business, design, hotel management, computing, engineering, and nursing. Among the interviewed teachers, whose students ranged from first-year students to seniors, only one expressed that they were not aware of the VR Room before receiving the interview invitation.

Nearly half of teacher interviewees considered VR as a mere self-learning tool. They felt that it would be difficult to integrate into classroom teaching, with the limited number of headsets available as the major concern. For the others who considered that VR can be both a self-learning tool and a tool for classroom teaching, they also expressed the opinion that to successfully integrate this technology into classroom, the number of devices would be the first issue to solve. Otherwise, the VR experience could only be designed as an after-class or follow-up activity where students would be required to complete certain tasks by using a particular VR app and bring their written or spoken reflections in the next lesson; or as an assistive tool with the other consultation services provided by the ELC, such as Writing Assistance Programme (WAP) and Speaking Assistance Programme (SAP), where students are required to bring in their own writing or recorded speaking clips for teacher feedback and advice. Two of the interviewees cast doubts on whether VR would be an effective tool for students to improve their communication skills, as the lack of interaction between the apps and the user would provide limited opportunities for students to practise their productive skills.

In terms of the necessary language and communication skills for academic achievement, some interviewees indicated that instead of a particular skill, confidence for speaking and interacting in English should be addressed. Many HK PolyU students are proficient in the discipline-specific English terminology but lack the expressions or vocabulary to communicate in everyday English, which thus led to the low motivation to speak in English with their friends and during informal situations. Interviewees opined that VR could be a 'bridge to bring the outside world to students' by providing authentic real-life experience which is difficult to achieve in a classroom with limited contact hours and high teacher to student ratios. Interviewees believed that VR technology is likely beneficial especially in boosting confidence and motivation to learn and use of the target language. Apps with more interactive elements, such as the ELC Job Interview App, could be particularly useful as students can have more chances to practice speaking skills and rehearse for some real-life situations.

As reported by the interviewees, many local students are goal- and assessment-oriented. To enhance the usage of the room, teacher interviewees argued that it should be related to the improvement of a particular skill. In this way, students are clearer about what possible benefits they could get after spending time in the room, rather than having a mere fun experience of playing some VR games. Some interviewees also suggested that the number of headsets should be increased for students to use the room in a small group of 3 to 4 peers.

Overall, interviewees were positive about this innovative technology. Although doubts were raised and some issues are yet to be solved, they still saw the possibility in this tool for language learning and look forward to a favourable outcome brought to students.

Student interviews

Six students from various disciplines such as computer science, nursing, accounting and hotel management were interviewed. Some of them were freshmen while some were students of senior years. Including both males and females, one of them was a non-Chinese student while the rest of them were either local Hong Kong students or mainland Chinese students.

In terms of the benefits brought by the VR Space, all of them expressed the view that the technology could help them understand complex contexts, such as Aircraft Engineering, and allow them to learn the situations of different social issues established in the app, such as being homeless. One of them also argued that the VR technology could be served as an "early" practicum for freshmen, especially those who studied "hard science" subjects such as mechanics and engineering. For those who tried the app *Becoming Homeless: A Human Experience* developed by Stanford University, all of them were amazed by the real-life

experience offered. This app had triggered them to think about the real situations of homeless people, such as their background and reasons of being homeless.

In terms of how VR could help in improving English, while all of them considered that promoting the technology as a tool to “improve GPA” would be very attractive, they also acknowledged the fact that improving academic English through the currently available VR apps might be an unrealistic goal to have. However, because all the apps the Space offered at the moment were operated in English, some of them shared that their listening skills could be improved because they had to listen to speakers with different accents for instructions to use the app or play the game. There were also ranges of specialized vocabulary, such as expressions related to homelessness or social work, so the interviewees also felt that their vocabulary bank would be enhanced by using different VR apps.

Some students remarked that the VR Space needed to be more visible in CILL in order to attract more students, suggesting that an eye-catching banner could be made to show the location of the room at the CILL entrance. In terms of promotion, one argued that face-to-face promotion is preferred to email promotion because it can involve students who have tried the room to share their experience to others thereby making it more personal. Another suggested that it would be better if there could be more VR headsets as it would be more attractive as students to use apps in pairs or small groups. A further suggestion was to move the VR Space into a larger area, or integrate it further into the wider area of CILL.

Overall, the students were positive with their experiences in using the VR Space. They all agreed to recommend this Space to their peers.

Discussion

Four areas have been identified as area for discussion. The ‘immersive experience that VR offers; whether VR should be used more as a self-study tool or if it can be integrated into subjects; guidelines for use of the VR applications; and practicalities of the equipment and location of a VR Space.

Immersive experience

One of the main advantages of using VR is the immersive experience that it can offer. Examples include the interview experience that is offered by the ELC’s *VR Job Interviews* app, and the experience of living on the streets, as offered by Stanford’s *Becoming Homeless: a Human Experience* app. VR enables the user to be transported into another world and real-world distractions can be greatly reduced (Bonner and Reinders, 2020). This level of immersion can also have the benefit of helping students make real world connections between what they are experiencing and their own lives, although some scaffolding is likely needed for this. For example, users are often impressed by the ‘becoming homeless’ app, but still feel that they are in an American environment, even though homelessness is a social issue found throughout the world.

Apps such as Google Exhibitions can allow for enhanced motivation and engagement of students as well as contextualized learning (Alizadeh, 2019). Especially in the time of coronavirus, where travel has been severely curtailed, VR can enable students to be transported to museums, art galleries and virtual fieldtrips. This provides a lot of potential to incorporate VR technology into language learning and teaching. For instance, in one of our EAP (English for Academic Purposes) subjects at the ELC, students need to discuss the problems and viable solutions related to food safety. Rather than looking at food safety from an abstract viewpoint, learners can be immersed in an environment such as a food processing factory.

Self-study or integration

Teacher and student interviewees were divided as to whether it would be better to integrate VR into subjects (i.e., use for academic purposes) or whether it should be used more as a self-study tool by students. I believe that there are possibilities for both approaches, although given the current limited amount of equipment, it would be better to only integrate it in subjects with a small number of students (e.g. under 100).

The ELC runs a range of subjects with some, such as first year proficiency and EAP subjects, catering for over 1000 students each semester, and other workplace subjects, such as those for business or engineering students which cater for several hundred students each semester. Requiring these students to go to the VR Space to use an application would lead to logistical problems with many students not being able to find a time when the VR Space was available. There are other subjects with a smaller cohort of students (under 100 per academic year), and it would be wiser to target these groups.

It is recommended that applications are tightly integrated into subjects rather than students just being sent to the VR Space in order to improve their language skills. Students will know that their grades are unlikely to be significantly improved by only visiting the VR Space a couple of times during the semester. Instead, it is recommended that usage of the VR Space is integrated into class work that students are completing during the semester.

The VR Space can also be used as a self-study tool by students. I believe rather than focusing on specific academic or discipline demands, it would be better to guide students to use an application of interest to them which can also improve their general English ability. Creating more space for students to develop their interests and habits in using English for listening rather than only focusing on tests and examinations is frequently recommended in Hong Kong (for example, see SCOLAR, 2020). More opportunities to practise English holistically and authentically will help students, and therefore future employees, develop their confidence and interest in the use of English.

Guidelines

Whatever way the VR Space is used, it is important that guidelines are provided on how to use the various VR applications are used in order to foster language acquisition. Lege et al.'s (2020) VR Application Analysis Framework could be adapted for this purpose. Lege et al. (2020) provide an example of Spotlight Stories, an app developed by Google. This app has an entertainment purpose with a medium immersive capacity. It is low in terms of cognitive load and low in terms of communicative capability. In terms of possible classroom usage, students could be asked to re-create their experiences in written or comic book form, possibly as part of a pair work information gap activity.

In an ELC, HK PolyU context, social work students taking an ELC course could be encouraged to use the 'becoming homeless' app. The purpose of this app is informational / educational and it has a medium to high immersive capacity. The different environments of the app including the apartment, the car and the bus are realistically portrayed. Cognitive load is medium; users need to listen to instructions from the app, as well as perform different actions in order to proceed to the next stage. Communicative capability is again low; the user only needs to listen. After using the application, HK PolyU students taking the English subject could be asked to write a summary of what they experienced, and then compare and contrast it to what someone experiencing homelessness would encounter in Hong Kong.

Most of the apps currently installed on the computer in the VR Space are commercial or free of charge off-the-shelf applications. The developers of these applications are not normally developing applications to be used explicitly for language learning. However, there

is no reason a well-designed application, with a purpose related to entertainment, information or education (non-language) cannot be used for communicative activities in the language classroom. Guidelines can be produced for these types of apps in order to attract the self-directed learner to use the VR Space in order to improve their language and other skills.

Using an application in this way could have another benefit. Students in Hong Kong often have difficulties being able to transfer findings from a study overseas to their own context in Hong Kong. As noted earlier, one of the students enjoyed the 'becoming homeless' app, but considered it to be related to America and in that way foreign to her. Specific instructions requiring students to compare and contrast their experience in the app set in America to the experience of homeless people in Hong Kong could help students see the usefulness of studies outside Hong Kong for their studies within Hong Kong.

Location and equipment

It was noted by several interviewees that the limited number of headsets in the VR Space is a major restricting factor in expanding its usage. Unfortunately, this is not an easy problem to solve. A complete set of HTC Vive VR goggles, paddles and base station costs around USD1000. In addition, a dedicated space is required for each VR headset. While a well-funded institution would be able to afford several sets of VR equipment, finding suitable space is often a more intractable problem. It was also suggested that the VR Space be moved into the open part of CILL. While this would have the advantage of making the space more visible to other CILL users, using the VR in an open space might prove dangerous to users. The current space is an enclosed room, so that there are both the physical limits of the room, and the virtual limits of the VR environment in which the user is immersed. When using VR, participants are often immersed in their 'own world', and interaction with the 'real world' can be problematic. In addition, as they are immersed in a virtual world, students might prefer a more private experience in an enclosed room.

One possible enhancement would be the addition of more goggles and paddles to allow multi player applications in the space. This would allow for greater communicative capability, although care would need to be taken to ensure that the space is large enough to house two users. The use of Google Cardboard along with the user's own mobile device is another possibility. However, the experience is generally much more inferior compared to the full VR experience provided by the HTC Vive headset.

Conclusion

The VR Space in the ELC has had a troubled birth. Soon after its initial opening, the HK PolyU campus was closed and the self-study centre where it is located was on the frontline between protestors and the police. After the campus was reopened, its operation was further disrupted by coronavirus which meant that the number of students on campus was greatly reduced. Online teaching has continued into 2021, so a full return to face-to-face teaching might not happen until late 2021.

Teachers have generally positive views on VR, although their views are mixed as to whether VR should be a self-study aid or integrated into subjects. The students interviewed were highly positive about the space, although they also had mixed views as to its suitability for integration into academic bearing subjects.

In the short term we will continue encouraging students and teachers to use the VR Space. Guidelines for the use of different apps can be produced so that students are clearer about how different applications can be used, and teachers know how they can be used in their

subjects. When usage rates increase, some quantitative data can be gathered about which apps students are using and in which way they are being used.

The VR Space long term future rests to some extent on how self-access language learning centres will operate in the coming years. The ELC's own CILL is searching for a new identity, moving away from a place where students come to find resources such as books or grammar tools to improve their English, to a more informal place where English can be practised, and teachers met for consultations. In a world where language learning resources can be found anywhere online (Prapinwong & Puthikanon, 2008), so making the need for a physical place housing these resources redundant, the VR Space is in a halfway house. The full VR experience needs specialised equipment and a purposely built space, so lacks the convenience of anytime, anywhere mobile learning. However, the experience of a specialised learning space with high specification equipment is vastly superior to that offered by a mobile device. It is possible that VR Space could be part of a reimagined self-access language learning centre.

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Using The FIVES Strategy to Improve the EFL Iraqi Students in Reading Comprehension Skills

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Abstract

Strategies to boost students' comprehension are considered significant in the field of foreign language teaching. This study aims at finding out the effect of the FIVES reading comprehension strategy upon Iraqi students' performance in reading comprehension classes. To achieve the aforementioned aim, the author uses experimental method and a sample of (103) students in English Department/College of Education for Humanities /Tikrit university during the academic year (2018-2019). The sample is divided into a control group with (51) students and experimental group with (52) students. The two groups are equalized according to certain variables such as age and educational attainment of parents. The students in the experimental group are taught according to The FIVES reading comprehension strategy, while those in the control group are taught according to the conventional method. The author uses a writing post-test which is conducted on the sample at the end of the experiment which is four weeks. It seems obvious that there are many challenges in teaching reading comprehension and the lack for an effective strategy to boost students' reading comprehension, it is seen that this study might be an effective strategy to fill this gap among university students. The findings of the study revealed that there are significant differences in reading comprehension skills between both groups (experimental and control groups) in favor of the experimental group due to the use of the FIVES reading comprehension strategy.

Keywords: reading comprehension, the FIVES strategy, apprenticeship learning, EFL.

Introduction

Foreign language teaching has witnessed rapid growth in terms of using different strategies in an attempt to improve and speed up the learning process of FL. Authors from different parts of the universe are trying to find out new techniques and strategies to improve students' comprehension of the four language skills. This section articulates the statement of problem and aims of the study, formulates the hypotheses to be verified by the end of this study. The section defines the scope and limitations of the study and highlights its significance. Shea & Roberts (2016, p. 95) argue that "preparing students for their future in an increasingly global society requires teaching them how to construct personal meaning (i.e., knowledge they can apply to reason, learn, analyze, evaluate, communicate, and be comfortably flexible). Students are expected to read increasingly more complex text, particularly more in the informational category, and write with knowledge, voice, and clarity across a range of genres" (Alzebaree & Hasan, 2020). Shanahan & Shanahan (2008, pp. 56-57) conclude that "traditional efforts to encourage every content-area teacher to be a reading teacher by pressing them to teach general-purpose strategies have neither been widely accepted by teachers in the disciplines nor particularly effective in raising reading achievement on a broad scale".

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Statement of the problem

In addition, EFL students, including Iraqi students, face the double challenge of “learning academic content and skills while learning the language in which these skills are taught and practiced”(Goldberg, 2008, p. 19). Further, many students approach reading activities in the class with limited strategies such as reading silent, or following after the teacher, then attempting to answer tedious questions of comprehension. As such, it is critical to equip the students with several skills and strategies in reading comprehension and make the reading class an interesting place where several other skills such as writing are combined.

Aims of the study

This study aims to:

1. Examine the effect of the FIVES strategy for reading comprehension on the Iraqi EFL students.
2. Increase the students' vocabulary stock as a result of the vocabulary's component of the FIVES strategy.
3. Sharpen students' inference skills as a result of the inference component of the FIVES strategy.
4. Improve students' critique and writing skills as a result of the summary and emulation components of the FIVES strategy.
5. Help students to self-initiate strategies as habits of mind when reading. In other words, to help students automate the FIVES strategy unconsciously when reading independently.

Hypotheses of The Study

At the beginning of this study, the following hypotheses were formulated in connection to the use of the FIVES reading comprehension strategy in reading comprehension classes:

1. There is no difference between the two groups according to the mean score of the pre-test.
2. There is no difference of experimental group according to the mean score of the post-test.
3. There is no difference between the mean scores for pre and post for the experimental group.

These hypotheses will be verified by the end of this study.

Scope of the study

The current study is limited to:

1. The use of the FIVES strategy for reading comprehension.
2. The second-year students of English Department/ College of education for Humanities/Morning studies/ Tikrit University who are studying composition during the academic year (2018-2019).

Significance of the study

The significance of this study stems from the several factors:

First, it implements the FIVES strategies for improving reading comprehension skills among second year students of English language.

Second, it applies a new unconventional reading comprehension strategy, which triggers the enthusiasm and interest of students to learn it and use it in the reading classes.

Third, this study equips students with several skills combined at one place, for example, reading facts, making inferences, learning new vocabulary, evaluating and summarizing the texts in a critical way.

Fourth, it improved the performance of students in reading comprehension and other skills such as inferences, vocabulary, summarizing and critical evaluation.

Fifth, the study made a positive impact on the students to use the FIVES strategy for reading outside the classroom.

Theoretical Background

What is reading comprehension?

In simple words, reading comprehension refers to selecting the relevant information and ignoring the irrelevant information in the text. Grellet (1981, p. 2) admits that the answer to the question of what defines reading comprehension requires us to look at the big picture. The argues that before we define reading comprehension, we have to answer several other questions such as what we read, e.g. newspapers, magazines, blogs, social media or books. Another question is why we read: for pleasure or for information? The final question is how we read: skimming, scanning, extensive or intensive? These decide what we mean by reading comprehension.

According to (Romero & Romero, 1985, p. 1), several authors attempted to define reading and each definition attempted to focus on one aspect. In best cases, reading can be defined as “the use of the code that has to be interpreted for meaning”. Reading can be viewed as a decoding process or reading for meaning.

Developing reading is a challenging task. The most difficult challenge is to overcome the “intermediate-level slump” as called by (Anderson, 2008, p. 33). This slump takes place when learners are moving from learning to read to reading to learn. Reading to learn assumes learning several skills and learning how writers uses the conventions, style, punctuation marks to express meaning and ideas. In this kind of reading, learners use reading to increase knowledge. In this intermediate level, learners have more materials to learn. Usually, the texts should be short and simple (suitable for 4th grade in school).

Students’ success depends to a large extend on their reading skills. Reading for academic purposes requires students to be able to read for main ideas and details. They should have the ability to distinguish between fact and opinion. Other abilities include drawing inferences, determining author’s stance and bias, summarizing, synthesizing, and extending textual information to new tasks. They should be able to use the information gained from texts in the classroom, exams and daily life (Grabe & Stoller, 2017, p. 189).

Teaching reading

Teaching reading comprehension is not an easy task. It involves several variables such as learners’ level of fluency, processing ability, L1 reading habits, the vocabulary stock of learners, and the metacognitive ability of learners.

Motivation is another crucial factor in teaching reading comprehension. The question is who is should motivate L2 reader. According to (Dornyei, 2001, p. 64), motivating L2 readers is no body’s responsibility. Teachers are supposed to teach curriculum not to motivate readers. However, this is not always true. The motivation is shared by readers and teachers.

Hedgcock & Ferris (2009, p. 49) argue that in teaching reading comprehension, teachers are advised to consider three critical factors: the reading process or (learning to read), the reader

and the text. The process can be thought of as constructing meaning or decoding symbols. However, constructing meaning is more suitable for reading in academic settings. There are three approaches to reading: bottom-up, top-down and interactive. In bottom-up, the readers construct meaning from the small segments called letters combined to words, then to clauses, sentences and discourse. In the top-down approach, readers construct meaning by activating prior knowledge and experiences. In the interactive approach to reading, readers go back and forth from top-down to bottom-up approaches.

Reading comprehension has been the subject matter of several books, tutorials and instructional materials. Nowadays, the communicative approach to language is the dominant one. Such dominance shadows the requirements and content of the reading books and syllabi. It is a central principle that the materials should be authentic and relevant to students' needs, interest and background. Several books have been authored on teaching reading comprehension strategies such as (Watkins, 2017) and (Shea & Roberts, 2016). We will be describing the second strategy in the next section.

Description of FIVES

The FIVES reading comprehension strategy was developed by Shea and Roberts (2016). The FIVES can be expanded to "Facts, Inference, Vocabulary, Experience and Summary". Shea & Roberts (2016, p. 97) state that "FIVES support student success with the micro and macro aspects of reading comprehension and writing to learn through the integration of skills used to complete the components". According to (Klingner, Vaughn, & Boardman, 2007, p. 9) "micro processing refers to the reader's initial chunking of idea units within individual sentences. Chunking involves grouping words into phrases or clusters of words that carry meaning and requires an understanding of syntax as well as vocabulary". The micro aspect requires students to:

- Understand vocabulary, figurative language, and word referents (F + V),
- Build connections between sentences and paragraphs (F + V + I)
- Making mini inferences between sentences and paragraphs (F + I), (Shea & Roberts, 2016, p. 26).

The macro process involves "grasping the overall gist of the text; constructing deep meaning with the text (F + I + E + S)", (Shea & Roberts, 2016, p. 26). In other words, the macro process involves the facts, inference, experience and summary. The facts can be obtained from the text easily or with little difficulty. However, inference requires more thinking and using of background information. Experience involves relating the text to one's experience, and it is very helpful in understanding the text. The final activity in the macro process is the summary, where students are asked to write a summary of the text. The summary may be limited as a one paragraph or it may be specified in numbers, as 20 words or so. The number of words in the summary is not as important as engaging the students in high levels of thinking and writing (Zebari, 2012) and watching movies, the strategy which also works in reducing anxiety in learning (Elfiondri, 2018, p. 289).

Belonging to the macro level or process is the metacognition, which is the conscious thinking about thinking. Recently, approaches to reading comprehension started employing the metacognition strategies, where students think consciously about their reading, monitor their comprehension and describe what happens in their brain during the reading activity. It is sometimes referred to as "think aloud" strategy.

Procedures of FIVES

According to the authors of the FIVES strategy, the teacher is expected to present the whole picture to the students. That is, several strategies are to be implemented either sequentially or at the same time. The main goal of the FIVES strategy is the success in comprehension. Each step of the FIVES (Facts, Inference, Vocabulary, Experience or Summary) can be presented using the following procedures (M Shea & Roberts, 2016, p. 32):

1. Tell students what you are going to teach and what they are expected to learn and be able to do as a result.
2. Teach it explicitly.
3. Model its application more than once and exactly as you expect them to perform the skill or strategy.
4. Debrief: review what you taught and modeled. Have students orally explain what they understand.
5. Allow ample time for guided, supported practice. Some students need more time, support, guidance, or reteaching. Form small groups and deliver appropriate interventions; provide individualized attention when necessary.
6. Have students share their work and thinking.
7. Turn it over to the students to use and apply as they read independently.
8. Have students share their work and thinking with a partner, in small groups, or with the class.

The facts have to be critically analyzed. The first stage involves distinguishing main ideas, central themes, and important details. Students can be helped to pose questions while reading the text. This method can be compared to “Questioning the text and author” described in (Watkins, 2017). There are several rubrics described in (M Shea & Roberts, 2016, pp. 39-43) for evaluating the students’ performance in all the stages of FIVES. The following is a rubric to evaluate the entire class (ibid. p. 44).

Record students’ scores for each step based on the rubric criteria Calculate individual totals Highlight any scores that are 3 or below to plan for reteaching and intervention groups.						
Assignment:			Date:			
Name	F Score	I Score	V Score	E Score	S score	Total

Figure 1: Class list for FIVES score on a single assignment

Advantages of the FIVES strategy

The FIVES strategy has a number of advantages, which were the main reason for choosing it. These advantages are as follows:

1. It helps students develop authentic and real-world skills.

2. It focuses on facts, inference, vocabulary, experience, summary and applying this knowledge in reading and in essay writing.
3. It helps students to read with understanding and express their ideas about reading.
4. It encourages students to take notes, think aloud, question the text, increase their vocabulary stock and improve their writing skills.

Disadvantages of the FIVES strategy

There are a few disadvantages of the FIVES strategy which can be listed below:

1. It is best seen as an extension of the cognitive apprenticeship model, where a master of a skill teaches that skill to an apprentice. The teacher has to model each step of the Facts, Inference, Vocabulary, Experience, and Summary.
2. Unless otherwise executed by a dexterous teacher, this strategy can be time-consuming to implement in the classroom.
3. It takes some time for students to learn it and master it in their reading classes.

Procedures and Methodology

This section introduces the experimental design, population and sampling procedures, equivalence of the groups, test construction, plan of the study, validity and reliability of tests, item analysis and scoring scheme of the post-test.

The experimental design

According to Van Dalen (1979, p. 232), it is critical to make sure that the research design is appropriate for the research. Best & Khan (2006, p. 77) argue that experimental design is “the blueprint of the procedures that enable the researcher to test hypotheses by reaching valid conclusions about the relationship between independent and dependent variables”.

For the purpose of this study, the experimental group of students are taught reading comprehension according to the FIVES strategy of (Shea & Roberts, 2016), and the control group is taught reading comprehension using the conventional methods. In addition, this study implemented the pretest-posttest equivalent group design.

Population and sampling

According to (Bluman, 2008, p. 797), population of the study refers to all the participants (previously referred to as “subjects”) in the study. For the purposes of this study, the population was drawn from the students of second year at the Department of English at the College of Education for Humanities (Morning Batches) at Tikrit University, who were pursuing their studies in the academic year 2018/2019. Out of 130 (one hundred and thirty) students, 103 (a hundred and three) students were randomly drawn. The sample was drawn from the students who were pursuing their studies in English as a foreign language. The sample was divided into two equal groups, 52 students in each group. However, one student was not able to participate in the study and thus the control group’s number was 51 students. The experimental group (52) students were taught reading comprehension using the FIVES strategy, while the control group (51) students were taught reading comprehension using the conventional methods. The following table shows the statistics of the experimental and control groups.

Table 1: Statistics of the Sample Experimental and Control Groups

Group	Number of students	Strategy
Experimental	52	FIVES
Control	51	Conventional

Group Equivalence

The sample groups had to be equalized before conducting the experiments. Several parameters were taken into consideration during the equivalence process such as age and educational qualifications of students' parents.

Instructional Material

The reading comprehension skill was chosen to be taught using the FIVES strategy developed by (Shea & Roberts, 2016). The materials have been chosen from 3 famous short stories as follows:

1. Cat in the Rain by Earnest Hemmingway
2. The Doll's House by Katherine Mansfield
3. The Black Cat by Edgar Allan Poe

All the three short stories are now in the public domain, and there is no need to attach them in appendix or cite them in the references list. The course was conducted for a period of one month. As it was mentioned above, the experiments were carried out during the first semester of the academic year 2018/2019. Starting date of instruction commenced on October 17th, 2018 and ended on November 18th, 2018. It has to be noted that the experimental group was taught the three short stories using the FIVES, whereas the control group was taught the same stories using the conventional methods.

Construction of the Test

Before conducting the experiment, both control and experimental groups should be tested to decide the level of their mastery of reading comprehension. This is critical to reveal if a group outranks the other one in any aspects of performance. After implementing any strategy in language teaching, be it reading, writing, listening or speaking, it is important to conduct a test for the experimental and control groups in order to reveal if there is any significance difference as a result of the experiment.

There are five components in the FIVES strategy. Accordingly, the researcher constructed a test according to the guidelines of the authors of the FIVES strategy which can be found in (M Shea & Roberts, 2016, pp. 40-41). The following table illustrates the content, behavior and scores of the posttest.

Table 2: Specifications of content, behaviors and scores of the post-test

NO.	THE CONTENT	BEHAVIOR	SCORE
FACTS	The prompt should be relevant and reflect all the facts in the text.	Write a list of the events which took place in the story.	20 marks.
INFERENCE	The inference prompt should be relevant and accurate. It should cause the students to think about	Predict what caused the writer to write the text?	20 marks.

	the content and integrate it with personal background.		
VOCABULARY	The vocabulary prompt should be relevant and representative of the key words, and it causes the reader to think about the concept of each word.	Write definitions of 10 of the main key words of the text.	20 marks
EXPERIENCE	The experience prompt should be relevant, well-defined and leads the reader to connect the text to other texts, events in the world or to personal experience.	Write about similar events to the events in the text.	20 marks.
SUMMARY	The summary prompt is relevant, well-defined and causes the reader to consider the major points, supporting details, central theme and her/his conclusions about the text.	Write a summary of the text in less than 500 words. You should focus on the major points, central themes and your conclusions.	20 marks.

Administration of the final test

Having ensured the post-test is valid, and reliable, administrative and has a suitable level of difficulty, the test is administrated to a sample of (52) students in college of education at Tikrit University. It has been applied to students under the same conditions. The teacher asks the students to write their responses on the test papers. After the test papers are distributed, the researchers read the instructions to the students, explain how to answer some items and tell them the purpose behind the exam so that they take test more seriously and to interact with the test more effectively. The subjects are given enough time to answer the questions completely. The maximum time allowed for the test is one hour.

Post-test scoring scheme

Scoring scheme is the way according to which the obtained results are in interpreted properly. The whole mark given to the test is (100) marks. The test consists of five questions, each question scores out of (20) marks.

Data analysis, result and discussion

This section describes the data analysis, examines the results of the post-test and verifies the hypotheses that were formulated at the beginning of this study.

Pre-test comparison

Both the control and experimental groups scored very close results in the pre-test. The experimental group scored (19.57), and the control group scored (19.53). The t-test was conducted, and the t-value was (2.54), the tabulated t-score was (2.000) at (50) degrees of freedom and significance level of (0.05). These parameters are shown in Table (3) below:

Table 3: Pre-test T-score for the two groups

Group	No. of Students	Mean Scores	SD	DF	T-Value		Level of Significance
					Computed	Tabulated	
Experimental	52	19.57	5.51	50	2.54	2.000	0.05
Control	51	19.53	5.49				

This means that there is no significant difference between the two groups of the study in the pre-test. Thus, the first hypothesis which states that “there is no significant differences in the mean scores of students’ achievement in the pre-test between the two groups”, is accepted. This result is normal, and it can be justified by the fact that both control and experimental groups are subjected to the same social and cultural backgrounds, while at the same time they received the same English language courses.

Post-test comparison

Data analysis revealed a difference between the means of control group and experimental group in the post-test. The experimental group’s mean scored (13.25) while the control group scored (13.00). The computed t-value is found to be (4.95) and the tabulated t-value is (1.96) at (50) degree of freedom and (0.05) level of significance as shown in table (4) below.

Table (4) above reveals that there are statistically significant differences between the two groups of the study in the post-test. Thus, the second hypothesis which states that “there are no significant differences in the mean scores of students’ achievement in the post-test between the two groups”, is rejected. In other words, the students developed their performance in reading comprehension skills when they were taught by the FIVES reading comprehension strategy.

Table 4: T-score of the Post-test of the two groups

Group	No. of Students	Mean Scores	SD	DF	T-Value		Level of Significance
					Computed	Tabulated	
Experimental	52	13.25	6.38	50	4.95	1.96	0.05
Control	51	13.00	6.46				

Performance comparison of control and experimental teams in both tests

The mean score of experimental team in the pre-test is (17.56) and that of the post-test is (19.49). The formula for the two samples is employed in order to point out whether there are any statistically significant differences between the obtained mean score. The computed t-value is found to be (3.35) and the tabulated t-value is (1.96) at (51) degree of freedom and (0.05) level of significance, as shown in table (5).

Table 5: Results of the two groups in the pre and post-test

Test	No. of Students	Mean Scores	SD	DF	T-Value		Level of Significance
					Computed	Tabulated	
Pre	52	17.56	6.67	51	3.35	1.96	0.05
Post	51	19.94	7.74				

Table (5) shows that there is statistically significant difference between the pre and post-test scores of the experimental group which is taught by using the FIVES reading comprehension strategy, and in favor of the post-test. Thus, the third hypothesis which states that "there are no significant differences in the mean scores of the experimental group between the pre and post-test", is rejected.

These results may be attributed to the following points:

- 1- The effect of using the FIVES reading comprehension strategy in teaching English, which leads to the improvement of several skills of university students such as focusing on facts, inference, vocabulary development, experience and writing summaries.
- 2- Using FIVES reading comprehension strategy provided students with opportunities to express themselves and to use the language productively to reinforce their reading strategy, increase vocabulary, inference and critical thinking as well as writing effective and representative summaries.

Conclusions

Based on the data analysis, results, discussions and hypotheses testing, this study arrived at the following conclusions:

1. The FIVES reading comprehension strategy enables the learners to approach the reading task in a different and effective way which is way better than the conventional methods.
2. The FIVES reading comprehension strategy stimulates learners' interest and attention. It encourages learners to make further research about the background of the text and the author and attempt to infer the reasons behind writing the text.

3. The FIVES reading comprehension strategy increases learners 'vocabulary stock significantly, and it improves the way students write definitions of the keywords.
4. The FIVES reading comprehension strategy encourages learners to relate the content of instruction to their own experiences, other texts or other world experiences. It maintains an ample environment where materials are kept as authentic and relevant as possible.
5. The FIVES reading comprehension strategy enables learners to interact with each other and with their teacher.

Pedagogical Implications

In this part, the researcher will showed pedagogical implication of the research that teachers can use to develop L2 learners such as:

1. The development of reading comprehension skills must be connected to other language skills of listening, speaking, and writing .
2. Reading must also connect to grammar and vocabulary learning.
3. Reading must be integrated with all other aspects of language use.
4. Both teachers and readers must remember that comprehension is the goal of reading.
5. Bothe intensive and extensive reading must be included during instruction.
6. Intensive reading focuses on reading small chunks of text with the explicit purpose of learning a new reading skill or learning new vocabulary.
7. Extensive reading focuses on reading larger amounts of text.
8. There should be a pedagogical ties between intensive and extensive instruction.
9. After practicing the FIVES strategy there should be natural opportunities to practice that strategy during extensive reading.

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Real Talk: The Status of Code-Switching in Philippine Classrooms

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Abstract

The Philippine Educational System has implemented policies on language for instruction. With the implementation of the Bilingual Education Policy (BEP) for more than three decades back and with the recent introduction of Mother Tongue-Based Instruction Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE), it is challenging to unveil the real language of the classroom. Hence, this paper pre-sents a summary of the study on students' preference of language for instruction and determines the language being spoken inside the classroom where English is supposed to be the medium of instruction. It further investigates the degree of acceptability of code-switching as a legitimate language of instruction. Forty-five (45) student-participants and three teachers were surveyed through a questionnaire and the data were analyzed using descriptive statistics through frequency and percentage of the variables used. Findings show that participants have strong preference to code switching as language of instruction since it helps them understand the lessons easier. Code-switching in Filipino and English is spoken in classes of sophomore students taking up Bachelor of Secondary Education major in English (86.67%) and Social Studies (SS) (60%), while Filipino is the language spoken (80%) in Biology class where English is supposed to be the medium of instruction. Surprisingly, both students and teachers agree that code-switching be accepted as medium of instruction in the peripherals of Philippine educational system.

Keywords: acceptability; Bilingual Education Policy; code-switching; language preference; language spoken; medium of instruction

Introduction

On July 19, 1974, the Bilingual Education Policy (BEP) of the Department of Education (DepEd) was introduced through DECS Order No. 25, s. 1974 designed to develop a "bilingual nation competent in the use of English and Filipino". This policy mandated the teaching of Filipino as a subject in all curricular levels from elementary to college. It also required the use of Filipino as a medium of instruction in Social Studies, Character Education, Physical Education, Industrial Arts, and Home Economics. The BEP was reissued in 1974 through DECS Order No. 52 s. 1987 with minor modifications stating that "for purposes of communication and instruction, the official languages of the Philippines are Filipino and, until otherwise provided by law, English."

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The BEP resulted in Filipino teachers rejecting the language purity imposition of the BEP and trying to promote code-switching in the classrooms. (Sibayan, 1996 in Bernardo, 2007). Although the BEP was designed to develop a bilingual nation competent in the use of English and Filipino, it has been claimed as one of the culprits in the deterioration of English of Filipinos and the birth of the code-switching phenomenon. In an article “Code switching in Intra-generational Conversation”, the issue on code-switching is claimed to have stemmed from the idea of bilingualism. Unsystematic observations that Filipino students’ proficiencies in English and Filipino have declined over the years which often lead to the claim that the poor implementation of BEP has produced semi-linguals instead of fluent bilinguals (Bernardo, 2007). It was thought that language would be kept as separate codes; but the goal of separating two languages has not been attained. (Sibayan, 1996 in Bernardo 2007). Further, Sibayan (1996 in Bernardo, 2007), pointed two major problems related to BEP and these are 1) the difficulty of visualizing or defining the functions of each language used in school; and 2) the difficulty of deciding when to make the introduction, transition, and/or cut-off point of the various languages in the schools. He further mentioned that teachers have the added difficulty of having to be proficient in two or more languages in order to teach. Lin (2000) reported that unfortunately the use of mixed code is quite common in many classrooms labelled as bilingual classroom practices and constructed as the prime cause of educational language problems in Hongkong Schools.

Code-switching, code-mixing, or bilingual speech is a linguistic strategy widely used in multilingual speech communities over the world (Schendl & Wright, 2011). Code switching is defined in various ways by different authors. Gumperz (1982) defines code switching as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems” (p. 55). Zentella (1981) said that code switching is the alternation of one language to the other that corresponds to a change in participants, social institution, and so on. It refers also to changing completely from one language to the other at major boundaries. Grosjean and Li (2013) define code switching as the alternate use of two languages, that is, the speaker makes a complete shift to the other language and then reverts back to the base language.

Several reasons for code-switching have been suggested by research. Grosjean and Li (2013) said that code switching is used when using the right word or expression, filling a linguistic need, marking group identity, excluding or including someone, raising one’s status, and so on. Lo (1999 in Pagano 2010) code switching was done in order to establish ethnic identity between Asian-Americans. Bilingual Chinese and Korean interactions were analyzed and it was found that code-switching served as a marker of intersubjectivity between the Asian men (Pagano, 2010). In a study done on code switching and the use of English in Korean television commercials, it was found that switching from Korean into English demonstrated social status as well as freedom from prescribed cultural norms (Lee, 2006 in Pagano, 2010). It was also found that in groups of bilinguals code-switching is done to express concepts that can only be culturally identified through the appropriate language (Chung, 2006). Zhu (2008) and Chung (2006) added that code switching is a communicative strategy in recognizing as well as overcoming the gap in intergenerational conversation. According to Pagano (2010) code-switching occurs when there is a communication breakdown, to establish intersubjectivity or because the pragmatic meaning of a word cannot be translated into the second language. In the area of Mathematics, Moschkovich (2005) suggests that classroom instruction should allow bilingual students to choose the language they prefer for carrying out arithmetic computation, either orally or in writing. She emphasized that if assessments of mathematical proficiency focus on the speed of simple arithmetic computation in a bilingual’s non-preferred language, it

is possible that bilingual mathematics students might be assessed as less proficient in computation if they do not use their preferred language. In the finding of the study *Code Switching in Intra-generational Conversation*, code switching is often used to establish a stronger relationship between two speakers. They are both connected by the notion that code switching, in many cases, is triggered by the emotional state of both the speaker and the listener. Baker (2006) stated that there are purposes of code switching which are relevant to bilingual talks in general and that code switching can be used to emphasize a particular point, to substitute a word in place of an unknown word in the target language. Alenezi (2010) and Baker (2006) both expressed that this code switching concept is used in various cases such as during the absence of equivalent word in the culture of the other language, when reinforcing a request, when clarifying a point, when expressing identity and communicating friendship, in easing tension and injecting humour into a conversation, and when introducing a topic. Eldridge (1996 in Sert, 2005) listed four purposes in which student code switching as equivalence, floor holding, reiteration, and conflict control. Umamuno (2008) and Liebscher and Dailey' Cain (2005) found that code switching could be advantageous to learning environments. Teachers need to be made aware of the fact that code-switching is a natural part of language learning strategy. If students choose to use code-switching as a language learning strategy, then it should be supported in the classroom. Umamuno (2008) also reported that in a highly communicative classroom with a comfortable learning environment where code-switching is accepted as an appropriate method of study, student satisfaction increases. Winter (2011) noted that the inadequacy of attention when switching from one to another code, missing out the sociocultural values embodied and conveyed by the linguistic codes of the verbal repertoires of teachers and learners as well as to the relationship that teachers and learners have with the foreign language and with each other. This switching achieves instant proximity with the pupils. Bautista (1996, 2000) has described the linguistic structure and pragmatic functions of Filipino-English code-switching. Her studies strongly suggest that Filipino-English code-switching has a stable linguistic structure as medium for learning and teaching for bilingual and multilingual students and teachers who code-switch all the time. Interestingly, it is very likely that code-switching is prevalent and maybe even dominant in Philippine classroom today. An extensive body of literature reported that code switching in classrooms are not only just normal but useful tool for learning. In 2001, Cook referred to code switching in the classroom as a natural response in a bilingual situation. Cook (2001) and Henni (2017) both noted that researchers see the legitimacy of code switching in the classroom and Skiba (1997) added that it provides an opportunity for language development no matter how disruptive it could be during conversation. However, historically, strong stigmatic beliefs made Ferguson (2003) and Alenezi (2010) to conclude that ideological and conceptual sources of suspicion all often attached to classroom code-switching suggesting that deep rooted attitudes may not be easy to change. Robyn (2010) also noticed that most notable strategy that teachers used was code switching to achieve a number of communicative and metalinguistic ends.

On the other hand, code-switching is somehow regarded as a sign of language limitation. While being bilingual in some languages and settings as a sign of education, in other languages and places (it) may be synonymous with poverty and supposed cultural deprivation (Alenzi, 2010). De Avila and Duncan (1981 in Pagano, 2010) added that researchers found that students code switch when knowledge of the target language was insufficient, or when they needed their mother tongue to address a discourse related issue. Despite the fact that CS is used commonly and frequently in a conversation with bilingual friends, colleagues, superiors, and family members, Edwards (2004) noted that the attitude towards it has often been negative as many people consider it impure, lazy, or expedient. Alenezi (2010) noted

that within the world of language use, code switching has often been perceived as being of lower status, a strategy used by weak language performers to compensate for language deficiency. Many historians have made observations on mixed-language texts, as broken or broken or faulty language. Early mixed-language texts have been regarded as either representing insufficient linguistic competence (Schendl & Wright, 2011).

Theoretical Framework

Grosjean and Li (2013 in Torres & Flores, 2017) posit that language processing is a dynamic process since it involves just one language at one point, and at some other times involves several languages. The prominent stand in the recent years, specifically that of current cognitive and psycholinguistic models, is that bilingual speakers' languages are all active, and thus interfere in domains in which only one is being utilized and even in language specific processing. The present study is guided by Stockwell's (2002) proposal that a code is a system that is used by people to communicate with each other. According to Stockwell (2002), when people want to talk to each other, they have to choose a particular code to express their feeling. Stockwell (2002) further emphasized that a code is a symbol of nationalism that is used by people to speak or communicate in a particular language, or dialect, or register, or accent, or style on different occasions and for different purposes. Therefore, people are usually required to select a particular code whenever they choose to speak, and they may also decide to switch from one code to another or to mix codes.

This paper aims to investigate the language preference and the language the participants in the study speak in the classroom where English is the medium of instruction. It tests the acceptability of adapting code-switching into the peripherals of Philippine educational system.

Statement of the Problem

This study highlights the language preference and the language being spoken by students, and determines the acceptability of code-switching to both students and teachers as a legitimate language of instruction.

Specifically, it aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What is the language of instruction preferred by students ?
2. What language is being spoken inside the classroom where English should be the medium of instruction?
3. What is the degree of acceptability of code-switching as a legitimate language of instruction?

Methodology

Research Design

This study utilized quantitative data from researcher made survey questionnaires which were administered to students to find out their language preference for instruction and what language is being spoken in the classroom. In determining the acceptability of code switching as a legitimate language for instruction, both teachers and students answered the questionnaire. Likewise, the study is cross sectional in terms of the allocated for data gathering since data collection was done within relatively short period of time (Setia, 2016 in dela Rama, 2020; Torres et al., 2020; Tan et al., 2020; Cabangcala et al., 2021). Lastly, no manipulation of variables was performed and no establishment of neither a control nor experimental group was realized indicating that the study is non-experimental (Torres, 2019; Torres & Alieto, 2019a; Torres & Alieto, 2019b).

Participants

The participants in this study were three sections of second year students together with their teachers from a tertiary school in Nueva Ecija who were enrolled as Bachelor of Secondary Education majors in Biology, English, and Social Studies. They were purposely selected since these major subjects require English as medium of instruction, and all instructional materials are also written and published in English.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed through descriptive statistics using frequency and percentage of the variables used.

Limitation of the Study

The study was limited to second year students from a tertiary school in Nueva Ecija, Philippines. The researcher purposely chose the BSEd second year students major in Biology, English, and Social Studies who were enrolled during the 2nd semester AY 2016-2017. They were chosen since their courses require English as the medium of instruction and all the instructional materials are written in English. This determined whether code-switching was generated in a class where English is the medium of instruction.

Results and Discussion

This part presents the results of the study based on the data collected through survey. The discussion is presented according to the objectives of this study, which highlights the following themes: the participants' language preference for instruction, the language being spoken inside the classroom, and their degree of acceptance to code-switching as a language of instruction. Table 1. Language preferred as medium of instruction and the actual language being spoken by students inside the classroom where English is supposed to be the medium of instruction.

		Preferred		Spoken	
<i>Variable</i>		<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
English major	English language	9	60.00%	0	0.00%
	Filipino	0	0.00%	2	13.33%
	Both (code-switch)	6	40.00%	13	86.67%
		15	100.00%	15	100.00%
Biology major	English language	4	26.67%	0	0.00%
	Filipino	10	66.67%	12	80.00%
	Both (Code-switch)	1	6.67%	3	20.00%
		15	100.00%	15	100.00%

SS major	English language	6	40.00%	0	0.00%
	Filipino	9	60.00%	6	40.00%
	Both (code-switch)	0	0.00%	9	60.00%
		15	100.00%	15	100.00%

Table 1 presents answers to questions number two and three-what language is preferred and what language is spoken by participants. It shows the language preference and the language being spoken by participants, categorized into their areas of discipline. For the participants who are English majors, it is interesting to note that 60% prefer English language, but it is alarming to learn that no one practices or speaks the English language. While these nine (9) English majors or sixty percent (60%) prefer English, in actual practice 86.67 code switch in Filipino and English when speaking. For Biology majors, there is consistency in their language preference and language being spoken where 66.67 % prefer Filipino and 80% speak Filipino in classroom. For Social Studies, interestingly, 40 % prefer English language for instruction when in class where English is the medium of instruction, and nobody prefers the use of code switching of Filipino and English. While 40% prefer English, nobody speaks the language, and nobody prefers code-switching in Filipino and English, but 60% practice code switching in Filipino and English. This means that the language preference of the students does not necessarily mean they speak their language preference, thus language preference does not affect the language they speak.

Table 2. Degree of Acceptability of students and teachers to Code-switching as medium of instruction

Variable	Strongly Agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly Disagree	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
English Majors (15)	1	6.67%	2	13.33%	5	33.33%	7	15.56%
Biology Majors (15)	2	13.33%	12	80%	1	6.67%	0	
SS Majors (15)	10	66.67%	4	26.67%	1	6.67%	0	
Total Students (45)	13	28.89%	18	40%	7	15.56%	7	15.56%
Teachers (3)	0		2	66.67%	0		1	33.33%

The table reveals the result of the survey which involved both students and teachers regarding their degree of acceptability to code-switching as medium of instruction. It is surprising to note that both students and teachers agree that code-switching be accepted as

medium of instruction at 40% and 66.67% respectively. However, seven students who are English majors including their teacher in English strongly disagree to the idea.

Discussion

This is an empirical study which aimed to determine the students' language preference, the language they speak or practice in classes where English is the medium of instruction, and the students and teachers' degree of acceptability to code switching as a legitimate medium of instruction.

In terms of language preference, Biology (66.67%) and SS majors (60%) prefer Filipino as medium of instruction, while English majors (60%) prefer English. Eighty percent of Biology majors speak Filipino while SS majors (60%) code switch in Filipino and English. English majors prefer English (60%) but code switch in Filipino-English at a very high incidence of 86.67% .

Surprisingly, in terms of language being spoken, participants who are English majors although prefer English language (60%), it is alarming to learn that no one practices or speaks the English language. While these 9 English majors or 60% prefer English, in actual practice, 86.67% code switch in Filipino and English when speaking. For Biology majors, there is consistency in their language preference and language being spoken where 66.67 % prefer Filipino and 80% speak also Filipino in classroom. For SS, interestingly, 40 % prefer English language when in class where English is the medium of instruction, and nobody prefers the use of code switching between Filipino and English. While 40% prefer English, nobody practices the language, but 60% practice code switching in Filipino and English. This means that the language preference of the students does not necessarily mean they practice their language preference, thus language preference does not affect their language practice or the language they speak.

Finally, it is interesting to note the results revealed in Table 2 that both students and teachers agree that code-switching be accepted as medium of instruction at 40% and 66.67% respectively. From this, 33% of the English majors disagree, 80% Biology majors agree, and 66.67 % SS majors strongly agree. However, seven students who are English majors including their teacher in English strongly disagree to the idea. This validates the result that 9 or 60% English majors prefer English as medium of instruction but 86.67% code-switch in reality. The agreeable attitude of Biology majors (agree at 80%) and SS majors who strongly agree at 66.67% for the approval of code-switching as medium on instruction are confirmation of their language preference and language practice.

Martin's (2006) study of code-switching in college where Science classes were analyzed in two cases found that the practice (of code-switching) does in fact support the goals of delivering content knowledge. Code-switching was used by Science teachers as a pedagogical tool for motivating student response and action, ensuring rapport and solidarity, promoting shared meaning, checking student understanding, and maintaining the teaching narrative.

Similar result was reported by Rosario and Maguddayao (2019) that students believed code-switching will make them better understand topics and that their learning is not hindered when teachers code-switch during classroom interactions. The use code-switching is desirable for it makes students understand the lesson easier to understand and it is a means of strengthening their comprehension. The results of the study indicated positive views of the respondents on code-switching as one instructional strategy of learning, the same with the different studies which agreed with the use of the said strategy. The findings indicated that code-switching should be allowed for effective communication between students and the

teacher in a natural and comfortable way. It is an effective technique to highlight the significance of a specific piece of information and explanation of complex concepts.

English teachers in the public schools also report that they code-switch when they teach. Vicencio and Vicencio (2016) emphasized that teachers code-switch in order to serve various functions like translating vocabulary items, explaining grammar, managing class, and for humorous effects, confirming the perennial use of CS as opposed to English only policy. In fact, Fernandez (2000) wrote about how the English-only policy did not work in her school, emphasizing the one rule she had in her classroom was fairly simple: Speak only English! It was agreed that whoever broke this rule would pay a fine of one peso for each non-English word. For two days, she said, her students tried very hard to speak English only..."A week after imposing the Speak English Only campaign, I felt frustrated not because the students' carabao English worsened, or that the class treasurer did not collect a single peso, but because most of my pupils chose to keep their mouths shut. The campaign was a failure!" (Fernandez, 2009 p. 4) What this teacher learned from her experience of the English Only campaign is the need for some form of resistance to the impositions of language planning and policy in the Philippines. The diffusions in the language policy situation, from the American colonial period to contemporary times, only contribute to the promotion of the following myths about English in the Philippines: (1) English and Filipino are languages in opposition; (2) English is the only cure to all economic ailments; and (3) English is the only access to knowledge. If these myths persist, basic education in the Philippines will be pushed farther to the periphery. Is it time to admit mistake in the language policies in the Philippines? Just like in Singapore, where an admission of a language policy mistake from the Singapore government? (Wee, 2011).

Major Findings

1. Student-participants have strong preference to code switching since it helps them understand the lessons easier.
2. Code-switching in Filipino and English is prevalent in classes of BSEd sophomore students major in English (86.67%) and SS (60%) , while Filipino dominates (80%) in Biology class where English is supposed to be the medium of instruction.
3. Both students and teachers agree that code-switching be accepted as medium of instruction in the peripherals of Philippine educational system.

Conclusion

In light of the opposing issues on CS, this study reveals that CS is the language preferred and being spoken by both teachers and students. It is even accepted as a legitimate medium of instruction. As emphasized by Borlongan (2012) "CS should be accorded the entitlement it deserves, as long as it does not hinder learning and teaching, most especially that of English language. It should not be frowned upon by educational policy-makers, educational managers, and, quite importantly in the Philippines" (p. 79). Although this may be an indicator for language policy makers to consider Code switching as an alternative language both for instruction and communication inside the Philippine classrooms, Borlongan (2012) pointed out that it is not to say that a policy must be implemented to make legal the use of CS in Philippine classroom. Giving consideration and attention to CS may encourage both teachers and students to speak and express their insights while building their confidence. Moreover, Stockwell (2002) regarded CS as a code to express feeling, a symbol of nationalism that is used by people to speak or communicate in a particular language, or dialect, or register, or accent, or style on different occasions and for different purposes.

In the continuous quest to improve teaching methods, humanity has sought and examined a variety of techniques and ideas, examining each to discover it had any concrete benefits that would outweigh its detractions (Ryoo & Wing, 2012 in Robles & Torres, 2020). The language of code-switching was never a policy, like BEP and MTB-MLE, but it seems to be the language preferred, spoken, and accepted by the participants in the study.

Recommendations/Implications

The present study has several implications for language policy makers, classroom teachers, and researchers.

1. The different language policies mandate the use of English a medium of instruction and instructional materials for subject areas English, Biology, and SS. However, this study presents evidence that the mandate is not seriously carried out in classrooms. There is a lapse in the implementation of the policies. Thus, it is suggested that revisit of the implementation of the policies be undertaken.
2. Teachers of subjects where English is the medium of instruction might want to consider the need for code switching and when to use code switching at a correct level. Since the study presented evidence that language preference and language being spoken differ, teachers might want to look into the preferred language of students and decide the possibility of beneficial learning and at the same time, proficiency in language.
3. Researchers can help identify the correct level of utilizing code switching as a language of instruction, if only for motivation to speak and participate in the discussions.
4. Code switching is a form of a language variation.
5. Further study on the possibility of code-switching as an accepted medium of instruction in the Philippine educational system is recommended.

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Effective Instructional Materials for Language Teaching and Learning: Perceptions of English Teachers in the New Normal

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Abstract

This study explored the effectiveness of instructional materials in the teaching and learning of English in the New Normal as perceived by Secondary School Teachers in the public schools in the Philippines. It employed a survey questionnaire and online written interview in data gathering among 12 Secondary School Teachers. Several themes emerged in the study- the simplicity of instructional material's content, the visual appeal of the instructional materials, the visual appeal of the instructional materials, learner-centeredness of the instructional materials, the authenticity of instructional materials, utilization of instructional videos, emerging online tools, and enhancement of macro skills of the English Language. The study argues that regardless of the occurrence of pandemics, the qualities that make instructional materials in teaching English effective are the same. Pedagogical implications in the teaching and learning of English in the classroom in the New Normal are highlighted after the conclusion.

Keywords: Instructional Materials, Language Teaching and Learning, New Normal

Introduction

The advent of 2020 was something unexpected as the deadly Covid-19 gripped the world with threat and deaths. Such a novel coronavirus (SARS-CoV-2, formerly known as 2019-nCoV) caused the disease and has drawn worldwide attention due to the increasing number of cases and the need to eradicate the virus and flatten the infection curve (Guo et al., 2020). It has killed 1.2 million people globally (World Health Organization, n.d.) and affected the economy significantly. It has temporarily placed the educational system into a temporary deadlock based on the pandemic's conditions. Important decisions were made, and reforms were adopted in education because of this epidemic, which drastically affected the world's lifestyle.

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The expansion of COVID-19 effectively shut down classroom-based instruction—a centuries-old symbol of formal education—overnight. Fortunately, the capabilities of the technological era—in which broadband connectivity, mobile communication, and video conferencing are becoming more common—meant that, for the first time in history, Brick-and-mortar school facilities were closed, but schools had a substantial means to keep learning alive.. Nonetheless, the transition has not been easy, according to most accounts (Thomas, 2021).

As a result of these circumstances, educational authorities in the Philippines have opted to adopt the new educational normal. The Department of Education (DepEd) implemented the Learning Continuity Plan (LCP) in primary education for the School Year 2020-2021, with courses beginning on August 24, 2020, rather than June 2020 (DepEd, 2020). The Commission on Higher Education granted academic independence to HEIs in the higher education sector, requiring them to use accessible distance learning, e-learning, and other alternative delivery modes (CHED, 2020). According to several colleges, it will be the new normal in education, and strengthening educational planning and health is a concern to deliver excellent, inclusive, and accessible education for every student, according to several colleges (Tria, 2020).

As the front liners in the provision of education amid the pandemic, teachers have not ceased from providing instructional materials, which are essential in the teaching and learning processes in the new normal. Regardless of the mode of delivery of instruction, instructional materials have been given so much more premium than ever before as they have become the medium of teaching and learning processes. Even before the onset of the pandemic, English language teachers face a difficult problem in selecting materials for use in the classroom since they must create a stable platform for pupils to learn the English language. The proper materials are chosen to make teaching and learning a beneficial activity and to produce an efficient, effective, and meaningful classroom environment (Sakkir et al., 2021). Since teachers are the experts in translating the effectiveness of instructional materials, their perception provides reliable feedback into developing such instructional materials that are considered effective in the learning process.

A growing literature on the effectiveness of the instructional materials in English Language Teaching in the New Normal has been published. However, to the researcher's knowledge, there has not been any research exploring the perception of teachers on what makes instructional materials in teaching ESL effective in the new normal. The current qualitative study addresses this gap on how teachers in public schools in the Philippines perceive effective instructional materials in the teaching of ESL in the new normal. The study argues that, regardless the occurrence of pandemic, the qualities that make instructional materials in the teaching English effective are the same.

This study employed audio recordings and online written interview in data gathering to provide insights and therefore achieve the aims set in this study. To shed light on the demographic information of the participants and on other pertinent information as additional findings of the study, a survey questionnaire was utilized. Future research confirming, extending, or refuting the findings of this study should utilize the quantitative design in data collection. Significance of the study. The present study was conducted to add to the pool of existing knowledge about the perception of teachers of what constitute effectiveness in instructional materials in language teaching and learning in the New Normal. Educational implications that are expressed by the researcher in relation to the research findings could bring awareness to the real conditions of the kinds and quality of instructional materials used in the public school in the Philippines in the New Normal. Areas for improvements will serve as roadmap for the design and production of instructional that are effective to the learners. Effectiveness is concretized in the learning outcomes and performances of the learners

demonstrated. The framework for designing instructional materials in this study can be utilized as reference in the design of instructional materials by the teachers in the future or adapted to suit the context and needs of the learners.

Review of Related Literature

Instructional materials are instructional resources, such as materials used for teaching and learning, that are purchased or developed to improve students' knowledge, talents, and skills, track their information assimilation, and contribute to their overall educational growth (Lashley, 2019). In this study, the instructional materials refer to the modules and learning activity sheets that students in the Junior and Senior High School are provided by the school where they are currently enrolled in.

The term "new normal" was coined by the Urban Dictionary in 2009 to describe the state of being after a significant change. After a specific incident, it replaces the accepted, habitual, and typical condition. In this study, it is the post-COVID-19 era.

Integration and Reduction of Content

With the limitations imposed by COVID-19, a new standard curriculum may incorporate content integration. This method allows for a reduction in the number of hours required spent on all courses while still covering the entire program anticipations. This method will allow for the integration of new information. Expectations for curriculum material from various subjects in creating a lesson plan (Romano et al., 2012). As an example, contents may be used in the teaching of literature, science, and history by traveling through historical periods and concentrating on during each epoch, there were scientific breakthroughs and literary works (Cahapay, 2020).

A variety of integration models were proposed by Fogarty and Stoebr (1991). They described ten different integration models, including fragmented, connected, nested, sequenced, shared, webbed, threaded, integrated, immersed, and networked. Within a curriculum, these approaches necessitate the assimilation of skills and concepts from diverse topics or fields. In the face of continuing constraints, it could be a sensible strategy for educators to lessen curriculum expectations to cover all topics.

In addition to integrating content, some educational systems are considering reducing curriculum content. They seek to educate "important" content while removing "non-essential" content. One fundamental flaw in this plan, however, is the question of how to define "important" content. Print (1993) said that when choosing content, one should keep a few things in mind. The researcher suggests the following three issues considering the present global COVID-19 outbreak:

1. Importance. Where content is examined in terms of how vital it is to the issue under investigation, the significance criterion applies. It is judged relevant and so suggested for inclusion in a curriculum when the content is considered valuable to the subject.
2. Relevance. This criterion grounds that content should be connected to community values, goals, principles, and problems for learners to become productive citizens.
3. Practicality. Curricularists should think about the content's current and future utility. Some content must be learned to be applied in the present, while other content must be learned to prepare learners for the future.

Blended Learning

In the transition time before and after the rise of the Covid-19 Pandemic, research suggests that using video to improve students' writing abilities, particularly writing descriptive language, is helpful. In fact, 26 Senior High School students of language class in one of Manado's most prestigious senior high schools in Indonesia, watched a video as treatment in the writing a descriptive essay. The results of this Pre-experimental Design showed that the post-mean test's score was much greater than the pre- test's (Maru et al., 2021, Rivai, Arniz & Mujadidi, 2017, Hadijah, 2016, Rachman & Pratiwi 2011, as cited in Maru et al). However, students prefer classroom engagement and handouts over YouTube videos or mere pamphlets, according to the findings. They claimed that after the lectures, YouTube sessions are beneficial, and that handouts give a roadmap for students' study and revision (Ghounane, 2020). In addition, the use of Canvas in Research Writing among 30 Senior High School (SHS) Students demonstrates that blended learning stimulates interactions between students and teachers. Efficiency, practicality, convenience, and flexibility are the essential qualities students perceived of Canvas, a learning management system that is accessible via the internet (Hajan & Padagas, 2021).

Authenticity of instructional materials

As described by Print (1993, as cited in Cahapay, 2020), authenticity implies that the materials are factually correct and current, and that the producer and author are well suited to create them. The use of authentic material in language teaching has attracted many researchers, teachers/lecturers, and practitioners. Researchers and language learning theorists have been debating whether to utilize real-life materials or simplified materials in language classrooms for sometimes (Crossley, Louwerse, McCarthy, & McNamara, 2007, as cited in Sukmawan et al., 2021). Whether these materials are fiction and non-fiction, a body of research found empirical evidence supporting that both types of reading materials have positive effect on the performances of students (Appley, 1988; Baniabdelrahman, 2006; Fabusuyi, 2014); Hatimah, Rofiq, & Andayani, 2013). Sukmawan et al. (2021) also conducted research that focused on using authentic fiction and non-fiction materials in the students' essay writing performance. The results revealed that both forms of authentic materials are equally beneficial in helping pupils improve their essay writing skills. In a comprehensive examination of various research from peer-reviewed publications, Ferdinand (2019) that authenticity of the material was among the criteria for in the selection of instructional materials particularly in the teaching of literature in the classroom.

Needs analysis in developing of instructional materials

The goal or objective of materials for writing skill instructions should be focused not only on the curriculum but also on the students and their learning needs. Sakkir et al. (2021) suggest that the materials are interactive, self-contained, and simple to use, with online assistance, social media, and authenticity, as well as formal and informal situations, as well as online evaluation. It should be presented with visual assistance as well. Academic and non-academic writing activities should be supported and facilitated by such tools. The themes of the materials, on the other hand, should be intriguing and equip pupils with a cultural context. The contents should be implemented in the writing process by using vocabulary, reading texts, grammar, and basic abilities. The elements should be implemented at a basic level in writing. Finally, they should be implemented both in and outside of the classroom, as well as in a global or international setting.

Peter (1993, as cited in Cahapay, 2020) argues that educational materials must have a technical quality, which he defines as how effectively they fulfill visual imaging, sound comprehension, color handling, and visual and audio synchronization.

Other Factors in the choice of language teaching materials

According to Sakkir, Rahman, and Saliya (2016, as cited in Sakkir et al., 2021), successful language teaching materials were created by taking numerous criteria such as the teacher, the learner, and the setting. Language competence, cultural background, teacher training, experience, and applicable teaching style are all elements that affect teachers. Learner factors, on the other hand, include preferences for learning techniques, students' learning needs, interests, and motivations. Finally, contextual considerations include the school culture, class size, class environment, and the adequacy of instructional materials available when the content will be used.

Because the quality of a language teaching procedure is determined by the materials used, it is important to consider (1) teacher factors such as language proficiency, training, and experience, cultural background, and preferred teaching style; and (2) learner factors such as learner style preferences, language learning needs, and interests (Sakkir, 2018). Textbooks, as part of the materials utilized in the language classroom, can often make or break a student's success or failure (Syatriana & Sakkir, 2020). As a result, additional attention should be paid to determining whether the textbook materials are compatible with the three variables and learning outcomes (Umar et al., 2019, as cited in Sukmawan et al. (2021).

The sense of hearing and seeing are essential for learning to take place. Learners do learn more when they are in action during the learning process. As such, providing provide adequate, appropriate, many and diversified instructional resources to make learning a concrete thing (Tominez et al., 2013).

Kemp's Model of instructional design (ID)

This study is grounded on Kemp's Model of instructional design (ID) for teaching materials. The Kemp Model, developed by Morrison, Ross, and Kemp, is well-known in the educational system. This model was proposed based on the usage of each ID element in a continuous cycle from planning, design, development, and assessment to assure the construction of successful instruction (Morrison, Ross, Kemp, 1985; 1994, as cited in Manurung, 2017). The Kemp Model included nine components, which were as follows: 1) Instructional Problems Identification; 2) Learners Characteristics Exploration; 3) Task Analysis; 4) Statement of Instructional Objectives; 5) Content Sequencing; 6) Instructional Strategies; 7) Instructional Planning and Development; 8) Evaluation Instruments Development; and 9) Resource Selection (Morrison, 1985; Morrison, Ross, Kemp, 1994, as cited in Manurung, 2017). Instead of a linear structure, the Kemp Design Model uses a circular one (Akbulut, 2007, as cited in Kurt, 2016). In general, an instructional designer must consider not only the learning objectives but also several other factors, such as the learner's needs and characteristics, instructional content and activities (including tasks and procedures), instructional resources and support services, and learner assessment and evaluation tools and methods in order to achieve these results (Kurt, 2016). Moreover, the Kemp model's circular approach encourages designers to evaluate the learner's overall goals, needs, priorities, and restrictions when deciding on instructional solutions. The Kemp Instructional Design's nine core components, which are meant to focus on the full learner throughout the design process, are far more thorough and complex than those in earlier models. The Kemp model, on the other hand, places a greater emphasis on the interconnectedness of these nine elements, allowing for a more dynamic and fluid design process than other models.

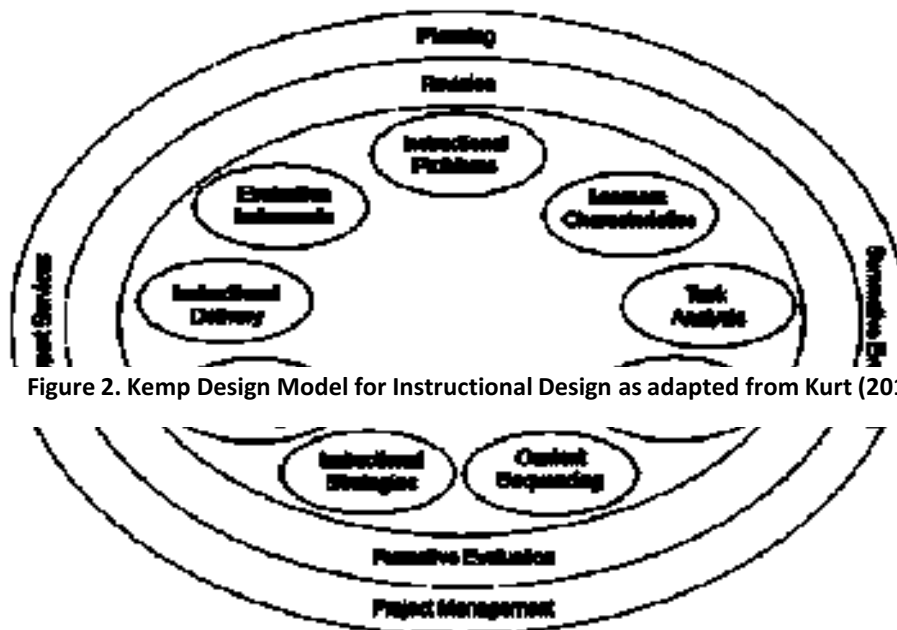


Figure 2. Kemp Design Model for Instructional Design as adapted from Kurt (2016)

Figure 1 presents the Kemp Design Model for Instructional Design. Kurt (2016) Clearly explains the aspects of this model with relevant questions to ask in each aspect.

The first aspect of this framework is on determining the course's learning outcomes. This contains what the learner needs to learn or acquire. What general concepts, fresh knowledge, or course-specific content, for example, should the learner have a fluent understanding of at the end of the course? What tasks should the learner be able to complete, or abilities should the learner demonstrate?

The second portion of the phase focuses on students' learning styles and demands, as well as the relevant cognitive load associated with topics, tasks, and procedures.

The third element is identical to the third stage of Dick and Carey's model, as well as the ADDIE model's analysis stage. It is a crucial component since it allows the designer to start thinking about the course's overall content in terms of the learner's attributes.

The fourth aspect, content, and task analysis, focuses on the entire learner and establishes the level of understanding of new material that the learner should be able to exhibit. Bloom's taxonomy is a useful tool for determining the level at which a learner may expect to process new material.

The fifth element (determining learner objectives) is analogous to the first stage of the Dick and Carey model (evaluating course ILOs). The designer studies the course's broad learning objectives and converts them into more specific and specified goals at this phase.

The design of exercises that will aid in course facilitation is the sixth factor.

The developer selects what instructional tools are required to properly educate and students to effectively learn in the seventh phase.

The Kemp model's eighth component is unusual in that it analyzes available or required support services to facilitate both teaching and learning activities. A demand for technology support personnel or special education helpers, for example, may be specified in the instructional design.

At least two more models are like the last component, which deals with formative and summative assessments and assessment techniques (Spector, Merrill, Van Morrienboer & Driscoll, 2008, as cited in Kurt, 2016).

Gregory's constructivist theory of perception

Perception, according to constructivist ideas, is a two-step process - a very active process of extracting sensory data, evaluating them, interpreting them, and organizing them backwards. Perception is the result of the interaction between the stimulus and the observer's internal hypotheses, expectations, and knowledge, with motivation and emotions playing a key part. As a result, a wide range of individual circumstances might influence perception, perhaps leading to an incorrect interpretation. (Eysenck and Keane, 2008, p. 74., as cited in Démuth, 2013)

Research Questions

This study sought to shed light on teachers' perception on the effectiveness instructional materials in the teaching of English in the New Normal. Following are the specific questions this study targeted to provide answers:

1. How do teachers in the Secondary School level in the Philippines' public schools perceive effective instructional materials in the New Normal?
2. What does the perception of teachers in the Secondary School level imply to the teaching and learning of English specifically in the design of effective instructional materials in the New Normal?

Methodology

This chapter addresses the researcher's study methodologies and procedures for systematically answering the specific topics under examination. This chapter explains the study design, informants, research instrument, data collection procedure, qualitative data analysis, and interpretation in detail.

Research Design

To address the different questions asked in the present study, the researchers used a qualitative design. It is a technique for delving into and comprehending the meaning that individuals or organizations assign to a social or human issue. Emerging questions and processes are part of the research process, as are data acquired in the participant's environment, data analysis that builds inductively from specifics to broad themes, and the researcher's interpretations of the data (Creswell, 2009). Since this study seeks to explore perceptions of the informants, Thematic Analysis is the appropriate type of qualitative research as it enables to bring out emerging themes in the informants' responses to the interview question during the data analysis. Braun & Clarke (2006) describe this as a technique for finding, analyzing, organizing, summarizing, and reporting themes in a set of data.

Informants

In the conduct of the present research, eleven (N=12) informants were selected based on their qualifications, (1) English Teachers who are/were teaching English subjects in the Secondary School levels, (2) English Teachers who are residing in the Zamboanga Peninsula (Region IX), and (3) who have designed and delivered instructional materials in the forms of Learning Activity Sheets and Modules provided by the Department of Education from Quarter 1-4, for the school year 2020-2021. In total, there were 15 informants who received the notice that they would be part of the study, but only 12 responded to participate in the study. The participants are the researcher's co-teachers (6), Head Teacher (1), Master Teachers (2) from Liloy National high School. Three (2) of the informants are the researcher's classmates who are taking Ph.D in English Language Teaching at Western Mindanao State University. One informant is a

Junior High School English Teacher who is stationed in a nearby municipality. Among the 11 participants, one is a male (9%) and ten (90 %) are females. The selection of other informants was limited due to the extant pandemic and was based on the researcher's close friendship, professional connection, and accessibility to them.

Research Locale

This research was conducted in the southwestern part of the Philippines particularly in the administrative region of Zamboanga Peninsula, designated as Region IX. The Zamboanga Peninsula is on the major island of Mindanao, the second largest island of the Philippines. Its total land area is 17,056.73 square kilometers (6,585.54 sq mi). As of 2015, its population reached 3,629,783 (Census of Population, 2015). This represented 15.04% of the overall population of the island group of Mindanao, or 3.59% of the population of the Philippines. It comprises three provinces--Zamboanga del Norte, Zamboanga Sibugay, and Zamboanga del Sur. It also includes four cities (Dapitan, Dipolog, Isabela, and Pagadian), and the highly urbanized independent city of Zamboanga. It consists of 67 municipalities; 1,904 barangays; and 8 congressional districts. The region was formerly known as "Western Mindanao" until it was officially renamed as per the enactment of Executive Order no. 36 on August 12, 2015. Pagadian is designated as the "regional center" after Zamboanga City, although the latter remains the region's cultural, economic, and educational center.

The major language spoken in this Christian-dominated region is Cebuano, a major language in the southern Philippines. However, the Zamboanga Peninsula is also notable as the home for Zamboangueno people who speak Chavacano—the only Spanish-based creole in Asia which is a combination of vocabulary mainly from Spanish, with grammar mainly from Tagalog or Cebuano. Other languages spoken in this region include Tausug, Subanon, Yakan, Sama, and Tagalog. This region is also known as the homeland of the indigenous Subanen tribe particularly living in the mountainous areas of Zamboanga del Sur and Misamis Occidental. With regard to its economy, the Zamboanga Peninsula has the first export-processing zone in Mindanao, with farming and fishing as the main economic activities. It has vast forest resources and previously used to export logs, lumber, veneer, and plywood.

Instrumentation

To determine the participants' perception on the effectiveness of instructional materials in the teaching and learning of English in the New Normal, they answered an open-ended question. The answers were in the form of audio and written responses.

Data Processing

The research used interview questions in gathering data from the participants. Written and oral questions in English was given to the participants who could personally reach by the researcher. These participants are scheduled to physically report in school every Monday for the distribution of modules to their respective learners, and so the research set aside a free time for these participants to participate in the study.

The researcher then arranged the questions and results of the observations of the participants. The data gathered were arranged in Qualitative Method and expressed by thematic Analysis. The researcher carried out such analysis manually, without the use of any software. The qualitative data from the participants was analyzed, and distinct themes that described the thematic training were coded.

Results and Discussion

The researcher shows the perceptions of Secondary School Teachers in the teaching and learning of English using thematic analysis in this section of the study and discuss the consequences for the teaching of English in the New Normal. Themes that emerged from the data analysis are divided into four categories:

Simplicity of Instructional material's content

Informants believe that effective instructional materials for teaching and learning English in the New Normal exhibit simple content. Content includes simple activities, examples, topics, explanations, diction and instructions that lead to the understanding and learning of the English Language Learners (ELLs). In terms of the number of activities should be considered, and fewer activities are more effective than unnecessary more activities. Learning does not occur when instructional materials are complicated, more, and singular in modality. Print (1993) asserts that unessential content must be removed from teaching.

R1: We should just simplify the instructional materials so they can finish it and understand it properly. It will become complicated so the more they could not understand...cannot answer... At times, we want it to be complex that they should be very hard for students. The more the students will not understand.

R5: It is better if they are simplified and reading comprehension and then writing. Like that reading and writing, Like for examples, they are not more than unnecessary questions and activities. There are many things to do. They have to Google they have to use the Internet. So, it should not be like that. Even with simplified reading activities. It's like everything is in what they read so they would not do them on the Internet mostly that's when the students become lazy.

R3: Make the instructional materials simple very simple. Then that's focus on their real situations of the students, the learners. When you give an instructions make it very simple so that they can understand they can follow and guide the instructions that they can answer. So dili sya (that's not) the most effective the students can understand the instructions very simple instructions. Then the material itself to your example also in your topic for example that's the topic the explanation should be simple simple . Okay for grade7 you have to use the simpler way of using the words literal not implied why because the students could not understand when you express your ideas into implications so that is effective so that they can understand what you are want to be understood to them simple instructions simple examples simple exercises so that they can meet what is your purpose in your discussion simple ra gyud (only).

R2: So for me, it's uh, the most simplified and simple learning activity sheets or LAS and it must be...the activity must be limited because the level uh the level or capacity of the students were not the same. So some are intelligent and some also belongs to shall we say slow learners so uh, we should consider in making the activities.

The visual Appeal of the instructional materials

Visually appealing instructional tools are equally important for students. The use of graphics and the layout of the materials make up the visual representation of the materials. This exemplifies Sakkir et al (2021)'s characteristic of educational materials giving visual help. The aesthetic appeal of the educational materials has a significant impact. For one thing, it draws students' attention to the materials, particularly those created by professors in an artistic manner.

R3: Then you have to add pictures that they can give their own ideas in related to your topic. So add pictures see to it you are giving a lead a guide for them, the picture is a guide for them to express what they have understand to the topic. Mao ra gyud na. (That's the only thing.)

R1: The it is great if the instructional materials are well laid out.

R1: Also, they should be beautiful. That will draw the attention. there is creativity, artistically done. It will be unattractive if there are no graphics. We do not want to look at them.

Learner-centeredness of the IMs

In the design of educational materials, teachers emphasize the value of the learner's variety. For learning to be effective, the instructional design must specifically focus on the learners' level of proficiency. Sakkir (2018) asserts that student characteristics such as learner style preferences, language learning demands, and interests are important. In addition, this demonstrates that in the construction of learning materials it should undergo the second and third portions of Kemp's model of instructional design which focuses on students' learning styles, demands, and attributes, as well as the relevant cognitive load associated with topics, tasks, and procedures (Morrison, Ross, Kemp, 1985; 1994, as cited in Manurung, 2017).

R1: After all, you are dealing with heterogenous students especially that we are in a public school.

R2: Maybe, we should uh based it on the... Unsa gani sir katu bitaw (What is it the...?) Bloom's Taxonomy (What is it sir? Bloom's Taxonomy) The easy the average the difficult must be equal in making the questions so that the slow learners can cope up with in answering the learning activity sheets. So maybe that is it.

Authenticity of Instructional Materials

Instructional materials to be effective in the learners must be relate to the real experiences of the learners. The authenticity of the instructional materials displays activities, tasks or examples that elicit the authentic experiences of the students so they articulate their personal views and ideas.

R3: They cannot relate if they have not real experiences that. So, the exercise must be modified, examples must be simpler then if you want more descriptions or pictures, you can so that they can give their own opinion and ideas and they will be guided.

This finding disregards non-authentic materials that supports the views of a number of researchers on the use of either fiction and non-fiction as materials in language teaching and learning (Appley, 1988; Baniabdelrahman, 2006; Fabusuyi, 2014); Hatimah, Rofiq, & Andayani, 2013).

Utilization of instructional videos

In the teaching and learning of English, instructional videos are more successful. Videos appeal to multiple senses rather than just one. For learning to take place, the senses of hearing and seeing are required. This view supports what Tominez et al. (2013) asserts that when students are actively involved in the learning process, they learn more. As a result, it is necessary to

provide enough, appropriate, many, and diverse instructional tools to make learning a tangible experience. Also, this supports the positive effective of using videos writing.

R10: With instructional videos, teaching the language such as English will eventually be easy. Students will get to hear the actual sounds and see the actual scenario. Moreover, it would not be hard to get their attention in this modality, and we will be assured that all of their senses are activated.

Emerging online tools

The informants believe that using the online modality to teach and learn English is more effective. This modality, however, is only applicable to individuals who have internet connectivity for it to work. Students and teachers who have access to them can use new tools and programs such as Google forms and applications and online conferencing such as Zoom. The contact between the teacher and the students is one of the advantages of online teaching and learning.

R7: Specifically useful for the online modality which can be utilized for the asynchronous classes are the google-aided pedagogical materials like google forms, google meet, among others which have evolved to become very user-friendly for teachers.

R11: And with the help of advanced technology, there are applications or online tools and resources that a teacher can use in teaching language to learners, namely: zoom, google classroom, animations, etc.

R8: I prefer online teaching and learning since there is interaction between the students and teachers.

Enhancement of Macro skills of the English Language

Instructional resources in the teaching and learning of English in the New Normal focuses the strengthening of Grammar, Vocabulary, reading and writing. This is in accord with what Sakkir et al. (2021)'s mention in his characteristic of Instructional Design that instructional materials should be applied by applying vocabulary, reading texts, grammar and basic abilities in writing process.

R6: IM's yet practical. Practical in a sense that, it gives more exercises in spelling, grammar, and vocabulary. An IM that will help them master the part of speech.

R11: Through these mentioned applications, the students will be engaged in speaking and listening.

R5: It is better if they are simplified and reading comprehension and then writing. Like that reading and writing, like for examples, they are not more than unnecessary questions and activities.

The characteristics emerged above from the data analysis provide answer to the first research question of this study, that is, "How do teachers in the Secondary School level in the Philippines' public schools perceive effective instructional materials in the New Normal?"

In addition, findings in the research reveal that teachers who act as developer selects what instructional tools are required to properly educate and students to effectively learn in the Kemp's model seventh phase. In addition, teachers seem to select which modality and tools are effective in teaching and learning English in the New Normal. Regardless of the type of modality that needs to be considered by teachers in the teaching and learning English in the

New Normal, themes which emerged seemed to be confirming previous studies' characteristics of effective instructional materials.

Teachers' perceptions as constructivist

The collective views of teachers on the effectiveness of instructional materials through the qualities above are explained by Gregory's constructivist theory of perception. Instructional materials are the stimuli used by the teachers in the teaching and learning of English in the New Normal. The learners' direct exposure to the instructional materials in the past academic school provided them the bases for the perception of teachers on the effectiveness of instructional materials. Teachers have undergone evaluation of the physical features of the instructional materials and interpreted whether they exhibited effectiveness in the learning of students. The qualities that made up the effectiveness of the instructional materials, are the result of teachers' evaluation of the materials in students' academic performances.

Conclusion

As this study investigated the effectiveness of instructional resources in the teaching and learning of English in the New Normal as perceived by Secondary School Teachers in Public Schools, several themes emerged -simplicity of instructional material's content, the visual appeal of the instructional materials, the visual appeal of the instructional materials, learner-centeredness of the instructional materials, authenticity of Instructional Materials, utilization of instructional videos, emerging online tools and enhancement of Macro skills of the English Language. Teachers shared their criteria on what constitutes effective instructional materials in the New Normal. Teachers, on the other hand, made little attempt to link these criteria to the issues given by the Covid-19 Pandemic in the teaching and learning of English for ELL students. Instead, the materials were acknowledged for their good impact on students' learning and learner characteristics which supports the researcher's argument that regardless the occurrence of pandemic, the qualities that make instructional materials in the teaching English effective remain the same despite to transition to the New Normal. The findings of this study support previous research's beneficial usage of instructional videos, as well as Sakkir et al's (2021) characteristic of educational resources that provide visual assistance.

Pedagogical Implication

This study aims to explore the perception of Secondary School Teachers and School leaders in the public schools in the Philippines on the effective instructional materials in the teaching and learning of the English Language in the New Normal. The emergent themes which revealed in this study have implications that can serve to improve Dep Ed's guidelines on the construction and design of instructional materials for teaching English in the New Normal. First, the Department of Education must be able to convene leaders to plan on research-based criteria in the design of instructional materials for English. Models for instructional design are very essential to support instructional materials' principles and assumptions in teaching and learning a language. Second, the Department of Education must allow for the creation of context-based teaching resources. Ready-made educational resources that have been adapted and used to be given to teachers across the country run the risk of learners being unable to relate to the things and concepts in the materials. Third, teachers' perspectives will be useful in the development of instructional materials, and such perspectives have already been captured in this study's perceptions of teachers. Finally, a pre- and post-evaluation of the conduct of instructional materials should be conducted to decide which components of the materials need to be improved and which parts should be recommended in the design.

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Students' Perception and Preference on Corrective Feedback in Online Writing Classes

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Abstract

The COVID-19 outbreak has changed the method of learning from face-to-face to online learning on a global scale. The ways in which teachers provide feedback to students, such as corrective feedback (CF) in writing class, has also automatically shifted. Although CF has been widely discussed in previous studies, its practice in an online setting as well as students' perceptions and preferences toward it, are still underexplored. Simultaneously, the information about students' favourable inclination towards the CF practice is essential to inform the teachers about instructional best practices in writing (Chen et al., 2016). Therefore, this study aims to investigate students' preferences and perceptions of CF in online writing classes by involving 272 students who took the English 3 (Academic Writing) course at President University, Indonesia. An explanatory sequential mixed-method design was employed by involving closed- and open-ended questionnaires adapted from Lee (2008) using Google Forms. The quantitative data were analysed using a pivot table, while NVivo 12 software was utilized to analyse the qualitative data. The results revealed that more than 75% of participants perceived the practice of online CF positively. Grammar is the most desirable kind of error to be corrected due to the lack of grammar knowledge. Furthermore, locating the error and indicating the types of error becomes the most preferred CF technique for students. Comments on grammar and content suggested by the course instructors are the most favoured types of comments, and they are the ones that most students will carefully read and subsequently address. For future CF practice, students expected to receive written feedback, explanation, and grades. Recommendations for further research and practice are also discussed in this study.

Keywords: Corrective Feedback, Online Learning, Writing, EFL students, Indonesia

Introduction

As one of the four language skills that should be mastered by English language learners, writing is often cited as the most difficult. Its demands are more substantial than the other three since they not only need to generate and organise ideas but must also focus on linguistic features such as spelling, punctuation, and many more (Huong, 2018; Richards & Renandya, 2002). Furthermore, unlike native language users, foreign language learners have fewer opportunities to use English writing skills outside the classroom setting. This adds complexity to the mastery the language skill.

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Due to this lack of exposure and use of the language, learners find it difficult to follow the language principles and eventually produce incorrect texts (Gass et al., 2013). Consequently, the requirement to produce accurate and proper texts necessitates English teachers working with student writers to respond to written errors, often in the context of English for academic purposes (EAP) (Lee, 2017). The act of responding to utterances containing errors produced by students is defined as Corrective Feedback (CF) (Ellis, 2009).

The importance of correcting students' errors in writing has been continuously discussed by second language acquisition (SLA) theorists. One of the most prominent critics, Truscott (1996), challenged the role of CF in the process of language acquisition for several reasons. In this case, Truscott (1996) claimed that the practice of grammar correction is contradictory to SLA theories as the acquisition of grammatical structure requires a continuous rather than an abrupt process. Furthermore, Truscott (1996) contended that the practical problems faced by student writers discredit the effectiveness of feedback in writing classes. He also added that the practice of grammar correction is considered a tedious undertaking in terms of the time involved for both teachers and students (Truscott, 1996).

Nonetheless, Truscott's (1996) critics have been challenged by prominent researchers around the globe. For instance, Ferris (1999, p. 4) argues that Truscott's (1996) critics are groundless as various studies have revealed that "selective, prioritized, and clear" error correction can help develop student writing skills (see Bitchener, 2008; Ellis, 2009; Hartshorn et al., 2010). Ferris (1999), however, acknowledged that ineffective error correction might not improve students' capacity in writing. In other words, the problem does not lie within the idea of correcting errors but the practice of it that might not be effectively construed and implemented by language teachers and learners. In their newer publications, Truscott (1999) and Ferris (2004) concluded that more studies on corrective feedback in writing are still considered insufficient, which eventually extends the vigorous debates about the importance of CF in writing.

As the debate among researchers in CF continues, Evans et al. (2010) highlight the importance of examining contextual variables that can affect teaching and research on CF in writing. In this case, Evans et al. (2010) assert that three contextual variables should be considered when researching CF in L2 writing, including learner, situational, and methodological variables. According to Evans et al. (2010), learner variables refer to every aspect that learners "brings to the learning experience" (p. 448) that includes nationality, cultural identity, learners' attitudes, perceptions, preferences, and many other factors. Meanwhile, situational variables include the institutional context of curriculum design, class size, and teacher variables (Chen et al., 2016; Evans et al., 2010). Finally, methodological variables comprise elements of instructional designs that include "what is taught and how it is taught" (Evans et al., 2010, p. 450). Regarding this, Evans et al. (2010) maintain the importance of exploring how students can take advantage of corrective feedback practices in L2 writing by identifying the types of aspects that should be corrected, the practices, and the frequency of CF.

Consequently, recent studies have progressively focused on multiple factors that might influence effective CF practices in L2 writing. In this case, Hartono et al. (2019) outline two primary areas of study in Corrective Feedback. The first focus includes the discussion of whether CF provides significant improvement or not for students' writing (see Bitchener, 2008; Hartshorn et al., 2010; Hernandez et al., 2017; Huong, 2018; Sheen, 2007). There is also an exploration of perceptions, expectations, and preferences

of teachers and learners regarding CF (see Al-Hajri & Al-Mahrooqi, 2013; Alzahrani, 2016; Bacha, 2013; Chen et al., 2016; Karim & Nassaji, 2015). Despite the extensive discussion on the experimental effect of CF to students' writing performance, and the perception of teachers and students of CF practice, these studies do not specifically focus on the implementation of CF in the online learning setting, particularly due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Based on the above exploration, analysing the perceptions of students and teachers toward CF will become the central idea of the present study as their perceptions are considered an essential variable that influences the role of CF in language learning (Chen et al., 2016; Evans et al., 2010). According to Chen et al. (2016), there are two underlying reasons why the perceptions of learners and teachers become an essential element that affect CF's role. First, differences between the way students and teachers perceive this technique may debilitate learning effectiveness. Meanwhile, students' favourable attitudes toward the practice of CF can inform teachers on "instructional best practices" (Chen et al., 2016, p. 2). In other words, students' attitudes and preferences for CF affect how they use the feedback provided by teachers in the learning process.

Despite the robustness of studies in this area, there still are many underexplored aspects. One of these is the practice of CF in an online setting, particularly in the Indonesian EFL context. The importance of exploring CF practices is also higher since the rise of the COVID-19 pandemic that has forced teachers and students around the globe to implement online learning. Therefore, the present study was designed to investigate the perceptions and preferences of English lecturers and university students regarding CF in an online learning setting. This study aims to answer the following research question: *What are students' perceptions and preferences on CF in online writing class?*

Methodology

A mixed-method design was employed to identify students' perceptions and preferences of CF during online writing class. An explanatory sequential mixed-method design was adopted to help elaborate the data derived from a quantitative approach by involving qualitative data collection and analysis (Subedi, 2016). In this case, closed-ended questions generated students' general perceptions and preferences towards CF practice in online writing classes. Following this, open-ended questions were designed to reveal the students' specific reasons for their general responses.

Participants

This study involved 272 undergraduate students from more than 15 study programs taking the English 2 class at President University, Indonesia. In this class, students focus on reading and writing skills at the CEFR B2 level. They are expected to be able to learn academic reading skills (scanning, skimming, previewing, and reading between), as well as academic writing skills (writing argumentative, problem and solution essays). In addition, this course also required the students to write reports based on the information provided in line graphs and pie charts. When students compose their writing texts, the instructors ensure equal opportunities for them to receive CF by incorporating a variety of online platforms. These include Google Docs, Google Sheets and PresUniv e-Campus (a learning management system developed by President University).

Instruments

A questionnaire adapted from Lee (2008) about CF practice was employed to investigate students' perception of it as performed by the course instructors when evaluating students' writing (see Appendix A). The authors adapted the CF survey from Lee (2008) to contextualize the implementation of online writing classes due to the COVID-19 pandemic. These questionnaires consisted of seven sections with each serving a distinct purpose, including : 1) collecting personal information and types of online platforms used to provide feedback, 2) students' general attitudes about teachers' CF, 3) the identification of students' preferences for types of error to be corrected along with their reasons stated in open-ended questions, 4) students' preferences for how teachers should correct their errors, 5) students' responses on the extended comments given by the course instructors in their written assignments, 6) students' responses to corrected errors by the course instructors, and 7) students' responses regarding their preferred kinds of feedback in the future.

Data collection

The questionnaire adapted from Lee (2008) was then distributed through Google Forms to all student cohorts consisting of 1,058 students enrolled in the English 2 course in the 2020 academic year. During the completion of this online questionnaire, the students' anonymity was strictly maintained to allow them freedom to express their attitudes and responses towards the practice of CF in the English 2 course. There were 281 responses received by the end of the academic year. Nine of these were eliminated as duplicates, leaving a total of 272 valid responses (161 female and 111 male students). These were further analysed by a variety of procedures that will be explained below.

Data analysis

The quantitative data generated from close-ended questions from Google Form was imported into a Microsoft Excel file and then stored in an analytical database inside the Excel workbook. The tables in Excel were organized into tabbed pages in the Pivot window. Finally, the results were presented in charts. Meanwhile, the qualitative data derived from the open-ended questions was coded and analysed using NVivo 12 software and presented to support the findings from the quantitative data. To maintain the trustworthiness of the qualitative coding process, Creswell (2012) argued that qualitative researchers are required to read and re-read the coded qualitative data to grasp a more profound understanding during the coding process. By utilizing NVivo 12 software, the authors aim to maintain the systematic procedures of the research data that include "...data location, storage, organizing, filing, and handling" (Cohen et al., 2018, p. 646).

Results

CF practice in online writing classes and preferred types of errors to be corrected The first section of the questionnaire aims to investigate the students' perceptions of the importance of correcting errors in the context of online writing classes. Regarding this, both students and course instructors engaged in online teaching and learning activities through a variety of platforms, such as PresUniv eCampus, Google Meet, Zoom, Webex, and others which they considered easy to use, practical/efficient, and real-time in terms of providing feedback because they are linked to their emails. In this case, students received CF from the course instructors regarding their writing assignments. Based on their responses to the questionnaire, more than 75% of the participants had positive perceptions of the importance

of error correction in online writing classes, and this can be seen in the following figure.

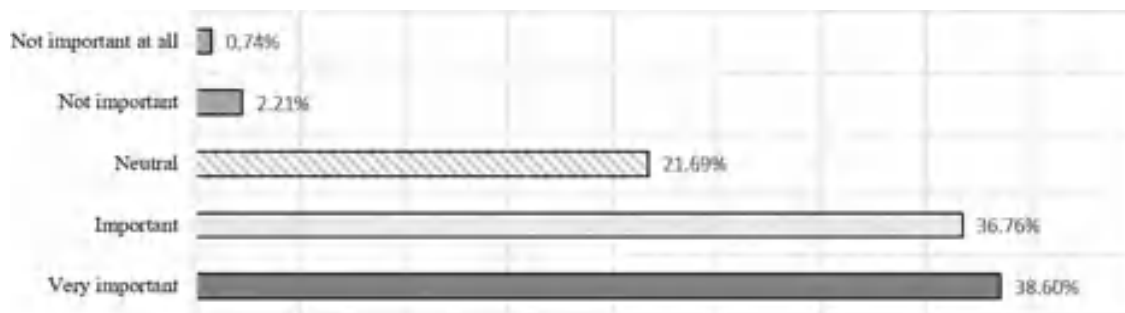


Figure 1: Students' perception of the importance of correcting errors in online writing classes

Besides exploring the students' general perceptions towards the importance of CF in online writing classes that were implemented during the COVID-19 pandemic, the questionnaire discovered the students' preferences about the types of errors to be corrected, and these are shown in Figure 2.

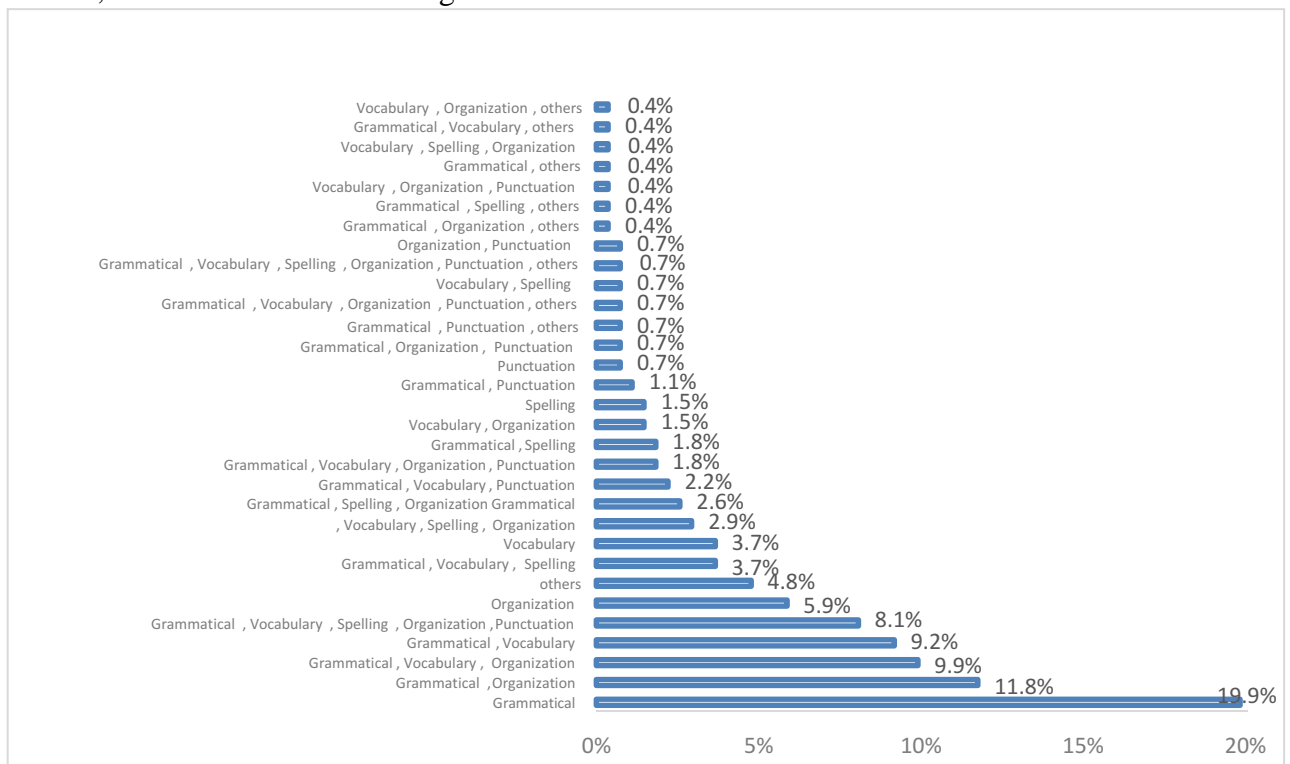


Figure 2: Types of errors students prefer for correction

As identified in Figure 2, grammar is the category of errors most preferred at 19.5%, perceived by the students to be corrected by the course instructors during the online writing class sessions. Following this, “grammatical and organization” (11.8%), “grammatical, vocabulary, and organization” (9.9%), “grammatical and vocabulary” (9.2%), and “grammatical, vocabulary, spelling, organization, and punctuation” (8.1%) become the second to fifth highest types of errors that students preferred to be corrected on by the instructors. From this result, it is clear that students put a greater emphasis and attention towards grammar when it comes to the kinds of errors they expect to be corrected by the course instructors. It can be clearly seen that most of the participants

preferred their teacher to correct grammatical errors in their essays or reports. In contrast, other linguistic elements, such as punctuation, vocabulary, and spelling, are considered less expected and noticed by the students to be corrected by the course instructors during the online class sessions.

Grammar (19.5%)

The fact that grammatical aspects become the most desirable type of errors perceived by the students to be corrected by instructors is also portrayed in their responses to the open-ended questions. Regarding this, one student commented that grammar is considered as an elemental knowledge that should be mastered to avoid misunderstandings by the readers:

“In my opinion, grammar is the basic knowledge in learning English. If we make grammatical errors, it could cause our writing might not be understandable by others.”

In addition, some students mentioned that the underlying reasons for their preferences of CF practice are because of their limited capacities in grammar, in which they “do not know how to use proper grammar in some sentences,” as well as their intention to further improve their knowledge and skills about grammatical aspects in order “to have a better understanding about how to use the proper grammar.”

Grammar and organization (11.8%)

Grammar organisation together were selected by 11.8% of respondents as the types of errors they wished to be corrected in online writing classes. Regarding this, more than 10% of the students chose the combination of grammar and organization to be corrected in the CF practice due to their insufficient knowledge on the two elements:

“Most of the time, I am confused about the usage of grammar, and I do not really remember the details of the grammatical formula or the essay structure.”

Other students raised their concerns about the urgency of understanding both elements, in which they argued that “grammar and organization are the most important (aspects) in writing.” Meanwhile, some students refer to the habits of their course instructor, who “always provides corrections on these aspects (grammar and organization).”

Grammar, vocabulary, and organization (9.9%)

Another grouping of types of errors that students believe they should be corrected on in online writing classes is that of grammar, vocabulary, and organization. 9.9% of students happened to choose these three items as their biggest concerns. From the open-ended questions, it is discovered that the importance of understanding these three elements becomes the major underlying reasons students opted for these aspects to be corrected by the course instructors. In this case, they assumed that having feedback on these elements could lead them to create better thesis essays or reports in academic settings in the future:

“I choose these three choices because I am sure that those three are the most crucial things we need to improve to get a better English skill, especially academic writing.”

Another reason for this preference is because these three elements: “grammatical errors, lack of vocabulary, and confusion with the organization,” become the students’

common difficulties in academic writing. Furthermore, errors with these elements are also deemed by students to impact the motivation of readers to read their essays. One student suggested that “If the grammar is wrong, then people will be too lazy to read our essay. If vocabulary is wrong, people will be confused. If the organization is wrong, then people will be confused as well because the text structure is mixed up.”

Grammar and vocabulary (9,2%)

As the fourth highest category of errors preferred by students to be corrected in the online CF practice, the combination of “grammar and vocabulary” constitute 9.2% of the overall percentage. There are several reasons students prefer to be corrected on their grammar and vocabulary errors. These include a limited understanding of grammar and vocabulary which necessitates the CF practice in an online writing class:

“To be honest, I do not think my grammar and vocabulary skills are perfect. That is why constructive feedback or correction is much more important so that I can learn something new from the lecturer.”

From the statement above, it can be clearly identified that the student considers CF as a means of learning and developing their English skills from the new insights provided by the course instructors in the online CF practice. Another reason for the students’ preference for grammar and vocabulary to be corrected is that they regarded both elements as “the most important aspects in writing an essay, especially in the English subject.”

Grammar, vocabulary, organization, spelling, and punctuation (8,1%)

The combination of “grammar, vocabulary, organization, spelling, and punctuation” became the fifth highest percentage of students who chose the same five types of errors they wish to have revised and addressed by the instructor, at 8.1%. Regarding this, there are three emerging reasons why they preferred these five elements to be revised, including the importance of understanding these elements, in which they regard these elements as “totally important to improve (their) essay in the future”, their argument that “most of the students have many errors” on these five elements, as well as the fact that their course instructors often address these five elements in the previous CF practice.

Students’ preference on methods of indicating errors

The second section of the questionnaire distributed to the students explored students’ preferences for different methods error correction. In this regard, there were eight options that students could rate with a five-level Likert scale. The results of the student’s responses can be identified in the following figure.

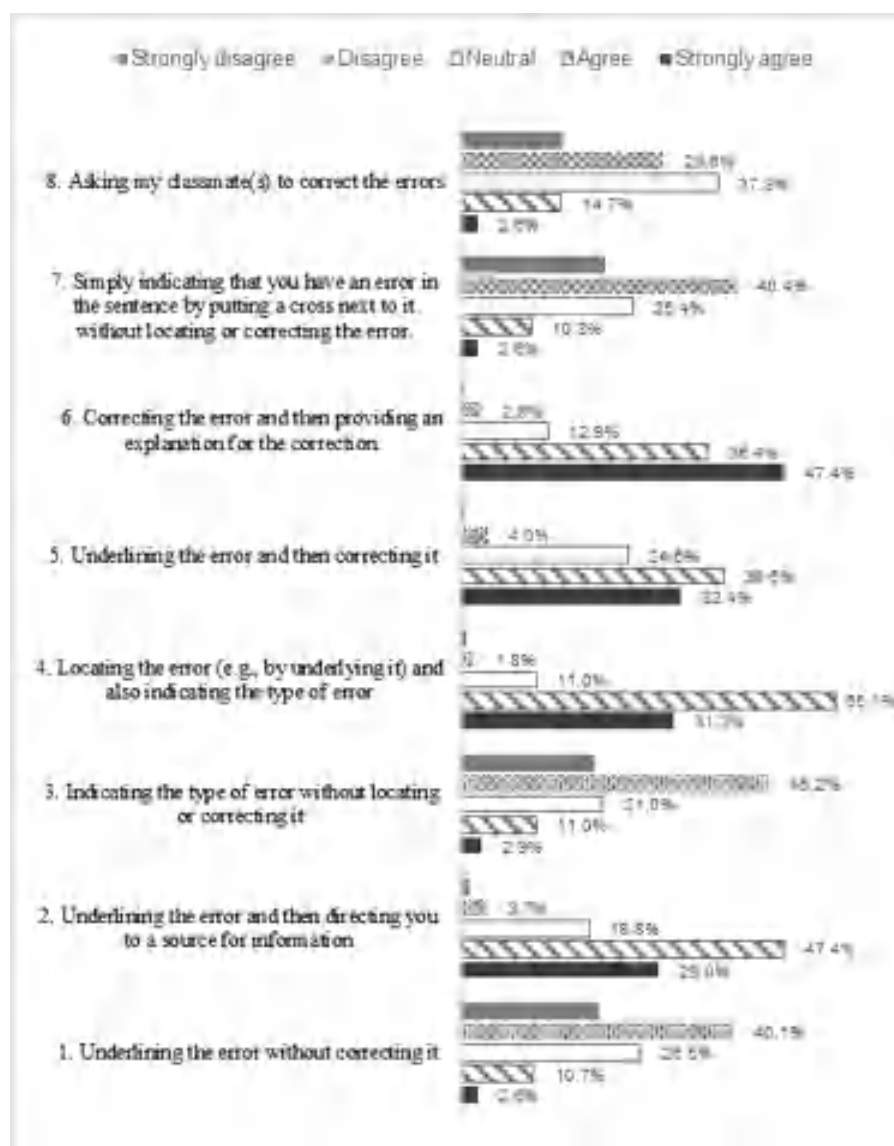


Figure 3: Students' preference on methods of indicating errors

Figure 3 clearly shows that “locating the error and also indicating the type of error” is the method of error correction most preferred by the students during the online CF practice with a total of 86.4% of them agreeing or strongly agreeing. Following this, the method of correcting the error and providing an explanation for the parts being corrected became the second highest desired method of error correction with around 83.8% responding with strongly agree or agree. The next preferred methods are underlining the error and then directing them to a source for information, as well as underlining the error and then correcting it with 76.5% and 71% respectively. Conversely, the method of simply indicating an error in the students' texts by putting an “X” next to it without locating or correcting the error is the least preferable method as suggested by the students.

Students' responses towards teachers' comments

The next section of the questionnaire scrutinizes the students' attitudes towards teachers' comments during the online CF practice. Students' general perceptions towards the

teachers' comments and their follow-up activities after receiving the comments from the teachers are thoroughly explored. Students were asked to rate their perceptions in a five-level Likert scale about four distinct categories being explored, including comments on the content, grammar, organization, and the overall quality of the writing/manuscript. Figure 4 below shows the overall perceptions of the students on the comments provided by the course instructors during the online CF practice.

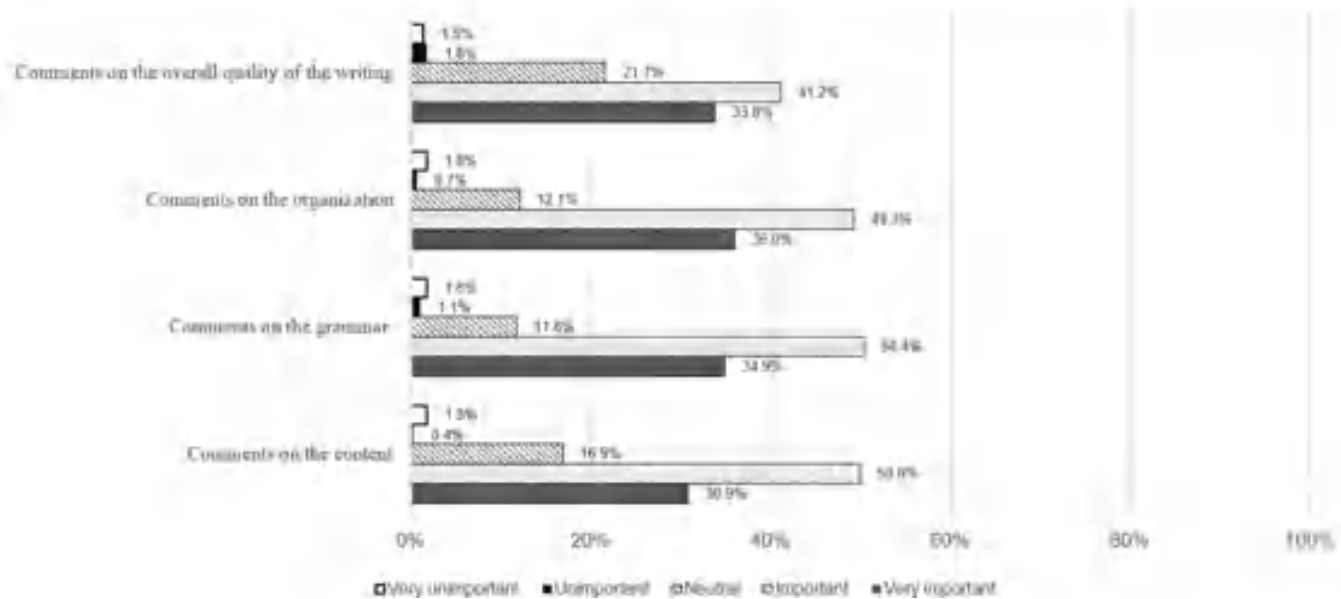


Figure 4: Students' perception of Teachers' comments

Figure 4 shows students' responses that comments on grammar and organization are among the most important from the course instructors with 85.3% positive responses for each category. This finding is relevant to the previous aspect regarding the types of errors preferred by students for teachers to correct, in which grammar and organization became the most favourable ones to be revised during the online CF practice. In contrast, teachers' comments on the overall quality and content of the students' writing are considered less important for the students compared to grammar and organization.

In relation to the follow-up actions or activities that will be conducted by the students after receiving CF from the course instructors, more than 70% of the total students asserted that they will carefully read the comments and address all the errors being identified by the course instructors. Meanwhile, more than a quarter of the total students suggested that they will read the feedback and just revise the major or significant errors. These results are summarized in Figure 5.

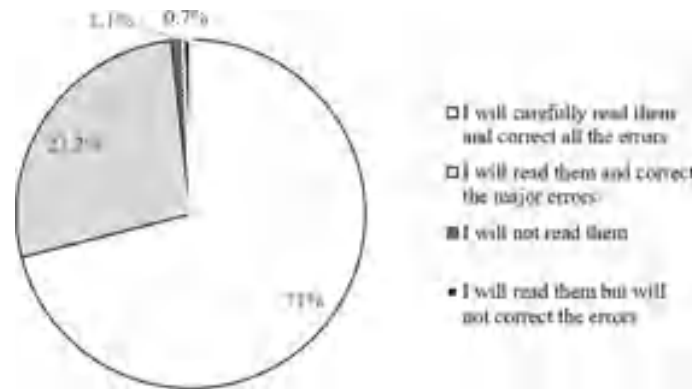


Figure 5: Students' response to teachers' feedback

Based on the open-ended question items, students outlined the importance of re-reading the feedback/comments provided by their course instructors during the online CF practice for several reasons, including the opportunities to learn and enhance their writing skills and reflect on their previous mistakes. For example, one student mentioned that getting feedback and comments from the course instructors is an inseparable part of the "learning process that involves trial and error." From this statement, the student argued that learning entails the process of making mistakes/errors and evaluating these. Furthermore, by evaluating the errors, students will be able to grasp new knowledge and understanding to "understand better which mistakes (they) made, so that in the future (they) will not make any more mistakes."

At the same time, correcting errors identified by the course instructors during the online CF practice are also deemed important by the students as displayed in Figure 4. Students discussed the underlying reasons for the importance of addressing errors in the open-ended question items. First of all, students argued that rectifying their errors can promote the improvement of their writing skills which eventually "help (them) get a better score and increase (their) overall English proficiency. In addition, some students also admitted that the importance of correcting errors as identified from the online CF practice prevents them from making other errors, as "one unaddressed error in their manuscript can result in other errors that should be corrected." Despite this, some students raised concerns about their hesitancy to correct minor errors in their manuscript, and that they "will only correct the ones with big impact to the whole essay" and "prioritize to correct the ones affecting the overall quality of the writing that usually entail major errors."

Ultimately, there was only less than 2% of the total students who responded that they would not read and correct the feedback. In this case, the students claimed that "there is no error in their essay," which lowers the urgency of revising the identified errors in their text. Furthermore, another student also indicated that error correction is no longer needed as their instructor "has graded the text," though the student admitted that correcting the error is still needed "to remind (themselves) not repeating the same errors in the future."

Besides their follow-up actions after getting the teachers' CF on their manuscripts, students were also asked about the kinds of feedback that they prefer in the future that can be identified in Figure 6.

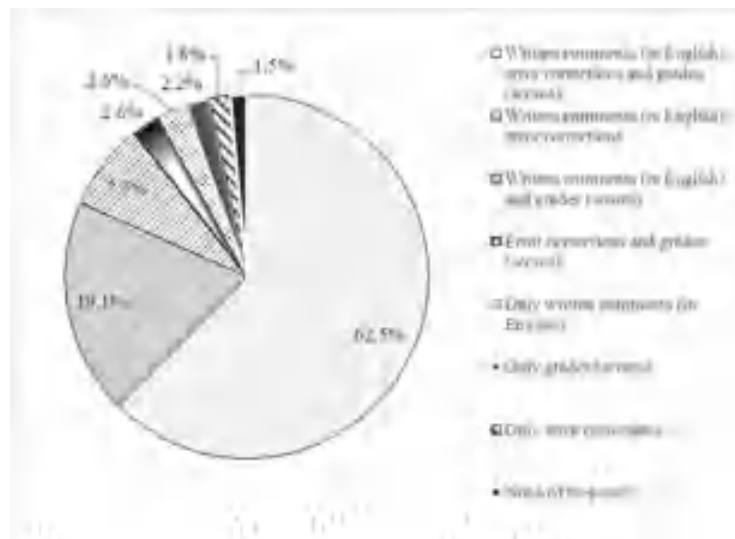


Figure 6: Types of feedback students prefer their teacher to write in the future

Students can choose eight different classifications, in which around 62.5% of the total students expected that they would receive written comments (in English), error correction, and grades (scores) from the course instructors in the future. Following this, 19.1% of the students favoured written comments (in English) and error correction as the second-highest percentage of the expected feedback in the future. Meanwhile, only 7.7% of the total participants preferred to obtain feedback in the form of written comments (in English) and grades or scores.

Discussion

Based on the results mentioned previously, in general, almost 75% of the participants perceived that the online writing class through the platforms is essential in improving their writing skills. This explanation shows the consistency of students' attitude towards online classes in previous study (Spencer & Temple, 2021). Furthermore, 75.37% showed favourable attitudes towards CF provided through online platforms such as Google Drive, Zoom, Google Meet, eCampus, WhatsApp, and other online platforms in improving writing skills. This result matches those conducted in an offline-mode writing class in an earlier study by Chen et al. (2016) showing that positive attitudes towards error correction are shown by mostly participants and studies of Tom et al. (2013), Trabelsi (2019), Saragih et al. (2021), and Listyani (2021) revealing that feedback is perceived valuable and necessary by students in improving their writing skills and language proficiency. These lead to an understanding that CF, either provided in offline or online writing class, are positively perceived by students.

CF provided using technology such as electronic devices, however, are preferred by the students (Qutob & Madini, 2020). This is because the online platforms are perceived as tools which are easy to use, practical/efficient, and provide real-time feedback. In this case, teachers and students can provide and obtain feedback simultaneously. This finding supports previous studies that students considered instructional technologies as reliable and simple to use and online technologies promoted fast feedback (Spencer & Temple, 2021).

Types of errors for correction

In the aspect of error types, the highest preference was grammatical errors because participants considered that they are not knowledgeable on grammar. In addition, they believe that it is an important element in writing essays or reports and perceive that choosing grammar errors to be corrected could improve their level of understanding of grammar. These findings support the previous studies by Jahbel et al. (2020) and Tom et al. (2013)) that grammatical correction and recommendation to improve them were the students' first choice. In the context of second language writing in an academic setting in which accuracy is one of the principles, Hussein and Bostanci (2020) and Ghasemi et al. (2020) proved that there is a strong relationship between error correction and grammatical accuracy. In their experimental study with pre-test–post-test design in writing a composition, the number of grammatical errors on students' compositions in the experimental group significantly decreased post-test due to the instructors' correction. Meanwhile, in the control group, a significant decrease of errors was not found. This shows the effectiveness of error correction on grammar.

Furthermore, the combination of grammar and organization error corrections were preferred by 11.8%, while the combination of all aspects; grammar, vocabulary, organization, spelling, and punctuation (8,1%) is the fifth. The preferences on the categories are due to their insufficient knowledge, being unfamiliar with the academic vocabulary, the importance of these elements as well as instructors' feedback focus. This finding, however, is not in line with previous studies by Bacha (2013) and Chen et al. (2016) who found that most participants perceived organization as most important error type for correction. This indicates that compared to students in offline writing class, students in online writing class can either have the same or different preferences in terms of mistakes for correction. Consequently, students should be equally taught about the importance of all aspects in writing academic essays or papers.

Students' responses towards teachers' comments

Regarding students' perception of teachers' comments, they favoured comments on grammar and organization equally at 85%. This explanation shows consistency on grammar but not on organization with the previous study by Chen et al. (2016). They found that extended comments on both content and grammar are strongly preferred by students. The students' preference might be related to their choice on their types of errors for correction at 11.8% generated by their teachers' focus of feedback. Therefore, these results suggest instructors provide extended comments on the aspects they focus on when giving feedback.

Preferred strategies of written corrective feedback

The fourth part of the questionnaire was designed to evaluate participants' preferences for methods of indicating errors. The result indicates that locating and indicating the types of errors is considered the most important strategy. This finding is consistent with the previous research by Bacha (2013) who found that most participants preferred their teachers to indicate their errors without correcting them. This result also shows consistency with another previous empirical study by Lira-Gonzales and Nassaji (2020) that college students obtained more indirect feedback than primary and secondary students. However, in practice, this result is different from a study by Saragih et al. (2021), revealing that students preferred direct CF in which their errors are directly revised by their instructor. They clarified that it could help them reflect on their mistakes

and motivate them to continue learning. It implies that students in an online setting can have the same or different preferences on written corrective feedback (WCF) strategy compared to previous studies in offline writing classes.

Participants' responses to corrected errors

The next part of the questionnaire generated students' responses to corrected errors. Interestingly, despite being conducted fully online for the first time due to COVID-19, the participants (98%) highly appreciated teachers' CF. The percentage is derived from 71% who carefully read and corrected the feedback and the rest (27.2%) who read and only corrected the major errors. The high appreciation is due to their perception that reading and correcting the mistakes could enhance and improve their writing skills. This result confirms earlier findings that feedback is read and carefully corrected by a majority (84%) of students (Chen et al., 2016). This finding also supports another study by Huong (2018) that in practice WCF provided on students' essays absolutely results in revision on the final draft. This indicates that written CF in both offline and online writing classes are highly valued by students. This result, therefore, suggests instructors who teach online writing classes to provide CF. Furthermore, in the future, they are recommended to provide the combination of written comments (in English), error corrections and grades on their essays when giving feedback.

Despite being conducted in an EFL setting, the findings of this study confirm the previous studies conducted in the context of learning English as a second language. Majority of participants in the present study perceived that corrective feedback could improve their writing skills. Grammar is the most preferable to be corrected because they considered the feedback could improve their accuracy. The results are in line with the findings of Kadwa and Alshenqeeti (2020) in Iran and Trabelsi (2019) in Oman. They revealed that instructors' corrective feedback could develop students' grammatical accuracy in writing in the EFL setting. The findings also match those in previous studies in the SLA setting. In their study conducted in Iraq, Hussein and Bostanci (2020) reported that error correction can be considered an effective means of improving students' writing skills. Gharehbagh et al. (2019), who carried out a study in Malaysia in the ESL context, also confirmed that corrective feedback from teachers and students' peers provided through the Wiki platform enhances students' enthusiasm in writing essays with higher accuracy. Thus, corrective feedback conducted in different countries, either in EFL or ESL settings, could lead to students' improvement in writing. This means that the findings could be applied to SLA audiences globally.

Conclusion

In conclusion, CF provided online through online platforms were positively perceived by most of the students in developing their writing skills. This is because the online platforms are easy to use, practical, and promote real-time feedback in which the teachers and students simultaneously provide and obtain feedback. Next, grammar is considered the most important type of errors due to its impact on grammatical accuracy. However, due to the importance of the other aspects such as vocabulary, organization, spelling and punctuation, they need to be equally taught and emphasized. Further, locating errors and indicating the type of errors is perceived as the most important strategy. Interestingly, although being conducted fully online for the first time due to COVID-19, the participants highly value instructors' CF. This is triggered by their perception that reading and correcting the mistakes could result in enhancement and improvement of

their writing skills. Therefore, instructors teaching writing online are encouraged to continue providing feedback and to combine written comments, error correction and grades on students' essays or reports when giving feedback.

Pedagogical Implication

From the present study, some implications and recommendations regarding the practice of online CF can be highlighted. First, the students' perceptions and preferences regarding the implementation of CF in online writing classes during the COVID-19 pandemic have been explored. In this case, the students' perceptions can illuminate the best practices for the instructors or lecturers to maximize the effectiveness of online CF, including their desired types of errors to be corrected and the instructors' comments they expect to obtain. After exploring the students' attitudes, it is strongly recommended for future researchers and practitioners to conduct experimental research to investigate the correlation between the practice of online CF and the improvement of students' writing performance in the online context. Although studies regarding the online CF practice and the improvement of students' writing performance have been conducted previously (e.g., Hernandez et al., 2017; Shang, 2019; Tai et al., 2015), studies that are conducted during the online learning context due to the COVID-19 pandemic are still underexplored. The exploration of teachers' attitudes and preferences regarding the implementation of online CF in the context of remote teaching due to the COVID-19 pandemic is also urgently needed to be conducted to enhance the effectiveness of online CF practice in the future.

Limitation

This study focused only on students' perceptions and preferences of CF in online writing class. The findings offer insights for teachers in implementing written CF. Further investigation of teachers' perception and preference on CF in online settings, however, is also essential to conduct in the future. This is supported by this study and previous studies that CF provided by teachers contribute to students' performance.

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Appendix A: Questionnaire for Students in Online Writing Class

Part 1: Personal information and platform used to provide corrective feedback.

1. Gender:
2. Class/Major (e.g., International Relations 2018):
3. What kind of online platform does your English lecturer use to provide corrective feedback on your essay/report during online English 2 classes?
4. What are the positive things about using the platform to get feedback?
5. What are the negative things about using the platform to get feedback?

Part 2: Students' perceptions of corrective feedback.

Choose one answer that best describes your perception of corrective feedback during your course.

1. Essays (argumentative and report texts) instruction/classes are essential for me in improving my writing skills: - Strongly disagree - Disagree - Neutral - Agree - Strongly agree
2. What is your opinion about correcting your errors in your English writings by your instructor(s)?
- Not important at all - Not important - Neutral - Important - Very important

Part 3: Students' preferences of types of error for correction

1. Which type of error do you prefer for correction during online writing class. You can choose more than one answer? Check all that apply.
- Grammatical errors - Vocabulary errors - Spelling errors - Organization errors
- Punctuation errors - others
2. Explain the reason for your choice in number 1.

Part 4: Participants' preferences for error correction techniques

Choose one answer that best describes your preferences for error correction techniques during your course. (Very unimportant, Unimportant, Neutral, Important, Very important)

1. Underlining the error without correcting it.
2. Underlining the error than directing you to a source for information.
3. Indicating the type of error without locating or correcting it.
4. Locating the error (e.g., by underlining it) and also indicating the type of error.
5. Underlining the error and then correcting it.
6. Correcting the error and then providing and explanation for the correction.
7. Simply indicating that you have an error in the sentence by putting a cross next to it without locating or correcting the error.
8. Asking my classmate(s) to correct the errors.

Part 5: Participants' perception of extended comments on their written assignments.

Choose one answer that best describes your responses to extended comments on your written assignments.

1. Comments on the content
2. Comments on the grammar
3. Comments on the organization
4. Comments on the overall quality of the writing

Part 6: Participants' responses to corrected errors

1. How do you respond to your lecturers' feedback on your writing?
 - I will not read them.
 - I will read them but will not correct the errors.
 - I will read them and correct the major errors.
 - I will carefully read them and correct all the errors.
2. Explain the reason for your choice in number 1.

Part 7: Participants' preference of kinds of feedback in the future

In the future, what kind of feedback would you prefer your teacher to write?

- Written comments (in English), error corrections, and grades (scores)
- Written comments (in English), error corrections.
- Written comments (in English) and grades (scores)
- Error corrections and grades (scores)
- Only written comments (in English)
- Only error corrections
- Only grades (scores)
- None of the above

Vocabulary learning attitudes and strategies of college freshmen: Inputs to a proposed vocabulary development program

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Abstract

Vocabulary knowledge is the cornerstone of language learning. Vocabulary plays a crucial role in receptive and productive communication skills and is often associated with effective communication. Maghsodi (2010) noted that language researchers had underscored the crucial role of vocabulary development in second language acquisition. Therefore, schools and teachers should consider examining the lexical dimension of language learning in developing learners' language proficiency. Dodigovic, Jeaco, and Wei (2017) emphasized the importance of vocabulary research to classroom language planning to clarify and develop language programs' goals, objectives, and content. In this light, this study collected and analyzed the vocabulary learning (VL) attitudes and beliefs and vocabulary learning strategy (VLS) use and choice of two hundred forty (240) first-year college students enrolled in Purposive Communication. It is the language course in the new general education curriculum promulgated by the Commission of Higher Education. Data were collected through a validated 66-item survey questionnaire; twenty-six items on vocabulary learning attitudes and beliefs and 40 items on VLS use and choice. Data on VL attitude and beliefs and VLS use and choice were presented and analyzed through descriptive statistical tools – percentage and mean. In contrast, a correlation between VL attitudes and beliefs using Person r-correlation and one-way variance analysis was calculated to determine the significant difference in VLS preferences. Primary results revealed the following: first, respondents prefer metacognitive strategies; second, there is no significant difference in VLS preference; and third, respondents have moderate positive VL attitudes and beliefs. These results suggest a need to further enhance VL attitudes and beliefs if teachers and the college expect a significant improvement in English language communicative skills among tertiary students. Hence, the study proposes the integration of explicit LLS instruction in the Purposive Communication course syllabus.

Keywords: Second language learning, language learning strategies, vocabulary learning strategies, vocabulary learning attitudes and beliefs

Introduction

What is in a word? Words are often called the building blocks of language proficiency. Moreover, word power is often associated with effective communication. To master vocabulary, students should learn various word meanings and connotations, spelling, pronunciation, proper grammatical uses related to word knowledge. Merriam Webster Dictionary defines vocabulary as "a sum or stock of words employed by a language, group, individual, or work or in a field of knowledge." According to Moghadam, Zainal & Ghaderpout (2012), vocabulary is a reliable indicator of mental age, and vocabulary development is considered one of the measures of intelligence.

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Rich vocabulary creates better learning situations for students. More so, the size of the vocabulary is still often found to be a good predictor of general competence (Duncan et al., 2007)

Teaching and learning vocabulary is not considered as important as mastering grammar, pronunciation, reading, or writing until the 1980s. Many SLA researchers point that learning vocabulary is the most challenging aspect of becoming proficient in a second language because of the extent of the task (Schmitt, 2010).

Language maybe compared with a building: the structure of the building is grammar, and words are the bricks in the structure. Both are essential, however, the bricks surpasses the structural elements, which is why "no linguist today would seriously contest the fact that, quantitatively, vocabulary dominates in the language field and that vocabulary acquisition is the main obstacle to language acquisition" (Ma, 2009, p. 21).

Lack of vocabulary frequently inhibits students from becoming proficient in the second language (L2), which is why it is the most frequently reported problem for second language learners. Hence students often express a desire for more vocabulary instruction (Folse, 2004). As Schmitt (1998) argues, "the mechanics of vocabulary acquisition is one of the most intriguing puzzles in second language acquisition" (p. 281).

Vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) are steps taken by language learners to obtain new English words. There is a wide range of different vocabulary learning strategies, as shown by the classifications proposed by different researchers. According to Nyikos and Fan (2007), the classification of vocabulary learning strategies has little consensus, as many researchers have developed their own VLS taxonomies and classifications. For example, Ahmed (1989) classified the 38 strategies his Sudanese learners used into five macro-strategies of memorization, practice, dictionary use, note-taking, and group work; while Gu and Johnson (1996) organized 91 VLS in their study of Chinese students into two significant categories: metacognitive and cognitive. More recently are Tseng, Dornyei, and Schmitt's 20 -item questionnaire on the self-regulating capacity in vocabulary learning. Lastly, Xu and Hsu (2017) 72-item strategy inventory for vocabulary learning (SIVL).

In the Philippines, Bernardo (2008, in Amora & Bernardo, 2009) developed a 53-item L2 Vocabulary Learning Strategy Inventory (L2VLSI), which was based on the framework of Schmitt (1997). The inventory, a year later, was subjected to further test and refinement using the Rasch model. The result of the Rasch recalibration is called L2VLSI-R, a refined instrument of 48 strategies.

According to Nyikos and Fan (2007), the lack of uniformity in inventory among researchers has made it difficult to compare the research findings across studies. The researchers, therefore, suggested the development of an exhaustive and mutually exclusive strategy typology of vocabulary learning strategies.

While various definitions of vocabulary learning strategies have been suggested, this study adopted the definition by Schmitt (1997). First, discovery strategies that learners use to uncover learning of words; second, consolidation strategies which involve merging of a word once it has been encountered.

Furthermore, Schmitt (1997) categorizes vocabulary learning strategies into five sub-categories: determination strategies, social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies and, metacognitive strategies.

Learners use different kinds of LLS, or specific actions and behaviors, to help them learn a new language. Researches have attempted to find out what influences learners' choice of language learning strategies. Some factors that influence the choice of strategies are gender (Lee, 2003), cultural background (Yang, 2007), L2 proficiency (Wu, 2008), motivation

(Macleod, 2002), Self-efficacy (Yang, 1999), learning preference and style (Nunan, 1999), age (Cheng, 2005), learning setting (Kamalizad & Samuel, 2016) and attitude (Oxford, 1990).

L2 learning attitudes, in general, concerns L2 learning, the teacher, the language, the culture, and native speakers of the language (Oxford 2011). Attitudes are generally viewed as either positive or negative and can strongly affect L2 learning. Influences on attitudes are learning contexts, experiences, and beliefs. Learners can change their attitudes by using tactics tied to L2 learning.

Concerning L2 vocabulary learning, Gu and Johnson (1996) observe that "students consistently adopt types of strategies based either on their beliefs about vocabulary and vocabulary learning or on other preexisting cognitive or social factors" (p. 279).

A positive correlation between vocabulary learning attitude and strategy use was observed in studies. Wei, in 2007 conducted a study among 60 college students to determine, among others, the vocabulary learning problems and beliefs concerning strategy use. Data gathered through a vocabulary learning strategy (VLS) questionnaire revealed that strategy use was closely related to student attitude. The study further revealed that respondents with positive attitudes experienced frequent strategy use while those with negative attitudes showed low use of management, activity, and dictionary use.

Vasu & Dhanaval (2015) investigated learners' attitudes towards the importance of vocabulary and their choice of sources to learn new words. The study explored the differences in learners' attitudes and choices by a survey conducted among 730 first-year engineering students of Anna University, India. In general, results showed that students consider vocabulary as an essential aspect of language learning. Students admitted the importance of vocabulary to understand a text. Interestingly, gender influences the choice of sources to learn new words. Further, the medium of education also significantly influences learners' attitudes and choices of vocabulary learning sources.

What is the future of vocabulary research? Dodigovic, Jeaco, and Wei ((2017) outlined the trends in vocabulary research, which include: vocabulary knowledge, vocabulary learning processes, assessment of vocabulary knowledge and lexical errors, vocabulary needs analysis, and technology-based vocabulary instruction and learning.

TESOL International Journal published a special issue on vocabulary in 2017. Some of the studies included in the special issue are the development of a new inventory of strategies for vocabulary learning (SIVL) specifically for Chinese learners (Xu & Hsu, 2017); Colovic - Markovic's (2017) research on the role of topic-induced word combination in explicit vocabulary learning instruction; Jones and Waller's (2017) quasi-experiment on textual and aural input enhancement for vocabulary teaching; Brumbugh and Heift's (2017) investigation on the use of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) on the depth of vocabulary knowledge; Quero's (2017) subject-specific study on the vocabulary load of English medical handbooks; and Masrai and Milton's (2017) study of academic vocabulary knowledge as a predictor of academic achievement.

In the Philippines, the advent of the new tertiary curriculum has placed L2 learning in a different perspective. Gone are the days when students need to enroll and complete at least four English courses- Communication Arts 1, Communication Arts 2, Speech and Oral Communication, and Business and Technical Writing.

The new General Education curriculum introduced a new language course – Purposive Communication, in which the tertiary school has the option to use English or Filipino as the medium of instruction. The course intends to develop students' communicative competence through multimodal tasks that provide then opportunities for communicating effectively and appropriately. (CHED CMO 69 s. 2017).

Teachers of Purposive Communication, including the researcher of this study, noticed that many students could hardly express their thoughts in English and often excused themselves from active class participation because of their poor vocabulary knowledge.

The need to improve students' L2 proficiency through vocabulary instruction has to be strongly considered if teachers want their students 'to be communicatively competent to succeed in the course. Hence, the general objective of this study is to explore processes of vocabulary acquisition of college freshmen students' vocabulary learning beliefs and vocabulary learning strategies use and the relationship between their beliefs and strategies.

Statement of the Problem

The achievement of this objective is anchored on the answer to the following specific questions:

1. What are the English language vocabulary learning beliefs of first-year college students?
2. To what extent do respondents use vocabulary learning strategies when grouped according to the following types:
 - 2.1. determination strategies
 - 2.2. social strategies,
 - 2.3. memory strategies,
 - 2.4 cognitive strategies, and
 - 2.5. metacognitive strategies?
3. Are there any preferences in the use of vocabulary learning strategies among respondents?
4. Is there a significant difference in the use of vocabulary strategies when grouped according to types?
5. Is there a significant relationship between the respondents' English language vocabulary learning beliefs and vocabulary learning strategies?

Method

Since the study's main concern was to determine the relationship between vocabulary learning attitudes and choice of vocabulary learning strategies, a correlational descriptive design was used. Researchers investigated one group of respondents, students of the Purposive Communication course, and collected quantitative data of two variables to determine a significant statistical correlation between them.

The study respondents were selected from college freshmen enrolled in Purposive Communication during the study period, the first semester of SY 2018-2019. Two hundred forty-two (240) students were chosen from the population based on the following parameters:

Population: 650 college freshmen

Confidence level : 95%

Confidence interval: 5

The respondents were taken from 14 sections handled by three professors. From each section, 17 or 18 respondents were randomly selected through the lottery technique. Random sampling was chosen to remove any bias as every member of the population had an equal chance to be selected as a respondent.

Data were collected through a self-report questionnaire or a survey form designed with two five-point Likert scales. The first scale adopted from Kulikova (2015) contained 26 items on vocabulary learning attitudes. A few items were rewritten to address the concern on culture as the original survey tool was intended for learners of Russian. Respondents were asked to indicate their level of agreement on English vocabulary learning using the response anchors suggested by Vagias (2006).

Table 1. Response anchors for vocabulary learning attitudes

Response	Interpretation
1	Strongly disagree
2	Disagree
3	Neutral
4	Agree
5	Strongly agree

The second scale was for vocabulary learning strategy use, adopted from Kapipour and Naveh (2011). The five-point interval scale is composed of 40 items grouped according to the VLS type. The breakdown of which is shown below:

Table 2. VLS types

VLS Type	Number of items
1. Determination strategies	7
2. Social strategies	5
3. Memory strategies	16
4. Cognitive strategies	7
5. Metacognitive strategies	5
Total	40

Although the data gathering tool was adopted, it needed to be validated as it was derived from two survey tools, and some items were revised. Face validation was gone as a panel of experts commented and recommended improvements on the survey tool. After which, pilot testing was conducted. The results of the pilot test were tabulated as principal consistency analysis, and internal consistency was computed. The Cronbach alpha reliability estimates of the scale was adequate towards excellent at 0.975.

Data collected from the survey were subjected to appropriate statistical tools for analysis and interpretation. First, weighted mean was computed to determine the vocabulary learning attitudes and VLS use and choice. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) for independent means was calculated to find out if the reported type of VLS use and choice (determination, social, memory, cognitive, and metacognitive strategies) are significantly different or not. Furthermore, to determine if vocabulary learning attitudes correlate with VLS use and choice, Pearson r correlation was calculated.

Results

Problem Number 1: What are the English language vocabulary learning beliefs of college freshmen?

Table 3. Respondents' English Vocabulary Attitude

English Vocabulary Attitude	Mean	Verbal Interpretation
1. It is easier for someone who already knows a foreign language to learn English.	3.66	Agree
2. Learning vocabulary is extremely important for learning English.	3.66	Agree
3. Learning English is mostly a matter of translating from Filipino.	3.37	Agree

4. It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to learn the language well.	3.30	Neutral
5. It is important to repeat and practice a lot when you are learning English.	3.56	Agree
6. A good memory is very important for learning English well.	3.63	Agree
7. Repetition is one of the best ways to learn words.	3.74	Agree
8. You can acquire a large vocabulary by memorizing lots of individual words.	3.73	Agree
9. It is easier to learn new words when they are presented in context.	3.65	Agree
10. You can acquire a large English vocabulary simply by reading a lot.	3.80	Agree
11. Guessing the meaning of words in context is one of the best ways to learn vocabulary.	3.69	Agree
12. When you come across a word several times in different contexts, you eventually figure out what it means.	3.50	Agree
13. Vocabulary learning includes learning phrases as well as words.	3.63	Agree
14. To know a word, you have to know its form, meaning, and use.	3.47	Agree
15. To really learn words, you have to do two things: study them and then practice using them.	3.98	Agree
16. I would like to learn English to get to know foreign countries and their citizens better.	3.77	Agree
17. Learning vocabulary is interesting.	3.41	Agree
18. I like to learn more words than my English language teacher assigns us to learn.	3.50	Agree
19. I'm motivated to learn vocabulary because it is important for passing tests.	3.72	Agree
20. I like learning vocabulary.	3.46	Agree
21. I feel excited while learning vocabulary.	3.52	Agree
22. I have my own ways to motivate myself in vocabulary learning.	3.39	Neutral
23. I am good at learning languages.	3.10	Neutral
24. I have my own ways to remember the words I learn.	3.48	Agree
25. I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak English very well.	3.49	Agree
26. Everyone can learn to speak English	3.67	Agree
GWA	3.57	Agree

Table 3 summarizes the vocabulary learning attitudes of respondents on twenty-six aspects. Generally, respondents agreed with 24 of the 26 items. The respondents believed that learning vocabulary involved both study and practice. This item received the highest mean of 3.98. Also, the role of reading in vocabulary development was recognized, with a mean score of 3.80, which was followed the socio-cultural aspect of English, knowing the English-speaking countries and their citizens. This item scored a mean of 3.77.

Researchers have found that learners use some form of silent or written repetition of a newly acquired word. This attitude was also evident in Nassaji's (2003, in Nyikos and Fan, 2007) study among 21 adult ESL learners who used repeating or practice as a significant strategy compared to other strategies like analogy, verifying, monitoring self-inquiry, and analysis. The respondents' high regard for this strategy may be attributed to their cultural background. Asian learners preferred repetition to improve recall of new vocabulary.

Studies have been conducted to investigate reading experience as a mediator to vocabulary development, also referred to as the Matthew Effect (Duff, Tomblin, and Catts, 2015). It has been postulated that reading development can significantly affect the readers' exposure to new words. Empirical evidence pointed that learning new words occurs through exposure to written text. Cummingham (2005) observed that reading texts provide opportunities for the advancement of vocabulary development.

Respondents also saw the importance of vocabulary knowledge to the intercultural dimension of language learning. People use language for purposeful communication. Learning a new language involves using words, rules, and knowledge about the language and its use to communicate effectively with speakers. Language is used to express, create and interpret the meaning to establish and maintain social and interpersonal relationships.

However, respondents were neutral with three items: they were unsure with language learning, which got the lowest mean score of 3.10, importance of culture to language learning better, with a mean score of 3.30, and their level of motivation to learn the language, with a mean score of 3.39.

Motivation has a positive influence on language learning. Students who have the desire, urge, or objectives to be achieved in learning a second language tend to be more successful than those who learn without or with little motivation.

Self-efficacy refers to personal judgments of performance capacities in a given domain of activities (Schunk in Rossiter, 2002). People with high efficacy are confident of performing since they judge themselves as capable of managing the activity. Also, they avoid activities which they believe are beyond their abilities. In addition, people who have a stronger sense of self-efficacy tend to exert more effort to meet challenges and decide when and how to use strategies to manage the challenge of the tasks.

Problem Number 2: When grouped according to the following types, how often do respondents use vocabulary learning strategies?

2.1. Determination Strategies

Table 4. Respondents' reported use of determination strategies

Determination Strategies	Mean	Verbal Interpretation
When I find a new English word that I do not know, I...		
1. Check new word's form (e.g., find its verb, noun, adj., adv., etc.	3.09	Sometimes
2. Look for any word parts that I know (e.g., impossible, possible, possibility, possibly, etc.	2.81	Sometimes
3. Check if the word is also a Filipino word (e.g., Facebook)	3.15	Sometimes
4. Use any pictures or gestures (body language) to help me guess the meaning	2.66	Sometimes
5. Guess its meaning from context	3.00	Sometime
6 Use a Filipino -English dictionary	3.04	Sometimes

7 Use an English dictionary	3.29	Sometimes
GWA	3.01	Sometimes

Looking at Table 4, respondents' preference for two determination strategies, L1 (Filipino) and dictionary use, supported previous research findings. According to Wei (2007), research on L1 use has positive and negative effects on vocabulary learning. Grace (2000, as cited in Wei, 2007) observed that first language translation positively affects short-term and long-term retention of words.

When students come across complex or unfamiliar words, one of the often-used strategies is dictionary use. The results of this study concurred with Kurikova's (2015) findings that most learners reported using dictionary strategies more often than any other group of strategies. However, language researchers have not reached a consensus yet on the usefulness of dictionaries on word retention. Schofield (1999, cited in Alpınar, Asok, and Vural, 2015) suggested that dictionary use leads to deep processing of information about the new word. Learners are introduced to the word's spelling, part of speech, inflection, pronunciation, etymology, synonyms, antonyms, and the like. In contrast, Lauter (2011, cited in Alpınar et al., 2015) identified a non-significant correlation between dictionary use and vocabulary learning and retention.

Also, some researchers promoted the use of bilingual dictionaries (Knight, 1994, cited in Alpınar et al., 2015), while others encouraged the use of monolingual dictionaries (Boggard, 1991, cited in Alpınar et al., 2015). Nevertheless, it is relevant to note that respondents' use of bilingual dictionaries implied their inclination to turn to their L1 for semantization (Wei, 2007). Jiang (2004) is concerned about the negative effect on L1 dependency. Unbalanced attention is given to word form than word usage intensified the disadvantage of limited exposure to L2.

2.1. Social Strategies

Table 5. Respondents' reported use of social strategies

	Mean	Verbal Interpretation
When I find a new English word that I don't know, I...		
1 Ask the teacher to give me the definition or a sentence	2.99	Sometimes
2 Ask my classmates for the meaning	3.26	Sometimes
3 Study the word with my classmates	2.93	Sometimes
4 Ask the teacher to check my definition	2.97	Sometimes
5 Talk with native speakers	3.08	Sometimes
GWA	3.05	Sometimes

Table 5 showed respondents' preference for an assistance-seeking strategy, ask classmates for the meaning, which scored a mean of 3.26. This is followed by a preference for authentic communication, talking with native speakers, with a mean score of 3.08.

Educators have widely recognized that students do not learn much when they are isolated or worked alone. When students collaborate, students work together in small groups or pairs, studying and discussing classroom materials. According to Hatte (2009), peers as co-teachers improve students' self-regulation and control over their learning methods. More so, peer-directed learning is less critical than a teacher fronted class where students are anxious over teachers' comments. Roll, Sinatra, and Eschenauer (2014) compared two different approaches to vocabulary acquisition- vocabulary theater and teacher-directed instruction.

Their study revealed that gains in students' scores are more significant in vocabulary than teacher-directed instruction.

The results of this study also suggest respondents' preference for learning vocabulary outside the classroom. Haddad (2016) emphasizes the importance of developing and enhancing students' vocabulary through exposure to authentic language situations and native speakers. Kojic-Sabo and Lightbrown (1999 cited in Manchon, Larios & Murphy, 2007) noted that L2 students in Hongkong have preferences for authentic communication suggesting a relationship between learning environment and strategy use. Speaking with native speakers gives learners to practice English in a real-world environment where language use is genuine and not structured like in the classroom.

2.3. Memory Strategies

Table 6. Respondents' reported use of memory strategies

	Mean	Verbal Interpretation
When I find a new English word that I don't know, I...		Sometimes
1 Draw a picture of the word to help remember it	2.92	
2 Make a mental image (imaginary image) of the word's meaning	2.81	Sometimes
3 Connect the word to a personal experience	2.88	Sometimes
4 Remember the words that follow or precede the new word	2.78	Sometimes
5 Connect the word to other words with similar or opposite meanings	2.87	Sometimes
6 Remember the words in scales (always, often, sometimes, never). If it is used more, I spend more time to remember it	2.83	Sometimes
7 Group words together to study them	3.15	Sometimes
8 Use new words in sentences	2.87	Sometimes
9 Write paragraphs using several new words	3.17	Sometimes
10 Study the spelling of a word	3.00	Sometimes
11 Study the sound of a word	2.90	Sometimes
12 Say the new words aloud when I first meet them	3.08	Sometimes
13 Make a mental image of the word's form. (e.g., if the word is a noun, I make a mental image different from its verb form)	2.85	Sometimes
14 Remember the word using its part (e.g. im-, un-, -able, -ful, -ment, ex-)	3.21	Sometimes
15 Remember the word using its word form (e.g., verb, noun, adjective)	2.70	Sometimes
16 Make my own definition for the word	2.97	Sometimes
GWA	2.94	Sometimes

Regarding retrieval and recall strategies, respondents top three strategies include structural analysis (remembering the word using its parts, mean = 3.21), encoding (write a paragraph using several new words, mean = 3.17), and grouping of words (group words together to study them), mean = 3.15. The complete results are shown in Table 6.

Hamada & Park (2011) termed morphological analysis, the most preferred strategy, as a local strategy. With strategies based on local cues, learners do not necessarily have to apply their understanding of the text in meaning-inference. Furthermore, according to Nassaji (2004, as

cited in Hamada et al. 2011), general findings suggested that local strategies are more easily used by learners, presumably since local strategies do not require a global understanding of the text the word is situated.

An encoding strategy, writing paragraphs using new words, is also used by respondents. Encoding strategies shift new information from short-term memory to long-term memory. According to Mombeini, Gorjoian & Pazhakh (2013), encoding relates new information to background information; this relationship helps learn new items meaningfully. Practicing new words create a meaningful connection of past and new material and help in the retention as new knowledge is associated with previous knowledge.

2.4. Cognitive Strategies

Table 7. Respondents' reported use of cognitive strategies

Cognitive Strategies	Mean	Verbal Interpretation
1 Repeat the words aloud many times	3.09	Sometimes
2 Write the words many times	2.92	Sometimes
3 Make lists of new words	2.90	Sometimes
4 Use flashcards to record new words	2.74	Sometimes
5 Take notes or highlight new words in class	3.39	Sometimes
6 Put English labels on physical objects	3.03	Sometimes
D7 Keep a vocabulary notebook	2.85	Sometimes
GWA	2.99	Sometimes

As seen in Table 7, three cognitive strategies have mean scores above three. In general, respondents indicated a preference for rote learning in the form of words. The most preferred strategy is note taking and highlighting (mean = 3.39); followed by repetition (mean = 3.09); and third, labelling physical objects (mean = 3.03).

In a similar study, Yeh & Wang (2004) investigated the vocabulary learning strategies of Taiwanese high school students. Their study revealed a preference for note-taking strategy and verbal repetition. Many experts believe that simple repetition may not be very effective for long-term vocabulary use as it does not involve the extensive elaboration of the word- meaning complex (Lawson & Huguen, 1996). However, Yu & Wang (2004) argued that verbal repetition is far superior to written repetition. They observed that written repetition only improves knowledge of written form but not word meaning. On the other hand, when saying the word aloud, it passes into long-term memory more efficiently. This argument may support O' Malley's et al. (1985) findings that many Asian students apply rote memorization strategy successfully in learning L2 vocabulary

2.5. Metacognitive Strategies

Table 8. Respondents' reported use of metacognitive strategies

Metacognitive Strategies	Mean	Verbal Interpretation
1 Use English-language media (songs, movies, the internet)	3.35	Sometimes
2 Test myself with word tests	3.13	Sometimes
3 Study new words many times	3.07	Sometimes
4 Skip or pass new words	3.22	Sometimes

5 Pay attention to English words when someone is speaking English	3.17	Sometimes
GWA	3.19	Sometimes

Looking at Table 8, using media technology is the most preferred metacognitive strategy (mean = 3.35), second is avoidance (mean = 3.22), and third is paying attention (mean = 3.17). In addition, among the five strategy types, metacognitive strategies got the highest general weighted mean (M=3.19) among the VLS categories. The results support the widely reported observation that metacognitive strategies tend to be among the most widely used language learning strategy types (Luo and Weil, 2014).

Technology is easily accessible and part of everyday life. Baron (2010) noted that improvement in technology creates a new form of literacy. Jacobs (2010) further explained that literacies are not limited to traditional texts, such as books, stories, and essays, and are now expanded to multimedia texts. Technology allows students to continuously connect and share and exchange ideas and information across time and space using a wide variety of modalities.

According to the study conducted by Jackson et al. (2006 cited in Gomathi, 2016), students who used the internet more got higher scores and grades. Gomathi (2016) remarked that the internet changes the interaction between learners" and teachers. There is less interaction between the teacher and the learner in this aspect, making learning more student-centered. Movies can be helpful while teaching vocabulary. Learners improve their vocabulary by viewing and listening to dialogues in the films. The advantages of using films in the language classroom are many. Films improve the ability to understand the spoken language in many different contexts. Learners unconsciously absorb language and sentence patterns when they view the films. They also get an awareness of the new culture and comprehend and learn new accents to improve their pronunciation.

Problem Number 3. Are there any preferences in the use of vocabulary learning strategies among respondents?

Table 9. Most frequently used VL strategies

VL Strategy	Mean	Strategy Type
1. Take notes or highlight new words in class	3.39	Cognitive
2. Use English-language media (songs, movies, the internet)	3.35	Metacognitive
3. Use an English dictionary	3.29	Determination
4. Ask my classmates for the meaning	3.26	Social
5. Skip or pass new words	3.22	Metacognitive
6. Remember the word using its part (e.g. im-, un-, -able, -ful, -ment, ex-)	3.21	Memory
7. Pay attention to English words when someone is speaking English	3.17	Metacognitive
8. Write paragraphs using several new words	3.17	Memory
9. Group words together to study them	3.15	Memory
10. Check if the word is also a Filipino word (e.g., Facebook)	3.15	Determination

Table 9 presents the ten most preferred VL strategies by respondents. The respondents' preferences are diverse as the list includes all strategy types, although there are more memory

and metacognitive strategies. The most preferred is a cognitive strategy, note-taking (mean = 3.39). Three metacognitive strategies are in the list: use of media technology (mean = 3.35), avoidance or skipping of words (mean = 3.32), and paying attention to speakers of English (mean = 3.17). Three memory strategies are among the top ten: morphological affixation recall (mean = 3.21), writing rehearsal (mean = 3.17), and word grouping (mean = 3.15). There are two determination strategies: the use of dictionary (mean = 3.29) and word borrowing (mean = 3.15). To complete the list is a social strategy – peer assistance (mean = 3.26)

The results indicated that students used different vocabulary learning strategies like Sarani and Shirzaei's study (2016) surveyed 150 undergraduate and postgraduate EFL students. Students use memory strategies to support their memory to improve encoding efficiency by associating between new and earlier information that already exists in the mind. On the other hand, metacognitive strategies manage, direct and control learning by thinking in a learning manner, planning, monitoring, and assessing learning (Rahimi and Katal, 2012). Metacognition is a kind of cognition, and it is about a high-level thinking process involving conscious control over the learning process.

Table 10. Least frequently used VL strategies

VL Strategy	Mean	Strategy Type
1. Use any pictures or gestures (body language) to help me guess the meaning	2.66	Determination
2. Remember the word using its word form (e.g., verb, noun, adjective)	2.70	Memory
3 Remember the words that follow or precede the new word	2.78	Memory
4. Make a mental image (imaginary image) of the word's meaning	2.81	Memory
5. Look for any word parts that I know (e.g., impossible, possible, possibility, possibly, etc.	2.81	Determination
6 Remember the words in scales (always, often, sometimes, never). If it is used more, I spend more time to remember it	2.83	Memory
7. Make a mental image of the word's form. (e.g., if the word is a noun, I make a mental image different from its verb form	2.85	Memory
8. Keep a vocabulary notebook	2.85	Cognitive
9. Connect the word to other words with similar or opposite meanings	2.87	Memory
10 Use new words in sentences	2.87	Memory

Upon ranking, the strategies listed in Table 10 were the least used. Seven memory strategies, one cognitive, and two determination strategies are on the list. The three least used are: guessing the meaning of words through pictures or gestures (mean = 2.66), using word form to remember the word (mean = 2.70), and remembering the word the precede or follow the new word (2.78).

Charade is a popular parlor game where players are given the word and gestures to get teammates to guess the word. This strategy was least used as students might think it is inappropriate as they will create noise and disturbance in highly structured language classrooms.

Traditionally called mnemonics, memory strategies, as pointed by Sozler (2012), are effective in vocabulary learning. These strategies include acronyms, keywords, images, and gestures, among others, to remember and retrieve new information.

Table 11. Frequency use of VL strategy types

Strategy Type	Mean	Frequency of Use
1. Metacognitive Strategies	3.19	Sometimes
2. Social strategies	3.05	Sometimes
3. Determination strategies	3.01	Sometimes
4. Cognitive strategies	2.99	Sometimes
5. Memory strategies	2.94	Sometimes

In summary, respondents reported the highest frequency used for metacognitive strategies with a mean of 3.19; second is social strategies with a mean of 3.05, and determination strategies come at third with a mean of 3.01. Although only one social strategy made it to the top ten most used strategies, on the average social strategies, are more preferred than memory strategies which three of the type are included in the top ten. Memory strategies are the least frequently used strategy type with a mean of 2.94. The list is presented in Table 11.

Bacerra et al. (2015) argued that metacognitive strategies allow students to learn how to organize their activities and become more familiar with their differences, facilitating and increasing student awareness regarding the use of metacognitive strategies. A study carried out by Wang, Spencer, and Xing (2009) on metacognitive beliefs and strategies in learning Chinese as a foreign language concluded that facilitating strong metacognitive beliefs and strategies empowers second language learners to facilitate better and more effective learning.

The importance of social strategies was confirmed by Park (2008) in his study of the relationship between LLS and L2 proficiency among 332 university students learning English in Korea. Among others, his findings provided evidence that social strategies are essential to facilitate L2 acquisition. The possible reason for the preference for social strategies is that respondents know how to use group strategies and are used in classroom group activities.

Problem Number 3: Is there a significant difference in use of vocabulary strategies when grouped according to types?

Table 12. Results on One-way Analysis of Variance

Source	SS	df	MS	F = 2.2527
Between treatments	0.2518	4	0.063	
Within Treatments	0.9782	3.5	0.0279	
Total	1.23	3.9		

Table 12 shows the results of one-way ANOVA, calculating the difference among reported VL strategy use among respondents. The f-ratio value is 2.2527 and p-value is .083186, the result is not significant at $p < .05$. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted. There is no significant difference between VLS use and choice when grouped according to types.

The result indicates that respondents do not have a strong preference among the VLS types. It seems that respondents employ different types of VLS and are rather selective in using effective strategies to achieve specific learning objectives.

Problem # 4: Is there a significant relationship between English language vocabulary learning beliefs and vocabulary learning strategies reported by college freshmen?

	VL beliefs	VLS use
VL BELIEFS Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.3863
Sig, (two-tailed)	254	0.1447
N	254	254
VL USE Pearson Correlation	0.3863	1.000
Sig, (two-tailed)	0.1447	
N	254	254

The study then analyzed the relationship between vocabulary learning beliefs and VLS use and choice among the respondents. Results of the Pearson correlation indicated a weak positive correlation between language learning beliefs and VLS use and choice, $r=0.3863$, $p < 0.05$. Hence the null hypothesis is accepted: there is no significant relationship between vocabulary learning beliefs and VLS use and choice.

The result contradicts Vasu et al. (2005) and Wei's (2007) findings in separate studies that a strong correlation between attitudes of ESL learners to learning vocabulary as they admitted the importance of vocabulary to understand a text. The weak correlation suggests that respondents' VLS choice and use may be due to a combination of predictors, i.e., vocabulary size, gender, proficiency level, age, etc.

Discussion

Although the general results report positive vocabulary learning beliefs and attitudes, there is still a need for improvement. The results obtained from this study are similar to the study of Oroujlon & Vahadi (2011), clarifying the role of motivation and attitude in raising overall language proficiency. Having a positive attitude toward the target language (L2) is an essential contributor to the success of L2 language learning. A positive attitude will motivate students, increasing the number of comprehensible language inputs they receive. A positive attitude often leads students to use various vocabulary strategies to facilitate lexical knowledge and overall language proficiency.

Furthermore, students should appreciate the need to integrate culture into vocabulary learning. Byram and Morgan (1994, cited in Marmol, 2015) remarked that cultural learning is integral to language learning. According to Galisson (1998, cited in Marmol 2105), lexiculture holds the complex relationship between culture and language. Learning a new foreign word necessitates the transfer of the conceptual image of the word from L1. Usually, the concept behind the L1 and the L2 equivalents is not the same in both languages. Suppose learners want to have an accurate concept of what the foreign word means for L1 speakers. In that case, they should not confine themselves to translating that word but integrate it into the L2 cultural environment. Also, language-culture integration creates an authentic learning context that contributes to a better and new comprehensive learning process.

As pointed by Hismanoglu (2000), language learners use language-learning strategies in the learning process. In this light, Hardan (2013) concluded that good language learners use

a variety of language strategies. In this regard, respondents seem to have moderate utilization of VLS attributable to a myriad of factors. One factor could be the level of awareness to several LLS.

Finally, future researches on VLS can be conducted on different areas and concerns. Nyikos and Fan (2007) observed that not enough VL research has been conducted on learners' learning preferences and their characteristics, proficiency level, learning environment, nature of tasks and materials studied, the effectiveness of VL strategy instruction, and development of methodological models.

At this juncture, the limitations of this study need to be clarified. First, the study did not investigate many of the intervening factors that affect LLS choice and use. The study did not correlate respondents' demographic profiles, as done in previous researches. Several studies have already indicated correlations of different magnitudes between language learning strategy use and choice and gender, age, language proficiency, learning environment, and other factors stated in the review of related literature. A more refined LLS use and choice environment can be created once these other factors are investigated.

Second, the study was conducted in the place of work of the researchers. Data collection from other tertiary institutions could have affected the results; as such, the researcher is cautious in generalizing the findings. Nevertheless, the results correlate with most findings in previous similar research projects.

Pedagogical Implications

The consciousness of LLS among students should be part of instruction for them to become better second language learners. Appropriate LLS enables students to take responsibility for their learning by improving autonomy, independence, and self-direction (Oxford and Nyikos 1989 and Lee 2003). Learning strategies need to be internalized so that they can be utilized in different learning situations. This can be done through explicit LLS training. Nyikos and Fan (2007) suggest that the integration of VLS instruction is an essential pedagogical component of any language course.

Teachers should think of ways to provide less successful learners with vocabulary learning strategies. Primary to this is cognition of the strategies their students use, and strategies learners lack. Introducing new strategies to the students' VLS repertoires can have benefits. ESL learners can practice new vocabulary learning strategies ranging from decontextualized and mechanical strategies to contextualized ones. Learners can better deal with any unknown vocabulary they may encounter both in and out of class context.

Proficient ESL learners have richer strategy repertoires which allow them to employ better strategies. On the other, less proficient learners limited strategies use. Hence, learners' strategy use may vary based on which strategies they consider more helpful and apply more frequently. Thus, teachers may first need to appraise learners' beliefs regarding VLS and help them gradually realize the value of other types of strategies.

To sum up, learning new vocabulary is a challenge to second language students, but they can overcome it by accessing various vocabulary learning strategies. Teachers can train learners in strategies they lack. To this end, teachers should consider the learners' willingness and readiness to receive training and think of the most appropriate way to introduce the strategies.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this paper has presented some findings on various areas of vocabulary learning strategy. These findings reveal the importance of exposing learners to various methods. The

concept of good learners is evident that those learners who can employ various strategies are more successful in acquiring vocabulary than those who use fewer strategies. Language teachers need to make learners conscious of the need to develop an independent and structured approach to language learning, which is mainly associated with vocabulary learning success.

Vocabulary learning is essential to second language learning for learners to successfully perform both production and comprehension activities. ESL teachers may improve learners' use of various vocabulary learning strategies for them to be more independent with L2 learning.

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Technology Integration in Teaching Language Subjects by Primary Education Teachers

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Abstract

The use of modern technology, such as mobile devices, has become a pivotal part of the learning and teaching languages. Every class usually uses some form of technology to deliver lessons in a modernized way because it has been used to both help and improve language learning. Technology integration should be applied in all education levels not only in tertiary and secondary but also in primary education. This study aims to determine the technology integration and practices among elementary teachers in teaching language courses, specifically English language in elementary schools. It also determines the practices of teachers in a developing country where internet connectivity is an issue. The respondents for this research were the primary or elementary teachers in the Grade 4 to 6. The questionnaire was randomly distributed to the respondents who qualify based on the given criteria. The results of this study show that technology-based teaching is more effective compared to the traditional classroom in primary education and in teaching language subjects. Elementary teachers teaching language utilize and integrate ICT in teaching and learning despite challenges such as neutral support from the administrators and a mild access related problem that could hinder the teachers from fully utilized ICT resources.

Keywords: English language, technology use, elementary teachers

Introduction and Background of the Study

In most institutions, technological tools are essential in teaching and learning. Teachers in the 21st century adapt new technological innovations in order not to be left behind. In doing the examination, paper works, computing the scores of the students, making instructional materials or visual aids in teaching, teachers normally used technological productivity tools, such as spreadsheets, databases, presentations, image editing, and others. Technological competencies create mobility. Educators can work anytime and anywhere with the use of technology, and technological tools save time (Pobre, 2019). Some schools using the latest technology have their own website to turn in the grades of their students (De Guzman et al., 2018). The parents will just check the grades of their children on the website or the portal that includes all the information about the students through their own password in their accounts. In this era of computer generation and Education 4.0, technological tools are very important because it has a lot of good effects on teachers and students. But those technological advancements would be useless if the teachers are not competent in the operation of computers. Technology integration in teaching and learning could help teachers to practice their competencies that continuously lead to technological advancement in teaching and learning.

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Technology plays a great role in teaching and learning, and this has been visible as technology increases. The use of modern technology such as mobile devices and computers has become an important part of the learning and teaching languages specifically the English language. The technology aims to increase the English proficiency and performance of students by integrating technology in teaching language subjects since there is an impact of English language courses and English proficiency on academic performance (Orlanda-Ventayen, 2019), higher proficiency can also help the students in theme writing and research skills (Queroda, 2018) as some researchers problems are poorly written or need to be reviewed by a native English speaker (Cocal & De Vera, 2018). Every class usually uses some form of technology to deliver lessons in a modern way that improves language learning. In the Philippines, where internet connectivity is still an issue (Marcelo, 2018), teachers encountered different problems such as the use of cloud computing and other technological tools that need connectivity. Despite the connectivity issue in some areas, technology integration should be applied in all education levels not only in tertiary and secondary but also in primary education.

The main objective of this study is to determine the technology integration and practices among elementary teachers in teaching language courses, specifically English, in public schools. Specifically, to know the profile of the teachers, the level of agreement on Teachers' Perception of ICT Integration in Teaching, the level of Agreement of Teachers on Effectiveness of ICT integration for Student's Learning and the level of Agreement of Teachers on Effective Elements in ICT Integration in Teaching and learning in Public Schools. Lastly, a significant relationship between the profile of the respondents and the level of Agreement of Teachers on Effectiveness of ICT integration for Student's Learning and the level of Agreement of Teachers on Effective Elements in ICT Integration in Teaching and learning in Public Schools was statistically computed.

Several tools are used to improve teaching and learning which include grammar checkers, plagiarism checker and others (Rolfe, 2011; Ventayen & Orlanda-Ventayen, 2018). Some Filipino teachers also utilized games in teaching with the help of technology to encourage learning (Apas & Ventayen, 2019; Nguyen Huyen, 2003), and home support programs require technology in order to be implemented (Plowman et al., 2012; Suiza et al., 2019). It is also suggested that teachers should become knowledgeable about different technological tools used in teaching (Ventayen, 2019). Aside from pedagogical, collaborative and creative aspects, several studies also highlight the importance of technological competencies, that teachers' technological competence was positively related to their innovative teaching performance as a 21st-century educator (Nousiainen et al., 2018; Pineida, 2011; Zhu et al., 2013). Since the trend is Education 4.0, educators should be equipped with knowledge that is needed to become a better teacher.

Previous studies about technological competencies focus more on higher education such as secondary and tertiary education. There is a need to conduct this study because primary teachers are the foundation of education and technological competencies are also equally important across all levels (Güneş et al., 2010; Nousiainen et al., 2018; Zhu et al., 2013). The scope of this study focuses on the primary school teachers of Grade 4 to 6 teaching language subjects, which are needed to be assessed in order to determine if there is a need for possible improvement.

Methodology

The research design of this study is descriptive. It gathers information based on the adopted survey questionnaire (Ghavifekr & Rosdy, 2015) and follows up interviews from the respondents as part of the triangulation process. The questionnaire was distributed to the

respondents who are teaching at an elementary level, specifically Grade 4 to 6, regardless of gender, teaching experience as well as years of teaching experience.

Sources of Data

The selected graduate students enrolled in the Open University Systems of the Pangasinan State University SY 2019-2020 are the primary respondents of this study who are teaching at the elementary level. Respondents were filtered based on the qualifications that the teacher is teaching at the elementary level from Grade 4 to Grade 6 and who are teaching language subjects in Grade 5 and 6. Each of the graduate students received an invitation to answer the online survey through Google forms.

Treatment of Data

Several statistical treatments were used, such as the frequency for the profile and frequency percentage on the part of the agreement. The average mean was also computed in the objective to determine the level of agreement. Lastly, to determine the significant relationship across the profile variable, Spearman-rho correlation was used.

Results and Discussion

The main objective of the study is to determine the technology integration and practices among elementary teachers in teaching language courses, specifically English, in public schools.

Profile of Respondents

Table 6 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Teachers in terms of Sex

Sex	Frequency	Percentage
Male	35	33
Female	71	67
TOTAL	106	100

The table shown above represents the frequency and percentage distribution of teachers in terms of sex. Most of respondents are female, with a respondent population of 71 participants out of 106 respondents which is equivalent to 67% out of 100 % of total respondents. While the male respondents are 35 participants which is equivalent to 33% out of 100 percent of the total number of respondents.

Table 7 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Teachers in terms of Length of Years of Teaching Experience

Length of Years of Teaching Experience	Frequency	Percentage
Less than a year	6	5.7
1-3 years	30	28.3
4-6 years	28	26.4
7 to 9 years	13	12.3
10 years above	29	27.4
TOTAL	106	100

Table 2 represents the data gathered based on the frequency and percentage distribution of teachers in terms of length of years of teaching experience. The categories were *less than a*

year with 6 respondents or equivalent to 5.7%, 1-3 years with 30 respondent equivalent to 28.3%, 4-6 years with 28 respondents equivalent to 26.4%, 7-9 years with 13 respondents equivalent to 12.3%, and 10 years above with 29 respondents equivalent to 27.4% with the total of 106 respondents.

Table 8 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Teachers in terms of School Level

School Level	Frequency	Percentage
Grade 4	53	50
Grade 5	37	34.9
Grade 6	16	6.6
TOTAL	106	100

This table represents the data gathered according to the frequency and percentage distribution of teachers in terms of the school level or students they are handling. There are 53 Grade 4 teachers, out of 106 total number of respondents that is equivalent to a half percent of the total percentage of the respondents. Followed by Grade 5 teachers with the frequency number of 37 respondents out of a total number of respondents and that is equivalent to 34.9 of the total percentage of the data gathered.

Table 9 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Teachers in terms of School Type

School Type	Frequency	Percentage
Public	80	75.5
Private	26	24.5
TOTAL	106	100

Table 5 represents the frequency and percentage distribution of teachers in terms of school type. There is two school type shown in the table: private schools and public schools. 75.5 percent of respondents are public school teachers, equivalent to 80 respondents out of 106 total number of respondents. The rest of the remaining number of respondents fall on to private school teachers which has a number of 26 respondents that is equivalent to 24.5 percent of the total percentage of respondents.

Table 10 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Teachers in terms of School Location

School Location	Frequency	Percentage
Philippines	93	87.7
Thailand	9	8.5
Others	4	3.8
TOTAL	106	100

The frequency and percentage distribution of teachers in terms of school location can be found in Table 6. It shows the data about how many respondents and how many percent does each category has. The places are the Philippines and Thailand included the other section. The data show that 87.7 percent of respondents are from the Philippines with the total frequency is 93 out of a total of 106 respondents. The respondents who work in Thailand have a number of 9 out of 106 total number of respondents that is equivalent to 8.5 percent out of the total

percentage of the gathered data. The 3.8 percent remaining from the gathered data goes to other section, which is equivalent to 4 respondents out of 106 total number of respondents.

Table 11 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Employees in terms of Preference for Teaching Style

Preference of Teaching Style	Frequency	Percentage
Conventional/Traditional	10	9.4
Modern/Contemporary (Used of ICT)	96	90.6
TOTAL	106	100

Table 6 represents the frequency and percentage distribution of teachers in terms of preference of teaching style. It was categorized into two teaching styles: The Conventional/Traditional way of teaching and the Modern/Contemporary that uses ICT as a way of teaching. 10 out of 106 total respondents still use the Conventional/traditional style of teaching that is equivalent to 9.4 percent of the total percentage of the data gathered. Due to the continuous development of technology, there is no wonder if a lot of respondents choose to perform the Modern/Contemporary style of teaching. It gathered 90.6 percent of the total percentage of data that has 96 respondents that agreed to use the Modern/contemporary style of teaching.

Table 12 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Employees in terms of Highest Academic Qualification

Highest Academic Qualification	Frequency	Percentage
Doctorate Degree	4	3.8
Master's Degree/Doctoral Units	41	38.7
Bachelor's degree/Master's Units	61	57.5
TOTAL	106	100

The table consists of the data of frequency and percentage distribution of employees in terms of highest academic qualification. The table shows the highest academic qualification of a teacher which is the Doctoral Degree, Master's Degree/Doctoral Units and Bachelor's Degree/Master's Units. Teachers with Doctoral have a number of 4 that out of 106 respondents and equivalent to 3.8 percent of the total percentage. 41 out of 106 total respondents reach the qualification of Master's degree which is equivalent to 38.7 percent of total data gathered. The teacher who has attained the bachelor's degree/Master Unit has 57.5 percent that is composed of 61 respondents.

Table 13 Frequency and Percentage Distribution of Employees in terms of Ability of Handling ICT in Teaching

The ability of Handling ICT in Teaching	Frequency	Percentage
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Low	3	2.8
Medium	73	68.9
High	30	28.3
TOTAL	106	100

This table shows the capabilities of teachers when it comes to the Ability to handle ICT in Teaching. It measured the frequency and percentage distribution of employees in terms of the ability to handling ICT in teaching. To measure, the researcher categorized the ability of teachers using technology in low, medium and high. 3 of the respondents said that they had a low ability using ICT in teaching that is equivalent to 2.8 percent of the total percentage of the gathered data. The teachers that have a medium capability of applying ICT in class are 73 in total that has equivalent of 68.9 percent of the gathered data. 30 out of 106 respondents claimed that they had high capabilities in performing ICT in teaching that is equivalent to 28.3 percent of the total percentage of data.

Level of Agreement on Teachers' Perception of ICT Integration in Teaching

Table 10 represents the Level of Agreement on Teachers' Perception of ICT Integration in Teaching. It consists of a different perspective that the respondents will answer by Strongly Disagree, Disagree, Neutral, Agree and Strongly Agree. The data already calculated the mean so that it can easily gather the descriptive equivalent of the data. The first indicator gathered a 4.13 mean which had the result of agreeing as descriptive equivalent. The second indicator that talks about it are much easier to teach using ICT, gathered a mean of 4.05 that has the same result as the first one. By the mean of 4.15, the third indicator had a result of Agree. Having an Agree as a result of descriptive equivalent, the fourth indicator had a mean of 4.12. The fifth indicator that talks about how ICT helps the teacher to improve teaching with more updated materials gathered a mean of 4.17, which had a result of Agree as a descriptive equivalent. The 6th indicator gathered a mean of 4.16 had the same result as the previous one. The next indicator gathered a 4.17 as mean and had the same result as the previous one. The 8th indicator that talks about the capability of a student when ICT is used had 4.14 as a mean and a result of Agree as a descriptive equivalent. In the ninth indicator, there is a result of Agree as a descriptive equivalent and a mean of 3.88. The 10th indicator had a mean of 3.58 and a descriptive average of Agree.

The negative indicators resulted in a Disagree as a descriptive equivalent because of having a mean of 1.88, 2.40, 2.13, 2.13 And 2.18.

The result of the weighted mean is 4.06 for the positive indicators which resulted in agreeing as described equivalent and 2.14 for negative indicators which resulted in disagreeing as descriptive equivalent.

Table 14 Level of Agreement on Teachers' Perception of ICT Integration in Teaching

Indicators on Teacher's perception of ICT integration in teaching	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
I feel confident learning new computer skills	4.13	Agree
I find it easier to teach by using ICT	4.05	Agree
I am aware of the great opportunities that ICT offers for effective teaching.	4.15	Agree

I think that ICT supported teaching makes learning more effective.	4.12	Agree
The use of ICT helps teachers to improve teaching with more updated materials.	4.17	Agree
I think the use of ICT improves the quality of teaching.	4.16	Agree
I think the use of ICT helps to prepare teaching resources and materials.	4.17	Agree
The use of ICT enables the students' to be more active and engaging in the lesson.	4.14	Agree
I have more time to cater to students' needs if ICT is used in teaching.	3.88	Agree
I can still have effective teaching without the use of ICT.	3.58	Agree
<i>I think the use of ICT in teaching is a waste of time.</i>	1.88	Disagree
<i>I am confident that my students learn best without the help of ICT.</i>	2.40	Disagree
<i>Classroom management is out of control if ICT is used in teaching.</i>	2.13	Disagree
<i>Students pay less attention when ICT is used in teaching.</i>	2.13	Disagree
<i>Students make no effort for their lesson if ICT is used in teaching.</i>	2.18	Disagree
Weighted Mean (Positive Statements)	4.06	Agree
Weighted Mean (Negative Statements)	2.14	Disagree

The result of the study shows that elementary teachers teaching language subjects integrates technology in teaching and learning. The result of this study agrees with several conducted studies that teachers integrate technology in learning and teaching. (Kim et al., 2013; Lorenzo, 2016; Whiting et al., 2017). Frameworks and models also suggested that technology should be included in order to achieve the proper delivery of eLearning related education (Mishra & Koehler, 2006; Ventayen & Orlanda-Ventayen, 2019). Also, teachers disagree that technology doesn't help the teaching and learning process. The result shows a positive perspective of educators in ICT integration.

Table 10 was about the Level of Agreement of Teachers on Effectiveness of ICT integration for Student's Learning. It was composed of 11 indicators that are all about the effectiveness of ICT integration for students learning. All indicators resulted in Agree as a descriptive equivalent and have a mean of 3.78 as lowest and 4.15 as highest. The weighted mean resulted in 3.95 which means it has a descriptive equivalent of Agree.

Table 15 Level of Agreement of Teachers on Effectiveness of ICT integration for Student's Learning

Indicators on the Effectiveness of ICT integration for Student's Learning	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
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ICT allows students' to be more creative and imaginative	4.01	Agree
The use of ICT helps students to find related knowledge and information for learning.	4.10	Agree
The use of ICT encourages students to communicate more with their classmates	3.97	Agree
The use of ICT increases students' confidence to participate actively in the class.	3.93	Agree
I think students learn more effectively with the use of ICT.	3.94	Agree
I think the use of ICT helps to broaden students' knowledge paradigm.	4.03	Agree
I think the use of ICT helps to improve students' ability specifically in reading, writing	3.81	Agree
The students' are more behaved and under control with the use of ICT.	3.78	Agree
The use of ICT enables students' to express their ideas and thoughts better.	3.83	Agree
The use of ICT promotes active and engaging lessons for students' best learning experiences.	4.07	Agree
Weighted Mean	3.95	Agree

In table 12 are the data gathered for the level of agreement of teachers on effective elements in ICT integration in teaching and learning in public schools. It is composed of 10 indicators discussing the effective elements in ICT integration in teaching and learning in public schools. There are tables for mean and descriptive equivalent. It has resulted that 5 out of 10 indicators have resulted in Agree as a descriptive equivalent that has a mean of 3.51, 3.43, 3.43, 3.59, and 3.86. 4 out of 10 indicators resulted in Neutral and has a mean of 3.24, 2.76, 2.71 and 3.31. The remaining data resulted in disagreeing with having a 2.33 mean.

Overall, the table has a weighted mean of 3.52 for positive statements and resulted in Agree as descriptive equivalent and 2.76 or Neutral for negative statements.

Table 16 Level of Agreement of Teachers on Effective Elements in ICT Integration in Teaching and learning

Indicators on Using Testimonials for Marketing	Mean	Descriptive Equivalent
The ICT facilities in my school are well-functioning and can be used	3.51	Agree
The technical supports are provided if teachers are faced with difficulties	3.43	Agree
Little access to ICT prevents me from using it in teaching.	3.24	Neutral

<i>Lack of supports from the school top management discourages me from using ICT.</i>	2.76	Neutral
<i>Teaching time is not enough for me to use ICT for teaching and learning purposes.</i>	2.71	Neutral
There are enough training and professional development provided for teachers about ICT use in teaching.	3.31	Neutral
<i>All ICT tools in my school go to waste and less used by teachers.</i>	2.33	Disagree
Teachers are given more time to learn and be comfortable with the use of ICT in teaching.	3.43	Agree
There is a computer lab in my school in which I can bring students there to watch educational videos	3.59	Agree
Teachers' are given the freedom to design their own teaching with the help from the ICT	3.86	Agree
Weighted Mean (Positive)	3.52	Agree
Weighted Mean (Negative Statements)	2.76	Neutral

The result of the study shows that facilities are not the main concern in most schools. Access to several ICT tools should be improved by providing support from the administrators or schools head. ICT Readiness is important to measure how the institution can provide support to the educators (Contreras & Hilles, 2015), training related to ICT should always be available in order for the educators to continuously improve their competencies (Güneş et al., 2010; Pineida, 2011; Zhu et al., 2013).

Table 12 shows the significant relationship between the level of agreement of teachers on ICT integration in teaching and their profile variables. It used the Chi-square statistic to measure the difference between the observed counts and the counts that would be expected if there were no relationship between two categorical variables. The profile variables are categorized in Sex, Teaching Experience, Grade Level, School Type, School Location, Preference of Teaching Style, the Highest Academic Qualification, and The Ability of Handling ICT in Teaching of the respondents. In a category of Sex which has a chi-square value of 35.477 and a P-value of 0.493, that is interpreted as not significant. The chi-square value of 163.973 and a P-value of 0.122 that is interpreted as not significant are the data in the category of teaching experience. The category of Grade Level gathered a chi-square of 92.364 and a P-value of 0.859 that interpreted as not significant. The school type has a chi-square value of 39.976 and a P-value of 0.298, which is interpreted as not significant. The category of school location has a chi-square of 60.646 and a P-value of 0.828, which is interpreted as not significant. The category of Preference of Teaching Style has a chi-square value of 35.938 and a P-value of 0.472 that is interpreted as not significant. The only interpreted as significant in this table is in the category of Highest Academic Qualification having a chi-square value of 95.675 and a P-value of 0.033. The Ability of Handling ICT in Teaching has as a chi-square value of 84.705 and a P-value 0.145 and interpreted as not significant.

Table 17 Significant Relationship between Level of Agreement of Teachers on Effectiveness of ICT integration for Student's Learning and their Profile Variables

Profile Variables	Chi-Square Value	P-value	Interpretation
Sex	36.888	0.05	Not Significant
Teaching Experience	125.017	0.046	Significant
Grade Level	64.919	0.790	Not Significant
School Type	32.460	0.145	Not Significant
School Location	56.194	0.254	Not Significant
Preference of Teaching Style	40.910	0.023	Significant
Highest Academic Qualification	76.704	0.009	Significant
The Ability of Handling ICT in Teaching	44.632	0.688	Not Significant

Based on the result of the study, there is an influence or association of teaching experience, preference of teaching style, and highest academic qualification across the effectiveness of ICT integration for student's learning as the p-value is less than 0.05.

Conclusions, Pedagogical Implications and Recommendation

The results of this study show that technology-based teaching and learning are more effective compared to the traditional classroom even in primary education and in teaching language subjects. This is because using ICT tools and equipment will prepare an active learning environment that is more interesting and effective for both teachers and students. Elementary teachers teaching language utilized and integrate ICT in teaching and learning. Despite the fact that challenges such as neutral support from the administrators and a mild access related problem that could hinder the teachers from fully utilized ICT resources, teachers are creative and resourceful enough to cater to the needs of students.

The study's findings have several pedagogical implications to sustain the technological integration in teaching language subjects. Firstly, teachers must increase their knowledge in different technological tools in teaching. They need to develop an attitude that technology is vital in teaching. Secondly, teachers also need to supplement their knowledge with the latest trends in teaching with the aid of technology. Inside virtual classrooms, teachers are also suggested to maintain proper utilization of technological tools to avoid disruptions during online classes. Thirdly, there must also be support from the administration to encourage other teachers to adopt the changing environment in teaching.

It is recommended that a comparative study should be conducted in order to compare how elementary teachers utilized ICT resources compared to the other teachers in other levels of education.

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The Effectiveness of Online Learning during Covid-19: Challenges and Opportunities

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Abstract

This study aims to reveal the effectiveness of online learning during the covid 19 period at the Bukittinggi State Islamic Institute. Various problems occurred starting from the network, the learning system, the readiness of Human Resources, the boring learning design and the readiness of students to take part in online learning. Some of the obstacles that occur are unstable internet connections and network limitations, the media used are often troublesome, the readiness of human resources that have not been optimally adapted to the system, students who cannot follow optimally because of boredom and learning that makes students less focused. This research method uses a survey approach using a google form in the form of a semi-open questionnaire, while the research data analysis uses qualitative descriptive. The results showed that the respondents who filled out the most were the 2018 class. Furthermore, generally lecturers used online learning media using WAGroup, telegramgroup, google classroom, zoom, email and e-campus. While the form of learning in the network used is the form of learning can be in the form of assignments, face-to-face, online discussions and others. Online learning has used discussion forums and its implementation is in accordance with the schedule that has been prepared on the e-campus. However, from the research conducted, many obstacles were found including the limitations of internet quota, internet signal, supporting IT media and mastery of material controlled by students. From the research data, it is concluded that online learning at IAIN Bukittinggi has not been effective.

Keywords: Effectiveness, Online, Learning

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Introduction

Generally, starting in February 2020, the COVID-19 has become a pandemic in Indonesia. However, it is still limited to certain areas. This situation has become more widespread over time. In mid-March 2020, this virus had spread to all regions of Indonesia. Seeing the significant development, the government and the ministry made some policies. The Ministry of Religion issued Circular Letter Number 3 of 2020 and followed by Circular Letter issued by the Director-General number 657/3/2020 concerning the efforts to prevent COVID-19 in the Islamic Religious Higher Education Environment. Based on the Circular Letters, every university must provide online services to all students, including the learning process.

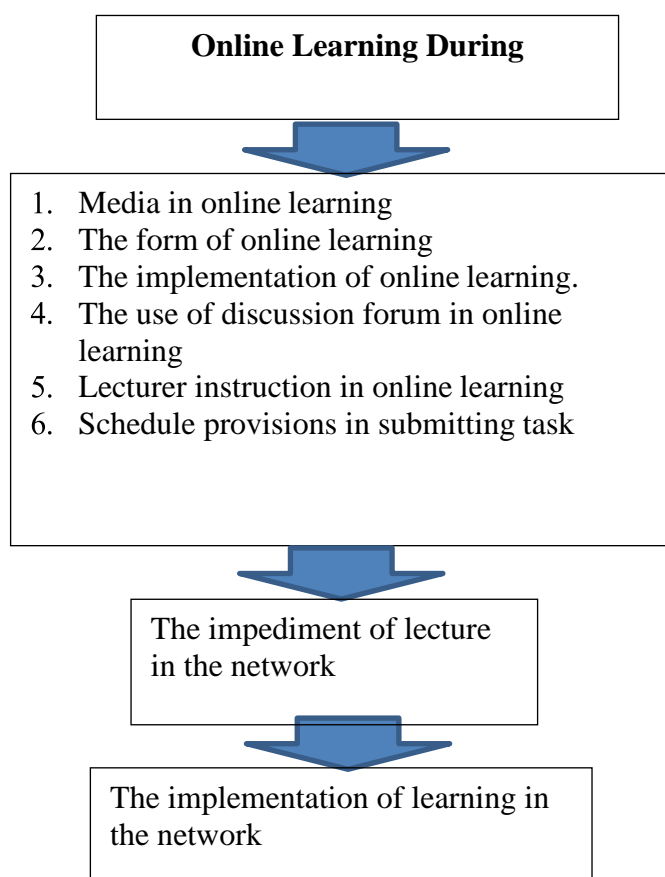
One of the institutions that had an impact on the circular letter was IAIN Bukittinggi. IAIN Bukittinggi later issued Circular Letter Number No. B.639 / In.26 / OT.01 / 03/2020 concerning the teaching and learning process during pandemic. The decision was to conduct the process of teaching and learning by using on-line learning system until June 6, 2020. With the issuance of the circular letter, the learning process in the even semester 2019/2020 was carried out in online learning setting.

There are several problems that occur during the online learning system. The problems include the limited internet quota, limited internet coverage in rural areas, unsupported facilities such as computers or laptops. The relatively short period of time and the amount of assignment given are also problems. Some students said that they didn't have enough time to finish the assignment given by some lecturers. Besides, due to limited internet networks in some areas, many students have difficulty accessing the internet, some of them even have to climb trees and hills to access an internet signal.

Due to the problems mentioned above, it is interesting to examine the effectiveness of online learning during the COVID-19 at IAIN Bukittinggi. IAIN Bukittinggi already equipped itself with Technology and Information facilities and is ready the 4.0 era (Zulfani Sesmiarni, Ridha Ahida, 2020; Alkhalidi, 2021). Technological developments must be able to be utilized and developed for mutual benefit. This technology is intended to make it easier for humans to interact with each other quickly, easily, and affordably and has the potential to encourage community development (Prihantoro, 2018; Benhima, Tilwani, Asif & Aslam, 2021).

Methodology

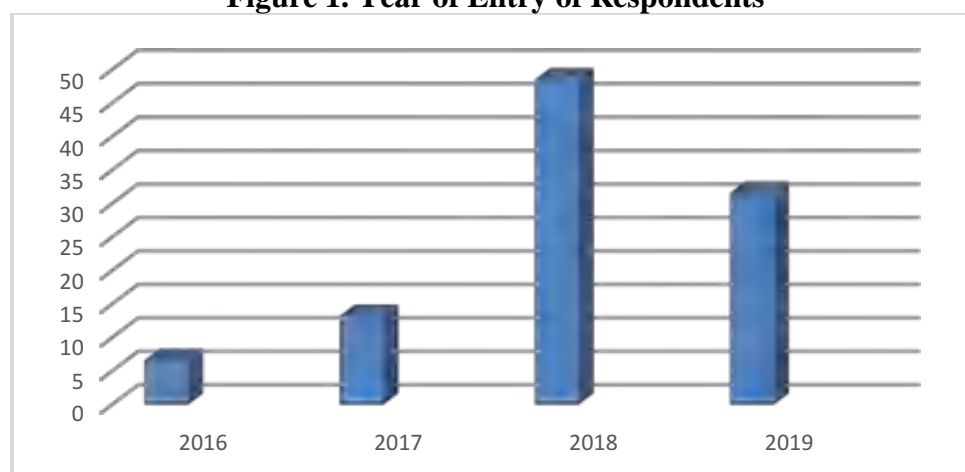
This study used a survey approach by describing it in quantitative form. The population was 3860 students, and the sample was 386 students of IAIN Bukittinggi. The researcher chose 10% of IAIN students by using accidental sampling that were accidentally accessible. The data collection technique used was a Google Form distributed via WhatsApp and E-mail. The data analysis was quantitative descriptive analysis.



Findings and Discussions

The results of the research related to the respondents indicated that 6.6% of respondents were students of the 2016 academic year, as many as 13.2% of respondents were students of 2017 academic year, 48.5% of respondents were students of 2018 academic year, then 31.6% were students of the 2019 academic year. In brief, the data can be described in the following chart:

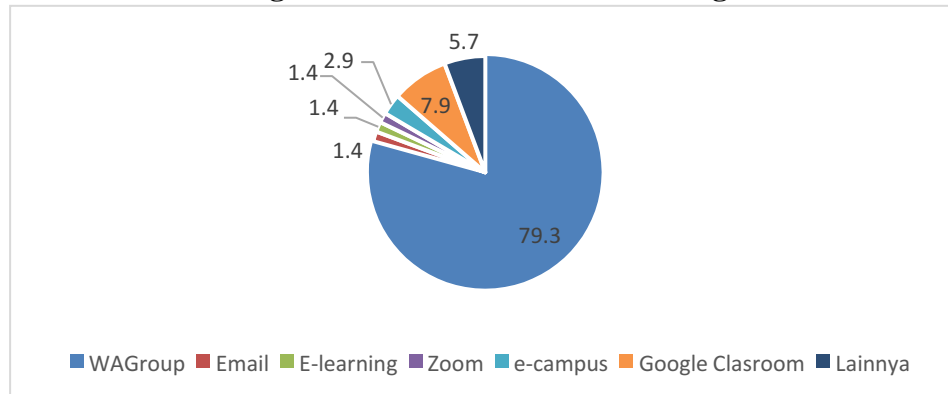
Figure 1. Year of Entry of Respondents



Based on the data above, the respondents who filled out the least amount of the questionnaires were students from 2016 academic years. Meanwhile, the number of respondents who filled out the most questionnaires were students from the 2018 academic year.

Furthermore, result of the research also indicated that that the media used in online learning consists of WhatsApp group, Telegram Group, E-mail, E-learning, Google Meet, Zoom, WebEx Meet, Google Classroom, E-campus, and other media. In short, media in online learning can be seen in figure 2 as follows.

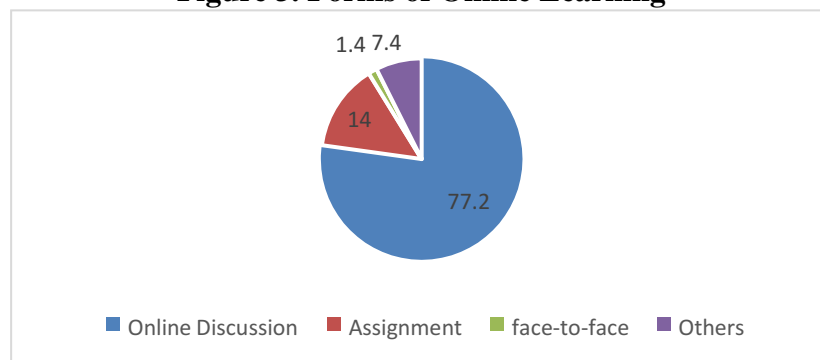
Figure 2. Media in Online Learning



Based on the figure above, WhatsApp Group is online learning media that is mostly used by lecturers, while E-mail, E-learning, Zoom, and E-campus is only used in small portion, and Google Classroom and the other media are used with a high enough percentage.

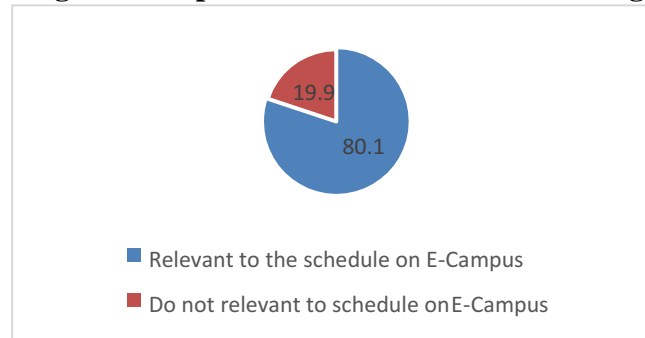
Next is the form of learning during online learning. Most of online learning is conducted by giving assignments, face-to-face in online setting, online discussions, and others. Then, the forms of online learning can be seen in figure 3 as follows.

Figure 3. Forms of Online Learning

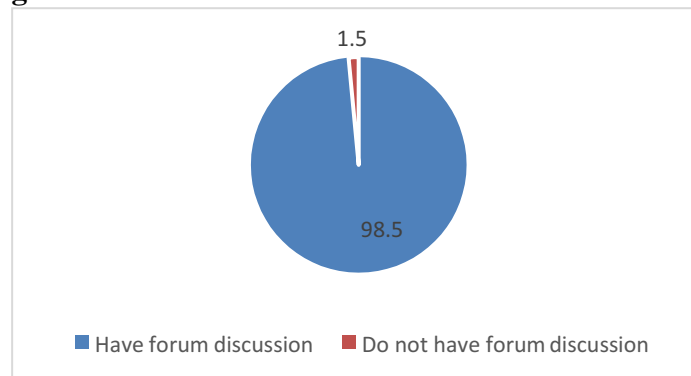


From the figure above, 77.2% of the online learning are conducted by using WhatsApp Group, 14% are conducted by giving assignment, 1.4% are conducted by using online face-to-face online and 7.4% with other forms.

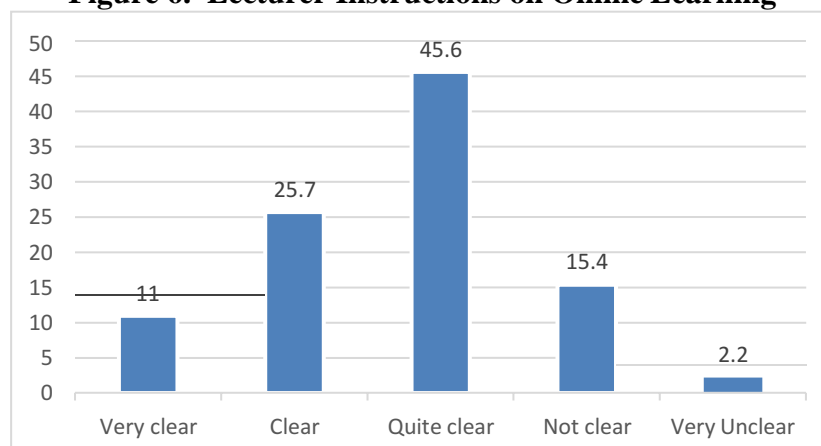
Next, information related to implementation of online learning. It is related to whether or not lecturers conduct the online class according to the schedule issued by campus. The data indicated that 80.1% of classes were conducted according to the schedule on E-campus while 19.9% were conducted not according to the schedule. Thus, the online learning implementation can be seen in figure 4 as follows.

Figure 4. Implementation of Online Learning

Next, the data related to the use of discussion forums. 98.5% of respondents answered that their lecturers used discussion form and 1.5% of respondents answered that discussion forums was not used by their lecturers. Then, the discussion forums in online learning can be seen in figure 5 as follows.

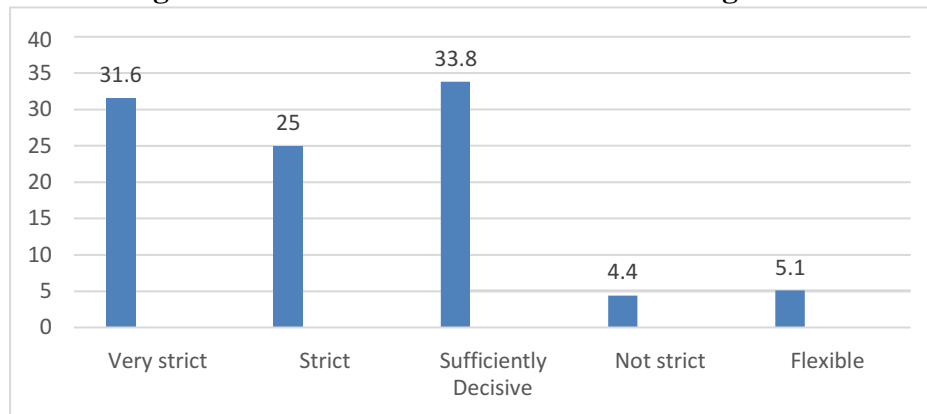
Figure 5. Use of Discussion Forums in Online Learning

The data related to instruction given by lecturers in online learning indicated that 2.2% of respondents answered very unclear and not detailed, 15.4% of respondents answered unclearly and not detailed, 45.6% was quite clear and detailed, 25.7% was clear and detailed, 11% of respondents answered instructions given by lecturers very clear and very detailed. Thus, lecturer instruction in online learning can be seen in the following figure 6.

Figure 6. Lecturer Instructions on Online Learning

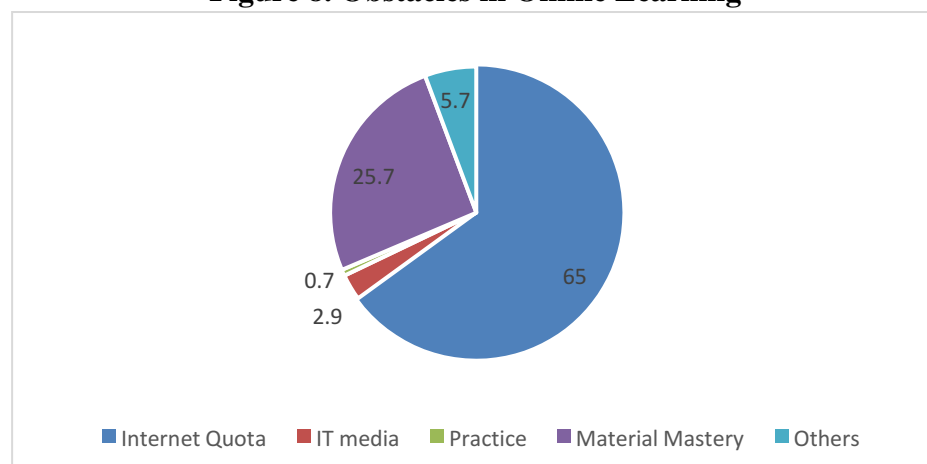
The information obtained is related to the schedule provisions for submitting tasks. 31.6% of respondents answered very firmly, 25% of students answered firmly, 33.8% of respondents answered firmly enough, 4.4% of respondents answered less firmly, and 5.1% of respondents answered flexible. Thus, schedule provisions for submitting tasks can be seen in figure 7 as follows.

Figure 7. Schedule Provisions for Submitting Tasks

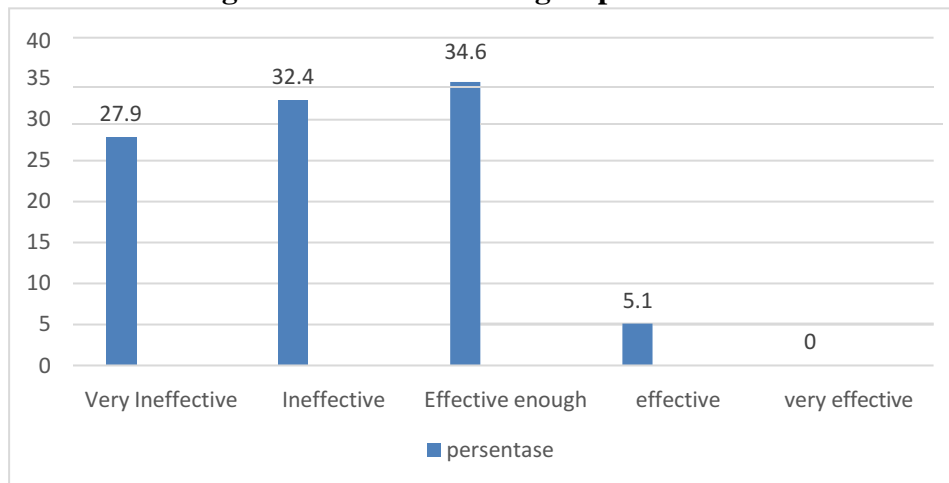


Information related to respondents' obstacles in online learning related to several things. 65.4% of students answered internet quota, 2.9% of respondents answered IT media, 25.7% of students answered mastery of the material, and 0.7% of students answered several practical courses, and 5.7% of respondents answered other factors. Thus, the obstacles in online learning can be seen in figure 8 as follows.

Figure 8. Obstacles in Online Learning



Generally, the implementation of online learning at IAIN, 27.9% of respondents answered very ineffectively, 32.4% of respondents stated ineffectively, 34.6% of respondents answered quite effectively, and 5.1% of respondents answered effectively. Furthermore, the implementation of online learning can be seen in the following figure 9.

Figure 9. Online Learning Implementation

Based on the research data, the online learning at IAIN Bukittinggi during the COVID-19 was ineffective. Several aspects include the media used, the learning form, the schedule, the assignments, and the students' ability contribute to the ineffectiveness of the learning process. It is in line with the idea that it is quite difficult to conduct online learning in most universities in Indonesia (Eko Kuntarto, 2017). This is due to the fact that both lecturers and students are not ready to learn by using other than face-to-face learning platform.

In online learning, the lecturers have to design online-based learning (Nasrulloh & Ismail, 2017). Thus, the easiest way to do it is by using WhatsApp Group. It was proven from the research results that lecturers and students were more familiar in using WhatsApp as an online communication tool. Online learning at IAIN Bukittinggi is generally carried out by using WhatsApp in their learning process. WhatsApp helps students and lecturers to distribute papers or materials. WhatsApp also enables students and lecturers to have group discussions. Therefore, it is possible to have interaction in online learning by using WhatsApp, thus, it easier to learn and it is more practical (Utomo, 2018).

In order to conduct an effective online learning, there are several things that must be taken into account. It includes whether or not the content presented is relevant to the specific learning objectives to be achieved, the use learning methods that provide examples and exercises to help learners learn, the use of media such as pictures and words to present content and methods, and the ability to develop and build new knowledge and skills by individual goals and organizational improvement (Punaji Setyosari, 1996).

ICT literacy, Independency and Creativity, as well as Critical Thinking also play important role in the effectiveness of online learning. ICT literacy is the ability of students to like reading. If students' reading skills are low, online learning is a thing of the past. Independence is the students' ability to learn independently because there are no lecturers who guide them face-to-face. Learning online can provide facilities for students to manage information independently according to their respective characteristics. Blended learning is one of the external stimuli that can help students understand the material. (Uliya Ulil Arham, 2016). The learning source for online learning is in immerse quantity in nature for the fact that students can access the internet for learning sources. Accessing learning source is also related to students' respective abilities and needs. The development of the internet and E-mail help students to transfer data in the form of text, images, and videos in a complex layer (Chen, 2016; Eko Kuntarto, 2017). With the availability of various learning resources on the internet, students can have higher thinking skills.

The finding indicated that WhatsApp was mostly used in online learning at IAIN Bukittinggi. Several features in WhatsApp help both lecturer and students in an online learning. As a matter of fact, there are several aspect on the effectiveness of online learning that need to be discussed. (Andreson, 2008) explained that there are several other things that should be put into consideration in conducting an online learning. It includes learner preparation, learner activities, learner interaction and learner transfer. Learner preparation is related to the condition that it is necessary to prepare varieties of pre-learning activities to prepare the learner for the online lesson. It also deals with the importance to establish the objective of the lessons and provide concept map to establish cognitive structures, incorporate details of the online lesson and to activate background knowledge. Learner activity is related to the necessities to provide a varieties of learning activities which includes reading textual material, listening to audio and visual material. Practice activities with feedback should also be provided to allow students to monitor their performance as well as ensuring the availability of high order level processing activities. Finally, learner interaction which deals with the possibilities in providing students with the opportunities to interact with lecturers, other students, and with the materials.

Based on factors that contribute to the effectiveness of an online learning situation, there are several problems that triggered problems in the implementation of online learning at IAIN Bukittinggi. Generally, lecturers already have discussion forums in their online learning. However, this cannot be implemented optimally in the learning process. It is consistent with the research result that online learning is not optimal because of limited socialization, content that is not interesting and meaningful, low reading interest, low student curiosity and motivation, and an unfavorable climate. The lecturers' responses are not optimal in preparing communicative and inspirational content because they are not used to using online learning technology (Rahmi Rivalina, 2017).

One of the obstacles that students find in online learning is the limited internet quota and internet signal. In getting the internet quota, students have to buy internet packages, while not all students come from well-to-do families. Therefore, they become overwhelmed in getting internet quota, while there are free ones, but it must be with e-campus. From the research results, only a minor portion of the lecturers used the e-campus application.

Besides, the spread of internet signals throughout Indonesia is not evenly accessible. There are some areas in the student residence area where the internet is not accessible. Therefore, many students have to walk for hours to get an internet signal and to study online. Besides, some have to climb tall tree. Meanwhile, an internet network is needed to obtain information. Only by being in front of a computer or cellphone connected to the internet, they can connect to the global virtual world to get and transfer information at one time (Harto, 2018).

In online learning, the availability of facilities and infrastructure must be considered. Online learning will not be able to be carried out without the supporting facilities. Among them are the media of information and information communication technology and facilitate human life. If you use information and communication technology tools, it will feel like two continents are not far apart. The presence of computers, the internet, cell phones, and various information and communication technology tools has made the flow of information smoother (Andriani, 2015).

Online learning can be used as a substitute or complement to conventional learning to improve the learning process through a reading culture, independent student learning, and stimulate students to learn lifelong or sustainable (Rahmi Rivalina, 2017). In the conditions found at IAIN Bukittinggi, the reading culture and student learning independence are still low. Lack of availability of reading sources reduces students' interest in searching, and the decreased reading power of textbooks raises other problems (Novrianti, Nofri Hendri, 2018).

Students have difficulty with technical problems, are less familiar with systems, and excessive discussion. Meanwhile, online learning is a structured and systematic learning system, prioritizing student activity and independent learning. Online learning can create their experiences. One of the advantages of online learning is that students can learn in a proper and comfortable learning atmosphere. Students determine all learning processes, starting from time, place, atmosphere, and others. They will learn independently. Technology in learning cannot be separated and there is a belief in them that technology can have a positive impact if it is applied appropriately (Putrawangsa & Hasanah, 2018)

Several internal and external factors will influence the success of online learning conducted by students. Internal factors that can influence are intelligence, high curiosity, motivation, personality, and others. Meanwhile, external factors that can affect online learning are the technology used, the environment, the speed of internet access, and others. In online learning, every student needs to create. Through online, it provides an interactive learning environment (Punaji Setyosari, 1996)

In online learning, the existence of a lecturer is as a controller for students. When students have created the attendance of a lecturer beside them, they can control their own learning pace. When the role of the lecturer does not exist, students will be lazy, so that the online learning does not run according to the schedule. Besides, online learning can also improve learning pace and reduce operational costs (Rahmi Rivalina, 2017). Among them is the existence of lecturers in the lecture process.

Online learning implemented at IAIN Bukittinggi is structured. First, the lecturer prepares the syllabus and RPS, subject matter, media, and learning resources. All of those activities are done in a well-prepares way. Besides, the learning material is arranged according to the level of ability. The easiest material will be learned at the beginning meeting and the complex material will be learned at the last meeting. Besides, the material considered as difficult will be given explanation and example. Online learning is effective if when there is a process of integrating ICT into the learning design to improve the learning process and experience for students (Uliya Ulil Arham, 2016)

Prioritizing student activeness in the learning process occurs as a result of the active process of students. This process is indispensable in conventional learning and online learning. Online learning is part of technology-based learning that utilizes the internet, intranet, and extranet resources (Suryati, 2019). Online learning requires active student activity. In this sophisticated era, and with the advancement of science and technology, there will be many things that used to activate students.

In online learning, technology can be used to activate students. It can facilitate and provide various things that can activate students. By using technology, teachers can design several activities that can make students active, both in actively thinking, actively socializing and other matters. Communication is a process of conveying information (messages and ideas) from one party to another so that there is a mutual influence between both sides (Andriani, 2015).

The connectedness of online learning is known as independent learning. Online learning still allows for meetings between students, but the difference is it is done in online setting. Online learning does not change the habits that occur in conventional learning such as friendships or interactions with teachers. One of the characteristics of online learning is connectivity. Online learning activities connect students and teachers, one student and another, connecting the teaching team or students with other teaching staff. Information technology is a technology used to process data, including processing, obtaining, compiling, storing, manipulating data in various ways to produce quality information, namely information that is

relevant and accurate (Wiranto, 2014). Learning skills are needed to take advantage of technological sophistication in online learning, including skills in time management (Sesmiarni, 2020). It is very essential because the implementation of online learning has been determined and agreed upon by the lecturers and students beforehand. Higher education adjustments in the use of digital media in the learning process are urgent (Setyaningsih, Abdullah, Prihantoro, & Hustinawaty, 2019). Online learning could be an alternative to improve the learning process. Lecturers could still hold the learning process through a virtual class, even though without a face to face meeting (Saugi, 2018).

Conclusion

Based on the research results, online learning at IAIN Bukittinggi during the COVID-19 is not effective yet. It also revealed that the lecturers generally used WhatsApp Group as an online learning platform. Furthermore, many obstacles were found in online learning at IAIN Bukittinggi, including internet quota, IT media, mastery of the material, practical courses, and other factors. In addition, from the schedule for submitting tasks, the lecturer was strict and did not give additional time for submitting tasks, while students face many obstacles so that they generally think that online learning is ineffective. It is also due to the unfamiliarity of ICT among lecturers and students in IAIN Bukittinggi.

In the future, it is hoped that there is a regulation that provides a sufficient percentage in a normal meeting to conduct online learning besides classical or conventional learning. It is necessary to conduct training for lecturers and students for online learning readiness. There is facility support from the institution to conduct online learning to all of IAIN Bukittinggi's academic community.

Conflict of Interest

The pedagogic implications of the findings of this research are paradigmatic. So it is necessary to prepare various elements in the online learning process. Students must have the readiness to follow and adapt to the online lecture system such as learning styles and the readiness of supporting facilities such as networks and the internet. Educators must reconstruct the learning design from approaches, strategies, models and learning methods that are appropriate to the needs of students. And understand well the needs and conditions of students. The learning system carried out must be in accordance with the material presented in order to increase learner participation. Development of content and learning media used in online learning in order to increase student learning motivation

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Grammar Translation Method versus Direct Method and its Effectiveness on Reading Comprehension among First year College Students in Sulu State College

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Abstract

This study aims to establish an effective method in teaching reading comprehension for innovative and academic purposes, this study was made utilizing experimental research design generally to find out the effectiveness of two language teaching methods on the reading comprehension of first year college students. Teaching the Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and Direct method (DM) was used in teaching reading comprehension using different reading materials. The teaching lasted for two-weeks. Both methods were started with pretest each and posttests were given after the teaching activities. T-test and One Way ANOVA was used in the statistical treatment of data. The study concluded that the pretest and posttest scores of the freshmen students using the two language teaching methods are indicators to determine the effectiveness of teaching. The gain score of the freshman students indicates that both teaching methods are effective in teaching reading comprehension. The significant differences between the posttest scores of the first year students are indicative of the dominance of effectiveness of the two teaching methods. Thus, Grammar Translation Method (GTM) is more effective to be used in teaching reading comprehension than the Direct method (DM) of teaching.

Keywords: Grammar Translation Method, Direct Method, Effectiveness, Reading Comprehension

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Introduction

Reading is one of the four macro skills taught in an English language classroom, which requires a response from the reader through summarizing the main facts based on what was read (Zintz&Maggart, 1986, in Blay et al., 2009). Thus, the ability to comprehend the international language which is English is very important for students or for everyone because it is the key to unlock the door to the growing world of technology, and for the people to live with understanding the world around him and explore with confidence. In the academe in turn, particularly in the Philippines wherein the graduates is required to earned licensed or illegibility before they will be employed or be given the chance to work in the government and be granted permanent status of job. Reading comprehension is imperative for them to answer the questions during their board examination. For this reason, teachers should make more efforts to teach students to comprehend texts with effective methodologies or teaching students manystrategies on reading comprehension.

In the past, reading in English as a foreign language was perceived as a passive process. It was conceived as a decoding process of reconstructing the author's intended meaning by means of recognizing the printed letters and words, and building up a meaning for a text from the smallest textual units at the bottom which are letters and words to larger units at the top like phrases, sentences, clauses (Carrell, 1998). In Hedge's (2000) words "reading can be seen as a kind of dialogue between the reader and the text, or even between the reader and the author" (p. 188).

Now a day, in the face of trends and increase of available information and knowledge of the different methods in teaching reading comprehension, there is a need to maintain a balance between the demands of the learners and the responsibilities of the school, workplace, local and even global communities. Robinson (1969) gives a broad definition of reading as the reading act, which is subdivided into six large interdependent parts: word recognition, association of meaning with printed symbols, literal comprehension, interpretation, evaluation and assimilation. Reading comprehension in turn is the most significant skill needed by foreign language students for academic success in English (e.g. Dabarera, et al., 2014; Ismail, 2015; Lee, 2012).

Several researchers have studied the different methods in which reading could be taught and learned effectively. At the beginning, the conception of reading was merely that of a decoding process (Carrell, 1998). In contrast, authors such as Dechant (1991) affirm that reading is about meaning and comprehension of meaning. As she says "comprehension is the goal and purpose of reading. Without it there is no reading" (p. 9). Indeed, reading involves not only the recognition of printed symbols but making printed materials into a meaningful and fruitful into the life of readers as they understand the written text or comprehend the words in textbooks, novels and the like is the essence in the reading process.

Moreover, reading comprehension is achievable. Thompkins, (2001) however, the adaptation of effective methods in teaching requires the reading teachers capable enough to handle the formidable challenge of transforming poor readers to good readers, and that they must be armed with pedagogical expertise. As what Dr. Paje (2012) have emphasized, teachers' competency in reading is a contributing factor and that teachers' knowledge in teaching reading play an important factor on student's learning. Hence, teachers must be optimistic and aggressive for learning effective methodologies in making the learning English language easy and enjoy as possible. Van keer (2004) asserted, explicit reading strategies instruction and engaging learners in interaction with the text promote learners' reading comprehension ability.

Marpaung (2017) suggested for English teachers is to teach reading comprehension using the direct method because the direct method can improve students' ability in reading comprehension.

Lardizabal, et. al., 1991, have pointed out that a good teaching method is one that makes use of principles of learning by doing and permits the operation of these principles such as readiness, exercise and effort. Wang Chuming (2012) of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies recently criticizes that we have never been in short of big talks of theories, and what we need to improve CE teaching and learning is an efficient and practical research based on useful theories. Moorman & Ram (1994) state that although much of the research has been carried out on teaching reading, "yet no theories exist which sufficiently describe and explain how people accomplish the complete task of reading real-world texts" (p. 646). In this respect, for innovative and academic purposes, this study was designed to answer the three research questions. First, what is the most effective teaching methods in reading comprehension of freshmen students? Second, is there significant difference between the reading comprehension level of the freshmen students when the data are grouped according to profile of respondents? Third, is there significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores using methods of teaching GTM and DM?

Objective of the study

The main objective of the study was to determine the most effective method of teaching reading comprehension.

Methodology

Richards and Rodgers (2001:11) say that language teaching is hence a complex issue, encompassing socio-cultural linguistic, psycho-linguistics, as well as curricula and instructional dimensions. Concerning the foreign language teaching, there are some experts pointing out that second or foreign language teaching is any activity on the part of one person intended to facilitate the learning by another person of a language which is not his/her native one.

In the present study, the Experimental design was utilized to answer the research questions and to test the formulated hypothesis. Experimental designs do not assume strong control variables. The students assigned in Grammar translation method assume experimental group and the students assigned in direct method assume the control group.

The pretests in both Grammar Translation method and direct method are conducted before the teaching activities while the posttests in both teaching methods are given after the teaching activities.

Ethical Considerations

The Researchers followed the Key ethical principles guiding the use of human participants and minors were strictly adhered to in the present study. These included providing the parents, and students with the necessary information to make a determination as to whether they want (the students) to be part of the study. The signing of the consent form, which is actually a process rather than an event, was not used as coercive tool to compel participants to complete the study. They were assured of their rights to withdraw from the study at any point when they became uncomfortable with the study. The identity of the selected first year students as well as their responses was kept confidential such that neither the responses nor their identity was revealed to any other person outside the research team.

Operational Definition of Terms

1. Direct Method in teaching a language is directly establishing an immediate and audio visual association between experience and expression, words and phrases, idioms and meanings, rules and performances through the teachers' body and mental skills, without any help of the learners' mother tongue.

2. Grammar Translation Method is a traditional method of teaching utilizing both mother tongue and the target language. Learners memorize words in the dictionary and also use grammar rules, as well as translate printed text, poem, song, etc. from English language to mother tongue or vice versa.

3. Reading comprehension is the ability to comprehend printed text that requires thorough understanding of words and its meaning in order to make reading meaningful.

Literature Review

This study is directed to investigate the influence of GTM on Libyan students' English. The study is based on literature review and giving first year selected students in Sulu State College a two weeks class utilizing the grammar translation method and direct method. Literature review is the secondary resource of information in this qualitative study. This part covers the literature that deals directly with the theme of this study.

Theories of Reading Comprehension

Several theories of reading comprehension have emerged over the years. These include the bottom-up view, the top-down view, the interactive view, the metacognitive view, and the simple view of reading comprehension. Each of these theories are relevant within the present context. Thus, we briefly discuss each theory below.

According to the bottom-up view of reading comprehension, readers move from an understanding of parts of language (e.g., letters, words) to an understanding of meaning or the whole (e.g., phrases, passages; Gough, 1972; Holmes, 2009; LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). Comprehension is thought to be a product of the acquisition of hierarchically arranged subskills (Dole et al., 1991). Thus, lower-level word recognition skills precede the development of more complex skills that lead to an eventual understanding of phrases, sentences, and paragraphs. Automaticity in processing and understanding written text is also thought to affect text comprehension (LaBerge & Samuels, 1974). Automaticity refers to the fact that proficient readers can read text automatically and that they do not need to focus consciously on lower-level word recognition. Thus, children with decoding problems allot greater cognitive resources to word recognition – and less to comprehension – whereas proficient readers are able to devote greater cognitive resources to higher-level cognitive processes (e.g., working memory; Daneman & Carpenter, 1980; Perfetti, 1985; Perfetti & Hogaboam, 1975).

Based on the top-down (i.e., conceptually-driven) view of reading comprehension, readers are moving from meaning down to the component parts of words as they engage with text (Rumelhart, 1980; Shank & Abelson, 1977). According to this view, a reader's mental frameworks or schemas are the driving force behind successful reading comprehension (Rumelhart, 1980). Readers are actively integrating new information that is encountered in the text with information that they have already stored within their previously established mental representations (i.e., background knowledge).

Top-down and bottom-up aspects are combined in the interactive view of reading comprehension. Based on this view, reading comprehension requires the reader to devote attentional resources to the more basic features of the text (e.g., letters, words) while simultaneously focusing on the more general aspects (e.g., syntax, semantics) and actively

interpreting what is being read (Perfetti et al., 2005). Proficient readers are those who successfully engage with multiple sources of information provided within the text and information that is not readily available from the text (Kintsch, 1998; Perfetti & Stafura, 2014; van Dijk & Kintsche, 1983). Good readers are able to recognize and interact with key features of the text, such as lexical characteristics, at the same time that they are more broadly identifying the purpose of a passage or a paragraph (Rayner, 1986; Rayner et al., 2001).

The simple view of reading asserts that reading comprehension is the product of decoding ability and language comprehension (Gough & Tunmer, 1986; Hoover & Gough, 1990). The simple view also has substantial empirical validation. For example, decoding has emerged as a reliable predictor of reading comprehension ability in a variety of instances (e.g., Kendeou, van den Broek, White, & Lynch, 2009; Shankweiler et al., 1999). In fact, poor decoding skills are associated with reading comprehension problems (Perfetti, 1985). Additionally, oral language skills remain a robust and unique predictor of reading comprehension over and above word reading skills (Nation & Snowling, 2004).

Oral language is defined as the ability to comprehend spoken language (National Early Literacy Panel, 2008) and includes a wide variety of skills, such as expressive and receptive vocabulary knowledge, grammar, morphology, syntactic knowledge, conceptual knowledge, and knowledge about narrative structure (Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown, 1982; Bishop & Adams, 1990; Bowey, 1986; Perfetti, 1985; Roth, Speece, & Cooper, 2002). Oral language skills impact reading comprehension directly, such as through the understanding of the words presented in a text, as well as indirectly via other literacy-related skills (e.g., phonological awareness; NICHD, 2000; Wagner & Torgesen, 1987). Furthermore, the unique contribution of oral language to reading comprehension remains even after accounting for word recognition (Oullette, 2006).

The simple view provides a potential explanation for the reading comprehension problems of children with SCD that is consistent with their observed oral language deficits: Reading comprehension requires both adequate decoding and adequate oral language comprehension. This would explain the observation that children with SCD have adequate decoding but not adequate oral language comprehension. Catts, Adolf, and Weismer (2006) and Nation and Norbury (2005) applied this simple view of reading framework to identify different types of reading problems in eighth graders and 8-year-old children, respectively. According to this classification system, children with good decoding and good comprehension are adequate readers; children with poor decoding and poor comprehension are garden-variety poor readers; children with good comprehension and poor decoding meet criteria for dyslexia; and children with good decoding and poor comprehension have SCD. Thus, a mastery of both decoding and language comprehension is necessary for reading proficiency.

Grammar Translation Method (GTM)

Evans and Green (2006) refer to grammar as “the discipline that focuses on morphology (word structure) and syntax (sentence structure), whether from the perspective of language learning (for example, French grammar, Latin grammar), from the perspective of language description, or from the perspective of general linguistics, where ‘grammar’ has the status of a sub discipline alongside phonetics, phonology, semantics and so on” (p. 484). This indicates that teaching grammar plays a significant role in learning foreign languages. Teaching grammar, in fact, is associated with GTM.

History

The Grammar Translation Method is an old method which was originally used to teach dead languages which explains why it focuses mainly on the written form at the expense of the oral form. It was designed according to the *faculty psychology approach* which was very popular during the 18th and 19th century. It contended that "mental discipline was essential for strengthening the powers of the mind". The way to do this was through learning classical literature of the Greeks and Romans.

Method

- Use of mother tongue.
- Vocabulary items are taught in the form of word lists.
- Elaborate explanations of grammar.
- Focus on the morphology and syntax.
- Reading of difficult texts early in the course.
- Practice focuses on exercises translating sentences or texts from mother tongue to the target language and vice versa.

It is surprising to see that the Grammar Translation Method was still in use in some classrooms during the late decades of the 20th century. May be, it's because it bears some advantages.

Advantages

- Translation is the easiest and shortest way of explaining meaning of words and phrases.
- Learners have no difficulties to understand the lesson as it is carried out in the mother tongue.
- It is a labor-saving method as the teacher carries out everything in the mother tongue.

Criticism

- What the method is good at is "teaching about the language", not "teaching the language".
- Speaking or any kind of spontaneous creative output was missing from the curriculum.
- Students lacked an active role in the classroom.
- Very little attention is paid to communication.
- Very little attention is paid to content.
- Translation is sometimes misleading.

Because of all these disadvantages, instructors tried to find better ways to remedy the pitfalls of the grammar translation method. The Direct Method was the answer.

Direct Method

History

The Direct Method, also called *Natural Method*, was established in Germany and France around 1900. It appeared as an answer to the shortcomings of the Grammar Translation Method. It is a method for teaching foreign languages that uses the target language, discarding any use of mother tongue in the classroom. As teachers became frustrated with the students' inability to communicate orally, they began to experiment with new techniques. The idea was that foreign language teaching must be carried out in the same way people learn their mother tongue!

The method

- Translation is completely banished from any classroom activity. Classroom activities are carried out ONLY in the target language.
- Oral teaching comes before any other kind of reading and writing activities.
- Use of chain activities accompanied by verbal comments like '*I go to the door. I open the door. I close the door. I return to my place. I sit down.*' (called the Gouin series)
- Grammar is taught inductively. (i.e. having learners find out rules through the presentation of adequate linguistic forms in the target language.)
- Use of realia to teach concrete vocabulary. Abstract vocabulary is taught through association of ideas.
- Emphasis is put on correct pronunciation and grammar.
- Teaching through modeling and practice.

The teaching techniques rely mostly on:

- Reading aloud,
- Question answer exercises,
- Self-correction,
- Conversation practice,
- Fill-in-the-blank exercises,
- Dictation
- and Paragraph writing.

Advantages

Clearly the Direct Method is a shift away from the Grammar Translation Method. One of its positive points is that it promises to teach the language and **Not** about the language. More advantages can be listed as follows:

- It is a natural method which teaches language the same way the mother tongue is acquired. Only the target language is used and the learning is contextualized.

- Its emphasis on speech made it more attractive for those who have needs of real communication in the target language.
- It was one of the first methods to introduce the teaching of vocabulary through realia

In addition, there are several stages in implementing Direct Method as proposed by Norland and Terry (2006) as follow:

1. The teacher shows a set of pictures that often portray life in the country of the target language.
2. The teacher describes the picture in the target language.
3. The teacher asks questions in the target language about the picture.
4. Students answer the questions as best they can using the target language.
Pronunciation is corrected, but grammatical structure is not.
5. Students may also read a passage in the target language.
6. The teacher asks questions in the target language about the reading.
7. Students answer questions as best they can, using the target language.

In spite of many advantages of direct method there are also disadvantages and shortcomings. For example, Brown (1994:56) points out, the Direct Method did not take well in public education where the constraints of budget, classroom size, time, and teacher background made such a method difficult to use.

Westwood, P. (2008) said that a teaching method comprises the principles and methods used by teachers to enable student learning. These claims are determined both on the way subject matter are being taught as well as learner's nature. He added, for a particular teaching method to be appropriate and efficient it has to be in relation with the characteristic of the learner and type of learning it is supposed to bring about. Suggestions are there to design and selection of teaching methods must take into account not only the nature of the subject matter but also how students learn.

Moreover, Marpaung (2017) in her study on the Effect of the direct method on the reading comprehension ability of second year students found that there is no significant difference between direct method and lecture method. After a thorough investigation, it is found that there was no significant difference in the reading comprehension ability of the students who were taught both direct method and lecture method.

Ruhupatty (1997) as cited by Marpaung (2017) concluded that interactive method and its practices can be used to improved and develop students ability in the four sub skills of reading comprehension general verbal, literal meaning, implied meaning and appreciation.

Napigkit, et al.,(2017) revealed that majority of the subjects is "good" in their productive skills such as speaking and writing competencies. The students' receptive skills in turn, particularly in reading comprehension significantly relate to their writing ability, but there is an insignificant relationship between reading and speaking as well as in listening comprehension that negates their speaking and writing competencies. He added, therefore that a significant relationship between listening and speaking as well as into writing.

Viscara and Dials (2017) recommended that the developed resource material in reading comprehension must be tried out to college students who show reading comprehension deficiencies in order to determine its usefulness and effectiveness. The results of the try- out must be analyzed, interpreted and used as a basis for the refinement and further validation of the resource material. Students are encouraged to use supplementary resource material to enhance their reading comprehension.

Moreover Cekiko (2012), have found that the use of reading strategy instruction and learners' reading strategy awareness play a significant role in improving their reading comprehension. In other words, she added, learners who received strategy training generally read better than those who do not.

Significance of the study

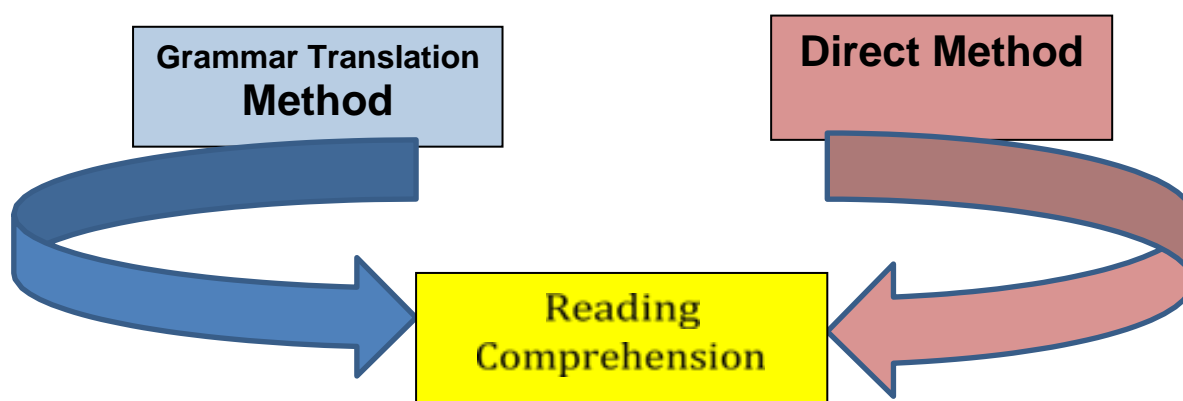
The results of this study will yield significant contributions to each of the following groups of people:

1. Education authorities – This study will provide baseline data on effective teaching methods for the reading and comprehension of students which can guide education authorities in the design and implementation or revision of curricula concerning the effective method to teach non-native learner to comprehend English language.

2. English language teachers – The present study will increase the knowledge of teachers with the effective teaching method that facilitates the teaching of reading comprehension for the students.

3. Students – students will be in good hands as they are guided step by step by the tested method.

Conceptual paradigm



Results and Discussion

The summary of the equivalence of the rating scales is shown in table 1.

TABLE 1
PROFICIENCY LEVELS IN READING
COMPREHENSION

Correct Score	Scale	Verbal description	Explanation
13-15	5	Excellent	The student has achieved the main and the minor goals.
10-12	4	Very Satisfactory	The student has achieved some of the main goals and much of the minor goals.
7-9	3	Satisfactory	The student has achieved less main goals and some of the minor goals.

4-6	2	Fair	The student has achieved none main goals and less minor goals.
1-3	1	Poor	The student has neither achieved the main goals nor the minor goals.

“Learners’ test results are one way to evaluate teaching. Good results should reflect good teaching” (Davies & Pearse. 2000:181). Reading is an integral part of every educational process as all the subjects taught at all levels of the educational system involve reading (Cimmiyotti, 2013). Table 1 shows the rating scales used in the study. The pretest and posttest in both teaching methods is composed of 15 items reading comprehension test. The students were given validated reading materials. After reading the given passage, the students answered a 15-item comprehension test. With the correct score 13-15 with the scale of 5 and a verbal description excellent. Generally, there is no doubt that the students’ participants in the present study have achieved the main and the minor goals.

Carrell (1988) discusses two types of difficulties that learners may encounter when reading: too much reliance on text-based features via bottom-up processing resulting in text roundedness, or alternatively, too much reliance on knowledge-based processing, thereby allowing inappropriate schemata and irrelevant extra textual knowledge to interfere 45 THE EFFECTIVENESS... Nur Laila Molla Mater’s Program in Linguistics, Diponegoro University ©2010, UNDIP Institutional Repository with proper text interpretation. In the first case we find readers who get bogged down by linguistic complexity and miss the main point made in a paragraph or a whole text, and in the second case the reader ignores some of the information or ideas presented in the text because of adhering rigidly to preconceived expectations that may not in fact materialize. Both of these paths for misinterpreting a text stem from the fact that for the particular reader with the particular text the interaction between top-down and bottom-up processing is not optimal.

In the study of Cain and Oakhill (2006), he stressed that poor vocabulary skills were associated with impaired growth in word reading ability while as poor general cognitive ability was associated with impaired growth in comprehension. Evidently, several studies have shown that behavioral problems among children has something to do with abnormality of children behavioral or emotional disorder very frequently meet the criteria for first language and did not given early intervention.

TABLE 2
PROFILE OF THE RESPONDENTS

		Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	9	25.7
	Female	12	34.3
	Gay	11	31.4
	Lesbian	3	8.6
School Attended	Within Town of Jolo	17	48.6
	Outside the Town of Jolo	18	51.4
	N	35	100.0

Majority of the respondents are male (34.3%), followed by Gay respondents (31.4%), Male respondents (25.7%) and the least number of respondents is Lesbian (8.6%). The respondents of this study are majority female.

TABLE 3
PRETEST SCORE IN THE TWO TEACHING METHODS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest Grammar Translation Method	35	1.14	.430
Pretest on Direct Method	35	1.06	.236

Legend: 1.0-1.49 (1)=Poor; 1.50-2.49 (2)=Fair; 2.50-3.49 (3)=Satisfactory; 3.50-4.49 (4)=Very Satisfactory; 4.50-5.00 (5)=Excellent.

The pre-test scores of the freshmen students in reading comprehension using Grammar Translation method with mean score 1.14 and standard deviation .430 given the verbal description poor. The pre-test score of the freshmen students in reading comprehension using Direct method with mean score 1.06 and standard deviation .236 also given the verbal description poor. The data indicates that the mean scores of the freshmen students regardless of gender in Grammar translation method of teachings and direct method is poor. According to Gaux, et al (1999), poor comprehenders exhibited a deficit in the majority of the syntactic awareness tasks.

Moreover, Wolfe, et al. (2010) emphasized that when children are having difficulty completing tasks which require syntactic knowledge use, for instance, they will most likely have difficulty reading grammatically complex texts. Hence, Quick understanding of the written may varies on background knowledge. Conversely, poor backgrounds, may struggle reading.

In addition, Kiley (2015) in her study of a High School Reading class illustrated that students who read little in or outside of school struggle to comprehend text and generally produced below average general vocabulary scores.

Floyd and Carrell (1987) suggested that students, who have lack of cultural knowledge about the target language, can enhance their reading comprehension ability by being taught explicitly the cultural knowledge of target knowledge. They added that Students can perform better if prior knowledge and topic interest is high than students whose topic interest and background knowledge are low.

Vygotsky's (1978) theory of the Zone Proximal Development (ZPD). In essence, ZPD refers to what the learner can do without the help of others and what the learner cannot do alone, but with the help of others. TBLT is mostly carried out in the form of small groups in the class with the language learners' active involvement. There could be more knowledgeable peers in the groups or learners can receive the teacher's timely feedback when they are performing their tasks during the report stage. GTM provides less chance for language learners to do so.

TABLE 4
POSTTEST SCORES IN THE TWO METHODS OF TEACHING

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Posttest Grammar translation method	35	3.94	.338
Posttest Direct method	35	2.69	.530

Legend: 1.0-1.49 (1)=Poor; 1.50-2.49 (2)=Fair; 2.50-3.49 (3)=Satisfactory; 3.50-4.49 (4)=Very Satisfactory; 4.50-5.00 (5)=Excellent.

Table 4 shows the posttest scores of the first year college students in the two methods of teaching. The posttest mean score of the freshmen students using method A is 3.94 with standard deviation .338 given the verbal description very satisfactory. The posttest mean score of the freshmen students using method B is 2.68 with standard deviation .530 given the verbal description satisfactory. The data indicates that the posttest mean score of the freshmen students using grammar translation method is greater than the posttest mean score of the freshmen students using direct method.

Overall, the data implies that both teaching method shows effectiveness. However, grammar translation method is more effective when compared with the effectiveness of direct method the freshmen students using grammar translation method gained greater scores when compared the pretest and the posttest. That is the first year college students mean score using Grammar Translation method shows mean difference of 2.8 while in direct method has the mean difference 1.63.

TABLE 5
COMPARISON OF MEANS IN TERMS OF GENDER

		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pretest Grammar Method	Between Groups	1.437	3	.479	3.063	.043
	Within Groups	4.848	31	.156		
	Total	6.286	34			
Pretest Grammar Method	Between Groups	.088	3	.029	.504	.682
	Within Groups	1.798	31	.058		
	Total	1.886	34			
Posttest Direct Method	Between Groups	.249	3	.083	.709	.554
	Within Groups	3.636	31	.117		
	Total	3.886	34			
Posttest Direct Method	Between Groups	.442	3	.147	.502	.684
	Within Groups	9.101	31	.294		
	Total	9.543	34			

The hypothesis “There is no significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of the freshmen students when the data are categorized according to gender. Since gender was divided into male, female, gay and lesbian One Way Analysis of Variance was used to test the hypothesis. The data indicates that the hypothesis is rejected in the pretest using Grammar Translation method and accepted in the pretest in Direct Method and the posttest in both methods. The data implies that there is significant difference between the pretest scores of the freshmen students using Grammar Translation method while there is no significant difference of the pretest scores using direct method and in the posttest scores in both methods.

Conversely, Tercanlioglu (2004), in a study investigated the effect of gender on adults' foreign language learning strategies, came out with the finding that males are better than females in the strategy use. In addition, Saidi (2012:232) remarks that "if males and females learn differently, this may form an obstacle for the teachers in mixed classes and they must consider this when conducting tests." In general females are better than males in L1 acquisition and L2 learning, that's part of females' superiority in verbal ability. In L2 learning, females are more motivated to learn, the English language. Logan and Johnston (2009:202) mention "In national literacy test in British schools, girls consistently outperform boys". Females are better than males in foreign language comprehension, "in terms of language comprehension, several studies have demonstrated female superiority." (Saidi, 2012:231). A study conducted by Logan and Johnston (2009:200) about the relationship between reading comprehension and gender comes up with the finding that: English is a subject in which girls achieve more than boys and which in state comprehensive schools is more often taught by women. There is currently talked about the feminization of the whole teaching profession with larger numbers of women in post throughout the system. Motivation and learning are inextricably linked. Motivation is not only required to bring the adult to the learning setting, but it also influences the individual's involvement" (Salkind, 2008:745) Yr. 2017-No . 6-Vol. : 42 Basrah Research The Humanities sciences Journal of 430

- 1- Girls are better in reading comprehension than boys.
- 2- Girls read more frequently than boys do.
- 3- Girls have more positive attitude to reading.

In his study, Girls got positive attitude to reading more than boys, and some researchers try to look for the reasons that stand behind this, "Perhaps the higher frequency of reading and better reading ability could be an explanation for girls more positive attitude to reading (Logan and Johnston, 2009:200). Many researchers assure that female students score Higher than male students in reading comprehension but the studies that attempt to investigate the relationship between gender and reading comprehension come up with

Inconsistent results: Factors That May Affect Reading Comprehension

Reading as an interaction between text and reader makes comprehension affected by the variables that govern those two whether these variables are related to the reader or the reading text itself. Woolley (2011:15) mentions that reading comprehension difficulties are very complex and affected by quite various factors whether these factors are related to biological, cognitive, or behavioral issues. Snow (2002: XIV) divides the factors that affect reading comprehension into three types: the reader, the text, the activity (which is part of the interaction between reader and text).

The talk about the reader includes all his abilities, knowledge and experiences. For this reason Willis (2008: 127) implies prior knowledge, personal experiences as well as vocabulary within range of factors that affect reading comprehension and as important elements that could be used by the reader in his deductive and inductive reasoning and making connections. The talk about the text is complicated too because it includes many features whether linguistic or non-linguistic factors like text type, and text complexity and style. Reader's Variables.

The reader is the learner who is doing the act of reading. Different studies investigate the factors that govern the reader while doing the act of reading and which cause variation in comprehension from one reader to another. Strategy use, knowledge, motivation, attitude, age, personality, and gender all have been investigated under the title "individual differences".

TABLE 6
SCORES IN GRAMMAR TRANSLATION METHOD AND DIRECT METHOD
CATERGORIZED ACCORDING TO LOCATION OF SCHOOL PREVIOUSLY
ATTENDED

	T	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pretest on grammar Translation Method	.444	.660
Pretest on Direct Method	-1.415	.166
Posttest on Grammar Translation Method	-1.030	.311
Posttest on Direct Method	1.524	.137

The hypothesis there is no significant difference between the reading comprehensions of the freshmen students when the data are categorized according to location of school previously attended is tested using t-test for independent sample. The data indicates that the hypothesis is accepted in the pretest and posttest scores using methods both methods of teaching when the data are grouped according to location of school. The data implies no difference of scores when compared according to school previously attended.

Garner and Bochna (2004) shared that novice readers were able to effectively manage to switch knowledge from one literacy activity to another through by interactive learning and exposure of learners to different instructional strategies using repeated presentation, explicit explanation, teacher modeling, and questioning.

Another study by Paris and Paris (2007) found that instruction in narrative thinking benefited students' comprehension of narratives in the picture-viewing modality as well as narrative meaning-making in listening comprehension and oral production modalities.

Conversely, in the study conducted by Schacter and Jo (2005) on the impact of a research-based summer reading day-camp intervention on the reading performance of students from economically disadvantaged backgrounds. Students participated in two hours of daily reading instruction and spent the remainder of the day on summer camp activities, demonstrated increases in summer camp participants' reading comprehension. Indeed, it is a worth sharing finding given that research has consistently shown that students from economically disadvantaged homes lose reading skills and gradually changed for better with proper reading intervention.

TABLE 7
COMPARISON OF THE POSTTEST SCORES USING METHODS A B

	T	Sig (2-tailed)	Ho Decision
Pair 1 Posttest on Grammar Translation Method - Posttest Direct Method	11.316	.000	Rejected

The comparison of the posttest mean scores of the freshmen students was used to test the hypothesis "There is significant difference between the achievements of the freshmen students when using Grammar Translation Method and Direct method of teaching". The t-value (11.316) with significant value .000 less than .05 significant level of confidence indicates that there is evidence to conclude that the hypothesis is rejected. The data implies that method of teaching A is more effective teaching method in teaching reading comprehension. Mondal, (2012) concluded that the grammar translation method is an appropriate method although the combination with communicative approach will create a new fruitful methodology fill the gaps

of each previous method. Conversely, Marpaung, (2017) in her study on the Effect of the direct method on the reading comprehension ability of second year students found that there was no significant difference in the reading comprehension ability of the students who are taught using direct method and students who are taught lecture method.

Malm Kjaer, (1998, p-1) added that There are “significant and visible signs of a revival of translation in language teaching. The study on comparative study on Grammar-Translation method and Communicative Approach in teaching English grammar conducted in Taiwan by Chang (2011), have found that Grammar-Translation method is better than the Communicative Approach in accuracy but the latter is better than in fluency, so he concluded that the ideal approach can be produced by emerging the two methods in teaching. according to recent literature and applied linguistics”.

Conclusion

The pretest and posttest scores of the freshmen students using grammar translation method and direct method of teachings are indicators to determine the effectiveness of teaching. It is found that The pre-test scores of the freshmen students in reading comprehension using Grammar Translation method with mean score 1.14 and standard deviation .430 given the verbal description poor. The pre-test score of the freshmen students in reading comprehension using Direct method with mean score 1.06 and standard deviation .236 also given the verbal description poor.

After reading the given passage, the students answered a 15-item comprehension test. With the correct score 13-15 with the scale of 5 and a verbal description excellent. Generally, there is no doubt that the students’ participants in the present study have achieved the main and the minor goals. The gain score of the freshmen students indicates that both teaching methods are effective in teaching reading comprehension. The significant difference between the posttest scores of the freshmen students is indicative of the dominance of effectiveness of the two teaching methods. The grammar translation method is more effective to be used in teaching reading comprehension than the method of teaching B, the direct method. It can be concluded that both Grammar Translation Method and Direct method were effective in teaching reading comprehension of the freshman students.

Evidently, the present study further improved the studies previously conducted on the effectiveness of Grammar Translation Method and direct method. Moreover, the finding of the present study further improved the result of the study of Aqel (2013), who have found that Grammar Translation method is a kind of teaching methodology that is important in teaching the English language.

Generally, the present study shows that both Grammar Translation method and Direct method were found to be effective in teaching reading comprehension. However, Grammar Translation method is Dominant and more effective.

Pedagogical Implication

The intended audience of the present study are teachers and education policymakers interested in developing or revising some procedures in this area for facilitating the teaching and learning process. Specifically, the study identified the effectiveness of language teaching method to develop the reading comprehension of the English language learners.

Moreover, the grammar Translation method and direct method were found to be effective in the present study, the researchers recommend Language teachers to incorporate demonstration of both Grammar Translation method and direct method of teaching English

language at first year college students so as to enhance the reading comprehension and to boost academic performance of new students in the tertiary level.

Professional development for teachers requires their effort and support by the administrators and it shall be continuous, and teachers should embrace the relearning as a lifelong process. Knowledge about the English language teaching methods in turn are vitals and should also continually be nurtured by the teachers since this is a requisite to most subject areas. School administrators in SUCs needs to require all language teachers to remain informed and keep pace with the trends in teaching English language to the extent send them to seminars, trainings and conferences. Further, we live in an ever-changing society, which deeply influences events in schools; social changes affect students' behavior, habits and interests. In addition, teachers must be involved in the development and refinement of new approaches to teaching, assessment, and curriculum. Finally, for the readers of this study, the researcher recommends a topic on the effectiveness of eclectic method of teaching for non-native speakers of English language.

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ESL High School Learners' Online Language Learning Anxiety: Investigating the Influence of Gender and Socio-Economic Status

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Abstract

This study is descriptive as it aims to acquire quantitative data on the level of online English language learning anxiety experienced by the learners. Specifically, it provides information on the gender and economic status of the respondents. Participants were 215 ESL students in secondary schools, both private and public. They were surveyed on demographic profile, communication uncertainty, fear of negative evaluation, and anxiety in English language class. Results dispute gender differences in online language learning and socioeconomic position do not affect respondents' online English language anxiety. However, this may be both a benefit and a drawback. Having an average result on teaching methods does not offer a favorable indicator. Findings show that instructors are learning to utilize educational tools to make learning more engaging. It was observed that not much study was conducted on online teaching strategies.

Keywords: Language learning anxiety, online learning, ESL, gender, socio-economic status

Introduction

Background of the Study

Language anxiety has filled a seemingly limitless field of study. In some previous studies, researchers found out that language anxiety can impede the learners' performance and production in the past decades. It has long been known as an impediment in language learning especially in second language (Huang & Hwang, 2013; Majid, Sharil, Luaran, & Nadzri, 2012; Sadiq, 2017). In fact, it was revealed that anxiety is considered as one of significant undesirable emotional features that affect second language acquisition (Na, 2007; Abbasi, Channa, Kurd, & Shaikh, 2020).

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English language learning is a difficult and arduous endeavor. Anxiety over speaking a foreign language is a significant element in how far one may go in a language learning process (Saleh, Ali, Akoi, Najmalddin, Ali, & Anwar, 2021). As they proceed through the language learning process, many English language learners suffer anxiety. Although the intensity of foreign learners' sentiments varies from one to the next, the function of stress cannot underestimate (Sorguli, Gardi, Othman, Aziz, Ahmed, Sabir, Ismael, Hamza, Ali, & Anwar, 2021). Second language learners who suffer from anxiety may find language study less enjoyable, and they may recognize how language anxiety impacts their performance.

While Filipino is the country's official language, English is regarded as the country's second language. As a nonexclusive language of science and technology in the Philippines, English is also a target language for national proficiency. Education in the Philippines relies on the use of English as a primary language of teaching and learning. Since its widespread use has become so commonplace, you may find it in practically every facet of communication (Jugo, 2020).

At the present time, language learning is currently taking place online all over the world which is called as the online language learning. Online language learning classes offer a range of easily available supplies and funds that would add to students' bank of knowledge. Online learning provides a unique environment, and it has significant and constructive associations between readiness and confidence, experience, and motivation as well as between attributes and confidence when compared to conventional classroom (Majid et al. 2012). Moreover, Huang (2013) mentioned that the students considered the best way to learn English is through computer-assisted learning environment where it showed a positive relationship between condensed learning anxiety and use of a technology. Braehler (2005) said that computer-assisted instruction has the potential to enhance the learning experience of the students while opening an educational experience to distance students. It is a better mode of instruction compared to traditional one (Mahmood, 2004). It is in the form of motivating interfaces and features to improve students' performances as well as increasing the interest in learning (Inal, & Cagiltay, 2007; Schaefer, & Warren, 2004).

However, Cuneo and Harnish (2002) revealed that learning a language in an online class also causes anxiety to students. It was found out that students with higher online language learning anxiety only engage themselves in a surface level of discussion which shows that they are only interested in memorization or rote learning instead of having a wide understanding of the concepts, compared to those non-anxious students who are more likely to participate in online discussions. In addition, Abbasi et al. (2020) discovered that issues such as fear from the teacher, fear from being mocked, fear to commit mistakes, lack of self-assurance, pressure from peer, fear of receiving a failing mark in the exam, low proficiency, and lack of vocabulary affect the language of the students. Horwitz et. al (1986) posited that language anxiety can attack anyone regardless of age, ability, or capacity. Hence, learners with high anxiety often get low results in test, because of this low achievement, learners become more anxious about learning.

There were several studies conducted in the context of foreign lands that correlates anxiety to online linguistic learning, however, there were only a few studies relating the influence of anxiety to online language learning among ESL high school students in the Philippines. Anent to this, the present investigation would like to determine the ESL high school learners' online language learning anxiety that will be useful in the field of education and to scholars with similar investigation. In addition, this present study would like to examine whether there is a difference in the online language learning anxiety among Filipino male and female high school students. Addedly, the study would like to find out the significant

differences in the online language learning anxiety of the learners when data are categorized according to socioeconomic status.

Review of Related Literature

Online Language Learning Anxiety

Anxiety or uneasiness is the abstract inclination of strain, dread, apprehension, and stress related with an excitement of the programmed sensory system (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986). Basically, when we say anxiety, it refers to the tenseness and restlessness, felt by an individual (Horwitz et al, 1986). It is both a psychological and physical reaction to a subjective self-concept and the feelings of pressure (Spielberger, 1983). Also, it is influential in the learning process of language of the learners. Horwitz (2001) said that it negatively influences language learning. In addition, Horwitz et al. (1986), and Young (1991) hypothesized that it is an indicator of wide-ranging anxiety and a typical form of anxiety expressed by the students in learning a language.

Accordingly, there are two approaches in portraying language anxiety (Horwitz, & Young, 1991). To begin with, anxiety might be an indicator of other broader anxiety. Another, language anxiety can also be viewed as a particular frame of uneasiness communicated in reaction to language learning. Scovel (1978) said that the affective domain has the foremost noteworthy relationship when dealing with anxiety. This domain is actually the reverse side of cognitive factors. In other words, affective variables are everything that imposes on language learning that is not correlated to cognition.

The presence of fear, panic, and self-consciousness is more likely to challenge the performance of the learners during the communication process. Horwitz et. al (1986), mentioned that learning anxiety has three aspects. These are communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and test anxiety. Communication apprehension is the fear during an actual or anticipated communication with others. On the other hand, usually the fear of receiving negative evaluation occurs when students want to leave a good impression. Whereas test anxiety is the experience of getting failed marks. It is undeniable that all language students encounter anxiety when learning a language.

Previous studies conducted on language learning anxiety revealed that anxious learners having problems in word, phrase, and grammatical structure led them to temporary loss of ability to respond in an on-the spot participation on language class because of their negative experiences, and they are concerned about being embarrassed, being ridiculed, and not being understood (Horwitz et al., 1986; Cohen, & Norst, 1989; MacIntyre, & Gardner, 1991; Price, 1991).

Nowadays, online language learning has now become one of the preferred instructional modes of delivery in most schools in the world (Reynard, 2003). It is believed that online learning could promote students' critical thinking, knowledge construction and language learning. It is flexible in comparison to face-to-face communication as the traditional classrooms because it allows both the introverted and extroverted students a time to think, reflect, and get involved in online discussions (Majid et. al, 2012).

Nevertheless, it was revealed that online language learning also causes anxiety to students (Cuneo, & Harnish, 2002). In addition, it was found out that students only engage themselves in a surface level of discussion which shows that they are only interested in memorization or rote learning instead of having a wide understanding of the concepts, compared to those non-anxious students who are more likely to participate in online discussions due to higher online language learning anxiety.

Socioeconomic Status in Language Learning

Socio economic status (SES) is the position of an individual in a classified social structure (Singh, Sharma, Nagesh, 2017). SES is determined through family earnings, education, and occupation of the parents (Bradley & Corwyn, 2002). On the other hand, there are also researchers who identified the SES variable by simply determining the monthly family income of the respondents. The combined family income served as a sole indicator of SES (Sicam & Lucas, 2016; Delgado & Kassim, 2019). In their studies, SES has six levels: Class A (Upper class) – 125,001 to 150,000, Class B (Upper class) – 100,001 to 125,000, Class C (Upper class) – 75,001 to 100,000, Class D1 (Upper middle class) – 50,001 to 75,000, Class D2 (lower middle class) – 25,001 to 50,000, Class E (lower class) – 10,000 to 25,000.

Previous investigations on the socioeconomic status of students revealed that there is significant effect in the learning outcomes of the ESL learners (Mattheoudakis, & Alexiou, 2009; Knapp & Shields, 1990; Reed, & Sautter, 1990; Barry, 2005; Ewijk, & Slegers, 2010; Sirin, 2005). Successful students are from higher socioeconomic status. It is because they have lots of chances that will help accelerate their language learning process, compared to individuals with lower socioeconomic status (Mattheoudakis, & Alexiou, 2009). Students from high socioeconomic status get higher scores in examination and better grades than the learners from low socioeconomic status (Knapp & Shields, 1990; Reed & Sautter, 1990). Moreover, successful students are from high economic and social groups and unsuccessful students are from low group (Barry, 2005; Ewijk, & Slegers, 2010; Sirin, 2005).

The impact of SES to language learning anxiety has not been given so much attention in ESL context. In this light, the present study would provide results that would aid in comprehending the influence of SES in language learning anxiety.

Gender in Language Learning Anxiety

Gender has become one of the substantial variables in investigations related to language anxiety (Wong, 2009; Rezazadeh, & Tavakoli, 2009). It has been verified as an element influencing language learning process where it represents the exceptional attributes and characteristics of males and females and (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2012). In fact, anxiety on language learning and gender continuously be the focus of the research (Kitano, 2001).

It was found that males and females differ in the process of language learning. Wong, 2009 claimed that males are found to be more proficient than females. In addition, it was also claimed that females are usually more apprehensive than males in English classes (Rezazadeh, & Tavakoli, 2009). However, the study of Yih, Chin, and Ling (2017) revealed that in language learning, male students are slightly anxious compared to female students. In addition, gender and language anxiety showed no significant relationship.

In the study of Piechurska-Kuciel (2012), he found out that there is no support for gender differences among high school students in Poland. The results revealed that there is no variation in the language anxiety of male and female, same with the result of Dewaele, and Ip (2013) in the study among secondary school students in Hongkong.

Considering that gender is a factor that affect language learning anxiety, this present study seeks to determine the role of gender in online second language learning anxiety among high school students.

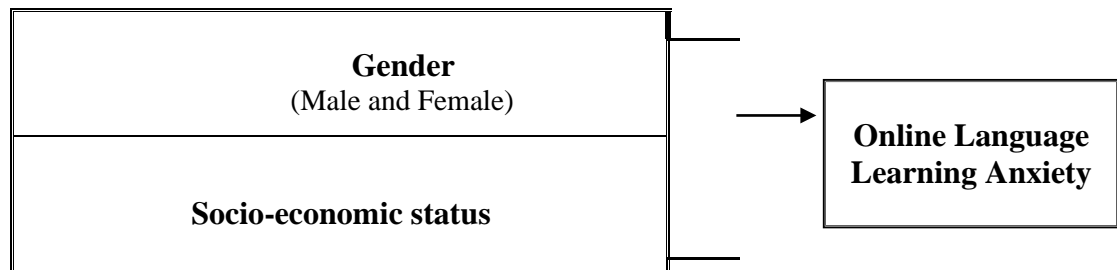
Research Questions

This study is guided with the following questions:

- a. What is the respondents' level of online language learning anxiety?

- b. Is there a significant difference in the online language learning anxiety between male and female?
- c. Is there a significant difference in the online language learning anxiety across socio-economic statuses?

Conceptual Framework



This figure represents the conceptual framework of this study. The boxes on the left side are the gender and socio-economic status which are the independent variables, while the box on the right side is the dependent variable which is the online language learning anxiety. The arrow represents the relationships of the two variables. The arrow is pointing to the dependent variable which shows that gender and socio-economic status influence the online language learning anxiety of the respondents.

Methodology

Research Design

This current investigation employed a descriptive quantitative design. It is defined as the collection of information to investigate the assumption and to give specific answers to the research questions (Gay, 1976). It also uses to explain the collected data. In addition, it aims to naturally describe, compare, and determine the results as well as the relationship between or among the variables covered by the study (Best, & Khan, 1989). Moreover, it is used to interpret and answer the data descriptively. This study is classified as descriptive because it aims to describe the respondents' levels of online English language learning anxiety through the collection of quantitative information such as level of online English language learning anxiety. It also describes the respondents' gender and socioeconomic status. It aims to describe the online English language learning anxiety of the respondents.

Respondents of the Study

The study collected data from a total of 212 high school students from public and private secondary schools in Zamboanga City who were available at the time the survey was conducted. These participants are enrolled in schools which offer online classes. Five respondents were not included due to incomplete responses in the survey.

In terms of gender, there were 141 females and 71 males who participated in the study. This suggests that females were the dominant respondents in this study. This data confirms the trend found in other studies that the teacher education course attracts more females than males (Madrazo, 2019; Rillo, Tonio, & Lucas, 2019). Despite the fact that the number of respondents for comparisons was unequal, the researchers utilized proper statistics to construct mean scores

and standard deviation in a normal distribution before submitting the data to the T-Test for Independent Samples (Hewstone & Stroebe, 2002; Kerlinger & Lee, 2000).

With regard to the socio-economic status, the distribution is as follows: Class A – 4 respondents, Class B – 8 respondents, Class C – 16 respondents, Class D1 – 26 respondents, Class D2 – 36 respondents, and Class E – 122 respondents. This means that the majority of the respondents is from Class E, and the least number is from Class A.

Research Instrument

An instrument or commonly used as research tool which is the key to quantify, perceive or document quantitative statistics (Creswell, 2012). Aina (2004) said that research tool is used to gather reliable statistics which will later be analyzed by scholars. In addition, the tool contains background information and questions.

For this study, it adopted the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Copes (1986). However, all items in the instrument were modified for it to be appropriate considering the context of the present study based on the validation result of the three language teachers. Additionally, the questionnaire was pilot tested to 50 non-participant high school students from Zamboanga City. The instrument was reported to be reliable with the Cronbach' $\alpha = 0.922$. The reliability score suggests that the instrument is of 'good' reliability (George, & Maller, 2003).

First part of the online survey questionnaire is basic demographic profile. Salkin (2010) described demographic as a specific feature of a population which includes age, education, ethnicity, family size, gender, income, race, religion, and others. This study particularly used the gender and socio-economic status of the respondents. The scale for the socio-economic status was adapted from the study of Sicam and Lucas (2016), and Delgado and Kasim (2019). The SES described the combined monthly income of the family. However, one of the limitations of this study is SES was only the respondents who disclosed the SES to which they belong. The SES follows this scheme: Class A (Upper class) – 125,001 to 150,000, Class B (Upper class) – 100,001 to 125,000, Class C (Upper class) – 75,001 to 100,000, Class D1 (Upper middle class) – 50,001 to 75,000, Class D2 (lower middle class) – 25,001 to 50,000, and Class E (lower class) – 10,000 to 25,000.

While the second part of the questionnaire has 21 statements. Items 1, 2, 3, 4, 5 and 6 pertain to communication apprehension; items 7, 8, 9 and 10 refer to the test anxiety; items 11, 12, 13, 14 and 15 relate to the fear of negative evaluation; and, items 16, 17, 18, 19, 20 and 21 focuses on anxiety of English classes. However, there are no negative statements present in the tool. It is of a five-point Likert scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

Data Gathering Procedure

The data collection was conducted through the use of Google form. Before conducting the data gathering, an email was sent to the school principals of the identified high schools in Zamboanga City to seek permission to conduct the survey to the participants. After receiving the approval, the link of the digitalized questionnaire was sent to the identified teachers from public and private schools which they have also sent to their students.

Data Analysis

To enable analysis, the responses of the respondents were coded. The scheme is as follows: 1 for strongly disagree, 2 for disagree, 3 for uncertain, 4 for agree, and 5 for strongly agree. There was no reverse coding employed to responses since there were no negative statements. Additionally, the dichotomous variable gender is coded as 1 for male and 2 for female. With

regards to socio-economic status, it was coded as 6 for Class A, 5 for Class B, 4 for Class C, 3 for Class D1, 2 for Class D2, and 1 for Class E.

Moreover, to provide interpretation to the computed arithmetic mean, we used the traditional way. To determine the minimum and maximum length of the scale, the range is calculated by five minus one then divided by five as it is the greatest value of the scale. Afterwards, number one which is the least value in the scale was added in order to identify the maximum range of this scale. The following is the result and this was used to interpret the mean.

Means Scores	Interpretation
4.2 to 5.0	very high level of anxiety
3.4 to 4.19	high level of anxiety
2.6 to 3.39	average level of anxiety
1.8 to 2.59	low level of anxiety
1.0 to 1.79	negligible level of anxiety

To answer the three questions raised for this study, statistical tools were employed to treat the raw data. First, for question number 1, to determine the respondents' levels of online learning anxiety, descriptive statistics (mean, and standard deviation) were utilized. Second, for question number 2, to determine whether there are significant differences in the online language learning anxiety when data are grouped according to gender, the inferential statistical treatment known as t-test for independent sample was utilized. Lastly, for question number 3, to determine whether there are significant differences in the online language learning anxiety when data are grouped according to socio-economic status, the statistical tool known as Kruskal-Wallis H was used.

Results and Discussion

Respondents' Levels of Online English Learning Anxiety

Responses of the respondents were grouped and coded. The raw data were computed to determine the mean scores of the responses in the four aspects of language anxiety. Table 1.1 presents the analysis which includes the mean [M], standard deviation [SD], and interpretation [Interp.].

Table 3.1 Levels of Online English Learning Anxiety

Items on Online English Language Learning Anxiety	Mean	SD	Interpretation
I don't feel certain when I am talking in my online English class.	2.98	0.97	Average level of anxiety
I begin to frighten when I need to present or discuss in my online English class.	3.17	1.16	Average level of anxiety
I feel exceptionally nervous when ask to give ideas and opinions in my English online class.	3.25	1.19	Average level of anxiety
I become anxious whenever my online English teacher ask me question to which I would reply in English.	3.17	1.07	Average level of anxiety
I become apprehensive when my online English teacher presents the whole discussion of topic in English.	2.83	1.09	Average level of anxiety

I continue believing that other learners are better at English language than I am.	3.35	1.20	Average level of anxiety
I feel upset over committing errors in my online English class.	3.37	1.14	Average level of anxiety
I don't feel relieved in my online English class throughout the test duration.	2.98	1.03	Average level of anxiety
I stress over the outcomes of failing my online English class.	3.44	1.21	High level of anxiety
The more I contemplate for the online English test, the more puzzled I become.	3.20	1.03	Average level of anxiety
I panic when I realize that I will be called in my online English class.	3.33	1.19	Average level of anxiety
It humiliates me to volunteer answers in my online English class.	3.06	1.14	Average level of anxiety
I become annoyed after I do not realize what the instructor is correcting in my online English class.	2.99	1.15	Average level of anxiety
I'm able to sense my heart beating once I could be called in my online English class.	3.55	1.12	High level of anxiety
Online English language class move so rapidly I stress over getting left behind.	3.06	1.10	Average level of anxiety
It worries me while I don't comprehend what the instructor is talking in my online English class.	3.26	1.12	Average level of anxiety
I don't comprehend why a few people get so steamed at online English classes.	2.87	0.97	Average level of anxiety
In online English class, I can get so anxious I overlook things I know.	3.13	1.07	Average level of anxiety
Regardless of whether I prepared well for online English class, I feel worry about it.	3.45	1.12	High level of anxiety
I feel strain to get ready for online English class.	2.99	1.05	Average level of anxiety
I feel most stressed and apprehensive in my online English class than in different classes.	2.75	1.14	Average level of anxiety
Overall Anxiety	3.16	0.72	Average Level of Anxiety

Scale: 1.0 to 1.79 (negligible level of anxiety), 1.8 to 2.59 (low level of anxiety), 2.6 to 3.39 (average level of anxiety), 3.4 to 4.19 (high level of anxiety), and 4.2 to 5.0 (very high level of anxiety)

It can be gleaned from table 1.1 that the overall online English learning anxiety of the respondents is 3.16 (SD=0.72) interpreted as average level of anxiety. This indicates that the respondents' level of anxiety towards online English learning is average only. This finding is similar to the result of Na (2007), Chan and Wu (2004), wherein their respondents also have an average level of anxiety when learning English in a classroom setting. It appears that the learners are somehow not comfortable in learning English as a second language in an online set-up. However, the result contradicts the findings of Huwang and Huang (2010), which reported a high mean of overall language anxiety among Chinese learners in an EFL context.

The result further reveals that item 14 "I'm able to sense my heart beating once I could be called in my online English class." obtained the highest mean score of 3.55 interpreted as "high level of anxiety". This was followed by item 19 "Regardless of whether I prepared well for online English class, I feel worry about it" with the mean score of 3.45, and item 9 "I stress over the outcomes of failing my online English class" both were interpreted as "high level of anxiety" with mean score of 3.44.

On the other hand, item 7 (I feel upset over committing errors in my online English class) obtained a mean score of 3.37 and item 6 (I continue believing that other learners are better at English language than I am) obtained a mean score of 3.35. Item 11 (I panic when I realize that I will be called in my online English class) obtained a mean score of 3.33, item 16 (It worries me while I don't comprehend what the instructor is talking in my online English class) obtained a mean score of 3.26, item 3 (I feel exceptionally nervous when ask to give ideas and opinions in my English online class) obtained a mean score of 3.25, item 10 (The more I contemplate for the online English test, the more puzzled I become) obtained a mean score of 3.20, item 2 (I begin to frighten when I need to present or discuss in my online English class) and item 4 (I become anxious whenever my online English teacher ask me question to which I would reply in English) obtained a mean score of 3.17. While item 18 (In online English class, I can get so anxious I overlook things I know) obtained a mean score of 3.13, item 12 (It humiliates me to volunteer answers in my online English class) and item 15 (OnlineEnglish language class move so rapidly I stress over getting left behind) obtained a mean score of 3.06, item 13 (I become annoyed after I do not realize what the instructor is correcting in my online English class) and item 20 (I feel strain to get ready for online English class) obtained a mean score of 2.99, item 1 (I don't feel certain when I am talking in my online English class) and item 8 (I don't feel relieved in my online English class throughout the test duration) and obtained a mean score of 2.98. Then, item 17 (I don't comprehend why a few people get so steamed at online English classes) obtained a mean score of 2.87, item 5 (I become apprehensive when my online English teacher presents the whole discussion of topic in English) obtained a mean score of 2.83, and item 21 (I feel most stressed and apprehensive in my online English class than in different classes) obtained a mean score of 2.75. These items from 6 to 21 with mean scores ranging from 2.75 to 3.36 were all interpreted as average level of anxiety.

It can be drawn from the result that the respondents are anxious in committing errors, afraid to fail and scared when being called by the teacher/instructor in the online English class. This conforms to the previous studies that Filipino learners have a fear of negative evaluation (Lucas, Miraflores, Go, 2011) and fear in taking tests (Sabbah, 2018). According to Lucas, Miraflores, and Go (2011), the manner of error correction is often provoking anxiety. Students are more concerned about how their errors are corrected rather than doing the corrections during the class. Moreover, Ohata (2005) claimed that the students fear losing their "face" in front of other students if their utterances and grammar using the English language is being evaluated. On the other hand, test anxiety is usually happening when the learners think that they may get a bad grade which eventually leads to low self-esteem (Ohata, 2005).

Differences on the Online Language Learning Anxiety across Gender

To determine whether there is a significant difference in the online language learning anxiety levels of the ESL high school learners when data are grouped according to gender, t-test for independent sample was used.

Table 3.2 Online Language Learning Anxiety across Gender

Categories	M	SD	Description	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male	3.07	0.74	Average Level of Anxiety	.244
Female	3.20	0.71	Average Level of Anxiety	

Table 3.2 shows the significant difference in the online language learning anxiety of ESL high school learners when data are grouped according to gender. It can be perceived from the table that the mean score of male respondents is 3.07 (SD=0.74) while the mean score of female respondents is 3.20 (SD=0.71). The p-value of 0.244 indicates that there is no significant difference in the online language learning anxiety between males and females. This implies that both males and females have an average level of online language learning anxiety, thus, gender does not affect the language learning anxiety level. This finding opposed the claims of Lynott and McCandless (2000), Motowidlo (1982), and Wong, Kettlewell, and Sproule (1985) that there is a difference in the language learning anxiety level between men and women. The result reveals that both male and female students have the same level of anxiety towards language learning in an online class which is average only.

Differences on the Online Language Learning Anxiety Levels across SES

To find out whether there is a significant difference on the online language learning anxiety among ESL high school learners when data are grouped according to socioeconomic status, the statistical tool Kruskal-Wallis H was used to treat the raw data because SES has six groups with unequal number of population. The tables below present the analysis.

Table 3.3 Online Language Learning Anxiety across SES

Categories	N	Mean Rank	df	Asymp Sig.
Class A	4	34.25	5	.111
Class B	8	75.75		
Class C	16	98.28		
Class D1	26	111.27		
Class D2	36	103.85		
Class E	122	111.73		

***p-value significant at 0.05*

Table 3.3 shows the significant difference on the online language learning anxiety of the respondents when data are grouped according to socio-economic status. The table reveals that the class E obtained the highest mean score of 111.73, followed by class D1 with a mean score of 111.27, class D2 with a mean score of 103.85, class C with a mean score of 98.28, class B with a mean score of 75.75 and class A with a mean score of 34.25. Moreover, it can be gleaned from the table that there is no significant difference on the level of online English language learning anxiety when respondents are grouped according to their respective socio-economic status with a degree of freedom of 5 and *p* value of 0.111. This means that SES is a factor which does not influence the difference in the online English language anxiety of the respondents.

This is to some extent conform with what Jiang and Dewaele (2020) found that no big differences can be found between students' language anxiety and their geographical background which includes socioeconomic status. What can be deduced from the foregoing results is that the socio-economic status of the Filipino or ESL high school students, does not contribute to the level of anxiety towards learning the English language in an online class.

Conclusion

Anxiety is one aspect of affective domain that could extremely disturb the academic performance of ESL High School learners. As what Horwitz et. al (1986) said that anxiety will

lead to subjective sensation of apprehension, uneasiness, and pressure with the arousal of the nervous system which will have a deleterious impact and the predisposition of gaining poor performance particularly in an online language class. The following conclusions are made from the results of the study: One is that the ESL high school learners have an average anxiety level toward online language learning. Second, the gender of the respondents does not influence the anxiety level of the ESL learners toward online language learning. Last is that socio-economic status plays a significant difference in the anxiety level of ESL learners toward online language learning.

With these, the results on the online English language learning anxiety can be seen as both an advantage and a disadvantage. Advantage, in a sense that there is not much of a need to modify the teaching approaches when teaching English in an online class, since the level of anxiety that the students feel is only average. However, it is a disadvantage at the same time, because it calls for a change in the way teachers would give feedback to students since the respondents have a high level of fear in committing mistakes and being called during the online English class.

Implication

The outcomes of this study are expected to have profound implications for both teachers, and students. As anxiety is indeed an aspect of the affective domain that can have a significant impact on ESL High School students' academic performance where it can cause subjective feelings of apprehension, unpleasantness, and pressure due to nervous system activation, which has a negative influence and a predisposition to poor performance, particularly in an online language class.

Henceforth, the English language teachers should acknowledge the advantage and disadvantage of online language anxiety among the ESL High School learners, gain more knowledge on giving feedback particularly in giving comments when the learners commit mistakes whether the mistakes were done verbally or not, and use appropriate strategies in the manner of calling the learners for participation in order to boost their self-confidence.

Moreover, English language learners should be encouraged to practice the use of English language in communication and to communicate in English with their family and peer to improve more their English skills.

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Emergence of New Protocols from the Teaching of Oral Communication in Three Senior High School Settings

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Abstract

There have been several preconceived notions of teacher effectiveness which is measured through students' performance in acquired skills. This prevailing concept of teacher effectiveness is too limiting and does not provide leeway for other factors and aspects of teaching. Goe, Bell and Little (2008) broadly defined teacher effectiveness in five points: addressing students' needs, creating positive academic and social outcomes, planning a diverse and engaging structure for learning opportunities, developing diversity and civic-mindedness among learners, and collaborating with other stakeholders. Thus, teaching English to a group of second language learners in the Senior High School with varying degrees of communicative, language, discourse, and strategic competence pose as a challenge for many teachers; hence, it has become a platform for various studies and researches (Hang Zhou, 2012; Rovira, 2008; Mercuri, 2012; Goldenberg, 2008; Dowling 2011). This research was conducted as response to the challenge in the teaching of English in Philippine setting by studying the protocols used for the teaching of Oral Communication in the SHS. The researchers used the time series design in analyzing the similarities and differences in the teaching protocols of the three teachers in the Oral Communication class in the three settings: ABM, HUMSS, and STEM. The analyses revealed teaching-learning protocols (TLP) which are anchored on Communicative Competence, Gagne's Learning Theory, and Ausubel's Meaningful Learning Theory. The TLPs derived from the analyses were illustrated in this paper, and can be used as a guide in the teaching of Oral Communication.

Keywords: Oral communication, Senior High School, Teaching-learning protocols

Introduction

Teaching English to a group of learners with varying degrees of communicative, linguistic, discourse, and strategic competence can become challenging. Such challenge calls for the use of various teaching strategies, approaches and methodologies to provide the students the necessary support (scaffolding) in order for them to acquire the skills and competencies expected for their level. Because teaching of English to second language learners has posed as a challenge for many language and literature teachers, it has become a platform for various studies and researches (Rovira, 2008; Mercuri, 2012; Goldenberg, 2008; Brewster, 2004; Folse, 2004). As a result, teaching English has become a "highly specialized field" in language education tailored fit to the unique competencies, needs and nature of the learners (Hanson & Filibert, 2006).

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Despite of the abundance of researches and studies conducted locally and internationally by in the field of education, there remains a mismatch between teacher preparation and learner needs which may be caused by inadequate teacher training, poor needs analysis of students' needs and competence, and mismatched curriculum. These evaluations have been revealed in earlier studies attesting that most of teacher preparations do not equip students with discourse, strategic, communicative, and language competencies that can aid them when exposed to various cultural settings (Echivarria, Vogt, & Short, 2000).

To strengthen research-to-practice pipeline, several frameworks and protocols have been developed to support the teaching of English. Protocols such as Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) Model developed by Echivarria, Vogt and Short (2000) and Instructional Conversation by Goldberg (2003) provide the teachers "Pedagogical Content Knowledge" on how to teach students read academic and non-academic text, compose discourses, solve problems presented in various contexts and perform other interdisciplinary works (Shulman, 1986; 1987, as cited in Wilhelm, 2016). Through these protocols, teachers can provide the necessary support for students to achieve proficiency in the use of the language via discourses--written or oral.

Accordingly, teachers also provide the students the necessary support on how to use language in social interactions. Vygotsky's Theory of Sociocultural Learning fosters construction of knowledge, in general, from the assistance provided by the teacher. Simply put, how students think and interact is based on how well the teacher assisted or scaffolded, for "teaching, in this theoretical view, is perceived as assisted performance.... Learning is performance achieved through assistance" (Garcia, 2011, as cited in Mohr, K. & Mohr, E., 2014). Thus, the teacher's role is integral in language learning and the world they live in in that it should cultivate active participation in the affairs of the global word and cultural understanding (Mohr, K. & Mohr, E., 2014). This implies that an English language classroom should be able to enhance the cross-cultural communication skills through deep understanding of the relationship among culture, language, and identity (Hang Zou, 2012).

The nature of millennial learners who are expected to develop 21st century skills had brought educational implications. It cannot be denied that language classroom in the globalized world can face challenges, underscoring the fact that language learners learn differently. Much of how learning takes place and the lesson that should be learned are largely determined by the nature of the learners and how they are taught. Because of the nature of classrooms, this paper aims at proposing for a teaching protocol that can provide information on what language classrooms appear to be, and how varied learners are and can be taught. It is the intention of the paper to provide ESL instructors a selection of protocols that can be used in varied language classes.

Theoretical Framework

This study was anchored on three theories namely, Communicative Competence, Gagne's Learning Theory and Ausubel's Meaningful Learning Theory espousing that learners of second language need learn the target language for real-life situations in the real-world. Thus, teaching must be designed with these four principles of communicative competence (Canale and Swain, 1980 in Celce- Murcia, 2001): (1) emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction using the target language; (2) use of authentic texts; (3) drawing on the learner's previous knowledge to enrich learning and classroom interaction; and (4) linking classroom learning to real- life situations.

Specifically, this study is guided by these questions:

1. To what extent are the current protocols of teaching oral communication by the three English teachers in the three settings guided by the principles of communicative competence?

2. What similarities and differences or deviations derived from observations of the existing protocols can lead to some implications for the crafting of the new protocols?

3. What Language Teaching Protocols from the three settings can emerge and be proposed?

Method

Participants and Settings. Based on the theoretical framework, the researchers derived implications from a series of observations from the Language Teaching Protocols employed by three English teachers of oral communication from the three settings: one ABM class, one HUMSS class, and one STEM class. The teacher participants and classes were selected purposively based on their teaching loads to suit the requirements of the research. Further, the classes that were observed were determined based on the convenience and preference of the teacher participants. Each teacher presented three different lessons; namely, (1) Elements of Communication, (2) Non-verbal Communication, and (3) Verbal Communication. The analyses in the three settings were directed towards the teachers' lesson plan and design, content delivery, and assessment of learning.

Scope and Limitations of the Study. This study explored the Language Teaching Protocols utilized by English teachers of Oral Communication in Context in ABM, HUMSS, and STEM classes. Specifically, this study focused on the lesson design, delivery of content, and assessment of learning in three lessons in the Philippine SHS setting for second language learners. The teacher's knowledge of the content, the learning environment, the student's academic performance, and the teachers and students' English language skills were not considered in the conduct of the study and analysis of data. To achieve the research objectives, the study focused on finding answers to the research questions, anchored on Communicative Competence, Gagne's Learning Theory and Ausubel's Meaningful Learning Theory.

Validity of the results. In order to ensure the validity of qualitative data, the researchers subjected the analyses to five experts who are teachers of English language. They participated both in the analysis of the protocols and the verification of the crafted Language Teaching Protocols. The specific procedures include: (1) observation and evaluation of the teaching protocols in the three settings which implications served as bases in crafting the Language Teaching Protocols; and (2) derivation of the similarities and differences in the protocols of the language teachers. The finalized Language Teaching Protocols were verified by the experts according to the theoretical bases of the study and review of the observations made. Figure 1 visually presents the method of this research.

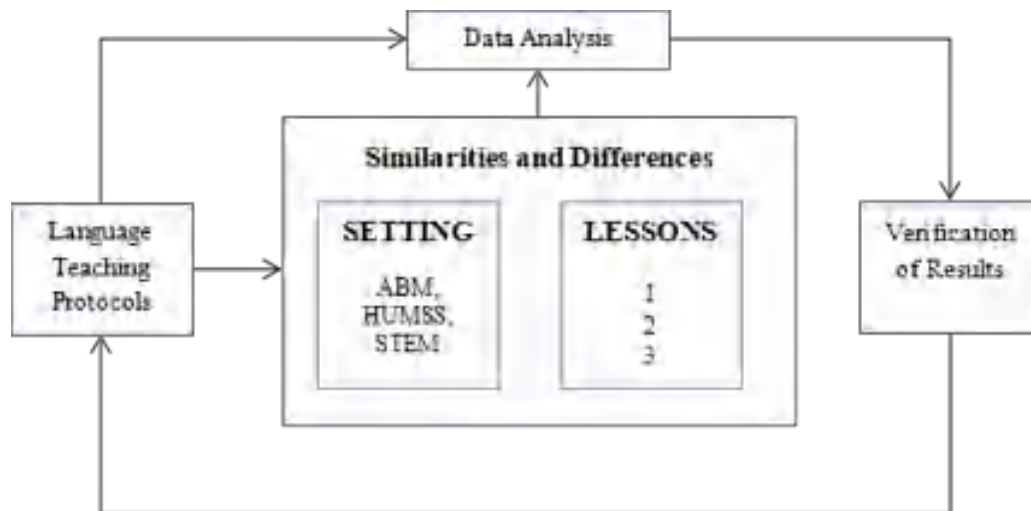


Figure 1: The Methodology Framework for time-series research in Language Teaching Protocols.

Findings and Discussions

Protocol 1: The Systematic Teacher

The lesson plan and design, content delivery and assessment of learning by Teacher 1 have evidently showed the following:

- (1) emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction
- (2) use of authentic text
- (3) drawing on learner's previous knowledge to enrich learning and classroom interaction
- (4) linking classroom learning to real-life situations

Delivery. Teacher 1 utilized the "interactive and integrated approaches, micro planning and systematic and logical presentation" to the teaching delivery which was cascaded to the assessment of students' learning. The use of interactive allows the teacher to design a lesson that will give students the opportunity to express themselves in the classroom, whereas the integrated approach connects the lesson to another subject or field of specialization (Navas, Tejada, Moran & Hernandez, 2014). Micro planning has shown the ability of the teacher to systematically plan out the lesson enabling the classes to run smoothly. This also shows that the teacher comes prepared for class and has a variety of activities prepared so that students do not get bored (Navas, Tejada, Moran & Hernandez, 2014).

Teacher 1's protocol serves as a guide in providing the students ample opportunities to share their first-hand experiences, insights and real-life experiences to the class, drawing on their prior knowledge using leading questions through lesson association, recalling and sharing of ideas. This type of approach used is a feature of Communicative Approach where the learners learn what they will need for real-world, real-life situation which is more of a way of teaching than a method (Malone, 2012).

To achieve the lesson's objectives, the plan was perceived to be guided by **target-output approach**, which was used throughout the lesson, focused on achieving its objective

i.e. for students to demonstrate the use of the target language as an evidence of learning. This was demonstrated using the target language in oral presentations (individual or group), model development and presentation, and written activity. Classroom approaches like this promote student participation, teacher talk, and group and individual activities which show that communication and interaction are the main purpose of language learning (Richards & Rodgers, 1986). Language learning activities as such are useful in facilitating focus, interaction and learning of language functions in order to achieve target language forms (Castro, 2010; Hymes, 1972, Nunan, 1991).

Assessment. The assessments used by Teacher 1 was assessed by the experts as "Highly Effective" because it provided students ample opportunities to share their insights using leading questions. This resulted in extensive participation from the students, which gave the teacher the opportunity to gauge students' learning. These types of assessments adhere to Communicative Language Teaching which aims to develop the communicative competence of the students using communicative processes such as exchanging information, negotiation of meaning, and interaction (Nguyen, Warren & Ferring, 2014; Richards, 2001). In that, communicative language teaching evidently: 1) does not focus on grammatical competence; and 2) utilizes teaching techniques designed for pragmatic, authentic, and functional use of the language (Brown, 2007).

Protocol 2: The Constructive Teacher

Teacher 2 utilized the integrated and constructivist approaches in lesson planning and design, content delivery and assessment of learning wherein:

- (1) students are expected to interact
- (2) students construct knowledge from the stimulus provided by the teacher
- (3) teachers activate the students' prior knowledge
- (4) teachers engage the students' interest

This type of approach which uses stimulus is typified by the work of B.F. Skinner which espouses that any learning goes through this process: A stimulus will be provided by the teacher, which elicits responses from the students and from the responses of the students, the teacher will give a positive or negative reinforcement (Malone, 2012; Sun 2015).

Delivery. Although the plan was generic, the lessons focused on gauging students' understanding using lectures and frameworks by activating the students' prior knowledge and engaging their interest which enriched learning and classroom interaction. Requiring learners to construct explanatory answers improves learning because students do not spontaneously attempt to explain to themselves the significance of to-be-learned content (Presley, Wood, Woloshynn, Martin, King & Menke, 2010).

To measure students' learning and understanding, the teacher used time-on tasks which allowed the students to express their understanding and ideas about the topic being discussed. This gave them the opportunity to use the target language in classroom interaction. Using the target language during classroom discussion and activities is a salient feature of communicative language teaching which attempts to link classroom learning to the activities outside the classroom and emphasize the use of target language in communication (Leavitt, 2013; Malone, 2012; Sun, 2015).

However, it was perceived that **the tasks were more focused on content rather than on performance**. This made the classroom tasks and activities knowledge based rather than performance based which is contrary to what communicative competence espouses, communicative classroom should be "vibrant" than silent (Curtin, 2005). Students should be given opportunities for discourse using the target language (Hite & Evans, 2006). As observed, the tasks and activities were knowledge-based, and their use is typical of InformationProcessing where human beings' ability to acquire language is seen as a component of highly complex cognitive structures. The Adaptive Control of Thought model explains Teacher 2's use of framework to explain the lessons and assess students' understanding; the model was developed by Anderson and supports that a learner's capacity to learn a language is not to be looked at as simply one whole but with many parts (Leavitt, 2013; Malone, 2012).

Assessment. To measure students' learning and understanding, Teacher 2 used time-on tasks which was assessed as "Effective" allowing the students to express their understanding and ideas about the topic being discussed. This gave the students the opportunity to use the target language in classroom interaction which is a salient feature of communicative language teaching which attempts to link classroom learning to the activities outside the classroom and emphasize the use of target language in communication (Leavitt, 2013; Malone, 2012; Sun, 2015). However, it was perceived that majority of the assessments, though creative, were more focused on content rather than performance, thus not enough to gauge students' understanding and application of learning.

Protocol 3: The Sparking Teacher

Teacher 3 utilized common and basic strategies that promote interactive learning among the students using their creative minds. The appeal of this teaching strategy is grounded in developing students who are active, purposeful, and who become increasingly independent learners. The strategies also provide innovative ideas for teachers working with diverse classrooms and with students who exhibit a variety of learning needs (Buehl, 1995; Klein, 1990). Also, this is frequently used in task-based language teaching which utilizes small group activities that promote positive interaction among students. As a result, students benefit from the learning strategies that their classmates use (Malone, 2012; Zhang, 2017).

In the lesson planning and design, content delivery and assessment of learning, it was evident that:

- (1) students are expected to encourage students to work by themselves
- (2) students share their knowledge to the class which encouraged self- reflection
- (3) teacher connects the students' prior knowledge using questions

It was observed that the students' performance was greatly determined by the teacher's ability to create learning expectations, model, and provide opportunities to practice critical consciousness (Gay & Kirkland, 2010).

Delivery. In the delivery of the content, the teacher connects the students' prior knowledge to the new learning. The student' prior knowledge were specifically connected to their answers to the questions provided by the teacher. There is absence of scaffolding which is known to be the assistance provided to the students on aspects that they would find difficult. Scaffolding is critical in the discussion of the lesson. It was also indicated in the evaluation that the discussion was very cluttered and disorganized. The use of authentic text in the discussion of the lesson was not evident.

Assessment. The assessment used by Teacher 3 was evaluated to be “Effective.” It involves utilizing activities that promote reflection using the Socratic Method. The students were encouraged to work independently and share their knowledge to the class which encouraged self- reflection. This technique of assessing students’ learning showed the teacher's ability to create learning expectations, model, and provide opportunities to practice critical consciousness (Gay & Kirkland, 2010). In addition, the assessments tend to be teacher-centered with limited opportunities for the students to exercise and exhibit their higher order thinking skills. The instructions and objectives for the assessments were also found by the evaluators to be disorganized and vague.

Comparison of Protocols

Similarities. The similarities that were derived from the observation of the existing protocols were minimal. The three teachers used varied protocols that they found suitable for the group of learners that they are handling or based on the students' strand.

The analyses of the lesson planning and design, content delivery and assessment of learning revealed that the teachers employed the following:

- (1) Activating the students' prior knowledge
- (2) Shifting to the use of lectures
- (3) Using question-and-answer method
- (4) Providing student- centered discussions and activities
- (5) Prompting by using leading questions
- (6) Promoting interaction using the target language

All the protocols utilized the students' prior knowledge, yet other protocols were common to only some classes. The use of question-and- answer method was sparingly used by Teacher 2 and Teacher 3 in gauging students' understanding, whereas leading questions were used by Teacher 1 to prompt students to participate in the discussion

One significant similarity among the three protocols is the use of strategies that promote classroom interaction using the target language. According to Nguyen, Warren and Fehring (2014), it is important for teachers to understand the goal of teaching and learning i.e. to develop the students' communicative competence. Following this point, Liu and Jackson (2008) claim that the primary goal of language instruction is to develop the students' ability touse the language in communication. In that, when teachers select activities, it is important to remember that these activities should provide students the opportunity to interact freely and convey to others what they want to share with the ultimate goal of being understood the way they intend to be understood (Rivers 1978 as cited in Nguyen, Warren & Fehring, 2014).

Differences. The differences outweigh the similarities. Teacher 1 designed and presented the lesson in a systematic and logical manner with activities and tasks that were relevant and achievable, with all the details incorporated in the plans. While Teacher 1 is systematic, Teachers 2 and 3 show otherwise. Their plans were generic or incomplete and did not include strategies or methodologies intended to be used in the lessons. One significant difference is the use of Teacher 1 of micro planning and design in the lessons which was not present in the lessons of teachers 2 and 3.

In addition to the deviations, Teacher 1 made use of the students' first-hand experiences in organizing learning. Teacher 2 used demonstration and framework construction while teacher 3 used the schema concept. It was also shown in the analysis that only teacher 1 made use of deductive teaching in which the topic was discussed by providing the general picture before proceeding to the specifics. The idea of selecting and combining the methods and approaches for teaching to enhance the learning experience of the students is promoted by Hutchinson and Waters (1993) which is strongly supported by Celce-Murcia (2001). Hockly (2011) also suggested that combining methods, approaches, and techniques can be done as long as it can stimulate the creativity of students (Anwar, 2015).

In the assessment of learning, Teacher 1, Teacher 2, and Teacher 3 made an attempt to be student-centered wherein students were tasked to perform oral presentations (individual or group) which the teachers assessed by giving feedbacks. According to Richards (2001) different kinds of authentic objects can be used to support communicative activities in the classroom, such as magazines, newspapers, maps, graphs, etc. The use of these teaching materials enhances students' ability to use the language to express themselves (Crystal, 1997, 2003; Nguyen, Warren & Fehring, 2014). In all of the classes, the teachers have promoted the use of the target language which is the Medium of Instruction. It is noteworthy that students performed and communicated well in the oral presentation using English; this finding which reveals the ease in the use of target language in an English only class is not the same as the case of the learners in the studies of Maramag-Manalastas and Batang (2018) revealing that learners tend to express better in classes that allowed use of multi-language than English Only Class.

Proposed Language Teaching Protocol for Oral Communication in Senior High School

The findings discussed above were subjected to theoretical and practical verification from the three settings. Teacher 1's framework and teaching protocol are heavily influenced by Ausubel's Meaningful Learning Theory and Gagne's Learning Theory where learning and understanding of concepts, ideas, and principles are achieved through deductive approach, logical and systematic presentation of the lesson, applying theory to practice and stimulating recall of prior learning. The most important aspect of this framework and teaching protocol is that the students are not Tabularasa or blank slates; they have prior knowledge which is utilized to make learning meaningful and effective.

Ausubel views knowledge to be hierarchically organized--aligned from planning to execution. This best explains how Teacher 1 designed the lesson organizing the relevant knowledge structures and making sure that the subject matter is clear which is a requirement of meaningful learning is.

On the other hand, Gagne's Learning theory is evident in this protocol with the use of his instructional model which is composed of three phases: (1) the pre-instructional phase, (2) the instructional phase and (3) the post-instructional phase. In addition, Gagne's nine events of learning were also used as theoretical basis in constructing the framework and protocol.

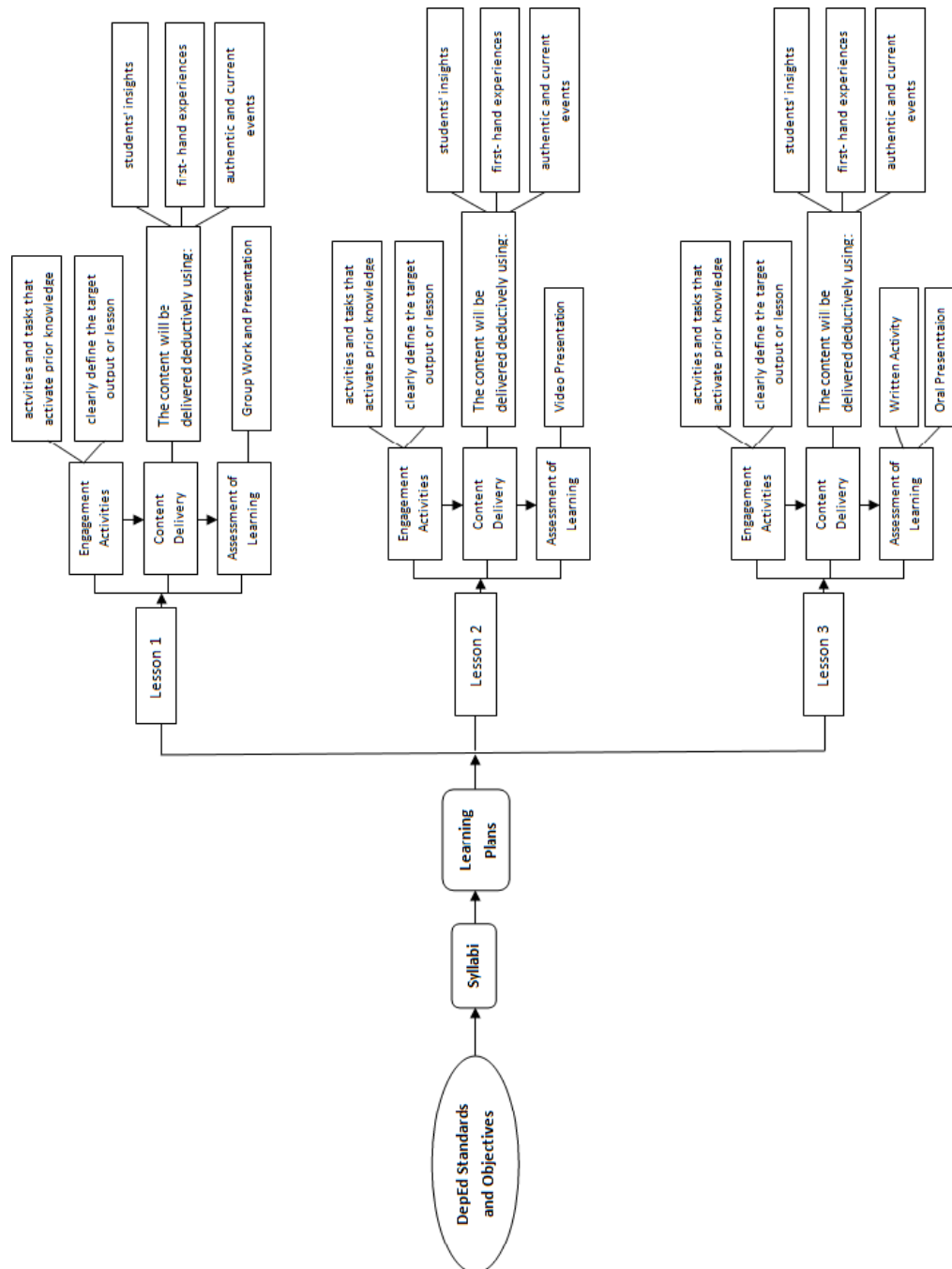


Figure 2. Systematic Teaching- Learning Framework

Shown in Figure 2 is the Systematic Teaching-Learning Framework that was developed to best illustrate how Teacher 1 planned, delivered and assessed the lessons.

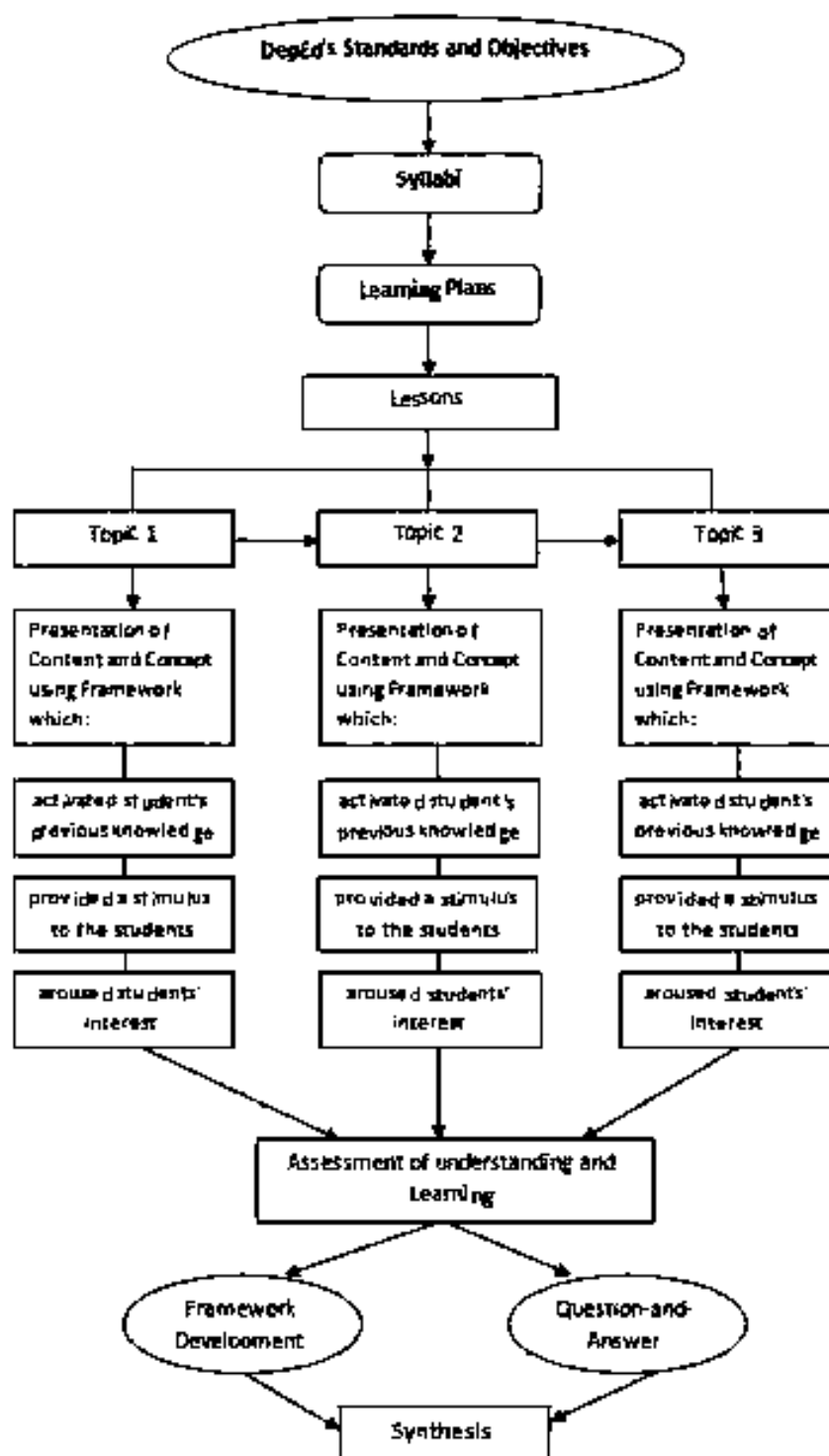


Figure 3: Constructing Teaching-Learning Framework

Figure 3 shows the Constructing Learning Framework. This framework and teaching protocol was constructed to illustrate how Teacher 2 delivers in class. The framework and teaching protocol of Teacher 2 are heavily influenced by Piaget's Cognitive Constructivist Theory, which espouses that humans learn by constructing their own knowledge of the information that

they have been given. The primary role of the teacher is to motivate the learners to create their own knowledge through active participation in their learning.

The most important feature of this framework and protocol is the role of Teacher 2 in guiding the students construct their own knowledge which was done using a framework in the discussions. In turn, students were asked to show their understanding of the lesson by creating their own framework.

From the theoretical and practical verifications, the framework and teaching protocol of Teacher 3 are heavily influenced by Constructivism, which espouses that humans learn by constructing their own knowledge of the information that they have been given by tapping on the students' innate curiosity of how things work. Students actively apply their existing knowledge and real-world experience, learning to hypothesize, testing their theories, and ultimately drawing conclusions from their findings.

The most important feature of this framework and protocol is the role of Teacher 3 in activating the prior knowledge of the students using questions. However, this was perceived by the evaluators as cluttered, disorganized, and insufficient delivery of information because of the absence of synthesis and scaffolding of students' learning. Another notable feature of this framework is the attempt of the teacher to make the class student- centered with the use of activities that "warm up the ambiance of the classroom" like video presentations and games.

A framework was developed to best illustrate how Teacher 3 delivers his lessons based on the tabulated and analyzed data. However, it should be noted that parts of the framework which are in red are supplied by the researchers to complete the flow of the framework. This framework is called the Sparking Teaching-Learning Framework.

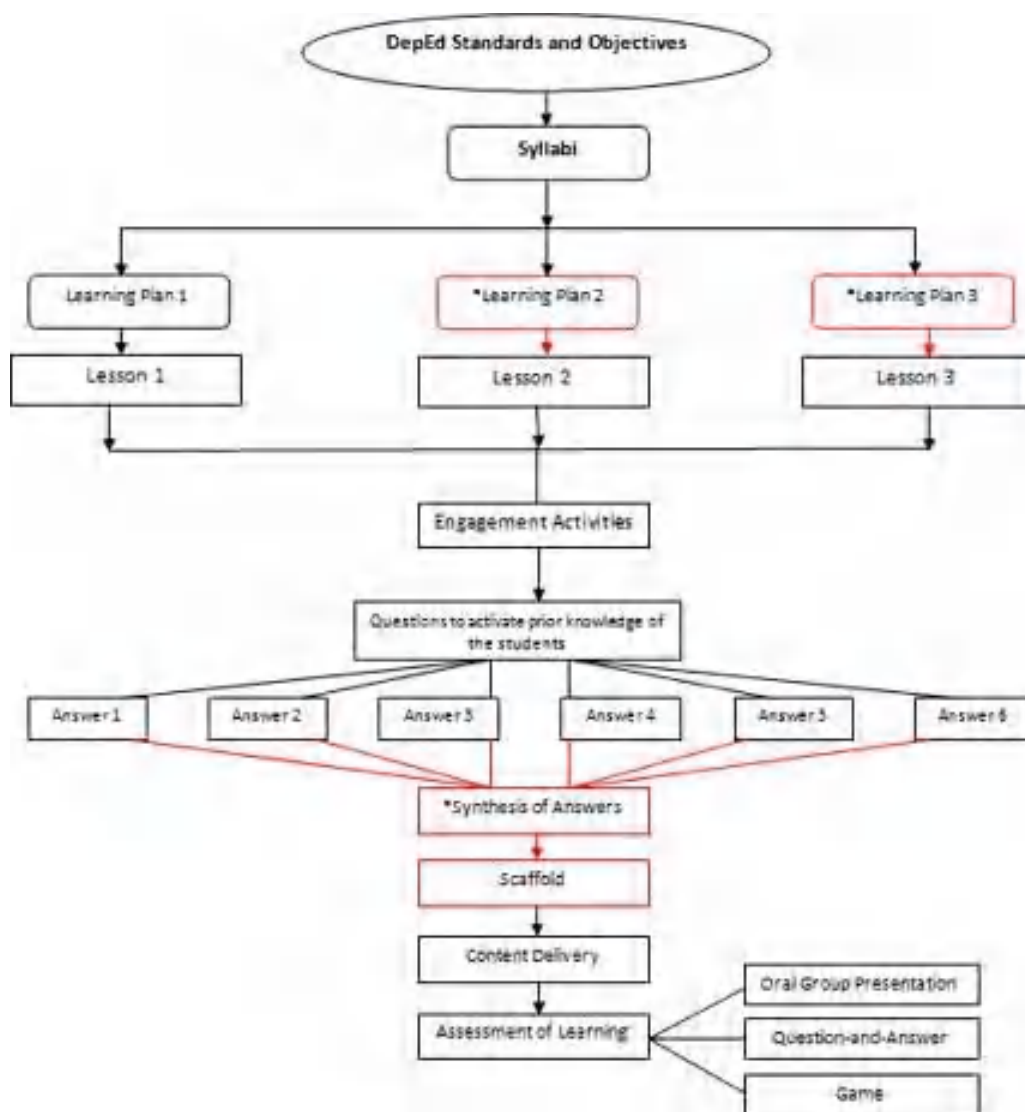


Figure 4: Sparking Teaching- Learning Framework

Conclusion

The findings of the study revealed that there is no single approach to language teaching, and that like learners, teachers also have varied competencies in language classroom specifically in the delivery. The variety of teaching protocols may be due to the differences in the language teaching settings; hence, even if the learners ought to receive similar lessons, teachers would instruct them following different frameworks. The findings of this study attest what Basamala and Machmud (2018) showed to be effective among language learners: incorporating interesting teaching approaches and providing high engagement and interaction among students. Surely, what teachers choose to utilize as protocol in their classrooms can affect student learning.

It is highly recommended that more studies on teaching protocols be conducted, moving beyond Oral Communication in Context classes. Highlights of this study are the different theories to which each Teachers anchored their protocols to. The protocol utilized by Teacher 1 in the teaching of Oral Communication in Context in the Senior High School adheres to the principles of communicative competence. The Protocol is heavily guided by Ausubel's Meaningful Learning Theory and Gagne's Learning Theory. The protocol of Teacher 2 adheres to some of the principles of communicative competence and is heavily influenced by Piaget's Cognitive Constructivist Theory. The protocol of Teacher 3 was influenced by Constructivism, which also adheres to some principles of communicative competence. Based on the findings, it can be inferred that the three protocols can be combined to derive a grand protocol, which is an amalgamation of Protocol 1 of Teacher 1, Protocol 2 of Teacher 2, and Protocol 3 of Teacher 3. Also, the following combinations can be derived from the results of the study: the protocols of Teacher 1 and Teacher 2, the protocols of Teacher 2 and 3, the protocols of Teacher 3 and 1, which can produce a new protocol.

Pedagogical Implication

From the theoretical and practical verifications and analysis, the following pedagogical implications were derived:

1. **The students are the core of the teaching-learning process.** Hence, the process or the protocol should be designed based on students' prior knowledge, interest, and expected level of acquired competencies or learning outcomes to ensure that meaningful learning happens. This can be achieved using varied approaches, methods, techniques, and strategies with the teacher as the designer and facilitator of learning.
2. **The teacher should have an in-depth understanding of how learning takes place to effectively design the teaching-learning process from the activation of prior knowledge, facilitation of class discussions, to the assessment of students' learning.** The teacher's knowledge of the different learning theories and methodologies is evident in their lesson design or protocol. Language Teaching Protocols should give premium to student-centered learning, meaningful interactions that develop critical thinking skills and application of learning, and assessments using authentic materials which highlight acquisition of 21st century competencies and skills.
3. **The teacher should have expertise of the topic and effective facilitation of learning.** Facilitating learning is not an easy feat, hence it is important for the teacher to be knowledgeable of the content to effectively facilitate the teaching-learning process through well selected materials, resources, lesson designs, and assessments.

4. **The subject design and delivery of the lessons should align with local and international standards.** This safeguards that the expected competencies set by the local and international governing, assessing, and accrediting bodies are met. With the standards as the guide for the subject design and delivery of the lesson, this ensures that the curriculum and the teaching and learning activities promote the development of students' 21st century competencies and skills required of their grade level.

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Development of Speaking & Writing Integrated Learning Model (SWILM) for the English Productive Skills of EFL Students

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Abstract

Developing a learning design model really needs to be done in improving the teaching and learning process. Therefore, this study has developed a learning model that integrates speaking and writing skills. The purpose of this study was to validate a new model, which was the so-called speaking and writing integrated learning model (SWILM) and a set of learning materials developed using this model. The research design included the integration of various learning models that had been used to teach speaking and writing skills, such as contextual and cooperative approaches. The model incorporates psychological, pedagogical, and methodological dimensions to facilitate the development of speaking and writing skills. The researchers used the SWILM's five stages: modeling, sharing, integrating, facilitating, independent learning, as a basis to produce the learning materials. The questionnaire was given to 5 experts in the field of teaching design and also 5 lecturers related to the contents in the teaching material developed using the model steps. So, the essence of the study was to validate the instructional design model from the experts and get responses from the lecturers. The results showed that the SWILM design stages were very precise and valid based on the responses of the experts. Likewise, the materials designed with SWILM steps were very well responded by the lecturers.

Keywords: Integrated Learning, Model, Speaking Skill, Writing Skill

Introduction

The language production process can provide an insight into language understanding and typology. Language production is a concept in psycholinguistics that describes the stages of speech from the initial concept to the results of oral or written linguistics. In other words, language production is the process of communicating through language (MacDonald, 2013). In contrast to the receptive skills (listening and reading), speaking, and writing are considered productive or active language skills (Field, 1999).

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Speaking settings include interactive situations involving face-to-face conversations that entail alternating activities between the speaker and listener, as well as one-way or non-interactive situations that involve speaking or delivering messages directly to a listener or audience without any interruption of the speaker. Effective speaking requires skills of pronunciation of sounds that are clearly different. Suntornsawet (2019) has found that English pronunciation errors that cause unclear communication are such as unclear English consonant speech, eliminating the final consonant and the use of stressed and unstressed vowels in unsuitable environment, so that the listener can distinguish their meanings, using clear and precise tones and intonations so the listener can understand what the speaker is saying, selecting, and using the appropriate words, word forms, and order, using the appropriate language for the communication situation, making the sentences clear to the listener, and providing ideas or additional information to explain the main ideas.

Similarly, writing is a language activity carried out in the form of productive activities that can be interpreted as expressing thoughts, feelings, and information in written form. Read, & Spooner (2017) propose five concepts in writing skills, namely (1) writing is a social and rhetorical activity; (2) writing is to speak in situations of recognizable form; (3) writing is creating identity and ideology; (4) the writer must learn more; and (5) writing is a cognitive activity. These concepts are very important to consider in designing instructional models.

Furthermore, writing skills include the use of punctuation, word choice, proper use of spelling and grammar, and determining the appropriate sentence structure and organization. Researchers' observations show that among the four language skills (listening, speaking, writing & reading), speaking and writing are the most difficult for English as a foreign language (EFL) student to master. As Ampa (2019) found that fifth semester students still make many mistakes in writing English essays, whereby particular challenges include the determination of proper content and grammar as well as the use of "transitional signals." When engaging in English language production, students generally experience difficulties with the use of vocabulary and grammar (Ampa & Akib, 2018).

Various kinds of learning models are commonly used in English teaching and learning. In traditional learning, each skill is taught separately, and learning "structure" is combined with communicative activities involving the four language skills. Similarly, the teaching and learning of English skills in private universities in Indonesia tends to focus on single methods of learning certain skills. For example, the discussion method is used to develop speaking skills, whereas direct instruction is the main approach for teaching writing skills. However, a great deal of research has shown that teaching language skills separately is less effective than more holistic approaches (Lightbown, 1992). Furthermore, Fogarty (1991) argued that to achieve optimal teaching and learning processes, learning should integrate various subjects, such that learners can holistically gain knowledge and skills by applying concepts that they already understand in a direct and tangible manner to newer concepts.

This research offers a solution to improve English speaking and writing skills through the development of an innovative learning model called Speaking & Writing Integrated Learning Model (SWILM). This research developed the SWILM as a means to enhance the teaching and learning process of speaking and writing skills. The model encompasses psychological, pedagogical, and methodological dimensions (Tomlinson, 2013), and its aim is to integrate various learning models that have been used for teaching speaking and writing skills, such as contextual and cooperative models. In addition, speaking and writing skills are integrated in the teaching and learning process. The model was used as a basis to produce learning materials that can be used to help students improve their English learning skills,

particularly the two productive skills. In order to assess the model's effectiveness, it was presented to both experts and targeted users, namely teachers or lecturers.

Literature review

Learning model

A learning model is a conceptual framework that describes systematic procedures for organizing learning experiences to achieve certain learning goals and serves as a guide for teachers when implementing classroom activities (Winataputra, 2008). Furthermore, Trianto (2009) defined a learning model as a broad and comprehensive approach that can be classified based on learning objectives and suggested that the learning model is a pattern used as a guide in implementing learning in the classroom (Trianto, 2011). Meanwhile, according to Joyce, Weil, & Calhoun, (2003), the teaching model is a conceptual framework that describes a systematic procedure in organizing learning experiences to achieve certain learning goals, and has a function as a guide for learning designers and instructors in planning and implementing teaching and learning activities.

According to Slavin (2010), a learning model includes goals, syntax, and management systems. Millis (2012) suggested that each learning model must have four elements: 1) syntax, namely the phases of the model in actual implementation; 2) a social system, namely the roles and relationships of teachers and learners during the learning process; 3) reaction principles, namely the interaction of teachers and students in the teaching and learning process; and 4) a support system comprising all methods, materials, and tools that can be used to support the model. As such, a good learning model can be used as a reference in planning learning in classes or tutorials to determine tools that are in accordance with the learning materials being taught.

A cooperative learning model developed by Millis (2012) that emphasizes structural group learning and entails small groups working on specific tasks. Cooperative learning enhances both group and individual learning, as students are exposed to other perspectives and alternatives, share and exchange ideas, and provide feedback and mutual support. Model combines the principles of contextual teaching and learning (constructivism, inquiry, questioning, learning community, modeling, reflection, and authentic assessment) with those of cooperative learning (positive interdependence, face to face promoted interaction, individual accountability, interpersonal and small group skills, and group processing), Johnson & Johnson (2002). The step of modeling in the contextual learning approach has been developed into a model, because it is considered that the "model" stage in instructional design is necessary for SWILM, especially for EFL students. By using a model provided by the instructor, the students will be motivated to learn and will be able to easily complete the task assigned by the lecturer. All concepts are incorporated in the developed SWILM. For example, the stage "sharing" is supported by interdependence, face to face instruction, and interpersonal and small group skills. The designed model is derived from the integration of the steps of cooperative learning and the contextual teaching and learning models.

Integrated learning approaches

Integrated approaches to teaching language aim to create an authentic language environment to develop language skills in a meaningful context. One of the functions of language is to meet social objectives; thus, the instructional class should create an authentic environment for social interactions between students, (Wan, 1996). Integration in education is related to teaching and learning activities that function harmoniously in the educational process, and can help students acquire knowledge, learn habits, and think independently (Shah, & Jain, 2016). According to

the results of research by Bhardwaj, Bhardwaj, Mahdi, Srivastava & Gupta (2015), students expressed a very good perception of integrated teaching & learning and they also conducted better learning activities. The study was conducted by comparing the two topics being taught using integrated learning programs with the same topics being taught using traditional methods. The results showed that students who were taught with an integrated approach performed better. Therefore, topics and learning activities must be relevant and interesting for students. This approach focuses on learning as a process whereby learners involve their understanding and practical concepts. Mistakes are parts of the process, and teachers provide corrections by implementing the model with students.

The integrated approach also emphasizes the holistic incorporation of various activities to explore objects, topics, or themes that are authentic events, facts, and events. During the implementation of integrated learning, learning materials are not used separately, but are rather presented in a unified package that adapts ways of learning to be in accordance with students' development needs. An integrated approach to learning intentionally links several dimensions of learning as well as various subjects into classroom activities.

Oxford (2001) distinguished two types of integrated approach, namely content- and task- based. Content-based approaches entail that learners practice all language skills in an integrated manner, whereas the emphasis of the task-based integrated approach is on communicative language use. Thus, integrated learning approaches focus on the active involvement of students in the learning process as both receivers and decision makers. Similarly, Ahuja & Jahngiri (2003) asserted that integrated approaches enable students to explore and express their knowledge and skills through various activities, which enhances students' opportunities to improve their critical thinking skills, ability to solve problems in real situations; and increase their social skills through interaction.

Gay & Airasian (2006) developed an integrated approach that includes discussion-based teaching, small group work, problem solving, and open learning. The characteristics are described as follows:

Learning is centered on the student (student centered learning) rather than the teacher.

Thus, learning is done by giving freedom to students, both individually and in groups, such that they can actively search, explore, and discover the concepts and principles of knowledge that must be mastered.

Learning is focused on the engendering of understanding and meaningfulness. Results are obtained from the association of concepts with other concepts such that learning activities become more meaningful.

Learning occurs through the process of direct experience. In this case, the teacher acts more as a facilitator who guides students toward the goals to be achieved, and students act as fact finders and information gatherers to develop their knowledge.

Learning emphasizes the process rather than the results; learning is carried out by considering students' desires, interests, and abilities to engage them and motivate them to learn.

Learning is loaded with interconnectedness; integrated learning is not carried out in boxes, thus enabling students to gain unified knowledge and skills.

Methodology

Research Design

This study entailed research and development aimed at producing an innovative learning model based on integration to improve productive skills in English (Jagtap, 2016). The researchers

produced a learning model that can be used to develop learning materials to enhance EFL students' speaking and writing skills. The steps of the learning model are as follows:

Modeling: Initially, the instructor provides a model for teaching English according to the objectives to be achieved (Johnson & Johnson, 2002).

Sharing: Students work in groups to collaboratively generate ideas related to the material that has been determined by the instructor. The instructor further involves students by asking questions about the material (Millis, 2012).

Integrating: At this stage, the instructor combines speaking skills with writing according to the learning topic. Students practice speaking on certain topics and then rewrite what has been said (Shah & Jain, 2016).

Facilitating: Students work in groups while the lecturer guides them through the process of writing ideas related to the discussion topic (Wilson & Conyers, 2018).

Independent Learning: The final stage provides opportunities for students to learn independently. This means that the students write a paragraph with questions and answers in their own words and then practice them in front of the class (Johnson & Johnson, 2002).

The figure of the phases developed is as follows:



These phases were used to develop with learning materials for writing skills by involving speaking skills and vice versa. Thus, the developed learning materials model can be used for teaching both speaking and writing courses or lessons. Below is an example of actual learning materials:

Demonstration

Thousands of university students from across the country have once again taken to the streets in a continuation of a series of protests against what they perceive to be attempts by the government and the legislature to roll back democracy. In the capital, students are from various universities, both from within and outside the capital, gathered in front of the House of Representatives compound in Central of a city at 1 p.m. on Tuesday to voice demands for lawmakers to halt the passage of a number of controversial bills, including a revision of the Criminal Code, (Adapted from Jakpost, 2019).

The text above is a model of a paragraph to be discussed by the members of groups. The students make questions and answers based on the paragraph and then practice them in front of the class. After that, they write another paragraph with questions and answers related to the topic that has been given as a model. The lecturer facilitates the students by giving feedback on what the students produce either in oral or in written form. Therefore, the students are able to explore integrated English writing and speaking skills.

Research instruments and data collection

Plomp & Nieveen (2010) proposed that the measurement of learning materials entails assessing their validity, practicality and effectiveness. This research focuses on assessing the validity of the SWILM and associated learning materials. Research products in the form of the model and learning materials were validated by five experts in the field of developing learning models and learning materials. Each validator has a doctorate in education and a minimum of 10 years of teaching experience. Questionnaires were used to gather data concerning the experts' validation of the model. The questionnaire items were structured into sections according to the five stages of the model, and each item was scored on a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

To determine the practicality of the model, questionnaire items were given to five EFL lecturers to be filled according to their opinions. The learning materials were evaluated according to three parameters adapted from Tomlinson (2013), namely their psychological, pedagogical, and methodological factors. The questionnaire items were structured into sections according to the parameters, and each item was scored on a Likert-scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The conversion scores of the Likert scale were in table 1.

Table 1 Conversion score of Likert scale

Scale	Conversion	Classification
5	4.1 to 5	Strongly agree/Excellent
4	3.1 to 4	Agree/good
3	2.1 to 3	Doubt/average
2	1.1 to 2	Disagree/poor
1	< 1	Strongly disagree/ very poor

Results

As explained earlier, 'modeling' is the first stage in designing SWILM. This implies that in the teaching and learning processes, it is necessary to give examples first, such as a text, and then to ask students to share ideas about the meaning of the text by framing questions and answers related to the text. This leads to integration of language skills. Furthermore, if students encounter difficulties, the lecturer provides assistance. After the examples are discussed, the students create their own texts and frame questions and answers to be practiced in the class. Therefore, learning activities are performed independently.

The results of five experts' validation of the model show in the following table:

Table 2. Learning model validation results

Steges	Indicators	Validators						VL
		I	II	III	IV	V	Mean	
Modeling	Teaching starts by providing a model according to the objectives to be achieved.	4	5	4	5	5	4.6	Excellent
	The instructor determines the topics, organizes ideas, and pays attention to correct grammar.	4	4	5	5	5	4.6	Excellent

	Learning materials include exercises structured according to the given model.	5	5	5	5	5	5.0	Excellent
Sharing	Students work in groups to generate ideas related to the material that has been determined by the instructor.	5	4	4	5	5	4.6	Excellent
	The instructor further involves learners by asking questions about the material.	4	5	5	4	4	4.4	Excellent
	The instructor introduces the topic by giving an example as a model.	4	5	4	4	5	4.4	Excellent
	The instructor helps students generate and discuss ideas and provides reinforcements for their knowledge.	5	5	4	5	3	4.4	Excellent
Integrating	The instructor asks students to present their ideas in front of the class according to the topic.	4	5	5	5	3	4.4	Excellent
	Students practice writing what they have presented.	4	4	5	5	4	4.4	Excellent
Facilitating	The instructor guides students through the process of writing ideas concerning the discussion topic.	5	4	4	5	5	4.6	Excellent
	The instructor guides students to use grammatical sentences.	5	5	5	5	5	5.0	Excellent
	The instructor guides students to organize English production using appropriate words.	4	5	5	4	5	4.6	Excellent
Independent Learning	The instructor provides opportunities for students to study independently	4	5	4	5	5	4.6	Excellent
	Students generate their own ideas and express them in writing.	4	5	4	5	4	4.4	Excellent
	Students orally present their ideas in front of the class.	5	5	5	4	5	4.8	Excellent
Mean							4.58	Excellent

Table 1 presents the results of the questionnaires completed by the model and learning materials development experts regarding the validity of the SWILM. The results show that 100% experts assessed the validity level (VL) of every stage of the model at a very high level (excellent). The average value of each stage is 4.73 for modeling, 4.45 for sharing, 4.4 for integrating, 4.73 for facilitating, 4.6 for independent learning stages, and the overall is 4.58 (excellent). The results indicate that the model can be effectively used for developing learning materials focused on the productive skills.

Learning materials evaluation

Table 2. Learning materials evaluation results

No	Aspects observed	Lecturers' responses					Mean	AL
		I	II	III	IV	V		
	Psychological aspects							
1	The material is in accordance with the development of students' language skills.	5	5	5	4	5	4.8	Strongly Agree
2	Learning material makes students confident in conducting communication activities.	5	5	4	4	4	4.4	Strongly Agree
3	The material encourages interest in learning languages independently.	5	5	5	4	4	4.6	Strongly Agree
4	The material trains students to think rationally and problem-solving activities.	5	4	5	4	5	4.6	Strongly Agree
5	The material allows the development of creative and critical thinking skills.	4	5	4	4	5	4.4	Strongly Agree
6	The material offers opportunities for cooperative learning, through partners and group work activities.	5	4	5	5	5	4.8	Strongly Agree
		Mean					4.6	Strongly Agree
No	Pedagogical aspects							
1	The material has enough clues.	4	4	5	5	5	4.6	Strongly Agree
2	The material has text, vocabulary lists, pronunciation structures and exercises, and assignments.	5	5	5	4	5	4.8	Strongly Agree
3	The material includes learning innovations.	5	5	4	4	4	4.4	Strongly Agree
4	The material encourages students' creativity and exploration.	5	5	5	4	5	4.8	Strongly Agree
		Mean					4.65	Strongly Agree

No	Methodological aspects							
1	Materials are integrated more than one skill.	4	5	5	5	5	4.8	Strongly Agree
2	The materials provide authentic English through speaking and writing activities.	4	5	4	5	5	4.6	Strongly Agree
3	The materials include activities to explore languages in communicative ways related to the real world.	5	5	5	4	4	4.6	Strongly Agree
4	Materials have optimal layout, clarity and density.	5	5	5	4	4	4.6	Strongly Agree
5	Related exercises in terms of topics, situations, skills development, and grammar development.	4	5	5	4	5	4.6	Strongly Agree
6	The materials are well-organized; the contents are presented from simple to more difficult ways.	5	5	5	5	5	5.0	Strongly Agree
		Mean					4.7	Strongly Agree

Table 2 presents the results of the evaluation of the learning materials developed with the model by five target users. They are the lecturers from different colleges in South Sulawesi. The table shows that the users assessed all three learning material parameters at very high Agreement Level (AL), resulting in mean values of 4.60, 4.65, and 4.70 for the psychological, pedagogical, and methodological aspects, respectively, which is classified as strongly agree. The results indicate that the learning materials designed by SWILM are accepted by the lecturers.

Discussion

Validation of SWILM

If a researcher conducts development research, then they have to validate the product that has been produced (Plomp & Nieveen, 2010). This research product has been validated by five experts. They assessed five steps of the SWILM developed to design learning materials for the integrated learning of speaking and writing skills. Those steps were modeling, sharing, integrating, facilitating, and independent learning. The experts' validation for the first stage of the models is related to the learning objectives to be achieved, the topics to be discussed, organization of ideas, grammar focus. The results show that 'modeling' stage is highly agreed upon by experts as a first step in learning. By giving examples to students, they make it easier to produce speech both verbally and in writing form. Therefore, the learning material is necessary to be preceded by a model as one of the principles of contextual teaching and learning (Johnson & Johnson, 2002).

The other stage is 'sharing'. In this case, the students are involved to ask questions about the material; the topic is introduced by giving an example as a model; and the instructor helps students find ideas and discuss them. Group work enables students to share ideas and help each

other to solve a range of problems. They ask questions, get examples related to the topic, and discuss their ideas. These activities lead the students to the sharing stage, as Johnson & Johnson (2002) developed a cooperative learning model that emphasizes group learning and working on specific tasks to enhance both speaking and writing skills through sharing and exchanging ideas and providing feedback and mutual support.

The next stage of the learning models is integrating, which consists of two important indicators. The validation results suggest that students should be instructed to present their ideas in front of the class and they should practice writing the materials that they have presented. In the integrating stage, the students gain opportunities to practice speaking and writing in a manner such that these two language skills are simultaneously developed in the teaching and learning process. To practice using a language is very beneficial for language learning.

The facilitating stage validation results indicate that students should be guided to use grammatical sentences in speaking and writing. If they use ungrammatical items of the language, the instructor will help them improve. The validation results also show that students should be guided in the process of writing ideas about the topic and to organize their language production by using English words. It is also necessary for instructors to provide opportunities for students to study independently, create their own ideas, and orally express those ideas in front of the class. These three indicators of independent learning were well-validated by the experts. Therefore, the steps of SWILM that were developed in this research are very conducive for developing the designed learning materials.

Evaluation of the learning materials

Tomlinson (2013) identified three parameters that should be considered when evaluating learning materials, namely psychological, pedagogical, and methodological dimensions. Each of these parameters has separate indicators that can be used for measuring the developed learning materials.

Among the psychological aspects of the materials, offering opportunities for cooperative learning activities was accepted as the most critical need for the developed learning materials. EFL students can learn through working with partners and engaging in group work activities. The next two parameters for measuring the psychological aspects of the materials are also crucial: the development of students' language skills and the training for making the students think rationally and have problem solving activities. The remaining parameters received lower scores, but are clearly also considered significant, namely the interest in learning languages independently and the development of creative and critical thinking skills, as well as making students feel confident in conducting communication activities.

In the pedagogical dimension, the provision of material clues is the most crucial element of the developed learning materials. It is essential for students to have clear instructions for the integrated learning of speaking and writing language skills. Learning materials users considered text, vocabulary lists, pronunciation structures and exercises, assignments, and students' creativity and exploration to be more critical than innovative learning materials.

The highest scoring methodological indicators demonstrate the importance of integrated and well-organized materials. Materials that simultaneously focus on speaking and writing skills are crucial because they facilitate EFL students in simultaneously mastering two language skills; however, the materials should be well-organized. Other important indicators are that materials should provide authentic English through speaking and writing activities as well as exercises that

are related in terms of topics, situations, skills development, and grammar development. The remaining two indicators highlight the importance of incorporating real-world activities to explore languages in communicative ways and the role of optimal layout, clarity, and density. This stage of developed SWILM is supported by Oxford (2001) as students expressed a very good perception of integrated teaching and conducted better learning activities.

The research results show that the methodological parameters received the overall highest scores from the users (4.7), which suggests that these indicators should be prioritized when designing the learning materials. The psychological and pedagogical parameters obtained slightly lower mean scores of 4.65 and 4.6, respectively. However, all three dimensions are critical for measuring the learning materials.

Conclusion

The SWILM was developed in accordance with the needs of EFL students. It was assessed based on responses from five experts and the results confirm the model's validity for developing learning materials to enhance the productive skills of language. The learning materials designed based on the SWILM were assessed by five target users, who confirmed the evaluation of the materials according to their psychological, pedagogical, and methodological parameters. Thus, these learning materials can be fruitfully applied for facilitating the integrated development of EFL students' speaking and writing skills.

Suggestion

It is recommended for the other researchers to implement and test the developed model (SWILM), especially in teaching speaking and writing skills.

Pedagogical Implication

The findings discussed in this research imply for the ways to design the instructional model of language skills; a model for any language skill is potentially developed for the aim of providing the materials for the EFL students. The classroom practitioners are also assisted with the materials which have been designed for satisfying the students' needs. Because of sufficient preparations, the lecturers will become truly effective to handle a variety of classroom situations.

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Speaking Ability of Grade 12 Public Senior High School Students

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Abstract

In most learning environment where English is taught as a foreign language, myriad of external factors are affecting the speaking ability of learners despite the evolution of varied English teaching pedagogy. This descriptive research ascertained the extent of factors affecting speaking ability of 150 grade 12 public senior high school students, school year 2018-2019. The mean and standard deviation were used to determine the extent of Teacher, School, Student and Home/Environment Aspects, while t-Test for independent samples and One-Way ANOVA were used to determine the significant differences in students' perceptions of factors affecting speaking ability.

This study found out that teacher, school, student and home/environment aspects were highly affecting students' speaking ability. Except in average monthly family income, in terms of sex and parents' educational attainment, respondents differ in their perceptions towards the extent of factors affecting speaking ability. This particularly study tends to support Brown, H.D. (2007) theory of "Constructivism" which stresses that although knowledge in one sense is personal and individual, the learners construct their knowledge through their interaction with the physical world, collaboratively in social settings and in a cultural and linguistic environment.

Keywords: Factors, Speaking Ability and Students

Introduction

Effective use of English language is perceived as the most common passion in today's millennial age. English has become the world-language or "lingua franca" for inter-cultural communication, business opportunities and education and sports. In fact, it is perceived as more prestigious language over the national languages in most countries in the world. In some countries, even after decades of colonial rule, no indigenous language has come up to replace English, either as a medium of communication or as an official language (Madhavi and Ramesh, 2012 in Eustaquio, 2015). Thus, English Speaking Skill is one of the most important skills to be developed and enhanced as means of effective communication.

However, language learners have their own problems where it comes to expressing their thoughts and feelings which are commonly observed in verbal interaction (Brown & Yule, 1983). In a speaking engagement factors like anxiety, lack of motivation, lack of encouragement, and fear of criticism by peers create a real problem for many learners of English as a foreign language (Yaseen, 2018). Leong & Ahmadi (2017) acknowledged the presence of factors influencing learners' speaking ability.

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MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels (1998) reported that the learners' willingness to communicate was determined partly by their self-confidence. This was concluded by Park & Lee (2005) that self-confidence affected significantly on L2 learners' oral performance. They stated that if the learners were more confident, they would have better oral performance.

Similarly, stress, anxiety and nervousness felt by the learners when engaged in speaking activities can hinder their abilities in language learning (Tanveer, 2007). When learner's anxiety is high, performance would be low (Krashen, 1985).

In 2015, Tuan and Mai reported in their study that students' speaking performance was affected by topical knowledge which was followed by listening ability and motivation to speak. Besides, the teachers' feedback during speaking activities was also reported to affect the students' speaking performance.

In most countries in Asia, particularly in the Philippines, learners of English among secondary schools are generally observed to have issues on speaking ability. Their previous experiences and beliefs as English language learners or their own cultural backgrounds are often said to play a significant role in shaping their language performance. Low self-confidence, weak vocabulary knowledge, and inhibition are common attitudinal issues among Filipino students.

In the Philippines context, Eustaquio (2015) reported that the overall proficiency level of the college students is correlated to their age, gender and their parents' educational attainment. The factors affecting learner's speaking ability are teacher aspects, school aspects, student aspects and home/environment aspects.

As observed, learners' at senior high schools are of no exception, thus they are generally facing issues to use the English language to express their thoughts effectively. They face psychological obstacles or cannot find the suitable words and expressions. This study aimed at establishing the need to ascertain the extent of factors affecting on language learners' English speaking ability.

Related Literature and Studies

Theory of Constructivism in Language Learning

Brown, H.D. (2007) defined "constructivism as school of thought that emphasizes both the learner's role in constructing meaning out of available linguistic input and the importance of social interaction in creating a new linguistic system". Taber, K.S. (2006) examined the constructivism theory as follows:

- a) Learner is the source of knowledge. He is the one doing learning process.
- b) Learner is equipped with various levels of knowledge of the things around him/her when engage in learning process.
- c) Learner's knowledge about the world can be used to by him/her to understand many phenomena, and
- d) Enhancement of learner's knowledge can be done through social interaction.

Factors Affecting Speaking Ability

Rababah (2005) puts forward that there are a lot of factors that cause difficulties in speaking English amongst EFL learners, a few of these factors are connected to the learners themselves, the teaching techniques, the curriculum and the environment. To exemplify, many learners stand in

need of the necessary terminology to convey their meaning, therefore; they can't maintain the interaction going.

In Eustasio's (2015) model, the factors mentioned by Rababah (2005) can be expressed as Teacher aspects (the teaching techniques), School aspects (the curriculum), Student aspects (the learners themselves), and Home/Environment aspects (environment).

Tuan and Mai (2015) made study on Factors Affecting Students' Speaking Performance at Le Thanh Hien High School which investigated the speaking problems of the students and the factors affecting their speaking performance. The respondents of their study were two hundred and three grade 11 students and ten teachers of English. They used questionnaires and class observation as means of data collection. They noted that when the students were asked to choose the factors affecting their speaking performance from among the factors listed, nearly half of them (47%) viewed the pressure to perform well as the most influential factor. Forty percent (40%) of the students perceived that anxiety could affect their speaking performance, while 38% of them agreed that time allowed to perform a speaking task could affect the results. Topical knowledge was perceived by 81% of the students to be an affecting factor. Motivation to speak and self-confidence could influence students' speaking performance as perceived by 41% and 62% of the respondents, respectively.

In summary, the results of their study indicated that there were a variety of factors that affect the students' speaking performance. A majority of the teachers confirmed that the students' speaking performance was affected by topical knowledge, while listening ability and motivation to speak were the next two important factors being considered. Besides, the teachers' feedback during speaking activities was also reported to affect the students' speaking performance. Finally, confidence was considered as factor that has a great influence on students' speaking performance.

Through class observations, the following problems are most commonly observed:

- (1) The students were not given enough time to prepare for a speaking task;
- (2) Only some students were contributing their opinions in English during group work. Although some of them participated actively but the others spoke very little or not at all;
- (3) Students used their first language (Vietnamese) in group discussions.
- (4) While some students were performing speaking activities, other students were inattentive and unmindful;
- (5) Some students looked very nervous when speaking in front of the class. Sometimes, they did not know what to say and kept silent;
- (6) They used to read what they had written on a piece of paper and forgetting the structures and vocabulary of a natural speech;
- (7) Whenever the students made mistakes, the teacher stopped them and corrected their mistakes;
- (8) The students had to do a lot of things in a forty-five minute period. They were always in a hurry because they were given limited time for every learning task.

In 2005, Park & Lee (in Tuan and Mai, 2015) examined the relationships between second language learners' anxiety, self-confidence and speaking performance. The participants of their study were one hundred and thirty two Korean college students enrolled in English classes. They found no correlation between learners' level of anxiety and speaking performance. This was confirmed in Tanveer's (2007) study.

MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels (1998 in Tuan and Mai, 2015) studied the effects of self-confidence on oral performance. The results of their study showed that the learners' willingness to communicate was determined partly by their self-confidence. Park & Lee (2005) also examined the relationships between L2 learners' anxiety, self-confidence and oral performance. They reached a conclusion that self-confidence affected significantly on L2 learners' oral performance. They stated that if the learners were more confident, they would have better oral performance.

In the study of Leong & Ahmadi (2017) on "An Analysis of Factors Influencing Learners' English Speaking Skill" aimed at establishing the need to focus on the factors affecting on language learners' English speaking skill. Focusing on importance, characteristics, problems and factors affecting speaking performance, these researchers found that learners' speaking skill heavily affected by their high anxiety with low self-esteem and motivation. It was also reported that students who have higher motivation and lower anxiety can speak easily and effectively.

Thus, it was concluded that students should have a friendly and cooperative environment that can help them overcome their difficulties in oral performance. It is the task of the teacher to provide more speaking opportunities to the learners in more conducive, unthreatening yet meaningful learning activities.

On the other hand, lack of vocabulary and fear of being despised are additional factors that could hinder learners' speaking ability (Urrutia and Vega, 2010 in Leong & Ahmadi, 2017). However, these difficulties in learning spoken English can be coped with by providing learners with more interactions among themselves on various topics of their interest (Prieto, 2007). Kusuma et al. (2019) confirmed that field-independent (FI) learners performed better than field-dependent (FD) in writing performance.

In her study of factors affecting students' speaking performance, (Husnawati, 2017) reported that internal factors such as anxiety, shyness, and lack of confidence, lack of vocabulary, poor grammar as well as the external factors like time pressure, social support and learning environment are eminent hindrances.

Evidently, in a learning environment where learner's anxiety is high, the receiving of inputs would hardly be processed due to the learners' negative emotions that would serve as blockage, thus limiting the access (Krashen, 1985).

Methodology

Research Design

This study employed a descriptive research design (Bless and Higson-Smith, 1995; Baker, Therese L. 1999; Babbie and Mouton, 2001) through a quantitative research method with purport to describe, quantify, and infer the factors affecting the speaking ability of students in English language, and the significant differences in these variables when data are grouped according to sex, parent's average monthly income and parent's educational attainment.

Research Locale

This study was conducted at public senior high schools in Jolo, Sulu, Philippines during the School Year 2018-2019. Jolo is the capital town of Sulu province where these public secondary schools are located.

Population and Sample

The target population of this study was Grade 12 senior high school students enrolled in five public secondary schools in Jolo, Sulu during School Year 2018-2019. Fifty students from each school were selected as the study sample on a voluntary basis. The selection of sample based on the purposive sampling procedure, which is a process of selecting a sample that is believed to represent a given population (Gay, Mills & Airasain, 2011). Due to time constraints and the small-scale nature of the study, however, the study sample size is relatively small, thus limiting the generalizability of its findings.

Instrumentation

This study employed a self-report questionnaire as the main instrument used to gather data on demographic profiles and factors affecting speaking ability of students in relation to English language learning. The questionnaire on factors affecting speaking ability of students was patterned and adapted from Eustaquio's (2015) study on Factors Affecting English Speaking Ability which focused on obtaining the socio-demographic profiles of the respondents which includes sex, average monthly family income and parent's educational attainment and collection of data on factors affecting English speaking ability of students specifically on Teacher, School, Student and Home/Environment aspects.

Scoring Procedure

This study employed the scoring procedure based on the following ranges:

<i>Options</i>	<i>Scale Range</i>	<i>Verbal Interpretations</i>
5	4.50 – 5.00	Strongly Agree (Very high performance)
4	3.50 – 4.49	Moderately Agree (High performance)
3	2.50 – 3.49	Agree (Medium performance)
2	1.50 – 2.49	Disagree (Low performance)
1	1.00 – 1.49	Strongly Disagree (Very low performance)

Statistical Techniques

This research employed both descriptive and inferential statistical tools such as

1) Mean and standard deviation to determine the extent of speaking ability along Teacher, School, Student and Home/Environment aspects; 2) *t*-test for independent samples to determine the significant difference in students' speaking ability when data are grouped according to sex; and 3) One-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine the significant difference in students' speaking ability when data are grouped according to parent's average monthly family income and parent's educational attainment.

Results/Findings

What is the extent of factors affecting speaking ability of grade 12 public senior high school students in each of the following: Teacher Aspects; School Aspects; Student Aspects; and Home/Environment Aspects?

In terms of teacher's aspects

Table 3.1.1 shows that, generally the student-respondents obtained the average mean score of 4.017 with standard deviation of .1999 which is rated as “High”. This means that the student-respondents are highly affected and influenced by their teachers in their language performance in terms of expressing their ideas and emotions through spoken channel of communication.

Table 3.1.1 Extent of students’ speaking ability in terms of Teacher Aspects

No	Teacher Aspects	Mean	S.D.	Description
1	Inspired by teacher’s confidence in speaking English.	3.880	.6943	High
2	Assistance from teacher in constructing sentences when reciting.	3.673	.7641	High
3	Confidence in speaking English if the teacher is listening.	4.120	.5170	High
4	Interest in speaking English if the teacher is listening.	4.100	.5646	High
5	Teacher’s advice to study English.	4.080	.6400	High
6	Teacher’s enhancement in speaking abilities.	4.060	.4667	High
7	Teacher insistence to speak the English language because it's required in the subject.	4.206	.4531	High
Total		4.017	.1999	High

Legend: (5) 4.50 – 5.00=Very high; (4) 3.50 – 4.49=High; (3) 2.50 – 3.49=Moderate; (2) 1.50 – 2.49=Low; (1) 1.00 – 1.49=Very low

In terms of school aspects

Table 3.1.2 indicates that, generally the student-respondents obtained an average mean score of 3.891 with standard deviation of .1983 which is rated as “High”. This means that the student-respondents are highly affected and influenced by their schools in their language performance in terms of expressing their ideas and emotions through spoken channel of communication.

Table 3.1.2 Extent of students’ speaking ability in terms of School Aspects

No	School Aspects	Mean	S.D.	Description
1	School’s provision of materials to develop good communication skills.	3.966	.6176	High
2	School’s provision of enrichment activities on how to speak English.	4.333	.6821	High
3	School’s provision of conducive place for studying English.	3.973	.3653	High
4	School’s recognition of English organizations to develop communication skills.	3.640	.4816	High

5	Availability of books on communication in the library which gives ideas on how to communicate well.	3.826	.5402	High
6	Availability of hi-tech devices in school that enhances English speaking abilities.	3.713	.5475	High
7	School's provision of books, computers, etc. to help improve verbal communication skills.	3.786	.6613	High
Total		3.891	.1983	High

Legend: (5) 4.50 – 5.00=Very high; (4) 3.50 – 4.49=High; (3) 2.50 – 3.49=Moderate; (2) 1.50 – 2.49=Low; (1) 1.00 – 1.49=Very low

In terms of student aspects

Table 3.1.3 illustrates that, generally the student-respondents obtained a composite mean score of 4.070 with standard deviation of .4236 which is rated as “High”. This means that the student-respondents are highly affected and influenced by their own personal learning behaviors such as leaning styles, motivation and strategies in their language performance in terms of expressing their ideas and emotions through spoken channel of communication.

Table 2.3 Extent of students' speaking ability in terms of Student Aspects

No	Student Aspects	Mean	S.D.	Description
1	Influence of watching television and compact disc in English in communication skills.	4.046	.4961	High
2	Full financial support from parents can help ideas verbally.	3.865	.3969	High
3	Membership in programs related to improving verbal communication.	3.880	.6230	High
4	Hiring of tutor by parents for effective communicating.	4.366	.6066	High
5	Interest in conversing with other people because of lot of stories to tell which was gained from long journey.	4.106	2.471	High
6	Inspiration by parents to study English.	4.260	.5608	High
7	Parent's reminder to study English subject to improve verbal communication abilities.	3.960	.5778	High
Total		4.070	.4236	High

Legend: (5) 4.50 – 5.00=Very high; (4) 3.50 – 4.49=High; (3) 2.50 – 3.49=Moderate; (2) 1.50 – 2.49=Low; (1) 1.00 – 1.49=Very low

In terms of home/environment aspects

Table 3.1.4 shows that, generally the student-respondents obtained a composite mean score of 4.213 with standard deviation of .3325 which is rated as “High” in home/environment aspects category. This means that the student-respondents are highly affected and influenced by their

surrounding such as their peers, classmates and parents in their language performance in terms of expressing their ideas and emotions through spoken channel of communication.

Table 3.1.4 Extent of student's speaking ability in terms of Home/Environment Aspects

No	Home/Environment Aspects	Mean	S.D.	Description
1	Help from peers to relate ideas in English.	4.140	.6453	High
2	Grammar correction in English from peers whenever mistakes are committed.	4.226	.5327	High
3	Interaction with fellow students in communication skills.	4.166	.5840	High
4	Availability of Magazines and newspapers in school to enhance verbal communication abilities.	3.920	.4564	High
5	Availability of speaking gadgets in school for English language fluency.	4.200	.6239	High
6	Parent's use to speak English at home which enhances speaking ability.	4.233	.5235	High
7	Parent's provision of moral support in speaking competencies.	4.606	.5296	Very High
Total		4.213	.3325	High

Legend: (5) 4.50 – 5.00=Very high; (4) 3.50 – 4.49=High; (3) 2.50 – 3.49=Moderate; (2) 1.50 – 2.49=Low; (1) 1.00 – 1.49=Very low

Is there a significant difference in the extent of factors affecting speaking ability of grade 12 public senior high school students when data are grouped according to sex, parent's average monthly family income and parent's educational attainment?

In terms of sex

Table 3.2.1 shows that, generally the overall mean difference of .1823, t-value of 6.143 and p-value of .000 obtained under this category indicate a significant difference. This means that male and female grade 12 public senior high school students enrolled during the school year 2018-2019 differ in their perceptions towards the extent of factors affecting speaking ability. This implies that being male student will make one differs in his/her perceptions towards the extent of factors affecting speaking ability than those being female students, or vice-versa.

Table 3.2.1 Differences in factors affecting speaking ability by Sex

VARIABLES		Mean	S. D.	Mean	<i>t</i>	Sig.	Description
Grouping				Difference			
Gender							
Teacher Aspects	Male	4.092	.1746	.1823	6.143	.000*	Significant
	Female	3.910	.1851				
School Aspects	Male	3.896	.1859	.0113	.343	.732	Not Significant
	Female	3.884	.2161				

Student Aspects	Male	4.105	.1998	.0842	1.201	.232	Not Significant
	Female	4.020	.6142				
Home/Environment Aspects	Male	4.263	.2351	.1201	2.207	.029*	Significant
	Female	4.142	.4274				

*Significant at alpha 0.05

In terms of parent's average monthly family income

Table 3.2.2 shows that grade 12 public senior high school students enrolled during the school year 2018-2019 do not differ in their perceptions under this category and in all its sub-components such as teacher aspects, school aspects and student aspects except in home/environment aspects.

Table 3.2.2 Differences in factors affecting speaking ability by Parents' Average Monthly Family Income

SOURCES OF VARIATION		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Description
Teacher Aspects	Between Groups	.093	2	.046	1.160	.316	Not Significant
	Within Groups	5.863	147	.040			
	Total	5.956	149				
School Aspects	Between Groups	.065	2	.032	.823	.441	Not Significant
	Within Groups	5.800	147	.039			
	Total	5.864	149				
Student Aspects	Between Groups	.207	2	.104	.574	.565	Not Significant
	Within Groups	26.540	147	.181			
	Total	26.747	149				
Home/Environment Aspects	Between Groups	1.970	2	.985	9.979	.000	Significant
	Within Groups	14.509	147	.099			
	Total	16.479	149				

*Significant at alpha 0.05

In terms of parent's educational attainment

Table 3.2.3 indicates that grade 12 public senior high school students enrolled during the school year 2018-2019 differ in their perceptions under this category and in all its sub-components such as teacher aspects, school aspects and home/environment aspects except for student aspects.

Table 3.2.3 Differences in factors affecting speaking ability by Parents' Educational Attainment

SOURCES OF VARIATION		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Description
Teacher Aspects	Between Groups	.727	2	.364	10.224	.000*	Significant
	Within Groups	5.229	147	.036			
	Total	5.956	149				
School Aspects	Between Groups	.406	2	.203	5.464	.005*	Significant
	Within Groups	5.459	147	.037			

Student Aspects	Total	5.864	149				
	Between Groups	.237	2	.118	.656	.520	Not Significant
	Within Groups	26.510	147	.180			
Home/Environment Aspects	Total	26.747	149				
	Between Groups	1.874	2	.937	9.432	.000*	Significant
	Within Groups	14.605	147	.099			
	Total	16.479	149				

*Significant at alpha 0.05

Post Hoc Analysis using Scheffe's Test was conducted to determine which among groups classified according to parents' educational attainment to have different levels of mean in areas subsumed under factors affecting speaking ability as perceived grade 12 public senior high school students as English language learners during the school year 2018-2019.

The result of the analysis which is shown in Table 3.2.3.1 indicates that the difference in the means of the parents' educational attainment among grade 12 public senior high school students as English language learners during the school year 2018-2019 is obtained by way of lower group mean minus higher group mean.

- a) **On Teacher Aspects Category:** It shows that High School group of students' parents obtained the mean difference of .3044* with Standard Error of .0861 and p value of .016 which is significant at $\alpha=.05$ over Elementary group. So under this sub-category, no other groups of grade 12 public senior high school students as English language learners during the school year 2018-2019 to have better way of perceiving the extent of factors affecting speaking ability in terms of Teacher Aspects than those students whose parents are High School graduates.
- b) **On School Aspects:** It shows that College group of students' parents obtained the mean difference of -.5814* with Standard Error of .09410 and p value of .006 which is significant at $\alpha=.05$ over Elementary group. So under this sub-category, no other groups of grade 12 public senior high school students as English language learners during the school year 2018-2019 to have better way of perceiving the extent of factors affecting speaking ability in terms of school aspects than the group of grade 12 students whose parents are college graduates.
- c) **On Home/Environment Aspects:** It shows that College group of students' parents obtained the mean difference of .6626* with Standard Error of .1539 and p value of .00 which is significant at $\alpha=.05$ over Elementary group. So under this sub-category, no other groups of grade 12 public senior high school students as English language learners during the school year 2018-2019 to have better way of perceiving the extent of factors affecting speaking ability in terms of home/environment aspects than the group of grade 12 students whose parents are college graduates.

Table 3.3.2.1 Post Hoc Analysis: Differences in speaking ability as perceived by Grade 12 students when data are grouped according to parents' educational attainment

Dependent Variable	(I) Grouping Parents' EA	(J) Grouping Parents' EA	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
(A) Teacher Aspects	College	High School	-.15052 [*]	.04083	.002
	High School	Elementary	.25162 [*]	.08610	.016
Dependent Variable	(I) Grouping Parents' EA	(J) Grouping Parents' EA	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
(B) School Aspects	College	Elementary	.30440 [*]	.09410	.006
	High School	Elementary	.22881 [*]	.08797	.037
Dependent Variable	(I) Grouping Parents' EA	(J) Grouping Parents' EA	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.
(C) Home/Environment Aspects	College	Elementary	.66264 [*]	.15392	.000
	High School	Elementary	.59232 [*]	.14390	.000

Discussions

On the extent of factors affecting speaking ability

The finding of this study on factors affecting speaking ability as shown in Tables 3.1.1, 3.1.2, 3.1.3 and 3.1.4 are all rated as high influence. This means that, **in terms of Teacher Aspects**, senior high school learners are highly affected and influenced by their teachers in their language performance in terms of expressing their ideas and emotions through spoken channel of communication. This result implies that the development of speaking ability of grade 12 public senior high school students is highly affected by the interventions of their teachers. More specifically, student-respondents are highly affected by their teacher's confidence in speaking English, which in turn, inspires them to speak in English too. Tuan and Mai (2015) reported that, from among the variety of factors that affect the students' speaking performance, students' speaking performance was affected by topical knowledge, listening ability and motivation to speak. Besides, the teachers' feedback during speaking activities was also reported to affect the students' speaking performance.

Researchers in English learning process in UNBAJA (Universitas Banten Jaya, Indonesia), as reported by Ida Nuraida, et al. (2019) found that lecturer's knowledge about learning techniques are still lacking and that the learning techniques used are still centered on the lecturer wherein lecturers pay less attention to student characteristics and linguistic behaviors.

In terms of School Aspects, learners are highly affected and influenced by their schools in their language performance in terms of expressing their ideas and emotions through spoken channel of communication. This result implies that the development of speaking ability of grade 12 public senior high school students is highly affected by the interventions of their schools through providing adequate language learning materials. More specifically, students are highly influenced if the school provides materials such as hi-tech devices to develop good communication skills, if there are English organizations in school which affect learners' communication skills. Leong & Ahmadi (2017) reported that learners with a low self-esteem, higher anxiety, and low motivation have serious difficulties in speaking skill in spite of having acceptable linguistic skills. Students who have higher motivation and lower anxiety can speak easily and effectively.

Thus, students should have a friendly and cooperative environment that can help them overcome their difficulties in oral performance. Teachers then, should understand their students' interests and feelings, improve their learners' self-confidence, and choose the best teaching method to keep their learners' involved in the speaking activity. Teachers should praise their students to

speak English. They should build a friendly relationship with their students, make them feel very happy in the class and have a feeling of great enthusiasm and eagerness to study English in general and speak English in particular. The literature review of this study represented that teachers should give their learners enough time for speaking skill, help them overcome their anxiety through friendly behaviors to make them feel comfortable when speaking, remind their learners not to worry about making mistakes, and give them true instructions and enough guidance. Teachers should give their learners more opportunities to speak English through using some speaking tasks that help them to speak and urge them to take part in speaking activities. In addition, teachers should know when and how to correct their learners' mistakes so that they are not afraid of making mistakes.

In terms of Student Aspects, students are highly affected and influenced by their own personal learning behaviors such as leaning styles, motivation and strategies in their language performance in terms of expressing their ideas and emotions through spoken channel of communication. This result implies that the development of speaking ability of grade 12 public senior high school students is highly affected by their own attitudes towards language learning. More specifically, students can highly relate well their ideas verbally because of full financial support from their parents, are motivated to join programs related to improving verbal communication, and if parents reminded them to study their English subject so that they can improve their verbal communication abilities. MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels (1998 in Tuan and Mai, 2015) studied the effects of self-confidence on oral performance and reported that the learners' willingness to communicate was determined partly by their self-confidence. Park & Lee (2005) also examined the relationships between L2 learners' anxiety, self-confidence and oral performance and concluded that self-confidence affected significantly on L2 learners' oral performance. They stated that if the learners were more confident, they would have better oral performance.

Similarly, based on the results of observation of researchers in English learning process in UNBAJA (Universitas Banten Jaya, Indonesia), it was found and reported by Ida Nuraida, et al. (2019) that students still lack confidence triggered by their lack of vocabulary and often mispronunciation of English words. Said and Weda (2018) on their study on effects of English language anxiety and its impact on students' oral communication found a significant correlation of high level anxiety and low academic performance among English language learners.

Moreover, Pham Thi Thanh Xuan (2014) reported that communicative competence was one of the most challengeable factors preventing the participants from raising their voice. He further observed that accessing communicative events, taking advantages of cultural capital as well as legitimizing themselves as speakers of English are not always easy for the participants to achieve and exploit maximally, all contributing to their silence both inside and outside classroom communication contexts.

In terms of Home/Environment aspects, students are highly affected and influenced by their surrounding such as their peers, classmates and parents in their language performance in terms of expressing their ideas and emotions through spoken channel of communication. This result implies that the development of speaking ability of grade 12 public senior high school students is highly affected by the people and learning environment around them. More specifically,

students are highly influenced by their peers who can help them to relate their ideas in English, the interaction with fellow students contributes in their communication skills, and by their parents who use to speak English at home which enhances their speaking ability.

Furthermore, parents' intervention is observed as the most influencing factor as shown in item "My parents give moral support in my speaking competencies" which is rated as "Very High".

Rubin and Thompson (1994) explain that the second language learners often have communicative intentions. They find difficulty in expression when they are engaged in communication. It is because of the gaps in their linguistic repertoire. If the problem arises while the learners are already engaged in speaking, they must try to find an alternative way of getting the meaning across. Adjust the message, use paraphrase, use approximation, create new words, use non-linguistic resources and seek help are among common ways to help speaking ability.

On differences in speaking ability by respondents' profiles

Variable Sex has influenced learners' perceptions towards the extent of speaking ability in terms of teacher and home/environment aspects. Parent's average monthly income has influence on home/environment aspects only. Parents' educational attainment has influence on teacher, school and home/environment aspects.

Conclusion

Factors affecting speaking ability such as teacher aspects, school aspects, student aspects and home/environment aspects are considered as highly influential in English language learning process, while Home/Environment aspects is perceived as top of the line in its being very highly influencing factor in the development of students' speaking ability.

On the account that teacher, school, student, and home/environment are factors that highly influencing the development of students' speaking ability, this particularly study tends to support Brown, H.D. (2007) theory of constructivism which claims that although knowledge in one sense is personal and individual, the learners construct their knowledge through their interaction with the physical world, collaboratively in social settings and in a cultural and linguistic environment.

Pedagogical Implication

Owing to the identified factors affecting learners' speaking ability, opportunities are opened to school administrators to enhance the implementation of K-to-12 curriculum vis-à-vis English language program. Efficient application of social interaction principle towards teaching of English as foreign language in senior high school, provision of trainings and seminars for the enhancement of teachers' pedagogical knowledge and skills is timely and most relevant option.

Recommendations

First, English language teachers at Grade 12 senior high schools shall be considerate and mindful in helping students to overcome hurdles towards the factors affecting their speaking ability in relation to language learning process since these students differ in their home/environmental and socio-cultural backgrounds when they enter into the different academic programs, vis-à-vis k-to-12 curriculum;

Next, considering their socio-economic status, parents should be well-adept with the nature of k-to-12 curriculum so that they can be actively involved in providing socio-cognitive learning environment needs for their children both at home and in school. Students should be encouraged to join social and academic organizations like language club so that they can take the opportunities to alleviate their problems towards learning English language skills and socio-linguistic knowledge; and

Finally, teachers should introduce “a paradigm shift”, that is they should motivate students to struggle and change their mentality from believing that poverty and parent’s low educational background are hindrances to the development of their language proficiency, particularly in speaking ability. The senior high school administrator shall provide the necessary support to English language teachers through trainings and seminars to update their pedagogical knowledge and skills relevant to the implementation of the k-to-12 curriculum and needs of the students.

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Analysis of Doodles and Listening Comprehension of College Students

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Abstract

Since the discovery that doodling aids to concentration (Andrade, 2009), several studies have been conducted to further ascertain its effects on listening, ranging from its benefits on retrieval strategies, visual recall, learning content from an educational video, among others. While these studies, made excellent follow-ups on Andrade's research, theirs delved mostly on low level comprehension, i.e., recall and recognition. Another attempted to assess the effects of doodling on learning performance. However, it was not specified in their study what particular area of learning was measured. Hence, employing true experimental design particularly the pre-test/post-test control group design, the present study aimed to find the effects of doodling on the listening comprehension of students particularly on literal, interpretative, critical and creative levels. Descriptive and appropriate inferential statistics were used in analyzing the performances of the respondents in the pre-test and post-test, revealing that the students who were exposed to doodling have improved on all levels of listening comprehension and those who were not exposed also improved on literal, interpretative, and creative levels but not in critical. Through the exposure of the students to doodling activities, they produced mainly extraneous doodles or doodles which had no connection with the listening passage, followed by meta-cognitive doodles which reflected that they attempted track their understanding of the passage. The findings of the study further showed that the listening comprehension skills of the students exposed to doodling are significantly higher than those that are not exposed to doodling along literal level. However, no significant differences are found along all other comprehension levels. Finally, the results of the statistical computation showed that the profile of the students (both those who were exposed to doodling and those who were not) were not significantly related to their levels of listening comprehension. It is concluded that doodling can be an aid in improving listening comprehension skills particularly in the literal level but may not contribute much in higher levels. Hence, the researcher recommends the use of doodling as an intervention strategy to aid in improving literal comprehension skills.

Keywords: doodles, doodling, listening, listening comprehension, TOEFL iBT™

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Introduction

Listening is a complex process through which the auditory input undergoes decoding process (Yenkimaleki & Van Heuven, 2016) whereby the auditory stimulus is reconstructed mentally by the receiver (Poelmans, 2003). Such complexity is what caused listening to be seen as a cornerstone competence in language classrooms and more importantly in the workplace (Nair, Li Koo, & Abu Bakar, 2013).

Rivers (1981) as cited by Ghoneim, (2013) added that developing listening skills is important especially that adults spend their time 40% to 50% listening, 25-30% speaking, 11-16% reading, and only about 9% writing. As mentioned by Sadighi and Zare (2006), Nunan (1998) indicated that

listening is the basic skill in language learning. Without listening skill, learners will never learn to communicate effectively. In fact, over 50% of the time that students spend functioning in a foreign language will be devoted to listening.... (p. 1)

However, listening is a widely neglected skill because of insufficient pedagogical development and teacher training (Mendelsohn, 1998). According to Sadighi and Zare (2006), listening has been a neglected skill in second language acquisition, research, teaching, and assessment for a long time and that the importance of it in the language learning has only been recognized relatively recently. The listening skill has suffered such neglect in the field of research and has not been fully investigated in foreign language acquisition mainly because listening processes are difficult to explore (Chamot, 2005) due to its nature as a covert activity.

Klein (1996) further explained that this neglect resulted largely from two factors. First, listening as well as reading is not a highly visible skill and is not easily assessed, unlike speaking and writing. Thus the sending part of the communication process receives more attention from researchers than the receiving part. Second, very few are willing to improve their listening skills, which suggestively resulted from an incomplete understanding of the process itself. Furthermore, Miller (2009) asserted that comprehending lectures is not a passive listening activity, which means that it requires much effort to master. Because of these limitations, the investigation of the mental operations involved in listening has been difficult and challenging for research.

Despite the abundance of concepts and literature about listening and its importance, past researchers have not been giving ample attention towards listening comprehension, and yet the importance of it in L2 teaching and teaching is highly recognized (Yenkimaleki & Van Heuven, 2016) adding that exposure to the target language and proper training would automatically develop language listening comprehension skills (Clement, 2007). Cross (2009) added that errors in decoding hugely affects the quality of ones understanding of the listening text. Hence, understanding these errors may promote enhanced listening comprehension.

With the recent change in the educational system of the Philippines, the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) issued the memorandum no. 20 s. 2013 stipulating changes on the general education subjects offered in tertiary institutions. One of the objectives of these change was to equip students with intellectual competencies possessing “higher levels of comprehension.” Furthermore, the new subject *Purposive Communication* aimed to enhance students’ five major skills (listening, writing, reading, speaking and viewing) so that at the end of the course, the “students should be able to listen, comprehend, critique, and respond to live or recorded

conversations...” Hence with the new curriculum, new and more advanced strategies to strengthen students’ skills are also expected to be introduced.

As such, different strategies have been utilized to measure the performances of different respondents in various listening comprehension researches. Yenkimaleki and Van Heuven (2016) experimented on the effects of explicit teaching of prosodic features on the development of listening comprehension. Specifically, the study answered the question of whether the awareness training of prosodic features would lead to developing the global listening comprehension in message perception for student interpreter trainees. As resulted from the study, awareness training of prosodic feature contributed to the development of the listening comprehension of interpreter trainees.

Moreover, Hemmati and Ghaderi (2014) delved away from the listeners perspective but on the given questions and analyzed whether these could contribute to the development of listening comprehension. Thus they experimented on the effects of four formats of multiple-choice questions (MCQs) on the listening comprehension of EFL learners. The study implied that to measure the listening comprehension of learners, test questions must be properly constructed regardless of the format used adding that full question preview format, answer option preview format, and question preview format could have a facilitative effect on the listening comprehension.

Similarly, the study Gowhary, Pourhalashi, Jamalinesari, and Azizifar (2015) suggested that using captions had a significant effect to the students’ listening comprehension concluding that captioning videos could be helpful in overcoming their listening difficulties. Similarly, Amaluddin, Salasiah and Mardiah (2018) indicated the use of audio-visual aids through the use of metacognitive strategies can significantly improve the students’ listening comprehension. Paguirigan (2010) conducted a study, a rather different approach, on the effects of background music on the listening comprehension of selected pupils. Surprisingly, the study found out that the listening comprehension of those who had background music is much higher compared to those had not.

Despite the complexity of studying listening and listening comprehension, Gloria’s (1996) study as affirmed by the more recent studies of Carrell et al., (2004), Lin (2006), and Amini Asl and Khierzadeh (2016) revealed another way to improve listening study skill was to employ note-taking, an act that resembled some of its characteristics with doodling particularly in scribbling, only that in note-taking, one writes important words.

Since the discovery of Andrade (2009) that doodling aids concentration, several researchers have embarked on conducting more studies about and begun discovering other benefits of doodling (Aellig et al., 2009; Chan, 2012; Qutub, 2013; Singh & Kashyap, 2014; Tadayon & Afhami, 2016; and Boggs et al., 2017). Quite impressive, these researches have taken extra efforts to prove their hypotheses.

Singh and Kashyap (2014) examined the benefits of doodling on retrieval strategies, i.e., recall and recognition. The results indicated that recall fell under the favor of recognition in retrieving memory. The study suggested that recall was harder than recognition because of the extensive effort in remembering the learning event. Moreover, the results pointed out that doodling percentage did not affect the retrieval efficiency rather it was doodling itself which provided benefits for memory retrieval. Contrary to previous discoveries, however, the study of Chan (2012) indicated that although doodling served as a tool to aid in concentration as well as auditory recall,

it did not elicit positive effects on visual recall. The study explained further that such negative effect was

because the doodlers struggled in having divided visual processing resources implying that when multitasking is engaged in similar primary modality, negative effects could occur in the amount of information processed and retained.

Boggs et al. (2017) affirmed the results of Chan's (2012) study having found out that doodling was not advantageous in increasing recall performance despite the avoidance of daydreaming. This, however, is explained by the variables in the study, where they classified the doodlers under different conditions: structured doodling for those who shaded shapes and unstructured doodling for those who were free to draw anything on their empty papers. Surprisingly, those under the structured doodling had significantly higher scores than those under the unstructured doodling. This was due to extensive mental processes they had to undergo, i.e., deciding what to doodle, reproducing the mental image to the paper and simultaneously attending to the audio recording. Furthermore, Aellig et al., (2009) explored the relationship of attention span and doodling with the ability to learn content from an educational video. Their study suggested that free doodling and the ability to learn contents from an educational video had no significant relationship.

Despite these negativities discussed and effected from these researches, more studies believe that doodling proved to be beneficial. Wammes et al. (2016) pointed out that drawing as an aid to remembering could have a significant effect on the improvement of memory. Moreover, Tadayon and Afhami (2016) assessed the effects of doodling on the learning performance of high school students. With the employment of pre-test and post-test, their study found out that those who doodled outperformed those who did not. Such a result draws the implication that doodling is, in fact, beneficial particularly in learning.

Much of these studies about doodling covered only the effects of it on the recall, a lower order thinking skill and learning, a very broad concept. The study of Andrade (2009) regarding the effect of doodling on the concentration of the respondents, where she found out that doodling was indeed effective in aiding to concentration, only discusses the first level of cognition, i.e., remembering. If one wants to utilize one's cognition fully, higher levels must be covered. This, however, reflects how difficult it would be to measure listening.

While several strategies have been devised and experimented on to aid listening comprehension, the relationship between doodling – one that has received attention to many researchers in cognitive psychology – and listening comprehension has not been explored yet in the world of research. What is missing in the above mentioned studies, however, is their consideration on the doodles of their respondents. The discussion of results purely concentrated on the act of doodling and its effects to the performances of the respondents but none of those studies presented the doodles and analyzed whether they may have helped or not.

On the search for doodle classification, most literatures only focused on the psychological meanings and classifications of doodles. But recent studies have been conducted to describe the doodles of students and their possible effects to their performances (De Leon et al., 2019; McCartney et al., 2005; & Lister et al. 2004).

Although, these studies were conducted among programming students and the doodles which they classified were highly related to programming, the classifications that they were able to generate could also be applied to the other fields that employs doodling on tests and activities.

Lister et al. (2004) in particular was the first to categorize doodles based on their students' annotations of the tests. It was found out that if a student carefully traces through the code, the likelihood of getting the correct answer is high. In contrast, not doodling only leads to the correct answer 50% of the time.

Moreover, MacCartney et al. (2005) conducted another study and utilized the categories developed by Lister et al. However, in the analysis of their results, several issues surfaced in relation to the questions and the doodles of the students. Hence to resolve the issue, four disjoint categories, reclassifying each question, were created: *Blank*, *Some Tracing*, *Elimination*, or *Others*. Such categories were based on their observation that that tracing and process of elimination are recognizable strategies, and, with Blank, cover 89% of the observations. They then found out that the most effective strategy is tracing and elimination which includes *alternate answer* and *ruled out*.

From the studies presented above, the study of De Leon et al. (2019) may have provided a better way of facilitating the analysis of multiple types of doodles. Although their groupings are loosely based from McCartney et al. (2004) and are applied to programming tests, the definitions they provided possess applicability in the present study. Since the respondents of the said studies were programming students, many of the generated categories of doodles may not apply to the respondents of the present study, especially, that the present study focuses on communication major students. But the classifications of De Leon et al. provides better perspective on analyzing the doodles of the students. The generality of the definitions have also paved inclusion of doodles that are produced in tests whether they be programming or not. Hence the present study adapted these classifications in the analysis of doodles of the respondents. The figure below presents these new categories and their descriptions.

Name	Description
Clarifications	Consisted of all corrections or additional instructions from the teacher.
Meta-cognitive processes	Doodles that imply that students are tracking their own learning or progress.
Trace	The Trace category was comprised of Computation, Practice Code, Number, Synchronized Trace, Odd Trace, and Trace.
Extraneous Marks	Markings that appear meaningless or irrelevant to the activity.

Figure 1. Categorization of doodles as developed by De Leon et al. (2019)

From these categories, they found out that those who doodled (37%) scored between 91 and 100 out of a possible 100. From the majority (62%) who did opt to doodle, only 15% of them had similar scores with those who doodled, and the rest scored less than 90. They then concluded that not doodling at all does not necessarily mean a student is not doing well since there were those who did not doodle but managed to get high or similar scores to those who doodled. This may also mean that might already have a good understanding of the exercises given them and that they have

no need for the extra mental aids.

Grounded on the above studies, the study attempted to venture on a more in-depth analysis of the effects of doodling on the listening comprehension of students. Furthermore, the study considered the act of doodling, the doodles produced and the listening activities in the analysis of the results as well as in the discussion of the causes that might have assisted in the improvement of students' listening comprehension. Hence, the study also adapted several variables from these mentioned studies to further provide knowledge to the world as to why many researchers believe that doodling improves listening as well as to identify what particular level of comprehension doodling could be helpful.

Statement of the Problem

Generally, the study was conducted to determine the effects of doodling on the listening comprehension of college students.

Specifically, it sought to answer the following problems:

1. What is the profile of the respondents in terms of:
 - a. sex;
 - b. age;
 - c. first language;
 - d. verbal reasoning score in the entrance examination;
 - e. learning styles?
2. What is the listening comprehension level of the college students exposed to doodling activities and those not exposed to doodling activities both in their pre-test and post-test in the following:
 - a. literal;
 - b. interpretative;
 - c. critical, and
 - d. creative?
3. What are the types of doodles produced by the students while listening to recorded conversations and lectures?
4. Is there a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the students exposed to doodling?
5. Is there a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the students who are not exposed to doodling?
6. Is there a significant difference between the level of listening comprehension of the college students exposed to doodling and those that are not?
7. Is there a significant relationship between the profile variables and the level of listening comprehension of the college students not exposed to doodling and those that are exposed to doodling activities?

Null Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested at 0.05 level of significance:

1. There is no significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores of the students exposed to doodling.

2. There is no significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean scores of the students who are not exposed to doodling.
3. There is no significant difference between the level of listening comprehension of the college students exposed to doodling and those that are not.
4. There is no significant relationship between the profile variables and the level of listening comprehension of the college students not exposed to doodling and those that are exposed to doodling activities

Methodology

Research Design

The study utilized a true experimental design particularly the Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design because of three (3) factors that were duly considered: Randomization, Treatment, and Control. Firstly, in randomization, all participants were given an equal chance of being assigned into any group in the experiment. This also entails that the randomization process should result to equivalence between the two groups. Since the aim is to observe the effect of doodling on the listening comprehension of the students, this study involved two groups: those that were exposed to doodling (experimental group) and those that were not (control group). Secondly, a treatment was applied to the experimental group. Instead of listening only to the recordings, the experimental group doodled as they listen. Finally, control was used to avoid external influences on the outcome of the study. Thus, the experiment was conducted with both of the groups listening to the same recorded lectures and conversations at the same time, only that the experimental group performed an added task. The conduct of the experiment was done as illustrated in the following diagram:

Students exposed to doodling	O1 X O2	Students
not exposed to doodling	O1 O2	

As shown in the diagram, the participants were grouped accordingly and are separated by the solid line. This solid line represents randomization, thus, the participants in both groups were subjected to random assignment. Moreover, as can be gleaned from the diagram, the initial measurements of the dependent variable or the pre-tests for both groups were administered at the same time. O1 symbolizes the performance of the respective groups in the pre-test. Whereas, the X denotes doodling as the treatment in the study. Finally, O2 represents the final measurement of the dependent variable which is the performance of the participants in both groups in the post-test.

Participants

The respondents of the study comprised of 38 Bachelor of Science in Development Communication students from the Tarlac Agricultural University in the second semester of academic year 2018-2019. This number of students is the total population of those that take communication and language courses in the said university. Randomization was employed to give each student an equal chance of being assigned to any of the groups.

Prior to conducting the experiment, the researcher determined first the profile of the respondents. And from that profile, the researcher utilized their final grade in the subject Purposive Communication which they have taken in the previous semester as the identifier for the randomization. The participants were sorted according to their grades from highest to lowest. Those, whose ranks were odd number, were assigned to the experimental group and those, whose

ranks were even number, were also assigned to the control group. This was done to ensure that each group would have an equal number of participants and also homogeneous performances. Hence, the groups had 19 participants each.

Data Gathering Instruments

Survey Questionnaire was used to gather the profile of the respondents in terms of sex, age, first language, verbal reasoning score in the entrance examination and final grade in Purposive Communication including the **Memletics Learning Styles Questionnaire** to identify the participants' preferred learning styles. The reliability test result of this instrument using Cronbach's alpha is 0.81 (Moenikia & Zahed-Babelan, 2010), suggesting that the internal consistency or reliability of the questionnaire is high. To get the participants' initial and final listening comprehension scores, the researcher utilized the listening comprehension questions adapted from **TOEFL iBT™**. The listening section of the TOEFL iBT test measures students' ability to understand conversations and lectures in English. The questions focus on identifying the main idea and supporting details, recognizing the speaker's attitude and purpose, and making inferences. Permissions from Educational Testing Services (ETS), the developer of TOEFL iBT™, to use the tests in this study have been duly acquired.

Data Gathering Procedure

The respondents were given the survey questionnaires and Memletic® Learning Styles Inventory to get their profile and learning styles. The data gathered for the profile of the respondents, particularly their grade in Purposive Communication were used as the basis for the randomization.

Upon the assignment of participants in the control and experimental groups through randomization, the researcher then commenced on the conduct of the experiment. The date and time of the experiment are the same to prevent the time element to impose influence on the outcome of the study.

The pre-test was first administered to assess the initial listening comprehension abilities of the students. Then, for three weeks, the respondents were asked to listen to different recordings, one recording per session. The activities were conducted twice a week, thus six (6) sessions for three weeks. The control group was asked to listen to the recording and do nothing else; while the experimental group was given blank sheets of paper and pencils. They were instructed that they can use the pen and paper should they feel bored. At the end of each session, comprehension questions was administered to the participants.

At the conclusion of the experiment, the researcher administered the post-test among the participants. The post-test was just the same with the pre-test, but the order of the items was disarranged. Finally, the doodles of the respondents were gathered and analyzed carefully to determine their classification and to ascertain how these doodles may have affected their performances in the listening activities.

Statistical Treatment

To answer the underlying problems posed by the study, fundamental statistical operations were utilized. Problem 1 sought to determine the profile of the respondents, hence, frequency counts and percentages were utilized. Problem 2 looked for the types of doodles which the students produced while listening to recorded conversations and lectures, hence, to facilitate analysis of the

doodles, the researcher adapted the taxonomy of De Leon (2019) to classify the doodles and utilized frequency counts and percentages to assist in the discussion. For Problem 3, the levels of the listening comprehension of the students were determined based on the levels of comprehension taxonomy developed by Al-Musalli (2001). Per level of comprehension, i.e. literal, interpretative, critical and creative, the researcher tallied the scores of the participants and computed their mean. Then, the percentage of the mean score for that particular level was computed against the total number of items classified under that level of comprehension. To answer problems 4 and 5, paired t-test was used to compute for any significant differences between the pretest and posttest mean scores of the students exposed to doodling and those that are not. For problem 6, independent sample t-test was used to compute for any significant differences between the levels of comprehension of the students exposed to doodling and those that are not. And for Problem 7, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient were used to determine the correlation between level of listening comprehension and the profile variables Age and Language ability score in the entrance examination; Point-biserial for Sex; and Contingency Co-efficient for First Language variable.

Results And Discussion

On the Profile of the Respondents

Table 1. Profile of the Respondents

Profile Variable	Category	College Students Not Exposed to Doodling Activities n=19		College Students Exposed to Doodling Activities n=19	
		F	Percent (%)	f	Percent (%)
Sex	Male	5	26.3	4	21.1
	Female	14	73.7	15	78.9
Age	20 years old and below	16	84.2	14	73.7
	21-30 years old	1	5.3	4	21.1
	31 and above	2	10.6	1	5.3
First Language	Ilocano	5	26.3	3	15.8
	Kapampangan	1	5.3	1	5.3
	Pangasinan	1	5.3	-	-
	Filipino	12	63.2	15	78.9
	English	-	-	-	-
Verbal Reasoning Score	Below 70	-	-	2	10.6
	71-79	1	5.3	1	5.3
	80-89	18	94.7	15	78.9
	90-95	-	-	-	5.3
	96-100	-	-	-	-
Learning styles	Visual	2	10.52	2	10.52
	Aural	2	10.52	2	10.52
	Verbal	4	21.05	5	26.31
	Physical	5	26.31	4	21.05
	Logical	1	5.26	0	0
	Social	7	36.84	6	31.58
	Solitary	6	31.58	7	36.84

Sex. Table 1 shows that the participants were equally distributed to both groups with 19 individuals each. From the students who were not exposed to doodling, 14 or 73.5% are females and 5 or 26.3% are males. While the students who were exposed to doodling were composed of 15 or 78.9% females and 4 or 21.1% males. These data only shows that the development communication program of Tarlac Agricultural University is dominated by females.

Age. In can be gleaned in table 1 that majority of the participants in both groups are 20 years old and below with 16 or 84.2% students not exposed to doodling and 15 or 78.9% exposed to

doodling. This distribution may mean that the respondents are mostly fresh graduates from high school. However, it is also noticeable that there are those whose ages do not align with the expected age for college students. Based on the interview made by the researcher, some of these students have stopped after graduating from high school and some have started college educations but, due to financial insufficiency, have stopped for some time and now are returning.

First Language (L1). The data on table 1 reveals that the majority of the participants in both groups have learned Filipino language before learning any other languages with the distribution of 12 or 63.2% for those that are not exposed to doodling and 15 or 78.9% from those that were exposed, followed by Ilocano with 5 or 26.3% and 15 or 78.9% from the students that were not exposed to doodling and those that were exposed, respectively. None of the respondents has the English language as their L1.

Verbal Reasoning Score. Table 1 also shows that majority of the respondents have scores ranging from 80-89 with the distribution of 18 or 94.7% from the students who were not exposed to doodling and 15 or 78.9% from the student who were exposed. This means that the students have above average verbal reasoning abilities. According to Adeyemi (2017), verbal reasoning involves making meaning based on the information given, going beyond that information to better understanding and applying verbal skills to new learning. Hence, this result of the study means that the respondents are generally aligned to the program they enrolled in because of their scores in the verbal reasoning test. Development Communication program requires that students must have good communication skills, chiefly because this program would lead them to public and even mass communication. Hence, higher language ability is an advantage. Furthermore, Adeyemi concluded in his study that there is a significant relationship between students' knowledge of verbal reasoning and performance, which means that the deeper knowledge a student has of verbal reasoning, the higher achievement he would accomplish.

Learning Styles. As shown in table 1, majority of the students that were not exposed to doodling are social learners which means that they prefer to learn in groups or with other people. On the other hand, majority of the students who were exposed to doodling are solitary which means that they prefer to work alone or use self-study. The Logical Learning style has the least possessor (one or 3.70%) which means that only one prefers the use of logic, reasoning, and systems in learning. This result means that the development communication students have multiple learning preferences as they acquire knowledge.

This particular result of the study affirms the study of Moenikia and Zahed-Babelan (2010) saying that those students with social learning styles have suitable performance in language learning. Moreover, Banner and Rayner (2000) mentioned that successful people with social personalities are more communicative and better learners of new words. Thus, based on these mentioned studies and the results of the present study, the learning styles that are possessed by the Development Communication students suit what the course commonly necessitates, that is, working with people and communicating with them.

On the Listening Comprehension Levels Of The Students Exposed To Doodling And Those That Are Not Both In Their Pre-Test And Post-Test

Literal. Table 2 presents the listening comprehension levels of the students exposed to doodling activities and those that were not both in their pre-test and post-test performances along

literal level. It can be gleaned from the table that majority (52.6%) of the students who were not exposed to doodling had “low” levels in literal comprehension as resulted from the pre-test. Similarly, majority (47.4%) of those that were exposed to doodling had “low” levels in literal comprehension before the conduct of the experiment.

Table 2. Listening Comprehension Level of the College Students Not Exposed to Doodling and Students Exposed to Doodling Activities both in their Pre-test and Post-test along Literal Level

Comprehension Level	Skill Level	College Students Not Exposed to Doodling		College Students Exposed to Doodling	
		Pre-test Percent	Post-test Percent	Pre-test Percent	Post-test Percent
Literal		(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
	Very High	-	10.5	-	5.3
	High	5.3	-	10.5	10.5
	Average	31.6	31.6	36.8	63.2
	Low	52.6	31.6	47.4	21.1
	Very Low	10.5	26.3	5.3	-
Mean Score (DE)		5.95 (Low)	5.95 (Low)	6.32 (Average)	7.84 (Average)

DE-descriptive equivalent

In totality, however, the pre-test mean score (5.95) of the students that were not exposed to doodling falls under low level while the mean score of those that were exposed to doodling falls under average level along literal comprehension. This indicates that, in both groups, the majority were slightly proficient in recognizing or recalling of main ideas, details, sequences, and comprehending the gist of what is said.

The table also reveals that, at the conclusion of the experiment, the students that were not exposed to doodling had two (2) majorities (31.6%): those at average level and those at low level. It can be noticed that the number of respondents who had average level in the pre-test is the same with those in the post-test which means that the number of those who were previously average did not improve at all. Whilst the number of those who possessed low levels at the pre-test, which previously was the majority (52.6%), decreased to just 31.6%. This decrease could have been attributed positively but considering the increase in the number of students possessing very low levels from 10.5% to 26.3%, this may indicate that there was not much of improvement at all. This is backed up by the mean score 5.95, which means that that although there were changes in the distribution of levels, in totality, the group mean score did not change, hence, their levels did not improve.

For the students who were exposed to doodling activities, the table reveals that their exposure may have affected their performance positively, in which they performed better in their post-test than in their pre-test. This result can be seen via the increase in the number of respondents with improved comprehension levels. Previously, the majority possessed “low” levels of literal comprehension skills, but after the exposure to doodling, majority of them incurred higher level of

comprehension skill, thus, earning “average” level. This means that they have improved their skills in literal comprehension and from slightly proficient, they became fairly proficient.

This particular result of the study is supported by Andrade (2009) who pioneered the study on doodling and listening. In her study, two groups were also utilized in a single session experiment with one group allowed to doodle while listening and the other deprived of any tasks while listening. After five minutes, the participant were asked to write names and places that they could remember especially those that were attending the party. Results show that those who doodled remembered 29% more than those who did not. She then concluded that the experiment resulted to positive effects on the exposed because through doodling the participants may have been kept awake, thus forcing them to utilize executive resources and that doodling may have reduced daydreaming. Literal comprehension as defined in the present study covered much on remembering details, thus, the results in the study of Andrade (2009) are affirmed by the present.

Furthermore, this particular result of the study also agrees with the study of Wammes et al. (2016) who found out that drawing improves memory by encouraging a seamless integration of semantic, visual, and motor aspects of a memory trace. Hence, the doodles which the students produced during the experiment may also be considered as a factor in improving their memory since in those activities, the participants may have adapted in using their schemata (Zeng, 2007) and connecting it with the listening passage, thus producing an image that reflects their learning. By performing this process over a period of time, the students seemed to have trained themselves to remember details with such strategy. This particular result occurred because doodling may have maintained arousal while consuming a limited amount of available cognitive resources as opposed to daydreaming, which consumes a high amount of cognitive resources (Boggs, Cohen, & Marchand, 2017).

Interpretative. As shown in table 3, majority or 57.9% of the students who were not exposed to doodling had “very low” levels in interpretative comprehension as resulted from the pre-test. While of those who were exposed to doodling, majority or 47.4% had “low” levels. Hence, prior to the conduct of the experiment the students exposed to doodling activities had higher levels of interpretative comprehension than those who were not. In totality, however, the mean scores of both groups say otherwise as both groups incurred respective means scores that fall under low level: 2.31 for the students that were not exposed to doodling and 2.68 for those that were exposed.

This means that in terms of interpretative comprehension skills, the students in the control group or those that were not exposed to doodling were not proficient in inferring information from the speaker or the social setting, while the students who were exposed were a step higher, which is slightly proficient.

Table 3. Listening Comprehension Level of the College Students Not Exposed to Doodling and Students Exposed to Doodling Activities both in their Pre-test and Post-test along Interpretative Level

Comprehension Level	Skill Level	College Students Not Exposed to Doodling		College Students Exposed to Doodling	
		Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
		Percent (%)	Percent (%)	Percent (%)	Percent (%)
Interpretative	Very High	-	-	-	-
	High	-	10.5	-	21.1
	Average	-	10.5	10.5	36.8
	Low	42.1	47.4	47.4	21.1
	Very Low	57.9	31.6	42.1	21.1
	Mean Score (DE)	2.31 (Low)	3.37 (Low)	2.68 (Low)	4.58 (Average)

DE-descriptive equivalent

It can also be seen on the table that both groups have made improvements on this particular levels of comprehension as reflected on their post-test performances. Among the students who were not exposed to doodling, the majority (47.4%) now have low levels, while among the students who were exposed to doodling, the majority (36.8%) possess average levels. In totality, the mean scores of both groups showed a difference of improvements as seen in their new levels. The students that were not exposed to doodling scored an average of 3.37, which falls under low level while those that were exposed scored an average of 4.58, which falls under average level.

It can be inferred from this data that doodling may have been assistive among those who were exposed to doodling as doing so did not distract them in inferring information from the passage. But in contrast, as reflected from improvement of the levels of those that were not exposed, doodling may also not have contributed much since the levels of those that were not exposed have also improved. Additionally, had the students exposed to doodling improved by surpassing two or more levels, it would have been possible to conclude that doodling was more effective than non-doodling, but this is not the case as both groups stepped up with just one level only. And although both groups have improved, the level of the students who were exposed to doodling is still higher. This is also supported by the mean score of both groups

Few possible reasons may be attributed to this specific result of the study. First, the high percentage of extraneous doodles produced by the students during the experiment may have caused the lack of effectiveness of their inferring skills. Although it was observable that the students exerted efforts on producing meta-cognitive doodles, which would have been helpful to them if properly executed and substantially surpassing the extraneous ones, their exposure may not have sufficiently helped them improve or their doodles may have not represented the information from the listening passage that can only be understood when inferred. Second, Andrade (2009), in the same study where she asserted that doodling aids to concentration, noted that “tests of memory or

attention often use a second task to selectively block a particular mental process, and if that process happened to be important for the main cognitive task, it would result in performance being impaired due to this competition for cognitive resources". Hence, in this study, the respondents may have had a hard time choosing which to focus on because of competing modalities and that one particular mental process may have been blocked.

Critical. As shown in table 4, majority of the students who were exposed and those that were not exposed to doodling activities had "very low" levels in critical comprehension before the conduct of the experiment (52.6% and 63.2%, respectively). This means that prior to the conduct of the experiment, majority in both groups were not proficient in critical comprehension or, more specifically, in making assumptions, conclusions, and even evaluation. However, when computed in totality, both groups had mean scores of that fall under low level (1.11 for those that were not exposed and 1.42 for those that were exposed to doodling). Hence, when described in totality, both groups are slightly proficient.

Table 4. Listening Comprehension Level of the College Students Not Exposed to Doodling and Students Exposed to Doodling Activities both in their Pre-test and Post-test along Critical Level

Comprehension Level	Skill Level	College Students Not Exposed to Doodling		College Students Exposed to Doodling	
		Pre-test Percent	Post-test Percent	Pre-test Percent	Post-test Percent
		(%)	(%)	(%)	(%)
Critical	Very High	-	-	-	10.5
	High	-	10.5	-	5.3
	Average	5.3	15.8	10.5	21.1
	Low	31.6	15.8	36.8	31.6
	Very Low	63.2	57.9	52.6	31.6
	Mean Score (DE)	1.11 (Low)	1.53 (Low)	1.42 (Low)	2.21 (Average)

DE-descriptive equivalent

It can also be observed that both groups have somehow improved on their comprehension skills as shown by the decrease in the percentage of those that had very low levels in the post-test and the increase in the percentages of higher levels. However, for the students that were not exposed to doodling, the decline in the percentage of participants with very low levels may not have contributed much to the improvement of the whole group's performance as the majority still possessed very low level of critical comprehension skills after taking the post-test. The whole group's mean score (1.53) also did not show much of improvements as the level is still low.

Furthermore, majority of the students that were exposed to doodling previously possessed "very low" level of critical comprehension (52.6%) but after the exposure, the group performed better in the post-test. As presented, their post-test scores indicate that there are now two (2) majorities, both with 31.6% in low and very low levels. Thus, this result suggests that they became

“slightly proficient’ in critical comprehension or making appropriate judgments about the message of speaker’s personality, making assumptions, drawing conclusions, making evaluation. In totality, the groups mean score (2.21) also indicate an improvement as it falls under average level.

This result of the study is supported by Tadayon and Afhami (2016) in terms of the effect of artistic activities. As cited in their study, artistic activities can lead to academic achievement (Eisner, 1998). Further, in terms of educational performance, effective function of working memory is a vital element wherein when the working memory is active, concentration is also active. Hence as resulted in their study and in the present study, artistic activities (such as doodling in this study) may have improved learning and comprehension by improving working memory and concentration.

Moreover, Andrade (2009) asserted that doodling aids to concentration, hence, through doodling, the concentration of the students was improved and they were able to critically listen to recorded conversations and lectures in the tests as well as during the experiment.

Creative. As shown in table 5, majority the students exposed to doodling (47.4%) and also majority of those that were not (42.1%) possessed very low levels of creative comprehension. This means initially they were not proficient in handling verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies, identifying hesitation and making appropriate responses. In totality, the pre-test mean scores of the students not exposed to doodling (.95) fall under low level and the pre-test mean scores of students exposed to doodling (.74) fall under very low level.

Table 5. Listening Comprehension Level of the College Students Not Exposed to Doodling and Students Exposed to Doodling Activities both in their Pre-test and Post-test along Creative Level

Comprehension		College Students Not Exposed to Doodling		College Students Exposed to Doodling	
		Pre-test	Post-test	Pre-test	Post-test
Level	Skill Level	Percent (%)	Percent (%)	Percent (%)	Percent (%)
Creative	Very High	-	5.3	-	10.5
	High	5.3	26.3	-	21.1
	Average	26.3	31.6	21.1	21.1
	Low	26.3	10.5	31.6	31.6
	Very Low	42.1	26.3	47.4	15.8
Mean Score (DE)		.95 (Low)	1.74 (Average)	.74 (Very Low)	1.79 (Average)

DE-descriptive equivalent

Moreover, the conduct of the experiment may have facilitated improvement of listening comprehension skills among all the participants of this study as shown by the increase in the number of students possessing higher levels. For example, for the students who were not exposed to doodling, majority possessed very low levels as reflected from their pre-test performances but after the experiment, their post-test performances reveal that the majority has earned average

levels. Hence, despite being deprived of any treatments, the group still managed to improve their creative comprehension skills. This is also attested by their post-test mean score (1.74) which fall under average.

Similarly, those students that were exposed to doodling improved on their creative listening comprehension skills. It can be noticed from the table that in the pre-test, nobody in the group possessed high and very high levels and the majority rested at very low but after being exposed to doodling, 10.5% had very high and 21.1% had high levels and the majority possessed low levels as reflected in their post-test performances. In totality, the group performance also improved as their post-test mean score resulted to 1.79 which fall under average, a level higher than their pre-test performance.

This particular result of the study affirms the claim of Tadayon and Afhami (2016) that doodling improves learning. This means that with the aid of doodling, the students, who were exposed to doing it, were able to improve their learning, specifically, in terms of listening comprehension. Furthermore, this particular result of the study is supported by the study of Wammes et al. (2016) which concluded that drawing improves memory by encouraging a seamless integration of semantic, visual, and motor aspects of a memory trace. The respondents did not only improve in remembering details but in the higher levels as well. Hence, from this particular result of the study, doodling is beneficial to students.

The preceding results revealed that the students of both conditions made improvements on specific levels of listening comprehension. Additionally, the statistical analysis presented in the following sections were purposefully conducted to ensure the validity of the results. Furthermore, the following sections also aimed at examining further the extent of the effect of doodling on specific levels of listening comprehension as well as to provide answers on whether doodling can be accepted as an aid to improving listening comprehension or not.

On the Types of Doodles Produced by the Students Exposed to Doodling Activities

Doodles are commonly defined as aimless scribbles to relieve boredom but this study adapted the definition of Brown (2010) which described doodles as “markings [that] help a person think.” Hence, this section presents how the doodles of the students helped them understand the listening passage. This section also includes the analysis of the doodles produced by the students exposed to doodling activities during the experiment. For six (6) meetings, the students were given pieces of empty letter size papers where they asked to doodle as they listened to the recordings. The doodles were then collected and subjected to analysis. Doodles in this study are classified based on the taxonomy of De Leon et al. (2019), which as stated, leads towards finding the relationship of doodles and the achievement of students.

Since the TOEFL iBT™ was designed mainly for college students, ETS covered various disciplines in their listening comprehension tests. As surfaced on the analysis, the respondents made various doodles, some of which are related to the passage, some are about the subject which they are attending, and some are far from the topic.

attending, and some are far from the topic.

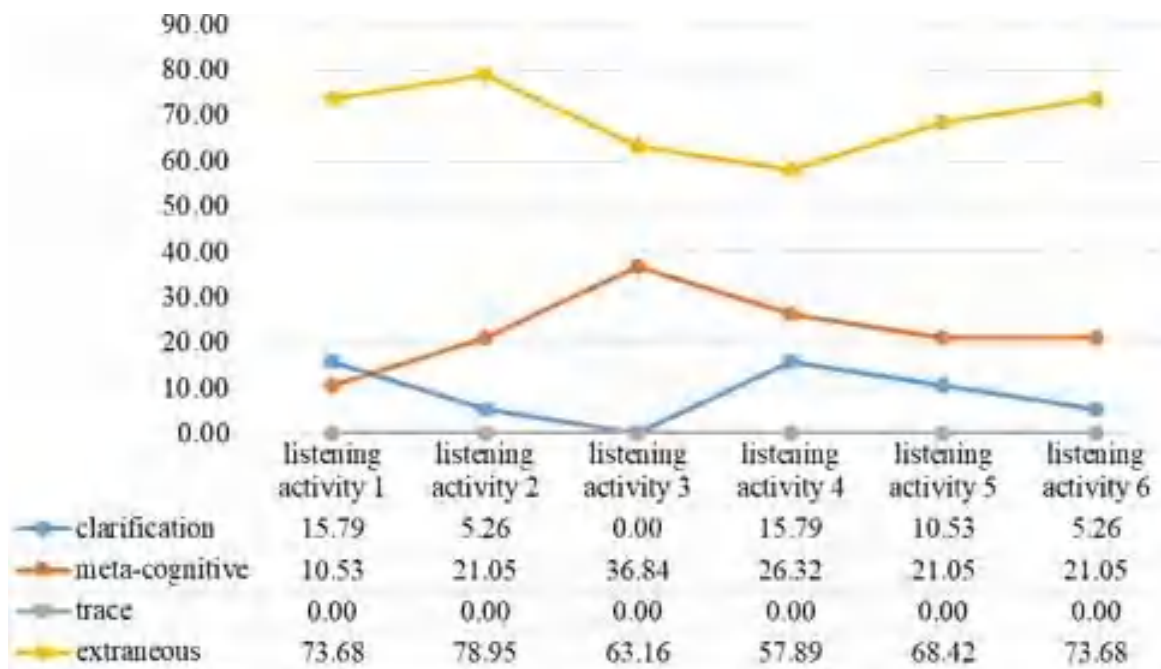


Figure 6. Percentage trend of the types of doodle produced by the students across six (6) listening activities.

From the percentages of the types of doodles produced by the respondents, Figure 6 presents a clear picture of the progress of the respondents across all six listening activities. It is visible in the figure that the extraneous types of doodles are those that have prevailed among the doodles of the respondents throughout the experiment. It can also be gleaned from the table that, at the beginning of the experiment, the number of extraneous doodles are distant from the all other types. Although extraneous types of doodles were never surpassed by the other types, it is also evident that there is improvement in other types, particularly clarification and meta-cognitive. For example, in listening activity 1, the respondents needed clarifications first before using meta-cognition. However, starting from activity 2 onwards, the respondents have produced more meta-cognitive types than clarification. This may have happened due to the similarities of the activities. The first three activities were recorded lectures whilst the remaining three activities were conversations. Hence, this explains the ascent of meta-cognitive types of doodles that the respondents produced because, in those activities, the students may have found their way of doodling and understanding a recorded lecture simultaneously. Another is that the students may have already realized the role of their doodles in their comprehension. This particular result of the study may also imply that the students are tracking their learning and aware of understanding the recordings.

Moreover, the figure shows that when the type of recording was changed, i.e. the recorded lectures which were used previously were changed to conversation, the number of clarification types increased while the number of meta-cognitive types decreased. This may imply that the students may be surprised with the change hence their doodles of meta-cognitive types declined

and they needed more effort for clarifications. Furthermore, upon adjustment with the new type of activity, they may have found their way in combining multiple modalities.

This result of the study agrees with Brown (2010) that in order for information to be truly integrated, at least two of the major modalities must be integrated or one modality must be incorporated with a strong emotional experience. Moreover, Petrovsky (2009, cited by Qutub, 2012) added that visual symbols can replace speech as indirect forms of conscious expression, where in this study, the doodles of the students are representative of their understanding since they would not want to speak while trying to understand a listening passage.

On the Difference between the Pre-Test and Post-Test Mean Scores of the Students Exposed to Doodling

Table 12 presents the differences between the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the students exposed to doodling along the different listening comprehension levels. The statistical computation reveals that all listening comprehension levels of the students exposed to doodling based on their t – computed values (literal with -3.683; interpretative with -3.473; critical with - 2.395; and creative with -4.472) had associated significant values (literal with .002; interpretative with .003; critical with; & creative with .000) lower than the 0.05 level of significance. Hence, for all levels, the null hypothesis is rejected. This means that there is a significant difference between pre-test and post-test mean scores of the students exposed to doodling along all comprehension levels. Moreover, the data shows that along literal, interpretative and creative level, the difference is highly significant at .01 significance value.

According to Smallwood et al. (2007), as cited by Andrade (2009), doodling made a positive effect to the listener's recall ability, implying it may have facilitated in reducing daydreaming because another undemanding task has been employed. Hence, their study supports the results of the present study that doodling could be an aid to listening. In the case of the present study, doodling is also beneficial as it aided in improving the listening comprehension of the students. As shown in table 12, the comprehension levels of the students who were exposed to doodling increased.

Table 12. Difference between the Pre-test and Post-test Mean Scores of the Students Exposed to Doodling

Comprehension Level along:	Score	Mean	Mean	t	Sig.
		Difference			
Literal	Pre-test	6.3158	-1.5263	-3.683**	.002
	Post-test	7.8421			
Interpretative	Pre-test	2.6842	-1.8947	-3.473**	.003
	Post-test	4.5789			
Critical	Pre-test	1.4211	-0.7894	-2.395*	.028
	Post-test	2.2105			
Creative	Pre-test	.7368	-1.0527	-4.472**	.000
	Post-test	1.7895			

**Highly Significant at 0.01, *Significant at 0.05

The study of Zeng (2007) also supports this particular result of the study particularly in the mental strategies performed by the students as they listened while doodling. In their study, they emphasized the mental processes which a person is involved in listening. Specifically this processes involve top-down and bottom-up. Although it is not measured in this study, the extent of top-down and bottom-up processing of the students may have also be reinforced by their doodles. For example, in the analysis of their doodles, it was found out that the metacognitive doodles increases as the students gets their way to understanding the lecture- or conversation-type of listening passage. Hence, the from their stored knowledge or schemata, the students were able to relate the content of the listening passage and thus their doodle output resulted to meta-cognition, whereby their doodles reflect what is happening in the listening passage and what they understand about it.

Furthermore, although more extraneous doodles were produced, it only reflects that he students when get bored consistently kept their minds active. This leads to another possible reason as to why they were able to improve their levels, that is, it is the act of doodling itself that has influenced the students to focus on what they were listening to. This has been studied overtime when Adrade (2009) pioneered the effect of doodling to concentration. Although her study was the first to bravely attempt to reduced mind wandering by day-dreaming, the results paved way for the a hallmark discovery, in which later researchers ventured on affirming and even enhancing the claim. Schott (2011) supported her claim, which also supports the results of the present study, by emphasizing that doodling helps stabilize arousal and helps a person increase watchfulness, hence, the increased in the level of students' listening comprehension may be attributed as a result of the exposure to doodling.

On the Difference between the Pre-Test and Post-Test Mean Scores of the Students Not Exposed to Doodling

Table 13 shows that along literal, interpretative, and critical levels of listening comprehension, the t-computed values (literal with .000; interpretative with -2.088; & critical with -1.17) had associated significance values (literal with 1.000; interpretative with .51; & creative with .279) lower than the 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted for these three levels. This indicates that the pre-test and post-test mean scores of the students not exposed to doodling are not significantly different.

However, along creative level, the t – computed value of -2.535 had an associated significant value of .021 which is lower than 0.05 level of significance. Hence, for this particular level, the null hypothesis is rejected. This means that the pre-test and post-test mean score of the students not exposed to doodling along creative level are significantly different. This further means that their post-test mean score in creative level is significantly higher than their pre-test mean score in the same level.

Table 13. Difference between the Pre-test and Post-test Mean Scores of the Students Not Exposed to Doodling

Comprehension Level along:	Score	Mean Level	Mean Difference	t	Sig.
Literal level	Pre-test	5.9474	0	.000 ^{ns}	1.000
	Post-test	5.9474			
Interpretive level	Pre-test	2.3158	-1.0526	-2.088 ^{ns}	.051
	Post-test	3.3684			
Critical level	Pre-test	1.1053	-0.421	-1.117 ^{ns}	.279
	Post-test	1.5263			
Creative level	Pre-test	.9474	-0.7894	-2.535*	.021
	Post-test	1.7368			

^{ns}Not Significant; *Significant at .05

The results presented in this section are rather stimulating because, from the series of listening test experienced by the respondents, the skills in comprehending literal, interpretative, critical information did see any improvements. It is to be understood then listening comprehension skills might not necessarily be improved even when the listener himself thinks he is concentrating. This is explained in the study of Smallwood & Schooler (2006) claiming that while the listeners think that they are concentrating on the listening passage, their brain engages in daydreaming and other task-unrelated thoughts (TUTs) especially when the listener starts to feel boredom and attempts to relieve it. Hence, upon attempting to relieve boredom by daydreaming, the listener is being led away from the details of the passage.

It is also very apparent in the results that only in creative comprehension where the students

improved as reflected in their post-test scores. This result implies that although the respondents maintained their levels in those three levels, they improved significantly in creative level, i.e. “handling verbal and non-verbal communicative strategies, identifying hesitation and propwords, and making appropriate response” (Al-Musalli, 2001). This is supported the study of Anderson (1977, cited by Yenkimaleki & Van Heuven, 2016) that their knowledge in acknowledging hesitations and determine their comprehension which involves the activation of their schema. The listeners attempt to relate the details of the listening passage with the schemata and see the connection for better understanding. Thus the schema is activated as soon as the listeners find various parts of the listening passage familiar to them.

On the Difference between the Levels of Listening Comprehension of the College Students Exposed To Doodling and Those That Are Not

As reflected in Table 14, the findings revealed that in the literal level, the resulting t-computed value, which is 2.192, had the significance value of .035 below the 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. This means further that the level of listening comprehension of the college students exposed to doodling is significantly higher than those who were not in terms of literal comprehension. However, the t-computed values of interpretative (2.018), critical(1.513), and creative levels (.127) had corresponding significance values (interpretative with .51; critical with .139; & creative with .900) higher than the 0.05 level of significance. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted. This means further that there is no significant difference between the level of listening comprehension of college students exposed to doodling and those who were not along interpretative, critical, and creative levels.

Table 14. Difference between the Level of Listening Comprehension of the College Students Exposed to Doodling and those that are Not Exposed to Doodling Activities

Comprehension Level along:	Group	Mean	Mean Difference	t	Sig.
Literal	Students exposed to doodling	7.8421	1.8947	2.192*	.035
	Students not exposed to doodling	5.9474			
Interpretive	Students exposed to doodling	4.5789	1.2105	2.018 ^{ns}	.051
	Students not exposed to doodling	3.3684			
Critical	Students exposed to doodling	2.2105	0.6842	1.513 ^{ns}	.139
	Students not exposed to doodling	1.5263			
Creative	Students exposed to doodling	1.7895	0.05270	.127 ^{ns}	.900
	Students not exposed to doodling	1.7368			

^{ns}Not Significant *Significant at 0.05

These findings only illustrate that based on the taxonomy of Al-Musalli (2001) doodling may have aided the students in improving their skills in recognizing or recalling main ideas, understanding the gist of what was said, identifying relevant points and rejecting irrelevant points.

Thus, the results of present study affirm and reason with the conclusions of mentioned studies about the effect of doodling on listening.

For example, Andrade (2009) published her study, “What does Doodling do?” – the first published study about doodling and listening – and revealed her discovery that doodling aided to concentration. In her study, she found out that those who doodled remembered more names than those who did not, hence, recall ability. Thus, the present study is in coherence with the results of Andrade’s that doodling aids to recalling or remembering of details and as referenced to the taxonomy of Al-Musalli (2001), main ideas.

Furthermore, the present study agrees with Tadayon and Afhami (2016) that doodling improves learning. Their study assessed the effects of doodling on learning performance and found out that those who doodled outperformed those who did not. Such a result drew the implication that doodling was beneficial particularly in learning. However, what lacks in their study is the non-identification on what area of learning was measured. Hence, the present study drove its focused on the comprehension levels and attempted to find which of these areas would receive a positive impact of doodling. As a result, only in literal comprehension was doodling beneficial and not in higher comprehension levels, i.e., interpretative, critical, and creative.

However, the study conducted by Boggs et al. (2017), a supposed “replication and extension” of Andrade’s (2009), arrived at a rather different and contradicting result. Their study focused on employing structured and unstructured doodling, and note-taking to see whether doodling can have beneficial effects on comprehension. As it turned out, doodling, whether it be structured or unstructured, did not make any significant effects on the performance of the respondents while note-taking did. They then concluded that doodling may not be advantageous at all in increasing recall performance because they found no support that doodling improved the recall ability of their participants. The results of the present study reasons with Boggs’s et al. about the effect of doodling on the recall performance of the respondents since the former found out that the effects of doodling are significant in this level of comprehension.

Initially, the present study posed an ambition to see whether doodling can also aid in higher levels of comprehension, but as the findings revealed, the effects of doodling to these higher levels of listening comprehension, i.e. interpretative, critical, and creative, are no better than just listening. Hence, the results of this study adds, to the literature of the effects of doodling, the limitation of its effects on listening comprehension, that is, doodling can be used to aid in literal comprehension and may not be more beneficial in improving skills in higher levels of comprehension than not doodling at all.

On the Relationship Between the Profile Variables and the Listening Comprehension Levels of the College Students Not Exposed To Doodling and Those That Are Exposed To Doodling Activities

As for the students who were not exposed to doodling, the result of the statistical computations, which is presented in Table 15, revealed that the significance values across all profile variables are higher than the 0.05 level of significance from the variables were tested. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected. It therefore means that there is no significant relationship between the profile of the students not exposed to doodling activities and their listening comprehension levels. Further, this suggests that their profile is not significantly associated with their performance wherein their profile had no influence on their levels.

Table 15. Relationship between the Profile variables and the Level of Listening Comprehension of the College Students that are Not Exposed to Doodling Activities

Profile	Listening Comprehension							
	Literal Level		Interpretative Level		Critical Level		Creative Level	
	r	Sig.	R	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.
Sex	-.092	.708	-.359	.132	.010	.966	.098	.690
Age	-.040	.872	-.001	.996	.019	.937	-.219	.368
First Language	.152	.534	-.066	.789	-.122	.619	.335	.161
Verbal Reasoning score in the entrance examination	-.001	.998	.144	.558	.007	.976	-.159	.515

As for the students who were exposed to doodling activities, the result of the statistical computation shown in Table 16 does not differ much from those that were not exposed as their computed significance values were also higher than the 0.05 level of significance. Thus, across all profile variables, the null hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that none of the profile variables is found to be significantly correlated on the level of listening comprehension of the college students are exposed to doodling activities.

Table 16. Relationship between the Profile variables and the Level of Listening Comprehension of the College Students Exposed to Doodling Activities

Profile	Listening Comprehension							
	Literal Level		Interpretative Level		Critical Level		Creative Level	
	r	Sig.	R	Sig.	r	Sig.	r	Sig.
Sex	.258	.287	-.006	.979	.175	.473	.188	.441
Age	-.066	.790	-.364	.126	-.139	.569	-.241	.321
First Language	.166	.496	-.198	.418	.116	.635	.192	.432
Verbal Reasoning score in the entrance examination	.102	.679	-.051	.837	.035	.885	.150	.539

Moreover, since their performance in the listening comprehension test came about a result after the student's exposure and non-exposure to doodling activities, the findings also imply that the profile variables did not affect the rate of effectiveness of the intervention strategy. This means that despite the application of treatment to the experimental group, their performance was still a result of the length of their exposure and type of stimuli or the listening passages which both groups were exposed to during the experiment.

Conclusions

Based on the salient findings of the study, the following conclusions were drawn.

1. The Bachelor of Science in Development Communication in Tarlac Agricultural University is dominated by females. The typical language first learned by the respondents is Filipino. In the entrance examination, majority of the respondents had above average scores (80-89) in verbal reasoning. They also vary in their way of learning and are dominant in one or more than one learning styles.
2. The students who were exposed to doodling improved on all levels of listening comprehension. The students who were not exposed to doodling improve only on literal, interpretative, and creative comprehension but not in critical.
3. The students exposed to doodling activities produced various doodles as they participated in the listening activities. Most of these doodles are extraneous, or doodles that have no connection with listening passage at all. This majority was followed by meta-cognitive doodles which reflects the efforts of the students to track their understanding of the passage.
4. Doodling can be beneficial in improving listening comprehension as evidenced by the increase of the number of respondents possessing improved levels of listening comprehension skills.
5. Doodling may significantly aid in improving literal comprehension but its benefit on the improvement of interpretative, critical, and creative comprehension levels may not be significant.
6. The students' age, sex, first language, and verbal reasoning score in the entrance examination are not significantly associated with their performance in the listening comprehension tests. Hence, the positive effect of doodling is not profile sensitive.

Pedagogical Implications

While most strategies that have been devised to improve listening comprehension have worked out in the past, EFL and ESL teachers continue to search for more and newer strategies to use. Based on the the results of the present study and the previous studies, doodling can be considered a new strategy to help struggling students comprehend listening transcripts better. As established, concentration is enhanced when doodling is performed (Andrade, 2010). With narrower direction, where doodling aids in improving literal comprehension, teachers and even students may opt to allow doodling when targeting foundational areas of comprehension.

As Smallwood et al. (2007) put it, one's environment, in order to have meaning, must coordinate with one's internal representations. Doodling introduces a way that would strengthen this relationship as it gradually decreases day-dreaming by attempting to forbid the entry of task-unrelated thoughts to one's mind. With the consistent exposure of the students to doodling while listening, they developed a strategy to learn better coordination and prevent too much entry of task-unrelated thoughts. Hence, better coordination happen led to better comprehension.

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New Historicism of Sinan Antoon's "The Corpse Washer" and Hassan Blasim's "The Iraqi Christ"

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Abstract

The study aims to examine the importance of the Iraqi novels in exploring the events in Iraq, as a result of the past events. Likewise, the study investigates the past social, political, economic and cultural events and how the historical environment influences on our life and how the historical events chart the way of life. It also aims to analyze two narratives: "The Corpse Washer" and "The Iraqi Christ" depending on the New Historicism Theory. Thus, New Historicism is a theory that is introduced by Stephen Greenblatt in a highly associated with the political, social and economic elements. The theory is distinguished from other theories by its way of criticizing and analysing the literary work. In this study, there is an illustration of new historicism theory with considered to the relationship between the history and the literary work that regarded as a historical text. The researcher follows the qualitative methods of selecting and analysing the data of the study. The researcher also adopts the New Historicism Model by Greenblatt (2000). As a result, the researcher finds that the historical events cannot be separated from nowadays life; due to the way of influencing on the people and the effect of peoples' previous experiences about things that impact on the thoughts and ideology as well as the behaves.

Keywords: New historicism, qualitative, social, economic, political, Green blatt.

Introduction

No one can separate Iraq from its history; due to the great history of this country, including cultural, religious, political and\ or economic. This history can be found in historical books as well as in the minds and thoughts of the Iraqi people, who reflect their previous experiences in stories. Therefore, many authors try to write about Iraq and reflect the country's suffering through history. Thus, the history and literature are cooperating together; they have distinguished relationship in revealing the truth. Greenblatt states that the literature work is not something isolated from other events, but it is the series of works that sequence according to specific time as a part of the history.

Additionally, the producing of any literary work is effected by the historical circumstances.

Hence, the novel of Sinan Antoon and Hassan Blasim reflect the ability to use history in the description of new events. Since the history is not only something that happened in the past and end without effect; we as an audience can easily recognize the effect of the history on the events on those two novels. Moreover, the New Historicism theory as a way of studying and analysing literary work is depended on the recognizing and interpreting of the context not only the text. It means that in this study the researcher analyses the full context with all its aspects.

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Finally, the two texts *The Corpse Washer* and *The Iraqi Christ* that are used as the data in

this study; have many facts about events and some activities in Iraq, whether in the past before 2003 or after this date. The following is an illustration of the New Historicism theory by Greenblatt, with referring to the elements and principles of analysing the literary work according to this theory concerning the two novels the data of this study.

Historicism and New Historicism

New Historicism can be defined as the school of literary theory which joins the critical theory into easier methods of practice for theoretical literary philosophers. Thus, this theory is firstly developed in 1980, by the work of the critic Stephen Greenblatt. Moreover, new Historicists aim to understand the literary work over its cultural context and to understand the intellectual history through literature (William 173).

Historicism is a term that is related to history, the term *Historismus* is introduced firstly by the philosophers as notes on philosophy in 1797 by Friedrich Schlegel. In the nineteenth century, this term is used in Germany. Furthermore, it means a methodological rule for the historical events or philosophy (Iggers130). Thus, to understand things in a specific period; there is a need to take into account these things in historical context. Iggers states that Historicism is a theory that seeks to explain the social, or cultural events including the beliefs and ideas by the study of the history in which these events happened. Moreover, it is the process that investigates the effect of the local factors on regional development. Simultaneously, New Historicism is a literary theory that was firstly introduced by Greenblatt 1980. This theory was influenced by the philosophy of Foucault. Thus, the theory aims to find the information in the text by taking into account the context of presenting a certain text, which explores the historical ideas and social issues in a specific time and place. Therefore, the historical study attracts many philosophers and scientists due to the relying on the responses or thinking of traditional and the thinkers (Reynolds).

Poorghorban explains that Greenblatt's New Historicism is a theory in the analysis of literature, that is concerned with the role of the context and the impact of the socio-cultural elements as well as the events, taking into account the past source of these events that cause the current one (Poorghorban 44-46). This theory studies the political, economic, cultural and social factors. Therefore, the events that actually happened in the present time of presenting them in the literary work; can be known from the cultural context of the past.

Additionally, Greenblatt criticizes the old historicism in the sense that it wasn't objectivist. The problem is that in the old historicism there is a description and interpretation of the past. Therefore, the relation between the old and new historicism can be studied in the comparison between the literary studies in the past and recent times and in the different points of view about the nature of the history. Hence, Greenblatt emphasizes on the history of the historian, he claims that the history can be considered as it appeared if there is a description of the dialogue in the past because every moment is distinguished by a specific conflict of voices in the past (Balkaya 7068-7077).

Sinan Antoon

Sinan Antoon is an Iraqi author. He was born in Baghdad 1967, his father is Iraqi and his mother is American. He is immigrated to America in 1991, and then he completes his studies there. He leaves Iraq escaped from the destruction and all bad events. Antoon is a novelist and poet; his works are concerned with the exploring of the suffering of Iraq and its people. In his speech to AL-Alam AL-Jadeed journal he describes his love to Iraq "Iraq that I left, but do not leave me" (AL-Qasemy).

Additionally, in his literary work he describes the sectarian as the things that rip the country into Sunni and Shiite. Thus, in his novels he dives through history in search of the truth and answers for his questions. Therefore, all his novels are description to the history and how people differ in their ways of interpreting the history. In his talking about history Antoon claims that we as human need the history to prove our truth, or support us when we talk about past

events.

Summary of the Novel the Corpse Washer:

It is a novel that reflects the suffering of the Iraqi people before and after 2003. This novel was translated into English by the author Sinan Antoon. The author uses the hero of the novel named Jawad to reflect the inner and outer conflict in a man, when he rejects to follow the rules whether social, political, cultural and economic. With the author's detail description of the job of the family as washer for the corpse, Sinan illustrates the cultural and religious ritual of washing the bodies of dead people. He explains how the death increased in Iraq after 2003 and how the events became worst. Jawad's father is the owner of the place of washing the corpse, he inherits this job from his families and he wants Jawad to be just like him. Instead, Jawad is fond for art and he wants to be a famous artist, just like "Jawad Saleem" (Antoon 47), as he told his teacher one day. The fate leads him to stay among the dead people in his family's place of work. Moreover, Jawad fails in achieving his goals to be a famous artist, he also fail in his planning to immigrate and he fails in love with the two pretty girls that appear in different period of times in the novel: Mariam and Qhaidaa'.

Sequentially, the novel reflects the cultural, social, political, economic and religious events in Iraq. In this sense, the appearance of the hero's brother Ammori and his good relation and personality, and his success in educations reveals the social connection. While the death of Amoori who was one of the Iraqi army; reflects the political events in Iraq that moves from war to another war (Antoon 7-255).

Finally, this novel is one of the most important literary works of Antoon, due to the way of reflecting the reality of Iraq and the suffering of its people. The struggle between the fate and hopes, the love and parting, the poverty and richness and the peace and bloods can easily recognized by the readers.

Hassan Blasim

He is an Iraqi author and poet who born in Baghdad 1973. He is residing in Finland. Blasim writes many literary works including books in the field of poetry, cinema and fiction. He also has many stories that have been translated from Arabic into English. In 2000 Blasim left Iraq escaping from persecution because of his works. In 2004 he was settled in Finland. He has many important works that reflects the Iraqi reality. As well as the needs and suffering of the Iraqi people, one of those works is The Iraqi Christ.

Summary of the Novel the Iraqi Christ

In this story the narrator is called Ali; he told us a story about his friend Daniel both is dead. Daniel is a Christian soldier, he refuses to leave Iraq after 2003 and he wants to stay in Iraq taking care of his mother after her losing of her sight and the ability to hear. Daniel's friends in the army were called his "Chew-gum Christ" (Blasim 94).

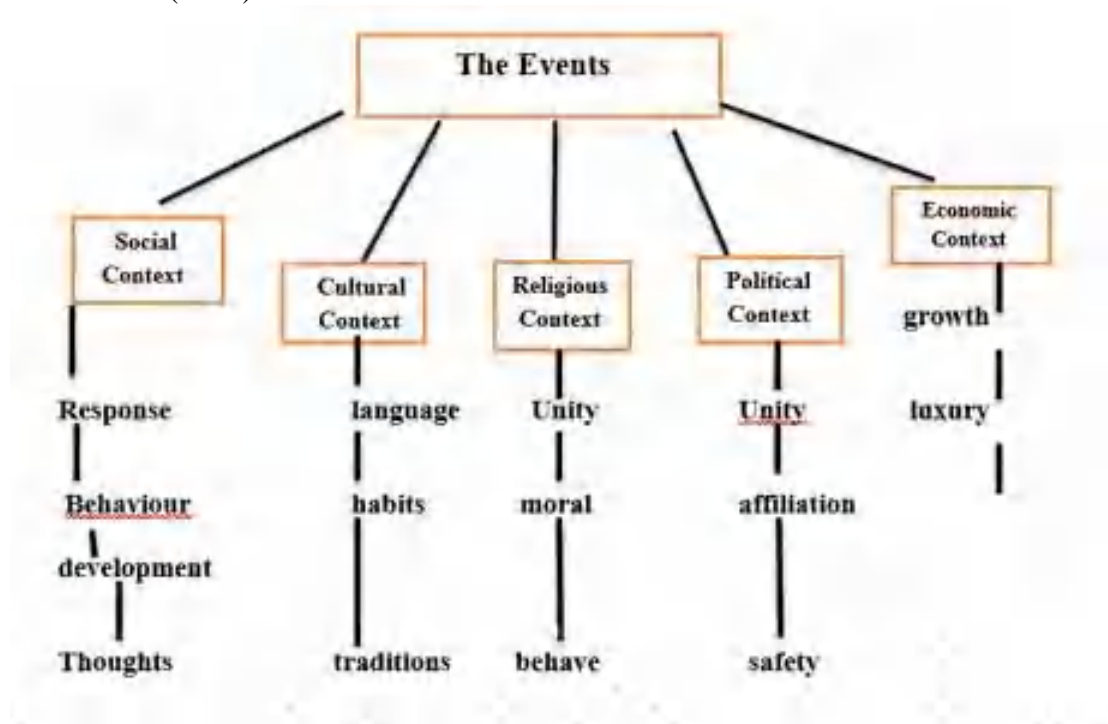
Moreover, after 2003 when he refused to leave Iraq, he also refused to return to the army with Ali and other friends. One day Daniel with his mother in a restaurant eating their favourite food. In the restaurant there was a man sitting next to Daniel he showed him the explosive belt that he was wear and asked Daniel to follow him to the bathroom of the restraint. Then the man threatening Daniel with gun and asked him to take his role by wearing the explosive belt. The man told Daniel that he will take care of his mother. The Christ didn't have another option; the man told his that if Daniel changes his mind, they will kill his mother. Thus, Daniel decided to do this mission. Therefore, when the man left the bathroom, "the Christ fell to his knee..." he opened the bathroom and shouted, someone saw him and screamed suicidal! So, people escaped immediately Daniel looked to the place of his mother, she wasn't there then he pressed the button (Blasim 1-100)

Methodology

This study is about the new historical use in the two narratives, *The Corpse Washer* and *The Iraqi Christ*. The study is a qualitative one that serves in selecting the data from non-numerical number of data that makes the result reliable and objective. The data are two narratives: *The Corpse Washer* by Sinan Antoon and *The Iraqi Christ* by Hassan Blasim. They are selected carefully to explore the importance use of historical elements in representing the nowadays events. Reading the two novels makes the researcher analyze the events depending on new historicism theory that emphasis on the cultural, social, political, religious and economic contexts. The following is the theoretical framework of the study in the analysis of the two novels depends on the theory of Greenblatt (2000).

Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of the data analysis is adopting of the Greenblatt's theory of New Historicism (2000).



Data Analysis

The Corpse Washer and The Iraqi Christ

In the corpse washer, Sinan Antoon echoes his previous experiences about the past events in Iraq, whether these events are social, political, economic and\ or cultural. Handily, the author's reflection can be recognized by the readers in each part as the cooperation between the past and recent events. Thus, in the new historicism theory, the events in both periods the past and new should be taken into account. Blasim also reflects his previous experiences about Iraq and the needs to of affiliation. He presents the character of Ali and Daniel who were from different religious, but they were best friends. The novel explores the bad events in Iraq and the sequences of wars and death.

The Political Context

The *political* events in *The Corpse Washer* in the past were under the rule of AL-Ba'ath which is described by the author several times in the reflection of the *poor and high social classes*, and the

instruction towards any other parties such as Jawad's uncle when he was from AL-Shywai party the author describes these events during the rule of Saddam and after 2003 in the returning of his uncle to visit them. The sequences of the events can be recognized as a result of the past once. Thus, Antoon uses martyrdom as a result of the *political* events in Iraq which produces death everywhere.

Moreover, the *unity* cannot be found between people in Iraq immediately after 2003, when the author describes the sectarian killing in the streets and the blood everywhere. As a result to the bad political events that a person faced in the past and during 2003 many Iraqi people decided to immigrate into another countries and one of them our hero in the novel Jawad who do not feel with the *affiliation* to Iraq as well as the feelings of fear of death and the needs for *safety*.

Additionally, these political elements can also do be recognized in the novel of Blasim, when he starts his novel The Iraqi Christ by events in the army. Thus, the novel from early starting moments pays the readers' attention to the message of his work. Daniel and his friends were dead as the audience understand by the narrator of the story Ali, who was dead also. The death and blood, the bumps and explosives are the words that common used in Iraq. Therefore, audiences are easily judge that there is no *peace*, no *safety* in our country at that time.

The Social Context

The *social context* in The Corpse Washer is one of the clearest points in Antoon's novel. Starting with a mix of old and new occurrences that entices readers to keep track of what's going on and encourages them to infer what's going on. The *social* joining between Jawad and his brother Amoori which ends after the death of Aomori is a kind of the past *social* relations between the families, when each one has a responsibility towards his neighbour. The author describes *the social* relationships between Amoori who is the hero's brother and his family as well as the polite personality of Aomori that is created in the past and affects positively in Amoori's *attitudes* and *behaviour* in his *society*. ..

Besides, the new historicism emphasizes the relationship of the philosophy when the author choices the songs in such a way that reflects the hidden meaning whether related to Jawad or his environment when Jawad describes the song that as if it comes from the past. " I felt the song was coming from a distant world which was not yet submerged in death" (Antoon 22).

Moreover, the *response* against the *social* rules including the field of study and the way of life is a kind of *social context* which shows the hero's reaction. Furthermore, the *behaves* of the people in the past and at the time of the events represents their *social* connection in Iraq and how the Iraqi people cooperate with each other whether in the past or nowadays, in the peace or wars. *The thoughts* of the main characters in the novel are divided into two sides: one side is with the *social rules* and the other is our hero who struggles between his needs and *society*.

Similarly, Blasim's novel is a reflection of the *social context* in Iraq before and after 2003; it reflects the close relationship between friends in the army and after 2003 when Ali tried to convince Daniel to rejoin the army. The description of Daniel's relation with his mother and how he choice to stay with her in Iraq; is a kind of great social connection in the Iraqi families and between the Iraqi people. This social connection does not change due to the political conflict, or the politician's disagreement. Thus, the Iraqi peoples' thoughts stand against the storm of wars through history; they have a great connection just like the history of Tigris and Euphrates. Therefore, the two novelists visualize the Iraqi society from the past until nowadays as one hand in peace and wars and all the conflicts, battles and explosives are from another people who do not want this country and its people to live in safety.

Cultural Context

Antoon gives an expanding description for different phases of culture in his novel. Thus, the

language is used by the Iraqi people in their communication with each other, or to label things in the environment. Sometimes these things' names are inherit from predecessors. Similarly, the habits of Jawad's family in their daily life and the habits that is must be followed in the washing of the dead people are types of some society's culture.

In addition, Antoon visualizes the art, by shedding a light towards the great Iraqi artists for instance Jawad Salim, in the speech of the Jawad the hero of the novel and his teacher about the art. Moreover, the author uses the songs as a type of art and culture in the past, which can be described as nice and hopeful songs that have an impact on the soul and the thoughts of Jawad. Despite of the development of life and culture the author presents the traditions of the Iraqi society that is related to the washing of the dead people, other traditions related with the opinion of Jawad's father towards art and how the father wanted Jawad to take the family's job.

In Blasim's novel there is a hence to the cultural context when the Iraqi people with their different cultures, experiences and habits live together in peace, for instance, Christianity and Islam.

Religious Context

Blasim's description of the religious aspect in Iraq is related with the Christians feeling that they are minorities after 2003. Thus, the Christians were afraid to make their religious rituals in churches. Therefore, most of them are immigrated outside Iraq, as Blasim mentions when all the relatives of Daniel immigrate except him who choice to stay in Iraq with his mother. Furthermore, religion expresses the unity between individuals and do not separated them. So, the relationship between the friends in the army is a good evidence of that unity. Religious also in the novel reflects the morality and good behaviour; when Daniel was taking care of his old mother.

In Antoon's novel, there are different phases of religious aspects which are results of the past events or activities. Such as the things that are related with the washing the dead bodies according to doctrines. The readers can realize that Shiite doctrine differs from Sunni doctrine in this matter. So, there is a place for washing the dead people for each doctrine. Although these aspects are types of historical, legacy and religious. However, it doesn't separate the people in the same country in their reality. Antoon accurately describes the phrases that are used while washing the dead.

Finally, in his description of the walls, Antoon relates the walls with their drawers that were affected by the past which makes the walls wet. The other of Antoon's descriptions reflect the ending of the green seasons when the leaves dry and drop as a result of the summer and its hot days, just like the summer of Jawad's life in Iraq that reflects the life of all the Iraqi people . The two narratives are results of the events in the past that shape and reflect the circumstances as well as it are the response that is influenced by the environment. Therefore, the environment in those two novels reflects the bad events in Iraq which are results of events in the past.

Conclusion

The life of people cannot be separated from their previous history. Thus, the history shapes the events with all their details whether happy or sad. In this sense, the events in Iraq are results of the past events which effect on each detail and actions in our life. Moreover the New Historicism theory emphases on the role of the environment as well as the history of a person. Therefore, in this study the researcher finds that the history plays important role in the shaping of new events whether political, cultural, social, economic and religious.

Moreover, the violent history of Iraq and the suffering of the Iraqi people among the corpse and destruction effect on the way of presenting the two novels. Therefore, with considering to the context that yield from the idea of many social, political, cultural and economic assumptions the audiences can easily recognize the inner and outer conflict. This impacting is just like the previous experiences, beliefs, attitudes and\ or ideology that draws the reality of events. Furthermore, in the two novels in this study, the history of Iraq draws the peoples' life. For instance, in Antoon's

novel the events that reflect the suffering of the Iraqi people during the rule of AL-Ba'ath control the events after 2003, especially the social, political, cultural events. Hence, the readers can easily interpret the situation as if these new events are the results of the past accumulations, or the result of the past inculcation activities.

Additionally, the researcher finds that Blasim's novel successes in revealing the suffering of Iraqi people whether Christians or Muslims, both life in a country that full with pains, bloods, explosives and battles. These events are results of the previous events that Iraq faced. Similarly, the environments of presenting the events and the historical background of the main character are shaped the better sight for the novel and good recognizing of the message behind this novel.

Finally, it is important to say that the two works by Antoon and Blasim are important works by their role of sending a message about the suffering of the Iraqi people before and after 2003, which makes people from other countries realize what the Iraqi people are facing. So, those two novels even though their novelists are immigrated from Iraq, but their hearts and thoughts stay related with the past to produce the new sight about the history and its relation with new events.

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The Fright and Fabrication of COVID-19: Pandemic versus Infodemic

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Abstract

The emergence of coronavirus from Wuhan city, China in December 2019 has placed the entire world in an exceptional perplexing situation. Due to its rapid global spread it has been termed as a pandemic by WHO for many people around the world have become the victims of COVID-19 while momentous of them have lost their lives. Consequently, COVID-19 has emerged as an incredible socio-economic shudder that has shaken the very edifice of the entire world. Amidst the rising encumbrances by the pandemic is global spread of misinformation and myths associated with COVID-19 that has caused many social issues. Thus, WHO has further called it an 'infodemic' that is producing a hype and havoc among the public. The COVID-19 infodemic has impacted the global economy, health, education, tourism and politics apart from creating racial discrimination and fear. This study is designed to analyze the implications of COVID-19 infodemic under the Postmodernist theoretical perspective of 'legitimization of knowledge' by Lyotard (1984). The related review of available literature up till May 2020 has directed to the formulation of research questions. The answers to these questions are presented in the critical discussion while the conclusion has produced some needful recommendations.

Keywords: Coronavirus, misinformation, infodemic, social media, panic

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Introduction

The term ‘infodemic’ stimulates various clichés like; ignorance is bliss, little knowledge is a dangerous thing, excess of knowledge is bad etc. in one’s mind. When one looks into the state of affairs around the world right from the beginning of the year 2020 there is a havoc of information, misinformation and disinformation. This excess of information related to coronavirus is provided through the global media that is a mixture of hype, myth and reality. The time period we live in is Postmodernist where knowledge has been legitimized (Lyotard, 1984) that has created hyperreality or media generated reality commonly known as virtual reality. It has become complicated to differentiate the fact from false as information is globally produced and distributed among the people of the world.

Technological progress of information and communication has dually effected our lives. The positive aspect of this development has made life easy, produced effective and resourceful means to communicate throughout the globe just within seconds. Yet it has its drawbacks for the virtually connected world through social media; the media generated reality is often void of truth or contains very less truth. Since the advent of World Wide Web access to any kind of information/knowledge is facilitated to the extent that individuals can easily dig down information, surfing through the internet, while the information provided is not always valid and virtuous. There is a huge sea of misinformation as well along with the valid information; things are not always projected as factual and authentic even the worst kind of entertainment and info is available on the dark web where different kinds of cybercrimes are mundane.

Advent of COVID-19 in Wuhan, China in late December 2019 has triggered the circulation of diversified information related to the virus through every kind of media. This information/misinformation is not only related to health issues rather it also entertains different kinds of socio-economic, political and religious propaganda, and conspiracy theories. Such kind of viral misinformation based on COVID-19 has forced WHO (2020c) to label it as ‘infodemic’ instead of a ‘pandemic’. Social media is the topmost medium through which various information/misinformation related to coronavirus is circulated among the individuals throughout the globe. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, WhatsApp are frequented with numerous news, posts, trolls and memes based upon COVID-19 some are hilarious while others have socio-political and economic controversial paradigms. Televisions and newspapers are also not lacking behind in playing their part to generate hypes and myths based on coronavirus. In short, there is a diffusion of information that has blurred the boundaries of fact and false, myth and reality, hype and evidence.

No doubt, COVID-19 is an exceptional health catastrophe as well as an emergency that has immensely effected the global economy and social set-up yet one need to differentiate between reality and hype. The flow of different gens based upon COVID-19 has created panic among the individuals that has resulted in severe psychological and mental health issues. Although there is no vigorous systematic scale on the basis of which false information is extracted against COVID-19 yet Tedros Adhanom Ghebreyesus, the director general of World Health Organization (WHO, 2020c) has stated, “We’re not just fighting an epidemic; we’re fighting an infodemic”. This infodemic has impacted the social life in many possible ways that are implicated with economy, education, health and tourism etc.

Literature Review

The following literature review consists of researches conducted on COVID-19 till May 2020. These researches are based within the charters of health, economy and socio-political paradigms in order to analyze the implications of COVID-19 infodemic at societal and global levels. This inclusive review of related literature has abetted the researchers to form the research questions that has led to discussion, conclusion and recommendations.

Vervoort, Ma, Luc and Zieroth (2020) have conducted a research to fight the infodemic of COVID-19 related to the swift propagation of scholarly articles based upon cardiovascular disease among the coronavirus patients. They have analyzed twitter as a mode to spread misinformation about the treatment of cardio patients who are suffering from coronavirus. Their research suggests that serious medical leadership is urgently required not only to properly tackle the health issues created by coronavirus but also to fight the misconceptions and misinformation generated through the social media that in turn creates panic among the general public. Erku, Belachew, Abrha, Sinnollareddy, Thomas, Steadman and Tesfaye (2020) have discussed about the role of pharmacists in daunting medical misinformation during the infodemic of COVID-19. The growing cases of coronavirus throughout the world calls for parallel emergencies that are required to be systematically tackled and resolved. According to Erku et al (2020):

...proliferation of fake medicines, fake news and medication misinformation surrounding COVID-19. Pharmacists are key health professionals with the required skills and training to contribute to the fight against these emergencies. Primarily, they can be a relevant source of accurate and reliable information to the public or other fellow health professionals thereby reducing the spread of COVID-19 medication misinformation. (p. 1)

Medford, Saleh, Sumarsono, Perl and Lehmann (2020) have conducted a sentiment analysis of COVID-19 infodemic on twitter in order to understand the public sentiment for the outbreak of COVID-19. They have explained how twitter content and sentiment has developed from the early stages of outbreak to current time period based upon a variety of circulating info/misinformation on the social media. Their objective was to measure and apprehend early changes in twitter commotion, flow of content and sentiments of public about COVID-19 pandemic/infodemic. Pulido, Carballido and Sama, Gomez (2020) have analyzed twitter medium for science based information socializing COVID-19 medium. They have differentiated the information from the false information to facilitate the health concerns. They have asserted that false information has been tweeted more but retweeted less than science based factual information whereas science base fact checking tweets are more popular among the public than misinformation. Their research claims to be beneficial for insightful public health policies.

Hua and Shaw (2020) have analyzed COVID-19 infodemic as an emerging threat through data lens within the premises of China. They explain that coronavirus is a humanitarian emergency initiated from Wuhan, China that has now become a global pandemic. They have investigated the important actions taken by the Chinese government and people over the three months since this virus has emerged. Their study only deals with Chinese newspapers, social media and other digital platforms. The findings of this study suggest that although there was a primary deferment in responding against the virus yet timely measures have been taken by the Chinese government and social media to fight the epidemic as well as the infodemic. The study concludes that China has demonstrated a unique combination of robust governance, resilient community observance and citizenship participation along with perceptive use of big data and digital technologies. Chinese media has also played a positive rule by eradicating and reducing the fake news related to COVID-19 that is required from every responsible and honest sponsors of social media in this age of information technology.

Khan, Siddique, Li, Ali, Shereen, Bahsir and Xue (2020) have investigated the impact of coronavirus infodemic on psychological health. They explain that the term infodemia was devised during the SARS outbreak still it has become more serious in the outbreak of COVID-19. They suggest that the people who excessively use the social media are prone to anxiety and stress leading to severe psychological issues due to this infodemic.

This term is used to present the epidemic of rapidly spreading misinformation through social media platforms and other outlets. Winning the race of the sharing novel details for COVID-19 and gaining fame over social media have accelerated

the rate of spreading forged news during the current outbreak of COVID-19. This situation is leading to cause massive infodemic, which may increase the risk of severe public health consequences. (p. 2)

Hasan, Hossain, Saran and Ahmed (2020) have addressed the stigma and discrimination attached to COVID-19 infodemic in Bangladesh. They consider coronavirus as a crushing burden on human health and resources of countries like Bangladesh. The country is already in crisis and hardships with very limited and administrative support, derisory governance, widespread panic and stigma throughout the country. The situation is becoming worse due to spreading rumors, false propaganda and non-scientific information. The need is to control this infodemic through legal actions and mass cognizance promotions.

Ruffell (2020) has discriminated the fact from fiction related to COVID-19. He asserts that information based on coronavirus drifts at a high speed through social media and private communication that is frequently unfiltered. Most of the disseminated information is speculative driven out of maiden and inclusive studies that creates confusion and anxiety, the phenomenon that is recently termed as 'infodemic' by WHO. Cinelli, Quattrocioni, Galeazzi, Valensise, Brugnoli, Schmidt, Zola, Zollo and Scala (2020) have discussed the transmission of information about COVID-19 through Twitter, Instagram, YouTube, Reddit and Gab at global level. They have estimated the rumors based on COVID-19 through numerical analysis and categorized the bulks of misinformation spread through each of these social platforms.

An article published by Free World Centre (2020) has projected anti-Chinese and anti-foreigner sentiments in many parts of the world due to the outbreak of COVID-19 in Wuhan, China. Such racial opinions have given vent to hate-speech that is prominent on every type of social media. Even there are accounts of excluding Chinese customers from different businesses. The article narrates that although different countries have adopted measures to control such kind of misinformation and hype through media control, cyber-crime laws for spreading fake news however, the free flow of information is critical. Hu, Qi Li, Yang and Huang (2020) have conducted an infodemiological study on COVID-19 and the global cornucopia of twisted marks and hashtags that has found paths in circadian communication contributing to criticism against Chinese.

Papapicco (2020) has explained how coronavirus infodemic has been described from Italian journalistic communication. The analysis represents a contrast view about COVID-19 situation in Italy based upon authentic information and misinformation. Neilson, Fletcher, Newman, Brennen and Howard (2020) have navigated through six countries to analyze the news and information about coronavirus. This study is conducted to file and comprehend how people of six different countries (Argentina, Spain, South Korea, Germany, UK and US) access and react to the news and info related to COVID-19 during different stages of this global pandemic. It has further examined the reliable social platforms of these people, the amount of misinformation they have encountered, and their knowledge and response during such a global crisis. Baines and Elliot (2020) have stressed upon the urgent need of clarity between information, disinformation, misinformation and malinformation during COVID-19 infodemic. They argue that COVID-19 have immense consequences for global economic and social welfare. This study recommends:

- (i) analyzing all types of information is important in the battle against the COVID-19 infodemic; (ii) a scientific approach is required so that different methods are not used by different studies; (iii) "misinformation", as an umbrella term, can be confusing and should be dropped from use; (iv) clear, scientific definitions of information types will be needed going forward; (v) malinformation is an overlooked phenomenon involving reconfigurations of the truth. (p.1)

Wiederhold (2020) asserts that as COVID-19 continues to extent simultaneously, the information and misinformation also prevails. He has analyzed the use of social media during social distancing. He claims that much of the public knowledge about this pandemic comes from the advanced digital technology. “Because of this, we are learning more every day about the potential benefits and pitfalls of these technologies and their use during a global emergency” (Wiederhold, 2020, p. 1). During this phase of isolation and social distancing there is a thrice fold greater use of social media. The dangerous thing about social media is that it shapes the individuals’ mindset. According to WHO (2020c) an infomediatic is an “...an overabundance of information—some accurate and some not—that makes it hard for people to find trustworthy sources and reliable guidance when they need it”. It can make people depress and full of doubt and can create a feeling of powerlessness. This helplessness in turn can cause catastrophic outcomes.

Methodology

This study is designed under the framework of Lyotard’s (1984) notion of ‘legitimization of knowledge’ from Postmodern theoretical perspective. Lyotard (1984) claims the subversion of grand narratives such as truth, reality, science etc. through little narratives or ‘petit recit’. The destabilization of grand narratives has given vent to plurality. Thus, in the contemporary societies there is no validity of truth and reality. Lyotard (1984) asserts, “... in Postmodern condition the operativity criterion is technological” therefore “it has no relevance for judging what is true or just” (p. xxv). The technological revolution has influenced knowledge and learning through World Wide Web, and this development will continue thereof, the old language games are not adequate to legitimize knowledge. “The nature of knowledge cannot survive unchanged within this context of general transformation. It can fit into new channels, and become operational, only if learning is translated into quantities of information” (Lyotard, 1984, p. 4). He suggests that as knowledge has also become a commodity and it is no longer solely narrative thus there is no inert meaning. According to Lyotard (1984) Postmodernism has “... changed the meaning of the word *knowledge*, while expressing how such a change can take place. It is producing not the known, but the unknown. And it suggests a model of legitimation that has nothing to do with maximized performance, but has as its basis difference understood as paralogy” (p.60).

This legitimization of knowledge has produced different versions of information wherein each version seems to be real. It is a kind of reality that is media generated to create knowledges on hourly basis hence, the real-virtuality projected for the public is a combination of information/misinformation. Within the above mentioned context the researchers have critically evaluated COVID-19 infodemic and its implications on different aspects of global society through the following research questions:

- Q1. What are the implications of COVID-19 infodemic on global economy, health and medicine?
- Q2. What is the role of social media in spreading misinformation about COVID-19?
- Q3. What continuous bias has been generated against COVID -19 in the public that has racial implication produced through the misinformation?
- Q4. What is the extent of public panic created by COVID-19 infodemic?
- Q5. How can social media and law abiding agencies can control the flow of COVID-19 infodemic?

Discussion and Conclusion

The outbreak of coronavirus in Wuhan, China (Dec.2019) has made the world a strange zone it has entirely acceded to a novel coronavirus disease. COVID-19 instigated by severe respiratory syndrome coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2) has become a transmittable and dangerous virus the world

has ever perceived in the current times. Unlike the SARS and MERS the novel coronavirus (COVID-19) has spread throughout the globe with a remarkable speed that

has placed the entire world into extraordinary levels of fretfulness. COVID-19 has spread quite rapidly and proficiently such as from April 29, more than 3 million people are affected by this virus globally while nearly 220,000 people have lost their lives within just four months (WHO, 2020a). Consequently, most of the countries around the world have executed and employed serious health processes; social distancing and lockdown are the most common measures adopted by the countries of the world in order to hinder the transmission of this virus.

There are several implications and impacts of COVID-19 due to which it is termed as pandemic for it has already spread globally. Coronavirus is already transmitted among numerous people whereas a significant number have lost their lives. This virus has not only effected the human health but it has also resulted in severe socio-economic jolts that has created global issues. Apart from being a serious health issue coronavirus has also raised hypes and myths that has mentally and psychologically stimulated the individuals. On 31st January, WHO (2020b) has avowed it as a Public Health Emergency of International Concern 31st of January and finally a pandemic on 11th March 2020. Eventually it has been termed as an infodemic on 15th April 2020 due to the hype and misinformation caused because of COVID-19 on/through social media.

One of the major and critical misconception is of fake medicines as cure of coronavirus due to which drugs like chloroquine and hydroxychloroquine are on sale that has even caused death of COVID-19 patients. There is also propagation of many counterfeit medicines and medical supplies claiming to cure coronavirus on the social media apart from homemade remedies made of herbs etc. Numerous invalid and unauthentic assertions concerning cure, spread and exposure to COVID-19 are projected on the internet and social media. Medicinal misinformation without any valid source has also created panic and fear among the public that has emasculated public inclination to observe legal health advises and valid precautionary steps.

Apart from health care COVID-19 has also implicated the global economy and society. There has been a worldwide palpable economic fallout due to which the world's economy is suffering. Economic depletion is no longer an issue of the third world countries the world's most developed countries like USA, UK, France and Germany are also facing economically critical conditions. Throughout the world behavioral changes are being observed by the social scientists and data analysts. All the educational institutions are closed most of them have adopted virtual teaching measure. Big shopping malls, cafes, restaurants, cinemas, parks and other public places are also closed and over all the countries have implemented lockdowns. Tourism has also writhed due to the closures of frontiers and borders and strict immigration rules that has further dented the global economy. The infodemic has also triggered fear, intolerance and discrimination. Fear of the yellow race as instigators of COVID-19 has produced hate-speech on the social media that may lead to violence and ferocity.

There is no denying the fact that journalism, open public discourses, social media and any other kind of free flow of information can play crucial and essential roles in the global struggle to counter and control COVID-19 pandemic and infodemic. There are various myths and hypes flowing online and elsewhere among them the most common are:

... using hand dryers, eating garlic and drinking bleach can cure infections, that the origins of the outbreak lie in American or Chinese biological weapons or a sinister plot by the Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, and that a 1993 episode of *the Simpsons* predicted the coronavirus by name.⁹ More mundane falsehoods include exaggerated infection figures and inaccurate descriptions of government policies. Researchers have found that false information about COVID-19 has circulated much more widely

than information from authoritative sources such as the WHO and the Centers for Disease Control and Prevention. (Free Word Centre, 2020, p. 5)

The need is to counter all such misconceptions in a proper manner and it is direly required by the general public to extricate the fact from fabricated information. For the free flow of any such knowledge that tends to become a hype is neither fit for mental health nor for the control of corona infodemic. Any such baseless information can only create panic among the people that could be hazardous in many ways. It can deter the people to observe proper preventive actions considering COVID-19 a created hoax, it can render them of intellectual and rational thinking effecting them psychologically along with serious health issues. It can produce hatred among the citizens of the world against each other while it can also hurt the sentiments and feelings of other nations. Furthermore, it can develop religious and racial intolerance.

According to WHO (2020c) timely measure should be adopted to control the COVID-19 infodemic. WHO (2020c) suggests that there are following main domains to which citizens look for reliable news and info specially when there is plenty of rumors and misinformation: they need to know exactly the reason and source of the virus, indications/signs and manners of diffusion, availability of treatments, medicines/vaccine and cures, and the efficacy and intercessions of the health specialists and administrative associations.

Recommendations

Based on the above research questions this study has depicted the following recommendations:

1. The spread of COVID-19 infodemic can be controlled by correct and trustworthy information based on endorsements and counsels specified by appropriate health consultants and professional experts. They should make sure that the civic apprehends the prominence of accurate information thereof, to reduce the spread of hype and myths based upon COVID-19.
2. The pharmacological companies should maintain legal crimes police units to seize the distribution of forged medicines and medical goods that assert to cure coronavirus.
3. Freedom of expression or 'legitimization of knowledge' as explained by Lyotard (1984) does not mean to miscommunicate and spread disinformation or to create hype. Governments should introduce and implement strategies and rejoinders to the outburst of COVID-19 infodemic with the tag of freedom of expression and entree to information.
4. In order to control the spread of misinformation that produces hate speech and racial issues through media proper limpidity and clearness should be projected through media instead of bogus censorship.
5. Popular social media podiums such as; Twitter, Facebook, WhatsApp and Instagram etc. should sponsor authentic and valid news about coronavirus and decrease the representation of misinformation.
6. Essential information should be provided to the civic and measures should be implemented for effective response by the public. It is the duty of health ministries and legislation officials to consider not only what information needs to be delivered but also how it should be delivered to the general public in order to avoid or reduced panic, anxiety and terror.
7. In short, for appropriate strategies to deal with the implications of COVID-19 pandemic and infodemic immediate, systematic and harmonized arrangements from the administrative, legislative and pharmaceutical zones of society are required. Furthermore, appropriate conversion and transmission of evidence based knowledge and information should be provided. So that different people around the world can practice and acclimatize it according to their local cultures and contexts. These measure, if adopted properly, can proved to be vital and effective to fight the misinformation that can save many lives as the pandemic/infodemic endures to evolve globally.

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