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Elementary School and Junior High School English Policy in Japan

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Japan

Introduction

English is a contemporary element in the society which has become a vital instrument of communication across the world. It has made it easier for people to represent themselves in a global platform. English allows one to understand what revolves around the world because he is able to overcome barriers associated with language. Learning becomes easier because he is able to read a lot of books and articles and speak with people from different places across the world. English acts as a windowpane to the world. To be a well-informed person, it is important to learn English to overcome the many obstacles associated with lack of knowledge. When we realize the value of English in life, we also know the correct time to learn it.

The importance of learning English is growing worldwide and national policies from the late 1990s have led to an increase in the number of hours devoted to teaching English beginning from the elementary level throughout Asia (Nunan, 2003; Tsui&Tollefson, 2007). English is treated as a foreign language subject in Japan. It should be attended by students twice a week from the 5th grade onwards. The students learn four skills at this level including reading and writing (MEXT, 2017).

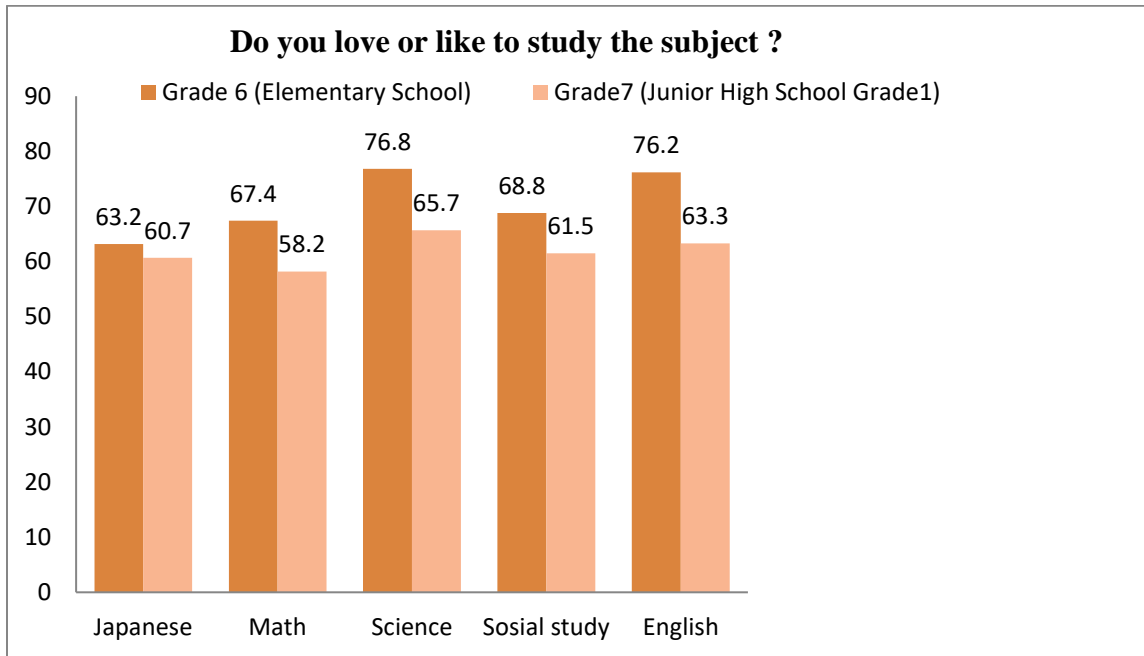
Especially, in Asia and Europe, children tend to start learning English at a very tender age (MaKay, 2006; Pinter, 2006). In line with this trend, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in Japan required English classes as

foreign language activities for all 5th and 6th grade students in public elementary schools from 2011. During these two years of education, the students learn approximately 250 words spanning 35 lessons (one lesson is 45 minutes) yearly and these lessons are conducted about once a week. They learn these words via listening and speaking only with no additional requirement to study grammar and vocabulary for writing and reading (the alphabet is only used as a supplementary lesson tool).

An investigation was undertaken by MEXT in 2014 in order to evaluate the results of this program started in 2011 so that the policy could be further enhanced as required. Data from over 22,000 students of 5th and 6th grades in elementary schools (MEXT, 2014) was collected to access a wide cross section of students. According to this investigation, the students who liked or preferred to study English were 70.9 % and this accounted for a rise of 0.2% from the previous MEXT investigation in 2011. In addition, this investigation also indicated that 65.2% of the students were able to understand the lessons. This was an increase of 4.3% from the numbers of 2011. Overall, the study indicated that the MEXT program of 2011 seemed to be working well and all signs of a successful implementation were in place.

However, this investigation also collected data from over 24,000 students of grades 1 and 2 of the junior high school and found that the number of students who neither liked nor preferred to study English increased once the students reached junior high school with 16.8% for 1st grade and 27.0% for 2nd grade junior high school students compared to 9.1% for elementary school students. Additionally, the number of students who could understand the lessons was decreasing from the 65 % in elementary school to 57.2% in 1st grade and 48.9% in 2nd grade junior high school students. Moreover, there is a similar investigation result conducted by Bennese Educational Company in the same year 2014 as discussed in below. The investigation was about 5 main subjects (Japanese, Math, Science, Social studies and English) which was collected from about 1000 students each grade. According to this investigation, the number of students who love or like to study is decreasing for all subjects. Based on this finding, this tendency is not only for English. It is however evident from this investigation that English had the largest gap between grade 6 and 7 in these 5

subjects based on fact that 12.9% of the students who love or like to study reduced in English. In comparing with the reduced percentage of the students who love or like to study Japanese, English had 10% more reduced than Japanese. It seems large reduced percentage.

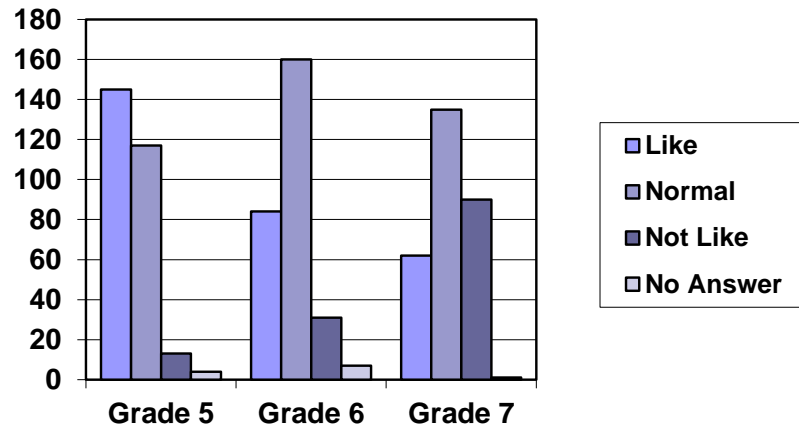


(Bennese, 2014)

Additionally, there is a questionnaire that, “Do you like English activities or not?” and the reason in Sano city in 2011 by author is in below. This city which is located 70km north of the capital city, Tokyo. Currently, Sano city has 27 public elementary schools and 9 public junior high schools. These schools comprise of over 5,800 elementary school students and over 2,900 junior high school students. Sano’s sister city is Lancaster, Pennsylvania in the United States of America, and there is a short- term exchange program for junior high school students every year between the two cities.

The data was collected by paper from 915 students on 5th to 7th grade who are from Sano, Inubushi, Tonara, Jyohoku elementary school and Minami junior high school in Sano city in 2011. The grade 7 is the students who did English lesson as activities when they were elementary students in 2011. According to this result of this questionnaire, as

the students gets older, many students start to dislike English lessons. It was only 13 students who answered dislike in grade 5. However, there were 32 students in grade 6 (about 3 times) and 96 students in grade 7 (about 8 times). From this data, it is showing clearly that the longer students study English the more they dislike it.



	Like	Normal	Not Like	No Answer
Grade 5	145	117	13	4
Grade 6	84	159	32	7
Grade 7	62	136	96	1
Total	299	277	45	12

(July, 2011)

From these results, it is clear that there are numerous issues experienced by students between elementary school and junior high school English classes. Keeping these problems under consideration, some studies have claimed that there is a gap between elementary school and junior high school English (Kizuka, 2008). Naoyama (2013) and Takahashi (2011) arguing that it is necessary to reduce the gap for a smooth transition from elementary school to junior high school English. Thus, the main objective of this thesis is to understand the new English education policy from 2020 in elementary and junior high schools and examine to what extent it helps to solve the problem of the gap between the elementary school and junior high school English at local school levels.

2.Statement of a problem in this study

The present study puts its focus on this question below:

Q. What is the point to reduce the gap between elementary and junior high school English? with looking some occurrences of English education in Japan after World War II (WWII) and how does the new policy in 2020 help for his problem?

3. English occurrences in Japan

The language education has strongly relation with the connections and influences of the social, political and economic occurrences. For this reason, I would like to introduce four things from the core events for English education I Japan after WWII

1. After WWII
2. The Tokyo Olympics in Japan in 1964
3. The JET Programme in 1987
4. Present.

I would not only to see some English education occurrences in Japan but also to get the hint for reducing the gap between elementary and junior high school English with the new policy in 2020.

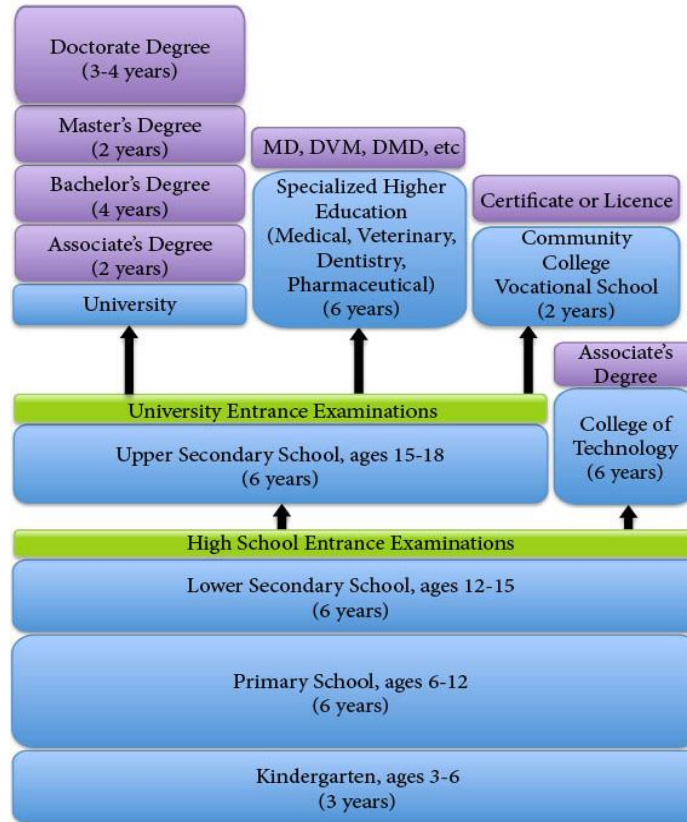
3-1.After World War II

15th August 1945 is the day Japanese government agreed with The Potsdam Declaration and the World War Two (WWII) was ended. It was the date also which Japan was started of the U.S. occupation. The political, economic and education systems had totally changed by General Douglas MacArthur.

General Douglas MacArthur arrived in Japan as the head of General Headquarters (GHQ) organized by the U.S. military. It was approximately one hundred years after Commodore Perry arrived in Japan with his black ships (Buruma, 2003).

Their missions were only manifold, such as dismantling the Japanese military and reform of the political and education systems. In addition, the U.S. occupation played a major role in influencing people's interest in English education creating a period termed as the English boom. In the following year, English lessons started again in junior high schools and the tentative plan of The Course of Study, which was the National Curriculum for all subjects including English, was devised under U.S. supervision.

In 1945, Japanese education system was set as that elementary school starts from age 6 to 12 and junior high school from age 13 to 15. After graduating junior high school, they take an entrance examination and go to high school (age 16 to 18), and then they enrolled in university as now. The yearly structure of Japanese Education is summarized as below:



The Center on International Education Benchmarking(2012)

Junior high school became compulsory education from this year and it was included foreign language subjects. It was just elective subject however almost students couldn't get the choice without English. So almost Japanese people start to have an opportunity to study English at school (Maeda Kanji, 2005, P20)

Therefore, WWII (1945) is the year that English education was started whole Japan at school as now.

3-2. The Tokyo Olympics in 1964

Tokyo was hosting of Olympic in 1964. It has been holding from 10th to 14thOctober. In advance of this Olympic, The EIKEN Test in Practical English Proficiency (実用英語技

能検定 *JitsuyōEigoGinōKentei*) was administered in 1963 by the society for Testing English Proficiency(STEP). The purpose of this test was expanding and improving English skills for Japanese. The first test was only for grade 1, 2 and taken by 37,663 people in all Japan. However, it is highly respected in social, educational, and employment circles and taken by more than 2 million Japanese people each year at 18,000 locations in Japan and 45 other countries at present. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in Japan endorses the *Eiken* tests, and recommends students take them. And also some universities and high schools give the credit for the class or some benefit as score of entrance exam from the Eiken license.

According to the foundation website, there is no relation with Tokyo Olympic in 1964 and it is explaining that this test is necessary to encourage their purpose and interesting. However, it can't be denied the relationship. Japanese people had an enthusiasm to show Japan recovered from WWII to all over the world during Tokyo Olympic in 1964. It seems that one of the main reason to study English in those days. Moreover, this test has been giving a lot of motivation for many Japanese to study English from then.

3-3. The JET Programme was started in 1987

JET Programme is a Japanese government initiative from 1987 that mainly native English speaker who college (university) graduates come to Japan. This program participants are coming as Assistant Language Teachers (ALT), Coordinator for International Relations(CIR) or Sports Exchange Advisor(SEA).The role of them is spreading foreign language education and improving internationalization.

According to JET program website, 90 % of them are coming to Japan as ALT for kindergartens, elementary, junior high and high schools or local governments and boards of education(JET program).For the first participants,848 people are coming from America, England, Australia and New Zealand in 1987. The participants in 2017 are

5,163 people from 44 countries. It seems that this JET program is expanding and working well. It is giving lot of opportunity for being familiar with English for many Japanese.

3-4. Present

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) in Japan required English classes as foreign language activities for all 5th and 6th grade students in public elementary schools from 2011. This is a huge advance in English education in Japan and the policy was set in 2008 and consists mainly of 3 points in the overall objectives:

1. To form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities through foreign languages while developing the understanding of languages and cultures through various experiences,
2. fostering a positive attitude toward communication, and
3. familiarizing pupils with the sounds and basic expressions of foreign languages.

(MEXT, 2010).

The policy for junior high schools was set in 2008 and consists mainly of 3 points in the overall objectives as well.

MEXT (2008) explains that the overall objectives are to:

1. Develop student basic communication abilities such as listening, speaking, reading and writing.
2. Deepening their understanding of language and culture, and
3. Fostering a positive attitude toward communication through foreign languages.

For the study of the English language, the specific objectives are:

- (1) To enable students to understand the speaker's intentions when listening to English.
- (2) To enable students to talk about their own thoughts using English.
- (3) To accustom and familiarize students with reading English and to enable them to understand the writer's intentions when reading English.
- (4) To accustom and familiarize students with writing in English and to enable them to write about their own thoughts using English.

These overall objectives seem to be approximately similar for elementary school and junior high school students. This policy is meant for encouraging the interest of language in students and to develop basic language abilities and an understanding of international cultures at the elementary school level. In addition, the students learn the meanings of words, the difference from the Japanese language and the benefits of knowing a foreign language. On the other hand, the junior high school students are at an age mature enough to understand an abstract concept and this helps them gain knowledge through the use of the language. In addition, the students can learn the function and meaning of the language and the understanding of the different cultures using the language,

The desire for a good model of foreign language learning is a prominent objective which a majority of Japanese School facilities have adopted. Methods of producing particular responses may be analyzed, the ability to choose the right words can be strengthened, and the use of beautiful word patterns and sounds can be learned by elementary schools kids from the very early age. All branches of fine arts help us to see the world through the eyes of an artist, be it painting, poetry, music, etc. An excellently written

poem will help the students to draw comparisons in between the reality and the idealist life model which will result in the overall growth of an individual's personality.

The first point of the Elementary school objectives, to form the foundation of pupils' communication abilities (Ibid, 2010), is formulated with a focus on becoming used to sounds and basic expressions (Ibid, 2010) through foreign language at elementary school. Under this point, the students are required to only inculcate listening and speaking skills to develop their communication abilities. Only the alphabet is used as a supplementary lesson at the elementary school level. On the other hand, junior high school students are required to learn four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) equally to develop basic communication abilities. These different policies seem to make the students feel confused and experience a gap when they move up to junior high school from elementary school.

A smooth transition from elementary to junior high school is important for all subjects equally. However, English was treated as a foreign language activity in elementary school and not as a subject by itself. Office for Promoting Foreign Language Education in MEXT answered by email that it has no curriculum for such foreign language activity in elementary school. Each school can make its own plan in accordance with government policy. In an email response to my questions about this, MEXT stated that this English activity leaves the decision to each school (Personal communication, June 2011). The content and methods have a lot of variety and the curriculum may vary greatly between schools. For English, it is important to coordinate the classes in elementary school and junior high school (Kizuka, 2008; Naoyama, 2013). This MEXT policy seemed to be creating a gap even at elementary school levels.

In addition, to improve English education in elementary school, discussions about the time to first begin teaching the subject, frequency of lessons, and so on have been held during meetings of MEXT (MEXT, 2012). Consequently, a new policy that addresses some of these issues was announced in 2017. In this new policy, the English class, as a foreign language activity starts from the 3rd grade, occurring once a week. It is then treated as a foreign language subject (English), held twice a week from the 5th grade onwards, and the

students learn four skills including reading and writing (MEXT, 2017a). In brief, English classes in elementary school can be categorized into two different policies; one for 3rd and 4th grade students and another for 5th and 6th grade students. The new policies will be initiated all over Japan from 2020 and a test period will start from 2018, necessary for transitioning to the new policy.

Studies have shown that children who watch or read stories in which the grotesque is taken for granted stop feeling or reacting to seeing disgusting thing, which is a significant loss of young soul. Young brains have good memorization skills, and they quickly learn through listening, reciting and learning. Poetry draws attention to specific aspects of life and experiences. Therefore, regular exposure to poetry will recreate and enhance a child observational power.

We must not forget that a good memory is a real asset of an intellectual life. We must start reading the poem to our students as early as possible.

Poems should be adopted in comparison to the grade level of the students. The Children must be asked to learn the poem by heart and note it down in their poetry notebook. If a child is too young to write the poem all by him-self, the teacher should attach a photocopied version of the poem in their notebook. A steady and continuous effort to learn English will change the outlook of Japanese education system towards foreign languages.

4. Conclusion

As I showed the data, many students start to dislike English class as the student gets older. Especially, many students start losing motivation of studying English once they turned to junior high school. However, many Japanese are thinking the importance of English and expecting to improve their English skill. For example, international companies in Japan as Sharp, Nissan and Fast Retailing are requiring English ability to their worker. English for communication skill at society will be student's goal and purpose of learning English. Especially, the trend of studying English after WWII and before Tokyo Olympic

in 1964 was for communicating with foreigner mainly. Moreover, we have more chance to use and learn English from foreigner after JET program started. Communication is one of key word for Japanese to study English. Therefore, making curriculum of communication skill together in elementary and junior high school will be helpful to reduce the gap. English will be a subject as other subject from grade 5 in the new policy and it will be easy to shift for student from elementary to junior high school English. Therefore, the new policy is expected to make a valuable contribution to reduce the gap between elementary school and junior high school English levels and link the classes' curriculum smoothly. However, little attention has been given to address the gap regarding English language activity between 3rd and 4th grade students and the English classes for 5th and 6th grade students. In this point, more research is needed to link English activity and English class as subject.

For another further study, Japanese education systems from elementary schools to university are under MEXT authority (McVeigh, 2005; 2006) and this top- down relationship dominates the educational environment in the country. However, there are many researches about the gap between MEXT intention and feasibility at local level (Butler & Iino, 2005; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009; Robertson, 2015). It is clear that there are huge differences between stated objectives and actual practice (Hagerman, 2009). There is a tendency that researchers of Japanese language policy examine it at macro level (Butler & Iino, 2005). Therefore, it is important to discuss to what degree the English language teaching will be influenced and affected by this new policy. Thus, it will need to research more at local level as case study after this new policy starts from 2020. For example, how much does this new policy in 2020 help to reduce the gap between elementary and junior high school English? In comparison with students who were taking policy in 2011, how much did this new policy change student's interest and attitude for studying English? This data should be collected from one local place and it will be useful to examine it.

The 2ndTokyoOlympic will be held in 2020 as same year as the new policy starts. For this international sports event, many Japanese are interesting in studying English and getting trend it again as 1stTokyoOlympic in 1964. Some people are studying English to be licensed guide and some people are to be volunteer guide for the next Olympic. The

motivation for communication is main reason for studying English at any age in history in Japan. Again, making English class with using of motivation for communication is important to shift English class smoothly form any grade student.

Education in the Elementary school is the foundation of growth for all children across the world. Therefore, a proper study on the contents and evaluation of the methods of teaching should be conducted from time to time in Japan. This can significantly help the students to not only perform well in the class but also helps them to develop keen interests in foreign languages such as English. English as a global language is imperative for human's life since it has become a bridge between nations of the world to interact and find solutions for challenges affecting every human being.

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Developing Appropriate English Learning Materials for Syariah Economic Law Study Program Students at IAIN Palopo, Indonesia

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Abstract

This research is concerning in developing English material for Syariah Economic Law Students at IAIN Palopo with ESP based. The research is aimed at (1) finding out the target need and learning needs of the Syariah Economic Law Study Program students at IAIN Palopo. (2) Designing the appropriate material of the Syariah Economic Law Study Program students at IAIN Palopo. This is a Research and Development project. The steps of doing this research are (1) need analysis (2) make syllabus (3) designing material and first draft teaching material (4) expert consultation (5) try out the material (6) evaluation (7) write a final draft. The subject of this research is the second-semester students of Syariah Economic Law study program at IAIN Palopo. the instrument used are a questionnaire for need analysis, interview guide, and observation sheet. The data were analyzed by using descriptive quantitative and qualitative. The results of the research recommend 3 units as teaching materials namely (1). Syariah Economic Law Matters (2) Halal food Product (3) Being A Syariah Bank Creditor. The materials were developed with a task-based approach and communicative approach. This research gives a contribution to the teaching and learning English at IAIN Palopo especially for Syariah Economic Law Students.

Keywords: Developing Material, English Learning, Syariah Economic Law Student

Introduction

Students of Syariah Economic Law Students at State Islamic Institute (IAIN) Palopo - Indonesia is required to have a knowledge and to be able to communicate in English. In reality, there are still many students have low skills in English. It happens since they are still rarely practice and lack of vocabulary in English. In addition, they have no many chances to use and exposure their practice in English. Furthermore, the available materials for students of Syariah Economic Law Students at IAIN Palopo are still in general English and mostly on grammar oriented. They need to have more specific materials on

English Specific Purpose (ESP) in order to support their career in the future (Masruddin, 2018).

A number of researchers have expressed ideas that the teaching of ESP requires to meet the target learners' needs (Saragih, 2014; Gatehouse, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). In addition, ESP is a learning program, in which the purposes of the course developed based on the specific needs of the target group (Richards and Schmidt, 2010; Basturkmen, 2010). ESP prepares material for the target learners to be able to use appropriate and correct English for many purposes contexts of learners' possible future professions. ESP program needs to be developed since the important of the language courses with specific contents, language skills, motivations, and processes are collaborated into specialized courses.

Holme (1996) states that English for General Purposes (EGP), or also popular as TENOR (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason), is more like a typical secondary school English language course. Its syllabus is based on the construction of the kind of situation that the students have to deal with in English. On the other hand, Robinson (2011) states that ESP is an 'enterprise' involving "education, training, and practice", and drawing upon three major realms of knowledge: language, pedagogy, and students' specialist areas of interest". Hence, it can be seen how ESP is dissimilar from EGP. The fundamentally fluid nature of ESP is normally an extension of what is learned in EGP. As the names suggest, the English Language Teaching (ELT) continuum as in Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:9), moves from general (EGP) to very specific (ESP) courses. There are two main parts which help to distinguish ESP contexts: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP) (Robinson, 2001:3).

The first part, EOP, consists of work-related needs and training, it is not for academic purposes. Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998:7) consider that it includes "professional purposes in administration, medicine, law and business, and vocational purposes for non-professional in work or pre-work situations". Dissimilar from EOP, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) refers to any English teaching that relates to a study

purpose (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998). It is taught generally within educational institutions to students needing English for their academic courses. Since this study is specifically looking at an EAP course for law students, the discussion will focus on EAP in more detail.

ESP is an exciting movement in English language education that is opening up rich opportunities for English teachers and researchers in new professional areas. The ESP that is principally taught consists of spoken and written discourse in academic and workplace settings, which is unfamiliar to learners and thus needed special training. Specific-purpose English includes not only knowledge of a specific part of the English language but also competency in the skills required to use this language, as well as enough understanding of the contexts within which it has happened. In contrast to students learning English for general purposes, the ESP students are usually studying English in order to accomplish a particular role, such as foreign students to become flight attendant, mechanic, or doctor.

Hutchinson and Waters (1997) state that three reasons generally to the important of ESP: the demands of a new world, a revolution in linguistics, and focus on the learner. The second main reason cited as having an enormous impact on the emergence of ESP was a revolution in linguistics. Hutchinson and Waters (1997) mention that one significant discovery was in the various ways of spoken and written in English. In other words, given the particular context in which English is used, the variant of English will change. If the language in different situations varies, then resulting in language instruction to meet the needs of learners in a specific context is also possible. The final reason Hutchinson and Waters (1997) cite as having influenced the emergence of ESP has less to do with linguistics and psychology. Rather than simply focus on the method of language delivery, more attention was given to the ways in which learners acquired language and the differences in the ways language was acquired. Learners were seen to employ different learning strategies, use different skills, enter with different learning schemata, and be supported by different needs and interests. Therefore, focus on the learners' needs became equally paramount as the methods that employed to disseminate linguistic knowledge.

Designing specific courses to better meet these individual needs was a natural extension of the material designer's problem. To this day, the catchword in ESL circles is learning centered.

Dudley- Evans, and John (1998) describe ESP by classifying its absolute and variable characteristics. (1). Absolute Characteristics: ESP is described as meet specific needs of the learner; make use of the underlying methodology and activities of the discipline it serves; is concerned on the language parts (grammar, lexis, register), skills, discourse and genres appropriate to these activities (2). Variable Characteristics: ESP may be related to or designed for specific disciplines; may be used in specific teaching situations, a different methodology from that of general English; is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institution or in a professional work situation. It could, however, be for secondary school learners; is commonly designed for intermediate or advanced students; most ESP courses assume some basic knowledge of the language system, but it can be applied to beginners.

Carter (1983) classifies ESP into three types. First, English as a restricted language. Second, English for academic and occupational purposes. Third, English with specific topics. The language that is used by air traffic controllers and waiters is an example of English as a restricted language. The second type of ESP identified by Carter (1993) is English for Academic and Occupational Purposes. In the "tree of ELT" from Hutchinson & Waters (1987), ESP is broken down into three branches: English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economic (EBE), and English for Social Studies (ESS). Each of these subject areas is further divided into two branches: English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Occupational Purposes (EOP). An example of EOP for the EST branch is English for Technician, whereas the example of EAP for the EST branch is English for Medical studies. The third type of ESP is English with specific topics. Carter (1983) notes this type of ESP anticipated future English needs, for example, scientists requiring English for postgraduate reading studies, attending conferences or working in foreign institutions. It is an integral component of ESP courses or programs which focus on situational language. This situational language has been determined based

on the interpretation of results from needs analysis of the authentic language used in target workplace settings.

Dudley-Evans (1997) divide ESP into three general features of ESP Courses namely (1) Authentic materials, (2) purpose-related orientation and (3) self-direction. ESP should be applied at an intermediate or advanced level, then, the use of authentic learning material is entirely feasible. The real feature of ESP related to its material especially in a self-directed study and research tasks is the use of authentic content materials and modified or unmodified in form. Purpose-related orientation refers to the simulation of communicative tasks required of the target setting. Finally, self-direction is characteristics of ESP courses in that the "...point of including self-direction...is that ESP is concerned with turning learners into users" Carter (1983:134). In order for self-direction to occur, the learners must have a certain degree of freedom to decide when, what, and how they will study.

Flowerdew and Peacock (2001) state that it is commonly known there are many approaches to syllabus design. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) have developed the most popular approach namely the Learning-Centered Approach. This approach 'concentrated not on the language items and skills students needed, but rather on what they had to do in class to learn these processes' where 'there is an emphasis on meaningful and appropriate content and on communication within the classroom. Another approach is The Genre-Based Approach. This approach uses materials and tasks based on authentic linguistic data in order to promote student awareness of the conventions and procedures of the genre in question. The final approach, The Content-Based Syllabus is also 'a very influential approach' (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). This approach relates language teaching to the eventual uses to which the learner will put the language. It requires attention to prior knowledge, existing knowledge, the total academic environment and the linguistic proficiency of the students.

Hutchinson and Waters, (1994) state that all ESP courses is based on a perceived need of some sort. In addition, Robinson (2001) describes the need for the syllabus design stage to be preceded by developments in materials design and methodology so that the

process of the course design can take place. This is only done when the theoretical decisions about the objectives and syllabus are put together. Thus, Robinson (2001) states that need analysis is regarded as critical to ESP. According to Robinson (2001), there are two key defining criteria which Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) found to be true of ESP. Firstly, ESP is normally goal-directed, the learners learn English because they need it for study or work purposes; Secondly, it is developed based on a needs analysis which intends to get the exact details of what learners really need through the medium of English.

Hutchinson (1993:21) states that the beginning stage of designing an ESP course as mentioned earlier is to answer questions like: ‘Who is going to be involved in the process? Why do students need to learn this? Where is the learning to take place? When is the learning to take place? Is it of a particular target or situation?’. In addition, Cunningsworth (1995:7) reviews the role of materials (particularly course books) in language teaching as: a) a resource for presentation materials (spoken and written). (1) a source of activities for learner practice and communicative interaction., (2) a reference source for learners on grammar, (3) vocabulary, pronunciation, and so on. (4) a source of stimulation and ideas for classroom activities. (5) a syllabus (where they reflect learning objectives that have already been determined. (6) support for less experienced teachers who have yet to gain in confidence.

Dudley-Evans and John (1998) have given suggestions for teachers of ESP courses, materials serve the following functions: as a source of language, as learning support, as motivation and stimulation, and as a reference. ESP materials may therefore seek to prepare exposure to the specialized genres and registers of ESP, to support learning through stimulating cognitive processes and providing a structure and progression for learners to follow, to motivate learners through providing achievable challenges and interesting content, and to provide a resource for self-study outside of the classroom To those who are uninitiated to ESP, the approach and materials can seem unfamiliar and inaccessible. However, this is a misleading impression probably created by the specialized and often technical nature of the subject content in ESP books. The range of ESP books on the market is large and covers many disciplines and occupations. Although the content

of ESP books may look very different from that of general books, and the skills being developed may be different from those in general book, the guidelines for the evaluation of general materials also apply to ESP materials.

Cunningsworth (1995) states that the basic ideas of selecting ESP materials include: analysis, interpretation, evaluation, and selection. First, the analysis is more or less neutral, seeking information in a range of categories, and provides the necessary data for the next step of the process. This is the interpretation of the data obtained. Here a good deal of professional judgment and experience comes into play as the implications of being worked out. The third step is the evaluation. It involves value judgments on the part of those involved. Such value judgments will inevitably be subjective to some will describe the views and priorities of those making them. They will tend to be based on a number of factors such as learner and teachers expectations, methodology, the perceived needs of the learners, syllabus requirements, and individual preferences. The last step is a selection. This process involves matching the features identified during the previous steps against the requirements of a special learning/teaching setting.

Insan Jalil (2009) states that ESP materials meet learners' needs and that the language taught matches the language that the students use are important things in ESP. The materials should take into account learner expectations and should have a clear role in the teaching-learning process. If meeting learners' needs were concerned, ESP materials have been in advance of general materials. They have been developed specially for students who were perceived to have specific needs which could not be met fully by general materials. These needs were originally seen mainly in terms of subject content, for example, doctors need the language of medicine, engineers need the language of engineering, pilots need the language of aviation, etc.

Therefore, this research and development on material development for Syariah Economic Law Students are expected to help the students and the lecturers in English classroom. Hopefully, it can strengthen the Syariah Economic Law students' motivation

in the learning process. Then, it is expected to support the profession of students in the future.

Method

This was a research and development project. The study used the ADDIE model standing for Analysis, Design, Develop, Implement, and Evaluate (Taylor, 2004). Need analysis was conducted by distributing questionnaire and interviewing some students, graduates, lecturers, and practitioners in Syariah economic law. Then, based on the need analysis, materials development was starting with the syllabus making and designing material. Following the analysis and materials development is expert consultation, which involves experts in material development, Syariah economic law practitioners, Islamic bank clerk, and English lecturers. The consultation covers the evaluation of the content, language, and style of delivering in the teaching process. Following expert, validation is the limited tryout materials. It was conducted to get feedback on the developed material, to eliminate the weaknesses. Therefore, the developed materials can meet the intended quality. The subjects of the try-out were 20 students of Syariah Economic Law Students study program. The results of the tryout were used as basis final revision of the product.

Findings and Discussion

The final product of this development is the English material for Syariah Economic Law study program. The result of need analysis shows that the target needs of students at Syariah Economic Law Students study program IAIN Palopo in learning is to be able to communicate in English and can be able to access information related to Islamic economic field. Furthermore, in the content of language skills, they need vocabulary exposure to increase all the main skills in English. Then, for the listening skills, they need to learn more on pronunciation. They need to have a specific topic such as (1). Syariah Economic Law Matters (2) Halal food Product (3) Being A Syariah Bank Creditor, etc, in order to increase their topic in writing about their professional career in the future.

The material has the characteristic of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT). Based on the need analysis, the ESP material was proposed to mostly use task-based instruction. The learners involved in tasks with integrated approach skills in English. Tasks are more focused on the meaning or the context-oriented (Nunan, 1989). TBLT is appropriate to help students to solve their problem in learning. In the process of their learning, the student of Syariah economic and Syariah banking Study Program wants to have material in speaking activities such as an interview in pairs in English. They want to have some texts in Syariah economic and Syariah banking context. Then, for writing activities, they want to have some example of legal documents in English. For the listening activities, they want to have a listening material in the form of monolog and dialogue in which they should listen and find out the main ideas and main information.

The experts considered that the product was good. The experts suggested some aspect such as the color, the size of the writing, the instruction. Then, the implementation of limited tried out ran very well. The students enjoy and can understand the material and they can get some new vocabulary about banking through the materials. In addition, the experts also suggest creating more interesting designs of the book in order to catch the attention of the target learners.

The results of the research recommend 3 units as teaching materials namely: (1). Syariah Economic Law Matters (2) Halal food Product (3) Being A Syariah Bank Creditor. The materials were developed with the task-based approach and communicative approach. This research is expected to give the contribution to the teaching and learning English at IAIN Palopo especially for Syariah Economic Law Students.

The first part of the units in the book is *let's get ready*. In this part, it presents the specific pictures which related to the topic in every unit. Those pictures describe some vocabularies related to the task that will be given in the next parts of the unit. Then in the next activity, is the vocabulary list with specific pictures. This can be a good understanding for students about the next task. Following the *let's get ready* is the *let's act* part. In this part, the first task is *listening and speaking*. The students are given activity to listen and to speak based on the Syariah economic law context. It also introduces some expressions that

are needed in the context of syariah economic law. Then next part of the *let's act* is the *reading and writing task*. In this part, some tasks with reading text and writing activities about economic and banking activities. Then, the final part of each unit of the book is a reflection sheet as evaluation on the topic of the unit.

Those materials in the three units of the books show the appropriate materials with the needs of students in Syariah Economic Law Study Program. It has some colorful pictures of Syariah economic activities. It also has a good design with appropriate order of each unit from the easier to the more difficult parts. In addition, it also has facilitated the student to communicate and interact with one another through group tasks with appropriate contextual activities. Then, this research is expected to answer the challenge to arrange the material based on the identified needs (Long, 2005) and the call of presenting the needs-based documents (Richards, 2001).

Conclusions

The product of this study is English material book for Syariah economic law study program. The product was developed by following ADDIE. The materials of the book are 3 units as teaching materials namely (1). Syariah Economic Law Matters (2) Halal food Product (3) Being A Syariah Bank Creditor. The materials were developed with a task-based approach and communicative approach. This research is expected to give the contribution to the teaching and learning English at IAIN Palopo especially for Syariah Economic and Syariah Banking Students. It is suggested for further researchers to conduct a study about the efficacy of the material.

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The Students' Perceptions on Mandarin Classes and their HSK (Chinese Proficiency Test) Results

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Abstract

A lot of researches have been conducted in order to determine the relationship between the perceptions of the students towards a certain subject and their academic success, yet their relationship is still unclear. Since foreign language learning has become popular nowadays, and a lot of students have been studying Chinese Mandarin as a foreign language, this study investigated the relationship between the students' perceptions towards their Mandarin classes in terms of attitude towards the subject, values derived from the subject, motivations developed from the subject, and their HSK (Chinese Proficiency Test) results. The perceptions of the students were gathered using a modified "Study Interest Questionnaire" and were correlated with their HSK results using Pearson's correlation coefficient with the aid of IBM SPSS Statistics. An analysis of 99 BS Pharmacy and BS Tourism Management students' perceptions and HSK results showed that the

students' perceptions towards their Mandarin classes and their HSK results did not have any significant relationship.

Keywords: perception, class performance, foreign language, HSK, Socio-educational

Model of Second Language Acquisition

Introduction

Mandarin, China's national language, has become the most spoken language with an estimated 1.28 billion speakers around the world, which is about 16% of the world's population (McCarthy, 2018). According to Shao (2015), there is a large increase in the number of foreigners who study Mandarin. In 2010 alone, 750,000 people around the world took the HSK (Chinese Proficiency Test). The trend in language learning has influenced the Philippines. Although the study of Mandarin has become a trend in the Philippines and in other countries, there are still limited studies on perceptions of students towards their Mandarin classes together with their HSK (Chinese Proficiency Test) results. The HSK is a six-level international standardized test that assesses the Mandarin proficiency of overseas Chinese and non-native Mandarin speakers (Zhu, 2017). In the context of the current study, the HSK is the final assessment for students in Mandarin as their foreign language. Smith et al. (2010) defined perception as the act of applying intuitive judgment that helps an individual make decisions. Kpolovie, Joe, and Okoto (2014) stated that the perception of the students towards a class is necessary for it is a reflective factor of the students' well-being and educational success. For this reason, the relationship between students' perception towards their classes and academic achievement has become interesting among researchers.

Verešová, and Malá (2016) said that the more positive the students towards learning are, the more positive they are towards requirements, academic performance, native language and foreign language. This further showed in the study of Lee, Chao and Chen (2011) which revealed that students' interest in learning has a significant effect on their achievements. Although these investigations showed the positive relationship of students' perception and academic performance, still others showed a negative relationship between

perception and academic performance. Attitude is one of the foundations of motivation in learning a foreign language, it contributes negatively to achievement when it is not alongside motivation (Bernaus & Gardner, 2008). Moreover, students who feel unmotivated towards their subject still accomplish their assignments (Saeed & Zyngier, 2012). Because of these different results, the relationship of perception and academic achievement is still arguable.

The theory that believes that motivation is a determining factor in the success of language learning is Gardner's theory of socio-educational model of second language acquisition which as mentioned by Gardner and Lalonde (1985) are the cognitive and emotional aspects. The learners do not settle on learning a new set of words, instead, the motivation may either be integrative or instrumental (Taei & Afshari, 2015). Gardner and Lambert (1972) affirmed that integrative motivation involves interest towards the culture of the people speaking the language while instrumental motivation involves learning a language because of its practical reasons like salary bonus or school requirement (Horwitz, 2010). Morris (2014) found out that though second only to individual development, career goals appear to be the driving force for Chinese college English majors to learn English. The study of Rahman (2005) proved the instrumental value of foreign language learning that may include getting a good job, going abroad for higher study, reading books, travelling and others. Attamimi and Rahim (2011) concluded that social strata, parental occupation and cultural capital are influential in the study of English. Furthermore, Yemeni EFL students with poorer economic backgrounds are more optimistic and motivated.

The aforementioned studies led the researchers to determine whether the students' perception on their Mandarin classes has a significant effect on their HSK results using a correlational research method.

The results of this study benefit the teachers of Mandarin by becoming aware of their students' perceptions towards their classes and knowing the reasons behind their students' high or low performance in their Mandarin class and help the future researchers who intend to work on the same topic.

The study aimed to determine the relationship between students' perceptions of Mandarin classes and their HSK results, specifically, the researchers sought to answer the following questions:

1. What is the perception of the students in their Mandarin class in terms of:
 - a. Attitude towards the subject
 - b. Values derived from the subject
 - c. Motivation developed from the subject
2. What are the profiles of the students based on HSK level 1 examination results?
3. What is the relationship between students' perceptions of Mandarin classes and their HSK results?
4. What is the implication of the results of the study for teaching Mandarin?

Methods

To identify the relationship between the AUF students' perception of Mandarin classes and their HSK (Chinese Proficiency Test) results, the correlational method was used. The correlation between two concepts can be classified into three categories: none (no relationship at all), positive (increase or decrease in one concept results in the increase or decrease of the other), and negative (an increase in one concept results in a decrease on the other concept or vice versa) (Walliman, 2011, p.10).

Respondents

The respondents were the 4th year BS Pharmacy and 3rd year BS Tourism Management students of Angeles University Foundation. The researchers used the purposive sampling technique which Patton described as a technique that involves selecting participants that comply with a certain classification or requirement (as cited in Remler & Van Ryzin, 2015, p.156). The researchers set these criteria: (1) the respondents are currently taking up their second semester in Mandarin classes, and (2) they must have taken the HSK level 1 examination. HSK level 1 can be described as the first level in the Mandarin Chinese proficiency. In the context of Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR), it is the A1 level or Breakthrough. This level describes an individual that possesses the ability to communicate using the basic everyday expressions and can interact

with others as long as the person they are talking to speaks slowly but clearly and ready to provide assistance (“Using CEFR: Principle of Good Practice”, 2011).

Instruments

The survey form used was anchored on the “Study Interest Questionnaire” (SIQ) constructed by Schiefele, Krapp, Wild, & Winteler (1993). This instrument as described by Schiefele (2009) is a tool that measures the college students' vocational and academic interests and consists of three parts: affective valence that evaluates the participative feel of the activities in their major; value portion that evaluates their belief of the importance of their activities in their majors; and the intrinsic valence which is concerned with the enjoyment they feel while doing work for their major (Wigfield & Cambria, 2010); also, the instrument has a seven-point Likert Scale. Likert scale is a scale used to express the level of agreement or disagreement in the statements (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006, p.121). After obtaining the permission of the author of the research instrument, the researchers initially modified the SIQ by adding instructions and the name, age, course, and gender for demographic profiling of the participants. Furthermore, the Likert scale was changed from a seven-point scale to a four-point scale ranging from 1 as ‘Strongly Disagree’ to 4 as ‘Strongly Agree’. The names of the categories were also changed from ‘Feeling-related valences’, ‘Value-related valences’ and ‘Intrinsic orientation’ into ‘Attitude towards the Subject’, ‘Values derived from the subject’ and ‘Motivations developed from the subject’. The statements were converted into positive statements and some unrelated statements to Mandarin were deleted.

The modified SIQ was validated by language experts, statistically assessed and revised. The Age and gender in the survey questionnaire, however, were removed after the validation. In addition, the 2nd statement was changed from “I like working with activities related with my Mandarin subject” into “I like working in activities related with my Mandarin subject”. The 4th statement was changed from “I look forward to attend my Mandarin class, after a long weekend or vacation” into “I look forward to attending my mandarin class, after a long weekend or vacation.” The 10th statement was changed from “I have gained help in my self-actualization through my Mandarin subject” into “I have gained help in discovering my capabilities through my Mandarin subject.”

The final survey questionnaire had two parts. The first part contained personal information like the Name and Course, and the second part had the three categories: “Attitude towards the Subject”, “Values derived from the subject” and “Motivations developed from the subject.” The questionnaire measured the students' perceptions using 17 statements that were reflective of their perception in their Mandarin class.

Data Collection Procedure

The researchers sought the permission of the deans of the College of Business and Accountancy and the College of Allied and Medical Professions in order to conduct a survey among the 3rd year BS Tourism Management students and 4th year BS Pharmacy students and to use the said courses' curriculum as a proof that BS Tourism Management and BS Pharmacy students are required to take two semesters of Mandarin as a Foreign Language subject. Informed consent forms were distributed to the respondents to voluntarily answer the modified SIQ and to secure a copy of the students' HSK results.

Among 150 distributed questionnaires only 118 were answered. The answered survey forms were sorted according to their courses. The results of the modified SIQ were tallied using Microsoft Excel and the tallied results together with the HSK level 1 results were analyzed statistically using IBM SPSS Statistics with the help of a statistician.

Data Analysis

After gathering the questionnaires and tallying the HSK results of each respondent were checked and matched with the names of the respondents, of the 118, there were 19 who did not take the HSK level 1, thus, they were excluded based on the criteria set. Only 99 participants were included in this study. The means of the survey results were computed using Microsoft Excel and were correlated with the HSK results. The researchers used the Pearson's correlation coefficient to determine if there was a significant relationship between student's interest in learning and their academic achievement. According to Sapsford and Jupp (2006), correlation coefficient is used to determine if there is a strong affiliation between the two variables. It is a correlation between a predictor variable (Student's perception of their Mandarin classes) and a criterion variable (academic achievement). The data were analyzed with the aid of IBM SPSS Statistics in determining

the relationship of the two variables in order to answer the second research question and to test the null hypothesis at 0.05 alpha.

Results and Discussion

Descriptive Statistics of Students' Perception towards Mandarin Classes and their HSK results

Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of the students' perceptions towards their Mandarin classes in terms of 'Attitudes towards the subject', 'Values derived from the subject' and 'motivation developed in the subject' and their HSK scores. The overall average perception of the students towards their Mandarin classes is positive. As seen in Table 1, 'Attitude towards the subject' 'Values derived from the subject' and 'Motivations developed in the subject' has mean scores of 2.5402, 2.8175 and 2.6431, respectively. The three categories fell on the range of 'Agree' which is 2.50-3.25. The mean score of the Pharmacy students' Attitude towards the subject is 2.35, values derived from the subject is 2.5697 and motivation derived from the subject is 2.3879. This shows that the BS Pharmacy students' 'Attitude towards the subject' and 'Motivation derived from the subject' fell on the range of Disagree while their 'Values derived from the subject' category fell under Agree. On the other hand, the Tourism students' 'Attitude towards the subject', 'Values derived from the subject', and 'Motivations developed from the subject' all fell on the range of Agree with mean scores of 2.778, 3.1273 and 2.9621, respectively. This shows that, though, the overall average perception of the students towards their Mandarin classes is positive, when the perception of the two colleges were compared, the BS Tourism Management students have a more positive perception towards their Mandarin classes compared to the BS Pharmacy students.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics of Students' Perception in their Mandarin classes

	Attitude towards the subject	Values derived from the subject	Motivations developed in the subject
Pharmacy	2.35	2.5697	2.3879
Tourism	2.7780	3.1273	2.9621

All	2.5402	2.8175	2.6431
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Note: The range used in interpreting the result of the survey is 1-1.75 = Strongly Disagree, 1.75-2.50 = Disagree, 2.51-3.25 = Agree, and 3.26-4 = Strongly Agree

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics of the HSK results of the participants. The mean score of the Pharmacy students' HSK scores is 144.8182 interpreted as Satisfactory, while the Tourism students' HSK score is 119.9773 which is considered Fail. Though the overall mean of the HSK scores of all the participants is 133.7778 which is a passing score, the Pharmacy students are performing better compared to the Tourism students. Furthermore, 1.8% or 1 student of the Pharmacy students scored excellently, 27.3% or 15 students obtained a Good score, 30.9% or 17 students attained a satisfactory score and only 10.9% or 6 students failed. For the Tourism student, 4.5% or 2 students scored excellently, 9.1% or 4 students as Good and 15.9% 7 students as Satisfactory. Most of the Tourism students, 40.9 % or 18 students,, failed the HSK. Based on these results, the BS Pharmacy students performed better than the BS Tourism Management students on their HSK level 1 with a 24.8409 difference in their mean scores.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Students' HSK results (Pharmacy (N) = 55

Tourism (N) = 44)

	Mean	Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Pass	Fail
Pharmacy	144.8182	1.8%	27.3%	30.9%	29.1%	10.9%
Tourism	119.9773	4.5%	9.1%	15.9%	29.5%	40.9%
All	133.7778	3%	19.2%	24.2%	29.3%	24.2%

Note: The range used in interpreting the result of the HSK results is 0-119 = Fail, 120 - 139 = Pass, 140-159= Satisfactory, 160-179=Good, 180-200=Excellent

Correlation of Students' Perception towards Mandarin Classes and their Academic Achievement

Tables 3 to 11 show the results of a two-tailed test at a .05 level of significance. The SPSS output is set up in a matrix with one category ('Attitude towards the subject', 'Values

derived from the subject', or 'Motivation developed from the subject) and HSK results listed in the rows and columns. Each cell in the matrix gives the direction and strength of the correlation(r , for one category and HSK), the significance (p), and the sample size (N). Each pairwise correlation coefficient shows the actual significance level for each correlation and each showed that:

- a. BS Pharmacy students attitude towards the subject and their HSK result has $r = 0.058$ and $p = 0.676$ with a no significant relationship ($p > 0.05$)
- b. BS Pharmacy students values derived from the subject and their HSK result has $r = 0.114$ and $p = 0.408$ with a no significant relationship ($p > 0.05$)
- c. BS Pharmacy students motivation developed from the subject and their HSK result has $r = 0.042$ and $p = 0.760$ with a no significant relationship ($p > 0.05$)
- d. BS Tourism Management students attitude towards the subject and their HSK result has $r = 0.099$ and $p = 0.523$ that shows a no significant relationship ($p > 0.05$)
- e. BS Tourism Management students values derived from the subject and their HSK result has $r = 0.016$ and $p = 0.916$ that shows a no significant relationship ($p > 0.05$)
- f. BS Tourism Management students motivation developed from the subject and their HSK result has $r = 0.079$ and $p = 0.610$ that shows a no significant relationship ($p > 0.05$)
- g. Overall average students attitude towards the subject and their HSK result has $r = 0.078$ and $p = 0.444$ that shows a no significant relationship ($p > 0.05$)
- h. Overall average students values derived from the subject and their HSK result has $r = 0.113$ and $p = 0.264$ that shows a no significant relationship ($p > 0.05$)
- i. Overall average students motivation developed from the subject and their HSK result has $r = 0.109$ and $p = 0.284$ that shows a no significant relationship ($p > 0.05$)

Table 3. Correlation between BS Pharmacy students' Attitude towards the subject and their HSK results

		Attitude towards the subject	HSK result
Attitude towards the subject	Pearson	1	.058
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.676
	N	55	55
HSK result	Pearson	.058	1
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.676	
	N	55	55

Note: Decision Rule for assessing if the test is significant (for $\alpha=.05$):

If $p \leq .05$, the test is significant (there is a significant relationship between 'Attitude towards the subject' and HSK result)

If $p > .05$, the test is not significant (there is a not significant relationship between 'Attitude towards the subject' and HSK result)

Table 4. Correlation between BS Pharmacy students' Values derived from the subject and their HSK results

		Values derived from the subject	HSK result
Values derived from the subject	Pearson	1	.114
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.408

	N	55	55
HSK result	Pearson	.114	1
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.408	
	N	55	55

Note: Decision Rule for assessing if the test is significant (for $\alpha=.05$):

If $p \leq .05$, the test is significant (there is a significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

If $p > .05$, the test is not significant (there is a not significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

Table 5. Correlation between BS Pharmacy students’ Motivation developed from the subject and their HSK results

		Motivation developed from the subject	HSK result
Motivation developed from the subject	Pearson	1	.042
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.760
	N	55	55
HSK result	Pearson	.042	1
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.760	
	N	55	55

Note: Decision Rule for assessing if the test is significant (for $\alpha=.05$):

If $p \leq .05$, the test is significant (there is a significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

If $p > .05$, the test is not significant (there is a not significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

Table 6. Correlation between BS Tourism Management students’ Attitude towards the subject and their HSK results

		Attitude towards the subject	HSK result
Attitude towards the subject	Pearson Correlation	1	.099
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.523
	N	44	44
HSK result	Pearson Correlation	.099	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.523	
	N	44	44

Note: Decision Rule for assessing if the test is significant (for $\alpha = .05$):

If $p \leq .05$, the test is significant (there is a significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

If $p > .05$, the test is not significant (there is a not significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

Table 7. Correlation between BS Tourism Management students' Values derived from the subject and their HSK results

		Values derived from the subject	HSK result
Values derived from the subject	Pearson	1	.016
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.916
	N	44	44
HSK result	Pearson	.016	1
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.916	
	N	44	44

Note: Decision Rule for assessing if the test is significant (for $\alpha=.05$):

If $p \leq .05$, the test is significant (there is a significant relationship between 'Attitude towards the subject' and HSK result)

If $p > .05$, the test is not significant (there is a not significant relationship between 'Attitude towards the subject' and HSK result)

Table 8. Correlation between BS Tourism Management students' Motivation developed from the subject and their HSK results

		Motivation developed from the subject	HSK result
Motivation developed from the subject	Pearson	1	.079
	Correlation		

	Sig. (2-tailed)		.610
	N	44	44
HSK result	Pearson	.079	1
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.610	
	N	44	44

Note: Decision Rule for assessing if the test is significant (for $\alpha=.05$):

If $p \leq .05$, the test is significant (there is a significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

If $p > .05$, the test is not significant (there is a not significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

Table 9. Correlation between the overall average students’ Attitude towards the subject and their HSK results

		Attitude towards the subject	HSK result
Attitude towards the subject	Pearson	1	-.078
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.444
	N	99	99
HSK result	Pearson	-.078	1
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.444	
	N	99	99

Note: Decision Rule for assessing if the test is significant (for $\alpha=.05$):

If $p \leq .05$, the test is significant (there is a significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

If $p > .05$, the test is not significant (there is a not significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

Table 10. Correlation between the overall average students’ Values derived from the subject and their HSK results

		Values derived from the subject	HSK result
Values derived from the subject	Pearson	1	-.113
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.264
	N	99	99
HSK result	Pearson	-.113	1
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.264	
	N	99	99

Note: Decision Rule for assessing if the test is significant (for $\alpha = .05$):

If $p \leq .05$, the test is significant (there is a significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

If $p > .05$, the test is not significant (there is a not significant relationship between ‘Attitude towards the subject’ and HSK result)

Table 11. Correlation between the overall average students' Motivation developed from the subject and their HSK results

		Motivation developed from the subject	HSK result
Motivation developed from the subject	Pearson	1	-.109
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.284
	N	99	99
HSK result	Pearson	-.109	1
	Correlation		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.284	
	N	99	99

Note: Decision Rule for assessing if the test is significant (for $\alpha=.05$):

If $p \leq .05$, the test is significant (there is a significant relationship between 'Attitude towards the subject' and HSK result)

If $p > .05$, the test is not significant (there is a not significant relationship between 'Attitude towards the subject' and HSK result)

Perceptions of the students in their Mandarin class in terms of 'Attitude towards the subject', 'Values derived from the subject', and 'Motivation developed from the subject'

The first finding of this investigation was that the overall average perception of the students towards their Mandarin subject was positive. The results agree the study of Gonzales (2010) which stated that Filipino foreign language learners have highly positive perception and are greatly motivated in learning a second or foreign language because of

different reasons like career opportunities and self-preferences. The BS Pharmacy students have a negative to a somewhat positive perception towards their Mandarin subject. Among the three categories, the only category that the BS Pharmacy students agree as regards developing motivation is that Mandarin as a foreign language is a compulsory subject in their curriculum, thus, they simply need to pass the subject. On the other hand, the BS Tourism Management students have a positive perception towards their mandarin subject. When these two courses were compared, the BS Tourism Management students have a more positive perception towards their Mandarin classes compared to the BS Pharmacy students. Aside from the fact that Mandarin as a foreign language is a required subject in their curriculum, the BS Tourism Management students are expected to be more inclined and motivated in language learning. According to the Memorandum Order No. 62 of the Commission on Higher Education (2017), the BS Tourism Management and BS Hospitality Management students should be proficient in Filipino, English, Mother Tongue, and a required foreign language of the industry.

Kyriacou and Benmansour (1997) proposed an idea that there are two types of instrumental motivation; they are 'long-term instrumental motivation' and 'short-term instrumental motivation'. People with 'long-term instrumental motivation' have a career which is more inclined in the usage of language. On the other hand, people with 'short-term motivation', focus mainly on studying the language just to pass the subject and usually do not have a very positive attitude towards learning a second or foreign language. Furthermore, the investigation of Henter (2014) showed that students majoring in English or any language are more positive towards learning the language compared to the students of psychology and educational sciences. In the context of this study, the BS Tourism students have a positive perception towards their Mandarin classes because their future career is language related while the BS Pharmacy students have a negative attitude towards their Mandarin classes because they view the class as a mere compulsory subject.

Profiles of the students based on their HSK results

This investigation found out that, though, some students failed the HSK and only a few of students scored excellently, the students still performed well in their Mandarin classes

based on their overall average HSK results. When the two courses were compared, the BS pharmacy students performed better than the BS Tourism Management students. Most of the BS Pharmacy students performed well in their HSK based on the mean score of their HSK exam while the mean score of the BS Tourism Management students showed that they performed poorly in their HSK and a number of them failed the examination.

Relationship of the students' perception of Mandarin classes and their HSK results

The students' perception towards their Mandarin classes and their HSK results are not significantly related contrary to other studies that attitude or perception is a determining factor in the successful learning of the students. Kpolovie, Joe, and Okoto (2014) emphasized that attitude is a determining factor in the academic achievement of the students and that negative attitude can lead to poor performance or achievement and positive attitude leads to success in learning. Oroujlou and Vahedi (2011) also said that attitude and motivation contribute greatly to the efficient learning of a language. Their studies underscored that even talented and brilliant students can only achieve little progress in language learning if they have a negative attitude or perception towards it. Also, students' attitude towards a class greatly affects their learning because it influences their learning styles inside the classroom.

However Henter (2014) asserted that negative attitude towards a language subject does not affect student's language learning and performance. Moore (2005) showed that most of the students enrolled in a foreign language only take the class as a requirement of the university and students admit that even though they had no desire in learning English, they still have to pass the unit which emphasizes the instrumental motivation, occupational or practical goals in learning a language (Khojasteh, Shokrpour & Kafipour 2015). In the study of Gardner and MacIntyre (1991), the results showed that students who have high instrumental motivation performed better than those who don't. Moreover, students with high instrumental motivation spend more time studying than those without. Thus, even though BS Pharmacy students do not find their Mandarin classes very useful in their everyday lives, still they get high scores on their HSK for instrumental and practical reasons. According to Martinović and Poljaković (2011), the students' lack of effort in their English is not due to a negative attitude towards it but some underlying factors as in the

investigation of Mohd Kanafiah and Jumadi (2013) that the students' perception towards Mathematics is quite positive, yet their performance is low and it showed that the students' perception towards Mathematics is not a determining factor in their performance in the subject. Consequently, their low performance in Mathematics could be because of other factors such as a weak mathematical foundation. Therefore, the students' perception towards the subject cannot always predict the performance of the students in the said subject.

Conclusion

The researchers, therefore, concluded that:

- a) The perceptions of the students in their Mandarin class in terms of "Attitude towards the subject", "Values derived from the subject", and "Motivation developed from the subject" all fall on the range of Agree.
- b) Most of the students passed the HSK level 1 examination but only a few of them scored excellently.
- c) There is no significant relationship between the students' perceptions towards their Mandarin classes and their HSK results.
- d) The results of the present study do not only provide additional insights and references to the researchers who wanted to work regarding this topic but also serve as a reminder to Mandarin teachers that sometimes the students' perception on Mandarin classes is not a determining factor of their HSK scores.

Pedagogical Implication

Tests are used to evaluate students' academic performance, teachers' effectiveness and to improve the teaching and the learning process; also, the teaching and learning strategies have changed based on the needs of tests. Teachers must tailor their classroom materials, activities and tests to prepare students to the local, national or international tests. The teachers of Mandarin or any other second language must construct tests beneficial to the teaching-learning process to motivate and make students more competent in the use of a second language. If teachers create positive classrooms, students become more positive in

coming to classrooms to learn regardless of the kind of motivations or perceptions they have.

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Communication and Patient Safety: Nurses' Perspective

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Abstract

The core of healthcare delivery is patient safety. Nurses are the gatekeepers of patient safety since it is within their position to coordinate patient care and prevent potential patient harm. Findings show that in terms of communications, all the six statements obtained sometimes qualitative ratings where the indicator. However, the participants of the study also gave sometimes ratings to the frequency of events/cases reported indicator as perceived by the nurses. In general, the study found that communication has a vital link with health caregivers, especially the nurses, and on the quality of the patient outcome. Literature shows that nurses, physicians, and patients must reinforce the communication between them in order to lessen medication errors as well as to achieve the desired patient outcome.

Keywords: healthcare delivery, communications, frequency of reported events/cases, medication errors

1. Introduction

Today, patients, including their families, need to communicate with health teams such as nurses and doctors to comprehend their health or disease. Communication is an essential approach between nurses and patients since it is associated with patient outcome. Communication affects patient outcome and may be beneficial or harmful depending on the way of communication.

Communication and collaboration problems in healthcare are strong predictors of surgical error (Wiegmann et al., 2007), and errors of communication can jeopardize patient safety (Lingard, 2004).

Safety culture is an essential concept in providing a safe environment for employees and patients and is the product of individual and group attitudes, values, patterns of behavior, and competencies that establish the dedication, style, and proficiency of an organization's health and safety programs (IOM, 2000). Agencies with a positive safety culture are characterized by communication established according to shared perceptions and awareness of the importance of safety, and by confidence in the efficacy of preventative measures (Health & Safety Commission, 1993). One of the benefits of a positive safety culture is the willingness of individuals to report errors. Learning through reporting about why and how errors occurred is essential for making improvements in patient safety.

Ulrich and Kear (2014) stated that patient safety culture is the heart of healthcare delivery. Patient safety is the minimizing and preventing of the risk occurring as a result of healthcare processes (Vincent, 2010). Healthcare settings and providers with a beneficial safety culture are manifested by shared awareness on patient safety initiatives and the implementation of preventative procedures (Sorra et al., 2016).

Nurses are protectors of patient safety due to the role they play in the harmonization of patient care and persistent alertness to potential harm to patients (Youngberg, 2013).

The nurses are tasked with identifying and preventing factors that compromise patient safety to ensure a safe healthcare environment (Youngberg, 2013).

Effective communication is indispensable to patient safety. The Institute of Medicine (IOM) produced their seminal paper, “To Err is Human,” in 2000, and since then, hospitals and other health-related agencies have been looking at practice methods, team dynamics, and attributes needed to improve quality outcomes.

Perhaps the most significant challenges in this practice were the likelihood of staff being silenced due to fear of retribution when clinical and practice issues arise, and thereby, adversely impacting the culture of safety, clinical outcomes, mortality, and morbidity according to Brennan & Keohane (2016). A critical asset of successful and productive teams is their ability to speak for safety despite any social or hierarchical influences (Morrow, Gustavson, & Jones, 2016). Hence, this paper focused on communication and patient safety culture from the perspective of nurses.

2. Related Literature

2.1 Nursing and Nurses

Nursing is based on science, knowledge, and skills, which includes a set of principles derived from the health sciences. Nursing practice is helping individuals be better or restore their health in case of sickness (DeWit & O’Neill, 2013). Meleis (2012) defined nursing as facilitating of health for patients’ condition to a sense of well-being. Nursing aims to develop and enhance the health of individuals in need of proper health care, including the prevention of diseases and the reduction of patients' agony. Nursing is a procedure that involved assessment, diagnosing, planning, intervention, and evaluation of nursing care. Nursing focused on providing optimal health care for individuals regardless of color, race, and sex (Meleis, 2012).

Nurses are professionals who have been trained to care for sick or disabled patients. They are a crucial part of healthcare professionals who through their degrees are proficient

at caring for the people in need of treatment due to illness or injury (Naylor & Kurtzman, 2010). Professional nurses are trained, oriented, knowledgeable, and skilled to provide care for patients and their families.

In the past, nurses were just expected to follow the physicians' orders without interference; however, currently, nurses are trained and empowered to take on a much more significant role in patient care. Professional nurses today require continuous communication about patient assessment, how to give medications, quantity, and management of doses (O'Leary et al., 2010). Nursing advice participation in the treatment plan and efficient communication are the essential segments of nurses' responsibility in health promotion and patient outcome (McCray, 2009).

2.2 Communication

Communication is a mode of sending, receiving, and exchanging information between two or a group of health professionals and patients. It can be advantageous or a disadvantageous based on the mode of sending and receiving messages. Communication can support health care services to patients and assist in the flow of information among health professionals (McCorry, & Mason, 2011; Flicek, 2012).

Recently, various modes of communication appeared due to technological development which might assist health providers during day-to-day activity. Communication has more than one form or meaning and is done through action, thought, body movement, word, writing particularly language (O'Leary et al., 2010; Krug, 2008).

Communication can either be non-verbal or verbal. Verbal communication is a method of sending information to others face-to-face or calling. Verbal communication is a primary and transparent approach to communicate with other people. Non-verbal communication is a way of sending information to others without speaking; it can be written words or body languages like facial expressions and hand gestures. Communication is used in the healthcare field among nurses, physicians, and patients (McCorry & Mason, 2011).

Sorra et al. (2016) defined communication openness as the nurses' capability to articulate freely by observing an action that might jeopardize patient safety as well as the ability to raise safety concerns with those in authority. Okuyama, Wagner, and Bijnen (2014) wrote a literature review that focused on the factors that affect speaking for patient safety by hospital-based healthcare professionals such as nurses. The study identified several factors that influence the capability of staff to speak freely. These factors include perceived fear of management, years of experience, perceived lack of knowledge, sense of responsibility towards the patients, and perceived negative response from the addressed person. The study recommended improving communication open through the creation of a conducive working territory for staff, strengthening interdisciplinary policy-making, and patient support from hospital management.

In contradictory, a study by Suliman (2015) identified 136 nurses' perceptions as primary decisive factor of patient safety culture among five public hospitals in Jordan. The findings indicated that communication openness scored an average positive response which revealed that nurses felt they could not freely discuss patient safety-related concerns with their seniors. Furthermore, Jordanian nurses ascribed poor communication openness to the blaming culture in the hospital (Suliman, 2013).

2.3 Communication in Healthcare

Communication error among healthcare personnel is the most common cause of low quality in care and studies of Nagpal et al. in 2010 and Greenberg et al. (2007) have shown that lack of communication causes clinical incidents and adverse events concerning surgery.

Greenberg et al. (2007) examined 60 malpractice claims due to communication errors in the preoperative, intra-operative, and postoperative periods. They found that 92% of errors were verbal communications, and 64% occurred between one sender and one receiver. In another study conducted by Van Beuzekom et al. (2013) using questionnaires

in four hospitals in the Netherlands and measuring potential risk factors, 40-50% of personnel in the operating theatre (OT) and in the ICU rated communication as inferior.

Moreover, in an observational study of Lingard et al. (2004) analyzing 421 communication events in the OT, communication errors occurred in 30% of team exchanges, and one-third of this jeopardized patient safety. Barriers to nurse communication have also been reported as a hierarchy, lack of consistent structure, differences in communication style and language (Thomas, Sexton, & Helmreich, 2003; Robinson et al., 2010; Greenfield, 1999).

In an interview study conducted by Robinson et al. (2010) with nurses and physicians, they declared that the most crucial factor for effective communication was straightforward, unambiguous communication and that what is being heard or said is accurate.

Aboshaiqah (2013) conducted a cross-sectional descriptive study in Saudi Arabia by doing a baseline assessment of 300 registered nurses' perceptions of the factors contributing to patient safety culture. Aboshaiqah (2013) stated that communication plays a significant role in ensuring patient safety. Moreover, quality and safe healthcare required effective communication across disciplines. Communication breakdown in healthcare settings is due to various factors like workload, manpower shortages, and shifting. The study recommends that improving communication could be achieved through strengthening communication between hospital management and staff as well as developing processes to transfer information between personnel effectively. Two safety features related to communication, that is 1) communication openness and 2) handover and transmission.

Schenker et al. (2007) and Gilloti, Thompson & McNeilis (2002) as cited by Escobar (2019) emphasized that the failure to communicate the seriousness of risk appropriately can have adverse results where patients may fail to comply with instructions

or decide not to have potentially life-saving treatment. When communicating the details of diagnosis or treatment, it is crucial to convey the likelihood of the associated risk factors.

Constructive communication between nurses and patients influences patients' satisfaction and their adherence to therapeutic regimes as pointed out by Gilbert and Hayes (2009) by Taupan (2019) and leads to a reduction of patients' and families' anxiety during hospitalization. Correspondingly, Reynolds and Scott highlighted that poor communication might lead to failure to understand the psychosocial and emotional needs and therefore, increase distress in patients.

3. Theoretical Underpinnings

Cooper used Bandura's Model of Reciprocal Determinism (Bandura, 1977) to explain safety culture (Cooper, 2000). The model contains three elements, including person (internal psychological factors), and behavior and situation (external observable factors) (Bandura, 1977). The model of Reciprocal Determinism (RD) explains the interactions between the three elements and how they influence one another. The model also demonstrates that people are neither deterministically controlled by their environments nor entirely self-determining. Bandura proposed that behavior and personality are shaped by the interaction between cognitive factors and environmental factors.

Cooper (2000) stated that Bandura's RD model recognizes the dynamic and interactive relationships between person, situation, and behavior. Cooper noted there are three significant elements of safety culture consistent with Bandura's RD model (Bandura, 1977). The person represents the psychological components aligned with intrinsic cultural elements of values, beliefs, and assumptions. Behaviors and situations align with extrinsic elements of norms, rituals, and symbols that make up the safety behaviors of workers and management. Cooper (2000) developed the Reciprocal Safety Culture Model (RSCM) (Cooper et al. 1994; Cooper, Philips, Sutherland, & Makin 1994; Duff et al., 1993). The model is multi-layered with person, job, and organization being represented by three main

measurable dimensions of safety climate, which is a substitute measure for safety culture, safety behavior, and safety management system.

4. Methodology

The study utilized a quantitative descriptive design to identify how communication could affect patient safety based on the frequency of reported cases or events as perceived by nurses. Nykiel (2007) describes quantitative research as a systematic process used to measure relationships between variables. According to Burns and Grove (2011), a descriptive design can be utilized to identify challenges in actual practices as well as to validate practices.

For this study, the target population included selected registered nurses working at public, private, and community settings in the Zamboanga Peninsula. The total number of nurses is 389 (n=389). Simple random sampling was used in identifying these nurses based on inclusion and exclusion criteria set by the study.

The AHRQ Surveys on Patient Safety Culture program developed the Hospital Survey on Patient Safety Culture (HSOPS) in 2004 (Sorra & Dreyer, 2010) was used as an adopted tool, but items were chosen only for the indicators communication and frequency of reported cases/events.

5. Results and Discussions

The main goal of communication is to create a relationship among health care teams and to provide optimal quality of care for patients (Naylor & Kurtzman, 2010). Both nurses and physicians must have skills in communication, knowledge, training, and orientation (Reeves et al., 2011). The authors believe that communication is the key to build up the relationship between nurses and physicians and thus improving the relationship between health care providers and patients. To make communication effective, health care providers require skills of communication such as give time to listen and understanding the message

without interrupting, use of body language, and clarifying the issues that are not understandable.

The instrument included six items for communication and three items for the frequency of reported cases/events. The participants were requested to rate on statements regarding communication and three items for the frequency of reported cases/events using a four-point Likert scale describing (4) as the highest level of and (1) as the lowest. The mean ratings were categorized as 4 (3.25-4.00) as Always, 3 as Often, 2 (1.75-2.49) as Sometimes, and 1 (1.00-1.74) as Never.

Table 1 shows how the nurses looked at communication in health settings. All the six statements obtained sometimes qualitative ratings where the indicator "I am afraid to ask questions when something does not seem right" obtained the highest. This result indicates that even at present, various health setting does not consider communication as an essential component of patient safety and care.

This indicator assessed the ability of nurses to communicate comfortably about patient safety matters (Sorra et al., 2016). The communication openness safety dimension scored a sometimes response. Such sometimes scoring results in any unit should be addressed promptly as patient harm is more likely to occur. The sometimes responses of the participants rate shows that nurses are not comfortable to discuss issues about patient safety. The findings indicate an area of weakness for the health setting, whether clinic, hospital, or barangay health center, which requires prioritization in order to improve patient safety.

Aboshaiqah (2010) found similar results where Saudi Arabian nurses scored the communication openness dimension an average positive response of 36% only. Similarly, Yilmaz and Goris (2015), Wami et al. (2016), Khater et al. (2015) and Suliman (2015) revealed low average positive responses in their patient safety culture assessments in terms of communications. Communication openness is a critical element in maintaining and building a conducive patient safety culture. Moreover, effective communication between

healthcare professionals and their patients is essential for the provision of safe and quality healthcare (Aboshaiqah, 2010). Nursing administrators are recommended to strengthen a non-punitive culture towards the error in the hospital in order to improve communication openness (Suliman, 2015).

The results indicated the for health administrators and management should reinforce the engagement of nurses in the administration of reported events as well as informing them about interventions. Moreover, priority needs to be given to high-risk departments/units. Allocating feedback to the individual nurses or staff who reported an error is regarded as significant. It acts as a motivation to report more events (Richter, 2013). The findings are similar to the study conducted by Ammouri et al. (2015), which evaluated Oman nurses' perspective on the patient safety culture. The study recommends informing staff about errors as well as implementing recommendations suggested by staff that could enhance the culture of patient safety (Ammouri et al., 2015).

Table 1. Communication indicator as perceived by the nurses

No	Item on Communications	Mean	Qualitative Description
How often do the following things happen in your work area/unit? Think about your area/unit			
1	I am given feedback about any changes resulting from the OVA report	2.37	Sometimes
2	I can freely speak up if I see something that may negatively affect patient care and safety.	2.39	Sometimes

3	I am informed about errors that happen in my unit/area.	2.41	Sometimes
4	In this unit, I feel free to discuss the decisions or actions taken by those with more authority.	2.37	Sometimes
5	In this unit, I can discuss ways to prevent errors from happening again.	2.43	Sometimes
6	I am afraid to ask questions when something do not seem right.	2.46	Sometimes
	Mean category	2.41	Sometimes

Table 2 presents the frequency of events/cases reported indicator as perceived by the nurses. Item 3 “When a mistake is made that could harm the patient, but does not, how often is this reported?” obtained the lowest mean of 1.89 but still with sometimes qualitative description. What is ironic is that "When a mistake is made but is caught and corrected before affecting the patient, how often is this reported?" only got sometimes.

The findings assessed the frequency of adverse and near-miss events reported by the nurses in the hospital. The participants in this study reported a sometimes response, which is an area for potential improvement. The finding suggests that less effort is made to report adverse or near-miss events, which can be attributed to various factors.

Richter (2013) stated that enhancing event reporting could reduce actual and potential patient harm by identifying concerning trends and sharing results with the staff. It can help in the changes in perceptions of staff towards event reporting. Furthermore, reactive responses to reported events can be used to identify root causes while the proactive

response to reported events can intercept re-occurrence, eventually improving the patient safety culture (Richter, 2013).

Table 2. Frequency of events/cases reported indicator as perceived by the nurses

No	Item on Frequency of Events/Cases Reported	Mean	Qualitative Description
1	When a mistake is made but is caught and corrected before affecting the patient, how often is this reported?	2.05	Sometimes
2	When a mistake is made which did not harm the patient, how often is this reported	2.29	Sometimes
3	When a mistake is made that could harm the patient, but does not, how often is this reported?	1.89	Sometimes
	Mean category	2.08	Sometimes

6.

Implications

The healthcare setting needs a regular training program about communication, based on theoretical and practical skills, which will enhance the quality of patient care. A study conducted by Efraimsson et al. (2009) showed that communication is a complex process that requires training for health care professionals, which enhances the quality of the communication and increases job satisfaction along with the quality of care.

6. Conclusions

In this study, the author tried to highlight the influence of communication between nurses and patient outcome in health settings. In general, the study found that communication has a vital link with health caregivers, especially the nurses, and on the quality of the patient outcome. Literature shows that nurses, physicians, and patients must strengthen the communication between them in order to decrease medication errors as well as to achieve the desired patient outcome.

Assessing patient safety culture is the first step towards improving patient safety in a healthcare organization. The study identified perceived areas of strength within the hospital to be organizational learning through continuous improvement, teamwork within units, and management support for patient safety.

The study findings also revealed the perceived areas of weakness as staffing, communication openness, and the frequency with which adverse events were reported. The areas identified can be used as the starting point to improve the patient safety culture in any health setting. The study provided in-depth and new knowledge on the perceptions of nurses regarding communication and frequency of reported cases/events.

In conclusion, improving patient safety culture requires strengthening communication in all aspects of care. Management should consider improving communication at all levels of the hierarchy in the hospital, by standardizing processes to communicate safety issues and creating platforms for nurses to contribute towards preventative measures. Cross-team and collaborative care promote patient safety, and thus, healthcare administrators should invest in promoting working relationships. Improving patient safety culture requires the involvement of nurses in strategizing and implementing patient safety measures to reduce harm.

7. Recommendations

Health administrators need to strengthen communication by creating platforms at the unit level, where staff can freely express themselves on patient safety matters. Emphasis should also be placed on sharing lessons learned from reported events and providing staff opportunities to make recommendations on possible interventions to improve patient safety.

In order for the hospital, clinics, or centers to increase the frequency with which adverse events are reported, non-punitive response to errors needs to be promoted throughout the settings. It could be done by educating staff on the importance of the hospital's adverse events management system to patient safety. Emphasis should be placed on educating staff and improving systems and processes rather than punishing individuals.

Additionally, health management should identify other possible barriers to reporting events and address them. Staff should be involved in addressing the barriers identified to promote a sense of accountability.

The study recommends further communication lectures and workshops between nurses and physicians about the importance of communication and the quality of the patient outcome.

Hospital management should ensure that lessons learned from reported events are shared with staff members by implementing lessons learned platform within the hospital. The platform can be created for staff members from different units to share lessons learnt and best practices with others.

Future studies are recommended such as assessment of patient safety culture involving more private as well as public hospitals could give a better understanding of where to start with patient safety improvement and determining barriers, as experienced by nurses, to reporting adverse events could provide in-depth knowledge on specific hindrance factors.

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Ibanag Identity and Worldview through Songs: A Critical Discourse Analysis

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Abstract

Folksongs are rich repository of identity constructions and worldview. Using Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and thematic analysis, this study aimed to unravel the identity, personality and worldview of the Ibanags through the dominant folksongs of the Provinces of Cagayan and Isabela. It also determined the elements of music, musical notations, values, and themes which are dominantly seen in these Ibanag songs. Results reveal that the folksongs characterize the essence and core of the Ibanags as a passionate and genuine lover. They package love as a fundamental human experience and they echo the relationship between love as a psychological phenomenon and lover's narrative in song. The study points to the fact that Ibanag identity and worldview are highly crafted expressions of the psychological mechanisms involved with falling in love, attaining love's fulfillment and (possibly) falling out of love. Their songs are

adorned with various decorative styles such as symbolisms, similes and metaphors - all giving an axiom that love is necessarily a story to be expressed and shared to someone. If love is necessarily a story, Ibanags find it to be necessarily tellable. Thus, the call and challenge to preserve and enrich their music is essential as this is the gateway to know his heart and soul.

Keywords: Identity, worldview, folksongs.

Introduction

Contemporary musical discourse is of utmost research interest due to its global status which has been adopted as a new *lingua franca* in the sphere of contemporary musical art, operating across national borders and becoming increasingly multicultural and multinational. Musical discourse in all its diversity opens up infinite possibilities for multidimensional analysis combining social, linguistic, psychological, visual, gestural, ritual, technical, historical, and musicological aspects. However, very little attention has so far been paid to discourse analytical investigations of the use and social aspects of the global language in various genres of musical discourse particularly on unraveling the identity of a certain culture.

Despite the growing interest in popular music studies and musical discourse analysis, communication in the sphere of musical art has not been subject to a complex analysis. The analysis of discourse has been applied in three ways to popular music: in the study of song lyrics as performed language, in the description of discourses on or about music, and in the analysis of music as discourse. As a result, there is no universal definition, and even no universal variant of the term itself: it is musical discourse, song discourse, discourse of music or discourse about music. However, it is commonly accepted that musical discourse cannot be reduced to the music itself

Different scholars suggest including various extra - musical aspects in musical discourse analysis, such as psychological, personal factors, social and historical environment, stylistic conventions, artistic aims and so forth. In conclusion studying musical discourse is, with no doubt, an interdisciplinary matter: it cannot be complete without consideration of social, linguistic, psychological, visual, gestural, ritual, technical, historical and musicological aspects. The specific language of musical discourse still remains on the periphery of interest of discourse

analysts. The complex linguistic analysis accurately described in her book deals with the genre of concert notice, and is conducted from the perspective of text type, providing a detailed account of phenomena peculiar to noun and verb phrases, as well as lexical and stylistic aspects of the genre, and how the language itself is employed by expert genre writers in order to achieve their communicative intentions.

Interestingly, it is believed that songs a good repertoire of ethnic identities and worldview. They serve to unify groups of people and to move them to common action or help them express common emotions. In a certain community songs are part and parcel of every culture. It conveys the people's identity and reflects the richness of such culture. One of the primary means in which peoples, ethnic groups, and religions, express their nous of origins, of destiny, of identity, and of communal belonging, is through the description of their history. It is with this that they associate numerous of their rituals and symbolic expressions and hopes for the future. One of the well-known assertions of post-modernity is that under the conditions of life in the world today, there is no overarching myth and no grand narrative to which people may hold; there is only a series of small and often disconnected stories.

Castells (2010) as cited by Cabalza (2016) argues that by identity, there is a process of construction of meaning on the basis of cultural attribute, or a related set of cultural attributes, that is given priority over other sources of meaning. For a given individual, or for a collective actor, there may be plurality of identities. Yet such a plurality is a source of stress and contradiction in both self-representation and social action.

Jenkins (1997), Ikenberry (1999), and Adelman (2000) cited by Cabalza (2016) say that anthropologists and sociologists trace back ethnicity from its ancient origins which means *ethnos*, referring to a range of situations in which collectivity of humans lived and acted together, hitherto, typically translated as *people* or *nation*. Others collectively agree that ethnicity can be lost, discovered, or simply invented, since ethnicity and ethnic identity are social constructs and identity is subjective based on beliefs about common ancestry of shared historical past.

One of the oldest populaces of Cagayan Valley in northern Luzon, the Ibanag can be found in the provinces of Cagayan, Isabela, and Nueva Vizcaya. The term Ibanag instigated from i ("people of") and bannag (river), which pretty much defines where they chose to settle down.

During pre-colonial epochs, the Ibanags hunted for food, as verified by the tools found in numerous archaeological locations in Cagayan Valley. Currently, farming remains to be their prime foundation of income, even though modernization has unlocked other opportunities for them.

Moreover, Castells (2010) cited by Cabalza (2016) deems that the construction of identities uses building materials from history, from geography, from biology, from productive and reproductive institutions, from collective memory and from personal fantasies, from power apparatuses and religious revelations. But individuals, social groups, and societies process all these materials, and rearrange their meanings, according to social determinations and cultural projects are rooted in their social structure, and in space/time framework.

Based on beliefs of elderly Ibanags, the *bannag* (river) is sacred to them because their daily dose of activities revolves around the Cagayan River. For many Ibanags, after they catch fish from the river or toil hard from their farm, they would say *nababannag nak* (I'm so tired) in reference to the river.

With the advent of technology nowadays, it is believed that the Ibanag culture is dwindling and therefore it is interesting to note that there is a need to preserve that culture. Languages worldwide are disappearing at an unprecedented rate. Because this has implications for cultural identities and knowledge systems, members of a language group must be aware of the factors that lead to language demise for them to make informed decisions about measures that ensure language continuation into the future.

To investigate into the Ibanag religious beliefs is to comprehend the Ibanag mind, the Ibanag lifestyle, the Ibanag life. The researcher personally wants to get a unblemished depiction of the Ibanag to be able to comprehend him better, and perhaps educate him. While there are numerous ethnographic educations about the Ilocano, the Visayan, the Ifugao, as of this date, there are no ethnographic studies about the Ibanags chiefly unraveling Ibanag identity and worldview through songs. With the above premise, unraveling Ibanag identity and worldview through songs is imperative as a basis for developing instructional materials for music in educational institutions.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Generally, this study aimed to unravel the identity and worldview of the Ibanags through the common folk songs in the Provinces of Cagayan and Isabela. Specifically, it investigated the values and dominant themes found in the Ibanags folk songs.

METHODOLOGY

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) and thematic analysis were utilized in this research to analyze the songs. According to Fairclough's (1989, 1995) model for CDA comprises of three inter-related procedures of analysis knotted to three inter-related scopes of discourse. These three dimensions are: the object of analysis (including verbal, visual or verbal and visual texts); the processes by means of which the object is produced and received (writing/ speaking/designing and reading/listening/viewing) by human subjects; and the socio-historical situations which manage these processes. The methodology adopted is a qualitative data analysis of the common Ibanag songs aimed at establishing a link between discourse as a social practice where documentary analysis on Ibanag folk songs was done. The study was conducted in Cabagan, Isabela. and Tuguegarao City. To gather the corpus of the study, the following were the criteria for choosing the folk songs namely; (a) popularly sung and played on ordinary days, fiestas, school programs and meetings and conferences; (b) availability or accessibility for public use; and (c) familiarity of the songs to the public. Of the 18 songs identified by the researcher, five (5) folk songs emerged to be common both for the Provinces of Cagayan and Isabela as validated by three (3) senior musical experts/teachers. These are: (1) *Melogo nga Aya*, (2) *Ta Agiddam Mu a Makimemmi* (3) *Nu Tangabak ku Y Utun*, (4) *Ta Laguerta*, and (5) *O Lappaw nga Makayyaya*.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1. Values reflected in the Ibanag songs.

Songs	Values
<i>Melogo nga Aya</i>	Love for Self; Faith in God; Humility
<i>Nu Tangabak ku y Utun</i>	Love; Appreciation
<i>Ta Laguerta</i>	Faithfulness
<i>Ta Agiddammu a Makimemmi</i>	Love; Courage
<i>O Lappaw a Makayaya</i>	Love; Admiration

Songs are value laden art likened to literary pieces such as poems, novels and like. Every song has a corresponding value in it. It is said that values and morals can be taught through songs. Such can be an effective vehicle considering that songs are attractive and easy to memorize because of the melody it brings. The Ibanag songs obtained in this study are replete with values which may be shared virtues with other ethnic groups in the country.

Table 1 illustrates the values reflected in the Ibanag songs. A thematic analysis of the song *Melogo nga Aya* reveals that there are three values that are dominant in this song namely, love for self, faith in God and humility. Love for self as a value is reflected in the lines “*O mapacarayuan ta minangi logo* – And be away from the fools” and “*Inga lagu ta kabbi nu ariam ma sa nga mapallilli* – Have mercy in making free from fools”. In the song, it reflects that Ibanags are genuine lovers and that they desire to have someone capable of giving them authentic affection in return. As genuine lovers, the purity of love is a pre-condition for them to experience bliss as expressed in the line “*Tape ariak nga magatta-tam ta zigariga melogo ta aya* – So as not to endure hardship.”

Love of self-replicates a person's total subjective emotional assessment of his or her own worth. It is a judgment of oneself as well as an attitude in the direction of the self. Self-value or self-esteem incorporates beliefs about oneself as well as and emotional statuses, such as triumph, despair, pride, and shame. The self-concept is what we think about the self; self-value

the positive or negative evaluations of the self, as in how we feel about it. Self-value is attractive as a social psychological construct because researchers have conceptualized it as an influential predictor of certain outcomes, such as academic achievement, happiness, satisfaction in marriage and relationships, and criminal behavior. Self-esteem can apply specifically to a particular dimension. As reflected in the song, it is usually regarded self-esteem as an enduring personality characteristic a typical characteristic of a Filipino.

The second value expressed in the song is faith in God. This value conveys that Ibanags ask for guidance and wisdom in their search for a lover. They see the blessing of God as an essential consideration in finding a lover or a partner in life. For them, faith and love blend together because true love comes from God. The value of faith in God is vividly expressed in the lines "*O Dios uffunam ma*" – Oh God help me" and "*O dios iddu sikaw afu kitagukug ku*" – Oh God of love you are my strength". These lines clearly articulate the Ibanag's faith as Christians which is perhaps the single most important aspect of Christianity. They believe that without faith, a person is nothing. It is the true Faith that one must aspire to have especially in search of a lover. It is believed that a believer as a person should not waver his or her faith when things in life don't go as planned.

The third value of the song *Melogo nga Aya* is humility. Humility is a quality by which a person considering his own defects has a humble opinion of himself and willingly submits himself to God and to others for God's sake." St. Bernard defines it as, "A virtue by which a man knowing himself as he truly is, abases himself. The virtue of humility is reflected in the line "*Ituguk nga ta marenu ira nga dalan*" – lead me to the right path. This line shows that submission of the Ibanags to God's will because He shows what is best for every person. They are humbled by the power of God in designing their life including their lover or partner in life.

Meanwhile, the song *Nu Tangabak ku y Utun* deeply expresses that Ibanags consider love as the noblest human value. They believe that love activates, empowers and encourages the growth of our other core values. Love is the ideal touchstone and the ultimate facilitator of human life. The value of love is vividly seen in the lines "*Tapenu umayya massinayun*" – Be within your being there to love forever" and "*Ta kanonaggan na futum*" – In your heart's deepest chamber. These lines convey that real love is everlasting and it resides in the deepest recesses of the human heart.

Furthermore, the value of appreciation is also reflected in the song *Nu Tangabak ku y Utun*. Such value reflects the Ibanags' recognition of how good someone is and to value him or her. Interviews with the informants reveal that the song is a generic love song which could be sung not only to a lover but also to a mother, father, friend, teacher and the like. It is an expression showing one's gratitude for the love bestowed to an individual.

On the other hand, the song *Ta Laguerta* depicts the value of faithfulness. Such value signifies that Ibanags are faithful lovers. Faithfulness is the perception of unswervingly enduring loyal to somebody or something and placing that loyalty into constant practice, irrespective of mitigating conditions. The value of faithfulness is transported in the lines "*Sinakkilalak ku y kinagim tu iyawa mu.*" – I remember the promise you made and "*Iyawa mu y lappaw nga finusik mu.*" – That you will give the flower that you plucked.

These lines may be applied to a husband or wife who, in an exclusive marriage, does not engage in sexual relationships outside of the marriage. It could likewise mean keeping to one's assurances no matter the prevalent conditions. Factually, it is the state of being filled of faith in the somewhat ancient sense of stable commitment to a person, thing or concept.

Likewise in the song *Ta Agiddam Mu A Makimemmi*, the song echoed the value of love and bravery. Such value is elucidated in the lines "*Ta emmi nikaw paningan futu mi ay mabannayan* (Seeing you is a bliss in the heart) and "*Nga inemi sinikkad nga mga liramad*" (Disturbing you in the wee hours of the night). Ibanag men are fond of serenading as a form of courtship and it takes them a lot of courage to visit and disturb the sleep of the women they court. According to Aguilar and Enriquez (2010), serenading was particularly popular in the Philippine provinces from early to mid-1900s, even as late as 1970s. Serenading in rural Philippines was all about a man's declaration of love and more about the simple desire to introduce himself to a woman in a gentlemanly fashion. It was also a call for an evening soiree or nocturnal recreation for men and women.

Interestingly, *O Lappao A Macayaya* song portrays the value of love and admiration. As mirrored in the title itself, love and admiration as values of the song indicates a lover's promise, pledge and assurance. This value manifests the Ibanags expression of feelings and emotions to their lovers. It shows their passion and honesty in loving. This is very clearly expressed in the line "*Makapabbaw nga massinolay ta davvun aw awat tu kakunnay* (You are

such a wonderful creature unequalled here on earth) and “ *Tu lima emmu patayan tanu mari y inango mu ay tu ballo ketaraggammu* (For you to die in my arms so that after your last breath you would rest on my chest)

Table 2. Themes reflected in the Ibanag songs.

Songs	Theme
<i>Melogo nga Aya</i>	Love
<i>Nu Tangabak ku y Utun</i>	Love
<i>Ta Laguerta</i>	Love
<i>Ta Agiddammu a Makimemmi</i>	Love
<i>O Lappaw a Makayaya</i>	Love

The theme reflected in the Ibanag songs is illustrated in Table 2. Since all the five (5) identified songs are love songs, the dominant theme is love. In this case, it is essential to discuss how Ibanags define love based on all these songs using symbols and metaphors. The predominant feeling expressed in the song’s narratives of love is happiness and fulfillment and not on sadness and despair. These are love stories produced and consumed as surrogates for or symbolic production and consumption of love itself.

The Ibanags perceive love as a basic but most noble human experience. Love is the ultimate source of human happiness and the need for it lies at the very core of human life. This is clearly articulated in the *Melogo nga Aya* which reveals that loving is not always a perfect experience. Love cannot be a form of utopia or heaven, rather they believe that love is an equal balance of both love and hate as it continues to move forward and grow just as they do. In the process of searching a partner in life, one can meet numerous people who may not be serious or faithful in their intention. The Ibanags believe that there are two kinds of lovers in this world. One is a true lover and the other is insincere lover. Inasmuch as it the desire of everyone to obtain a true lover, they seek God’s guidance and wisdom in searching and choosing their lifetime partners in life. In this case, they firmly believe that loving is not separate from God. Rather, they

see that God is love and that a genuine lover is apt to come if they invoke divine intervention in their search.

Moreover, the song *Melogo nga Aya*, shows that the Ibanag young lady is reserved and modest in her ways. She is very careful in her dealings with the opposite sex. When a young man starts to speak of his love to her, she does not immediately believe for she is aware that men are good deceivers. They promise heaven and earth to convince a woman to fall in love with them. In short, they use sugar-coated words which often deceive. The last stanza is a defense made by the man. He says that it is but natural for him to court a young woman. It is up to a woman to observe that man and find how true and sincere are his love and promises. All young girls are therefore warned to study a man carefully and to be sure he is not pretending or bluffing.

Tu Tangabak Ku Y Utun, on the other hand, is generally about a lover who is wishing that his beloved will come back to him and praying that their love will bloom again. It signifies the Ibanag's perception of love as something that is deep and high. The depth of love is metaphorically related to breath which is a basic survival need. Breathing signals life and remembering a lover is likened to a quivered breathing. Such metaphor shows the Ibanags' concept of the integration of life and love. This experience produces that pleasure which is 'the most intense, the most elevating, and the most pure

Meanwhile, *O Lappao a Macayaya* and *Ta Laguerta* are songs which depict the faith of a lover, puts on the promise made by a young lady. The *laguerta* (garden) is abundant with beautiful flowers; where all people are at one with each other and that this is the absolute truth of what love actually is. These songs use a flower as a symbol of eternal love and such epitomizes the Ibanags' perception of love and fidelity. For them, a flower is the language of love for it is a great symbolic expression of affection. They see it as a perfect replica of human life from planting, growing, blooming and withering. In this regard, the Ibanags perceive love to be eternal. It is the beginning and the end, a birth and death intertwined as a maze called life. It is to be stressed that the love of Ibanags as reflected in the songs does not just revolve around romantic love or relationship. It captures a greater spectrum of love which may cover family, friends, relatives and the like. For them, love is the emotional experience which includes broader social relationships, and this legitimizes and justifies their union or bonding.

Identity and Personality of Ibanags deduced from the folk songs

Stigall (2010) opined that since the beginning of time, music has been used as an expression of cultural identity. Ancient tribal societies used music as a foundation for gatherings and to express their history, ethnicity, and cultural beliefs. Music has transformed entirely over the ages, nonetheless the usage of music as an indispensable portion of cultural and individual expression has altered slightly.

A thematic analysis of the folk songs in this study reveals a wide range of possible identity and personality of the Ibanags. The songs may be read and interpreted as love stories but they always embody a higher theme which can be variously expressed as a discussion of identity. A dominant identity and personality of the Ibanags as echoed in their songs is their being a passionate and romantic lover. The narrating persona in the folk songs consciously portrays a loving Ibanag with thrills of passion and love. These are clearly expressed in several lines such as: “*Ay kunna mamippippig y paginango ku nu keraddammak ku y ngagam mu* (I feel my breath quivering every time I remember your name); *Ziga aya ta kunne niakan ngem kiddawak ku la nikaw y kinemia ku nga alejandria y netabbam gabba* (Sorrow love or pain I would willing suffer. All I ask of you dear is the flower, the rose you promised me). Significantly, the kind of identity associated with Ibanag lovers (either men or women) in relation to love were those associated with a mature view of relationship. Such is vividly articulated in some lines such as: *Magubbaw ka kari ta mangananuan ta emmi nikaw paningan futu mi ay mabannayan* (A glance out of the window refreshes our hearts) and *Tu lima emmu patayan ta nu mari ingango mu ay tu ballo ketaragam mu* (For you to die in my arms so that after your last breath you would rest on my chest).

Moreover, the Ibanags are not only romantic lovers but they personify deep Faith in God. Their songs are flavored by conventional Christian love which is seen as their attempt to seek divine intervention in loving as He is the great master at ordering the universe, imbuing it with meaning and reaping just rewards. *O dios uffunam ma tape mapalillita o mapacarayuan ta minangi logo inga lagu ta kabbi nu ariam ma sa nga mapalilli* (Oh God help me for me to be free and be away from the foolish ones have mercy in making me free)

Another fruitful way of exploring Ibanag’s identity is the rhythm and time signature of the aforementioned songs. The slow danza of the songs reveals the conservativeness, modesty

and gentleness of the Ibanag men and women. As Frith (1996) declares, music creates our sense of identity over and done with the undeviating involvements it offers to the body, time and sociability, experiences which qualify us to place ourselves in imaginative cultural narratives. This is, possibly incongruously, to come back to music through 3-D metaphor. Nonetheless what marks music unusual for identity – is that it articulates space lacking restrictions (a game without frontiers).

In another perspective, the speaker's identity in the love songs conveys gender underpinning. For example, the songs *Ta Laguerta*, *Ta Aggiddam Mu a Makemmemmi* and *O Lappaw* mirrored the voices of men as these are *harana* or courtships song sang by males. Although it is difficult to trace original song writers of folksongs, the gender underpinning of these songs make one to assume that they are male-produced love songs. Such demonstrates the Ibanag cultural value on the dominance of men, that is, men are more free to express their feelings than women. In this regard, the Ibanag love songs mirror a man-centered view about love. Women, on the other hand, are restrained to convey their feelings to a man because they have to follow norms such as modesty, conservativeness, and femininity. However, the songs *Melogo nga Aya* and *Nu Tangabak Ku y Utun* can be a gender neutral song which can be both sang and directed to both sexes.

Another identity which has been seen in the Ibanag love songs has to do with their expression as a poet. All of these songs referred to intimacy, making an “intimate” identity available. Intimacy was referred to in terms of how the Ibanag men make the women feel loved and cared for, and how the women feel around the men in general. The songs' lyrics talk about closeness and meaningful times they spend together. Conversely, the songs also indicate how women feel safe and adored when close to the men they are with or want to be with.

In the light of these circumstances, it is clear that the Ibanags' identity and personality are reflections of moralistic, upright, mostly sentimental, loving, socialistic, witty and divine attributes.

Ibanag Worldviews as Reflected in the Folk Songs

A worldview is a system of presumptions (which are not verified by the procedures of natural science) concerning reality, knowing and conduct in terms of which each component

of human experience is associated and understood. This system is a multifaceted web of abundant beliefs systematized in an inter-locking, inter-dependent and self-contained truth system (Bahnsen, 1999). Inasmuch as the study achieved common songs which are themed on love, the worldview discussed in this part of the paper is the Ibanag's worldview of love and relationship.

Clearly, the foregoing love songs which are classified as folk songs echo the Ibanag's narratives about love. Their perception of love is always expressed in the shape of song with rhythm and melody, forming a plot in their minds and told as a tale to themselves and their surroundings.

For the Ibanags, stories of love are the most tellable of all the stories of their lives, stories that are actually told, that is shared with other people, particularly through the medium of song. Discourse on these songs reveals that they treat love's narratives as highly crafted expressions of the psychological mechanisms involved with falling in love, attaining love's fulfillment and (possibly) falling out of love.

The discourses of the songs thematically express the Ibanags' struggle with love - conventionally seen as the ultimate purpose and the logical end to love and love's narrative. The songs are adorned with various decorative styles such as similes and metaphors. For example, equating love with flowers and breathing is a very romantic mode of narration about love. It is this regard that Ibanag stories are necessarily a theory on the relationship between love as a psychological phenomenon and lover's narration in songs.

Discourse analysis shows that these songs establish a set of axioms explaining love as both a) the relation between love as a psychological phenomenon and a literary phenomenon and b) the structural characteristics of narratives of love. It is very clear in the song lines that love is necessarily a story to be expressed and shared to someone. That love in its most fundamental and characteristic form, is the love of love. The basis for this worldview is that love is not love unless it is told. Unexpressed love must therefore be something else, or perhaps the premise here is rather that love is always stated, if only inwardly as a story told by the lover to himself through song. If love is necessarily a story, it is also necessarily tellable, hence automatically told at least once in its very formulation by the lover - internally or externally.

Moreover, discourse analysis of the love songs indicates that Ibanags have basic

premises about love. First, they believe that the lover wants to live, so that he/she can love. This reflects the maxim, existence precedes essence, that is, a lover must first exist before he or she can express his or her love. Love stories are produced and consumed only upon existence of a lover – the giver of love.

Second, Ibanags believe that love has an object in 'the other'. They conceptualize love as a form of “othering”, in which, it is meant to be given to others. It is not self-contained love but something that is directed towards the other. Moreover, the „othering“ form of Ibanag songs convey that individuals may well fall in love with love songs and use love songs to attract others into falling in love.

Third, Ibanags possess a worldview that the objective of love is to obtain happiness or fulfillment. This is their ultimate purpose and end of loving and the desire of all Ibanag lovers. For them, the objective of love is to continually renew the process of attaining happiness. Hence a constant recourse to the mechanisms of fore-pleasure is necessary for the Ibanag lover(s). Perhaps the Ibanags’ definition of love as a form of ultimate happiness echoes that love is the greatest commodity of this world - the *summum bonum* of life, is love. It is a Christian orientation of love which is enshrined in First Corinthians chapter 13:13 which says: “The greatest of these is love.” In 1 Peter chapter 4 it says: “Above all things have love.” And when it wants to – when the Bible wants to define God, when God wants to define Himself, He says about Himself: “God is” – what? – “love.” Love is the clearest definition. Love is the embodiment of the character of Divinity.

Conclusion

Folksongs are rich repository of identity constructions and worldview. They characterize the essence and core of the Ibanags as a passionate and genuine lover. They package love as a fundamental human experience and they echo the relationship between love as a psychological phenomenon and lover’s narrative in song.

A revealing conclusion of the study points to the fact that Ibanag identity and worldview are highly crafted expressions of the psychological mechanisms involved with falling in love, attaining love's fulfillment and (possibly) falling out of love. Their songs are adorned with various decorative styles such as symbolisms, similes and metaphors - all giving an axiom

that love is necessarily a story to be expressed and shared to someone. If love is necessarily a story, Ibanags find it to be necessarily tellable. Finally, the study concludes that to know an Ibanag is to know his folksongs. It is in knowing his music that one can discover his innermost being. Thus, the call and challenge to preserve and enrich their music is essential as this is the gateway to know his heart and soul.

Recommendations

In the light of the results and conclusions of the study, the following are hereby recommended:

1. The result of the study can be submitted to the National Commission for Culture and the Arts as well as National Commission of Indigenous People for proper dissemination and documentation of Ibanag music and identity
2. Indigenous musical forum may be arranged for educators and music enthusiasts in Region 2 for them to appreciate and determine the richness of Ibanag identity and worldview through their folk songs.
3. Parallel studies must be conducted not only on folk songs but also on contemporary Ibanag songs in order to ascertain emerging discourses and narrative about Ibanags.
4. There is a need to package materials that showcase the Ibanag music for educational purposes
5. There is a need to link with agencies and institutions to establish school of living traditions to exhibit and transmit Ibanag music for the next generation.

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Motivating Chinese undergraduate students to learn EAP: An emancipatory action research study in Shanghai, China

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Abstract

Many universities in Shanghai are presently undergoing pedagogical reform in their non-English major students' compulsory university English courses. Teachers who previously taught English for General Purposes (EGP) courses have been encouraged to teach English for Academic Purposes (EAP) instead. In light of this change, the present paper describes a newly designed three-semester EAP course that aimed to develop the students' motivation by strengthening their disciplinary identities. Upon completing the course, although a few students seemed to have developed disciplinary identities, most did not, and further, were unmotivated by the course material. The authors partly attribute this underperformance to four main factors: the students' lack of enthusiasm for their disciplines; the Chinese students' previous English-learning experiences being very different from learning EAP; the wash-back effects of university standardised tests on students, and the dearth of institutional support provided for the EAP course. A number of implications regarding the teaching cultures of learning in EAP, conducting needs and environment analysis in course designing, and readjusting course time arrangements are provided.

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the EAP reform in China

With English becoming the lingua-franca of teaching and learning in higher education (Liddicoat, 2016), and the dominant language of academics' publication (Hyland, 2006), the Ministry of Education (MOE) in China has initiated some reforms in tertiary institutions, such as offering English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) or English-Chinese bilingual teaching. However, currently, only 34 governmental universities in China are allowed by the MOE to offer EMI courses (He & Chiang, 2016), and most of these EMI courses have not been opened to undergraduate students as stipulated in the English-Taught Programs at Chinese Universities (MOE, 2004). Although the MOE tends to encourage English-Chinese bilingual education in universities (Li & Wang, 2010), in most governmental

universities there is a sustained shortage of bilingual teachers who can teach discipline knowledge (Ai, 2016). Furthermore, in China, the quality of bilingual education is uneven across institutions (Luo & Wang, 2004) and among departments (Li & Wang, 2010).

Recently, for the purposes of improving university students' academic English, many Chinese scholars have turned to English for Academic Purposes (EAP) as a possible solution. Following general improvements in the English proficiency of most Chinese university students (Cai, 2017), and accumulated critiques on the low efficacy of EGP in university classrooms – for example, focusing on the humanistic education of the students ignoring academic training (Cai, 2017) and unclear teaching goals (Shu, 2012) – some scholars have begun to discuss using EAP to replace the EGP curriculum (e.g., Cai, 2012), which has dominated university English classrooms for more than two decades (Li & Wang, 2018a). Some individual universities, such as Peking University (Gao & Bartlett, 2014) and Zhejiang Shuren University (Zhao & Yu, 2017), have already embarked on their EAP teaching, which they claim to be effective.

1.2 The EAP reform in Shanghai

The first regional EAP language policy (the Framework of Reference for EFL Teaching at Tertiary Level) was published by the Shanghai Education Bureau in 2013 for tertiary institutions in Shanghai, which was designed to satisfy the students' possible needs for academic English in their subjects in undergraduate programs (Cai, 2017).

In the framework, the proposed EAP curriculum consisted of a transitional EGP course, a core EAP course, and elective English courses (Cai, 2017). The core EAP course included elements of content typically associated with English for General Academic Purposes (EGAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESAP). Courses in public speaking and intercultural communication were also recommended as electives in the program (Cai, 2017). The framework stressed that the majority of the newly admitted students should directly study EGAP, and only

a minority students who obtained lower English grades in the National College Entrance Exams would take the transitional EGP course (Cai, 2017). Regarding course duration, universities with a relatively high proportion of EMI or bilingual (Chinese and English) courses should finish the EAP (both EGAP and ESAP) in the first academic year upon the students' admittance:

“It is suggested, however, that colleges and universities which have enjoyed a relatively high proportion of English medium instruction courses or English–Chinese bilingual courses adopt a compressed schedule to place EAP courses in the first academic year of the undergraduate program” (Cai, 2017, p. 143).

This arrangement was claimed to be facilitative for students to use EAP in learning disciplines from years 2 to 4 (Cai, 2017).

Referring to the framework, since 2013, pedagogical reform on EGP courses has gradually taken place in some universities in Shanghai (Li & Wang, 2018a). However, a policymaker of the framework revealed that only 26 universities or two-thirds of the institutions in Shanghai voluntarily participated in the reform (Wang, 2018). This happened partially because of constant anonymous complaints to the Shanghai Education Bureau, which made the framework non-mandatory (Wang, 2018). Additionally, some institutions did not join the framework because it was not introduced by the MOE; therefore, universities could choose not to follow it. Normally, decisions about curriculum in governmental schools, including the English curriculum in tertiary institutions, are determined by MOE under the system of centralised education in China (Cheng, 2016). However, even among the 26 universities in Shanghai, the way that the EAP curriculum was designed varied as a result of the framework's implementation. The university where the second author (the instructor) worked only cautiously allowed a few teachers to design and pilot EAP lessons in their classes, instead of overhauling the complete university-wide EGP course.

1.2 The authors' personal rationale

During the instructor's career as an EGP teacher in a research-based university in Shanghai, she felt that the EGP had failed to adequately prepare her students for their future study and potential research career. Seizing the chance for EAP reform, the instructor determined to design a course that would be suitable for her students. However, her EAP students were first-year university students who might not have developed a readiness to further their careers as academics, regardless of their motivation towards EAP. Thus, the instructor aimed to improve the course content and to motivate her EAP students by conducting action research on her course.

Witnessing an increasing number of Chinese students pursuing the postgraduate level education in English-speaking countries and institutions using EMI, the first author felt that it was necessary for institutions in China to deliver EAP classes for undergraduate students. When the first author noticed the commencement of EAP reform in China, he spent eight months doing fieldwork to develop an ethnographic understanding of the EAP teachers in Shanghai as part of his PhD project. The instructor and her EAP classes served as one of the first author's case studies. Having found little literature regarding Chinese students' motivation to study EAP, he became interested in the instructor's teaching. Hoping to investigate the impact of EAP pedagogy on Chinese students further, the two authors agreed to cooperate on this action research.

1.3 A brief introduction of the instructor's EAP course

The EAP course that the instructor designed was enlightened by the Shanghai EAP framework's EGAP rubric. Although different from the framework, the course was delivered over three semesters (each academic year contained two semesters) for first-and-second-year students. The course counted for ten credits, totalling 160 teaching hours. The instructor taught two EAP classes, and each sat approximately 60 students. However, the EAP course served only as a substitute for the EGP course acting as a pilot without a course code. The instructor was not given

the autonomy to develop an independent EAP assessment perhaps because university policy stipulated the entire student population must take the same standardized, summative EGP test at the end of each semester to prepare them for the College English Test Band 4 and 6 (two compulsory national English tests for non-English major university students). In each semester, the students' standard test accounted for 60% of their final English grades, and the remaining 40% was allotted to the instructor's EAP course assignments.

The EAP course contained two themes: academic literacy and discourse community. For the theme of academic literacy, in the three-semester EAP course, the content in one semester acted as a pre-requisite for the next. In the first semester, the students were taught to write summaries after reading a publication in their respective disciplines. In the second semester, they were taught to thematise opinions from several publications. In the third semester, they learned academic writing skills and completed group research-based projects. This part of the course was consistent with an earlier view of EAP, which was to facilitate students' study or research in English (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). However, investigating the students' academic literacy was beyond the focus of the current study.

The second theme of the EAP course was designed in reference to the discourse community, which has become a significant component of EAP (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). In the course, academic activities were designed to be associated with reading and writing tasks, in an attempt to simulate an academic discourse community for students to engage in and to develop an affinity towards academic practices (Hyland, 2012). The instructor hoped that this affinity would enable them to establish their own disciplinary identities (Hyland, 2012) and make them more motivated to study EAP (see Section 2).

The EAP students came from several different disciplines; requiring the instructor to balance the students' diversity while simulating disciplinary discourse communities. Therefore, the students had to write, read, and conduct projects, and present studies in their respective disciplines (for detailed course information, see Section 4.1).

1.4 The purpose of this study

To diagnose the course effects and provide suggestions for future practice, this study proposed to answer and benefit from the following questions via action research:

1. How did the instructor design the EAP course?
2. To what extent were the EAP students motivated by the disciplinary identities?
3. If the results were not satisfactory, then what are the possible reasons underpinning the students' low motivation to study EAP?

2. Literature review

2.1 EAP/ESP learner motivation

Although EFL/ESL learner motivation has been widely explored (e.g., Dornyei, 2001; Gardner, 1985), there are comparatively few studies in EAP/ESP learners' motivation. Generally speaking, the students' attitudes towards the English-speaking community (Cerqueira & Badger, 2015), text difficulty (Huang, 2006; Wu, 2014), disciplinary background (Huang, 2006), and their extrinsic motivation (Komiya, 2013) have been found to contribute towards their EAP motivation.

Regarding text difficulty, Huang (2006, p. 379) discovered that text facilitation is a major factor influencing EAP students' motivation in reading: "if texts are well prepared with illustrations, highlights, and signalling, accessible vocabulary and grammar, and clear organisation." Huang's (2006) finding was echoed by Wu (2014), who found that after the ESP learners' materials were simplified by using a corpus method, students were more motivated. Huang (2006) also claimed that students' disciplinary background and schema, when formulated by their mother-tongue, was another significant factor in EAP reading motivation.

Given that EAP/ESP has been found to be interwoven with disciplinary specificity (Hyland, 2006), the more that the students are familiarised with a discipline, the easier it is for them to learn disciplinary academic English.

Cerqueira and Badger (2015) found that Brazilian learners who showed strong motivation to study EAP were those who had maintained a positive attitude towards the English-speaking community. This finding aligns with Gardner's (1985) hypothesis that as second language learners' feel an attraction towards the target language community, their motivation to learn its language increases. Similarly, Komiyama (2013) discovered that students' extrinsic motivations (e.g., drive to excel, sharing with peers, and even test compliance) contributed to their EAP reading.

2.2 Identity and EAP motivation

In China, students' EAP motivation was also found to be related to their human agency, and identity in particular. Li (2013) reported that the Chinese learners' motivation to study EAP improved after a one-year-immersion in an EMI environment by studying subject modules, participating in academic activities, and writing their assignments in English. However, he emphasised that the EMI context was not the engine behind the students' EAP motivation, but rather, - it was their agency. His finding underscores Norton's (2013, p. 13) claim about the confined usefulness of external conditions on students' language learning: "structural conditions and social contexts do not entirely determine language learning."

Norton (2013, p. 13) attributed the influence of students' human agency in learning a new language to the attainment of new identities of the target language: "through human agency language learners who struggle to speak from one identity position may be able to reframe their relationship with others and claim alternative, more powerful identities from which to speak, read or write, thereby enhancing language acquisition." In an earlier example, Kanno and Norton (2003) found that when some students considered themselves as members of a community, they were motivated to learn the language of the community and to behave like them, even if

the community were far away or imagined. Generally speaking, Kanno and Norton (2003) believed that obtaining the identity of the target language community motivated foreign language learning.

2.3 Discourse community and disciplinary identity

Seeing that different English texts, genres, and discursive usages are adopted by different disciplines (Hyland, 2009), members of a particular discipline sometimes have difficulties in fully understanding the texts produced in another discipline (Hyland, 2006). Thus, people sharing similar roles, goals, ways of doing things, and disciplinary language can be categorised into a discourse community (Hyland, 2009; Swale, 1998). In this vein, students need to understand the epistemology, sociocultural context, and interaction demeanours (Wingate, 2015), and genres (Dressen-Hammouda, 2008) of a discourse community as part of their study of the specificity-bounded EAP (Hyland, 2006). Meanwhile, students' choice and use of specialised language also demonstrate their disciplinary identities: "students are developing a disciplinary identity through the specialised content, practices, and language choices of their fields" (Hyland, 2012, p. 124).

To conceptualise disciplinary identity, Hyland (2012, 2015) split it into two parameters: proximity and positioning. Proximity refers to a person's engagement with the discursive structure, convention, and institution (Hyland, 2015). Simply speaking, it is a person's participation in the discourse. Positioning refers to the extent to which people see themselves as members of the discourse community, which Carlone (2017) ascribed to the agency to obey, rebel, or to accept the discursive way of doing things selectively. In the current study, disciplinary identity only applies to members in academia because this study followed the features of disciplinary identities as defined by Hyland (2012, p. 25): "familiarity with a common literature, knowledge of accepted and topical theories, fluency in arcane research practice, and awareness of conferences, journals, leading lights, prestigious departments and other paraphernalia of daily academic life are important."

3. Research design

3.1 Practical and emancipatory action research

Action research is deemed as a teacher's practice research, and it normally facilitates practitioners to investigate their own teaching directly (Hinchey, 2008). There are several different kinds of educational action research; for example, practical, emancipatory (Berg, 2001; Newton & Burgess, 2008) and developmental action research (Cardno, 2003; Hammond, 2018). While commonly observed action research is problem-solution oriented, containing cyclical stages with one cycle of teaching providing constructive implications for the next (see Hammond, 2018), the present study had initially aimed at diagnosing the effects of, and improving the EAP course as a practical case of action research (Hinchey, 2008).

Unexpectedly, during this research, the instructor found there were uncontrollable sociocultural factors that influenced the students' studies, which interrupted her original teaching plan. This situation led the instructor to adopt an emancipatory action research into inquiring and critiquing the sociocultural reasons causing this unsatisfactory situation (Carr & Kemmis, 1986), which in turn shed light on certain challenges that had emerged. Therefore, the first two questions were asked from a practical action research position:

1. How did the instructor design the EAP course?
2. To what extent were the EAP students motivated by the disciplinary identities?

Meanwhile, the third research question was viewed through an emancipatory lens:

3. If the results were unsatisfactory, then what are the reasons underpinning the students' low motivation to study EAP?

3.2 Data collection and analysis

As the study proceeded, the instructor made all of the decisions related to course content and teaching. Meanwhile, the first author conceptualised the instructor's practices, collected and analysed the data, and wrote up the action research. This partnership did not reduce any of the instructor's power as the action researcher of her own teaching (Hinchey, 2008). When answering the first research question, the instructor, following the suggestions of the first author, chose typical moments and activities in her reflective journal; and then the first author thematised them in chronological order, illustrating a clear path of her EAP activities. In the follow-up interviews, the instructor's intentions in designing some of the activities were explored and explained by the first author who then formulated a description of the instructor's EAP course, accompanied by the design rationales.

The second research question probed into the course outcomes, particularly the effect on the EAP students' disciplinary identities formation and motivation. An auto-narrative method was used to explore the students' identity change because this method was useful for demonstrating a person's current status of self and an indicator of the future, establishing a framework to explain a person's identity change (Hyland, 2012). In practice, the selected students were asked to write Chinese-language auto-narratives of their experiences of disciplinary identities and motivational growth through studying the EAP course. Students were given a writing guideline that was designed by the first author, which helped them to think about and write up their narratives. The guideline was based on Tremmel's (2014) four-dimensional framework looking at a student's identity change during their academic study: inward (interests, struggles, feelings and experiences of the EAP course, passion for the discipline); outward (environment, course activities); forward (the future plan, dream, aims); and backward (the past self, experience of education and discipline).

The comparisons of the four dimensions allowed the authors to determine whether the research participants had attained some kind of identity change. After the auto-narratives were completed, the first author adopted a deductive method in

the initial round of analysis, using Tremmel's (2014) four dimensions as prepared codes to extract sentences reflecting the students' identity and motivation. However, each student had his/her distinctiveness in EAP learning, so in the second round of analysis, the first author used the inductive method, which generated some open codes from the narratives. He then corroborated the inductive with the deductive data, before converting them into a story for each student. During the story composition, the first author asked further questions in the interviews with the students to clarify some of the contents, and he returned the narrative manuscripts to the students for rechecking. The students' stories were later corroborated with the instructor's reflective journals and interviews. The themes were summarised from the corroboration, which later became the subtitles in Section 4.2.

To answer the third research question, the instructor was again interviewed by the first author to recall and reflect on the reasons inhibiting the course effects. The instructor's reflective journal was also consulted in line with some excerpts of the five students' interviews and narratives. An inductive method was used to pinpoint the relevant affecting social factors. In this study, all of the data were originally collected in Chinese and then translated into English by the first author.

3.3 Sampling and information power

The student participants were selected on the basis of voluntary self-nomination after the instructor had posted the recruitment notice on their EAP social media members group. Even though the instructor had announced the recruitment several times, few responded. The instructor later purposively nominated several students who were friendly with her, and then the first author contacted them. As a result, five students (pseudonyms: Rain, Leaf, Kirin, Harvest, and Lee) from the instructor's EAP classes (who completed the three-semester EAP course) participated in the study (see Table 1), making the present research a case study. Lee and Harvest majored in engineering; Leaf, Rain, and Kirin majored in pharmacy, chemistry, and business management, respectively. Only Rain and Harvest were from class two, and the remainders were in class one.

Table 1.

Information about the five EAP student participants

Name	Gender	Discipline	Class Number
Lee	F	Engineering	1
Leaf	F	Pharmacy	1
Rain	M	Chemistry	2
Harvest	M	Engineering	2
Kirin	M	Business Management	1

Faced with limited numbers of research participants, the first author referred to the theory of information power (a term about sample size in qualitative research) to make the data more informative and trustworthy. Information power can be defined as “the more information the sample holds, relevant for the actual study, the lower amount of participants is needed” (Malterud et al., 2016, p. 1753). Adhering to Malterud et al. (2016), the dialogue with the research participants was strengthened, theories in data collection were applied, and the relevance or specificity of the research participants to the research aim was maintained. In terms of strengthening the dialogue with the research participants, the instructor’s close links with the five students assisted in making them willing to speak their minds, which potentially increased the information power of their narratives and discourse (Malterud et al., 2016). Concerning applying theories in data collection, Tremmel’s (2014) four-dimension framework was applied (see Section 3.2). As for maintaining

the relevance or specificity of the research participants to the research aim, the instructor and her students were the direct participants of the course and, therefore, their observations of, and the hermeneutic interpretation of the EAP class was ethnographically relevant.

4. Findings

4.1 How did the instructor design the EAP course?

In the first of the three semesters, the instructor taught students how to summarise arguments from a piece of research. The assessment of the first-semester assignment required the students to summarise a published paper in their individual discipline. In the second semester, the instructor introduced the students to thematic writing; here, they selected several journal articles on the same topic in their disciplines, thematising different findings or opinions to find a research gap. Alongside the writing tasks in the two semesters, in order to strengthen the students' disciplinary identities, the instructor invited some scholars, along with the first author, to conduct seminars to share their research experiences, and to help the EAP students plan their future careers. She intended to involve the students in academic discourse and inspire them through interactions with the invited scholars to encourage the students to become researchers.

In the third semester, the instructor focused on academic writing, for example, academic genres, the structure of a research paper, the steps of doing research, and data collecting and analysing methods. For the mid-term assessment, the students had to develop a research proposal in groups of four to five related to their discipline under the supervision of the instructor. The final assignment required the students to work as a group, either conducting a research project or doing a systematic literature review related to their disciplines. As an incentive, the instructor suggested the students compose a digital academic journal that would include their finished research projects and literature reviews. For each class, she made a file, requiring each group to submit their final products to the journal as part of their assignments. The instructor served as editor, while some volunteer students

worked as editorial board members and gave feedback to the contributors. The instructor expected that when the students saw a printed paper with their names in a “journal,” they would be more convinced of their identity as researchers, which in turn would serve as motivation for learning EAP. During the three semesters, the instructor tried to simulate disciplinary communities. However, due to the lack of an independent course code, the instructor was not permitted to take all of the responsibility for the assessment. As noted above, the assignments from the instructor made up only 40% of the students’ final grade for the course. For the other 60%, the EAP students had to write compulsory university-wide standardised English tests each semester, together with the students in the EGP classes.

In the fourth semester, there was no EAP course. However, the instructor led some informal classes with some of the more motivated students in a newly established EAP club (EAPC). The EAPC aimed to further engage the students, even after the completion of the EAP course. Many students, even those who did not study EAP with the instructor, joined the club. In the EAPC, the instructor continued inviting scholars to share their research experiences with the members in monthly gatherings. In the EAPC, the instructor organised a student-run academic conference entitled “Students Polytechnic & Humanities Research Forum,” in which the EAP students presented studies they had implemented in the EAP course to many audiences. The first author was invited as the forum chairperson and as one of the reviewers for each presentation. The winners of the forum were later recommended to attend another research conference for EAP students in Shanghai, which was organised by the China EAP Association.

4.2 To what extent were the EAP students motivated by the disciplinary identities?

4.2.1 Lack of interest in EAP

Although the authors anticipated some negative responses from the students when receiving their follow-up impressions of the course, the authors did not expect the students would be so unmotivated by EAP. As for the overall poor performance, the instructor assumed that not all of them were motivated in EAP, despite the fact

that they were required to pass the assignments. The instructor's feeling was strongly supported by the student participants' responses during interviews. The following quotes are representative of the students' sentiments:

There were so many students who were not interested in EAP... there was hardly anyone who genuinely liked EAP. (Rain interview)

In the class, only a few students interacted with the teacher, only those of us who sat close to the teacher. (Rain interview)

There was one time when the university wanted to cancel the EAP classes, we (those in favour of EAP) persuaded our classmates to support the class in a signing station. However, they not only refused us but accused us of showing off our English. (Leaf interview)

Nearly 65% of the EAP students agreed with the university to cancel the class. (Harvest interview)

When the first author suggested contacting other unmotivated students to share their experiences, Rain said not to bother as they would have little interest in discussing EAP due to their lack of interest in the course.

4.2.2 Failure to develop disciplinary identities

Even though the five students were seemingly motivated to study EAP, not all of them felt they possessed an identity in their discipline. As Hyland (2012) suggested, the formation of disciplinary identity requires people's proximity to and positioning in the academic discourse community, and the absence of either might disable the formation. For example, Harvest, a student in engineering, helped the instructor in managing the EAPC. In the instructor's eyes, Harvest was highly engaged in EAP activities, symbolising his devotion to the community that the instructor promoted. However, the course had failed to make him more determined to be an academic, although he seemed to be more flexible with his goal

Whether or not I will do my master degree depends on my family arrangement. (Harvest narrative)

When Harvest was asked about his motivation to study EAP, he replied:

I was motivated by the instructor's tenacity. I hoped my peers would admire me and think highly of my leadership in the EAPC. (Harvest interview)

Thus, Harvest appeared to invoke more general self-actualisation rather than aspiring to be a member of an academic community.

In another example, Kirin was also a manager of the EAPC. His enterprising management of the EAP club was acknowledged by his university in the academic year 2016–17, awarding him an accolade as one of the best student society managers. Thus, Kirin appeared to have involved into the academic community that the instructor had designed. However, Kirin wrote in his auto-narrative that

[The] academic stuff is the second benefit I gained, but I sharpened my project management abilities. I felt I was more like an EAP club manager, by managing this project. (Kirin narrative)

The disciplinary identity Hyland (2012) referred to was related to academic discourse.

In contrast, Kirin developed an identity more of a manager in industry than of an academic disciplinary identity. To become an entrepreneur had been his dream since secondary school, and this was stated in his auto-narrative. It should not be forgotten that Kirin's major was business management and it is possible that he intended to become an entrepreneur upon graduation.

4.2.3 Successful cases of emergent disciplinary identity

Despite the disappointing outcomes for most students, a few students did display an emergent disciplinary identity. For example, Lee, Leaf and Rain

participated in almost all of the EAP related activities. Their burgeoning disciplinary identities could be seen from their performance in the discourse. In the instructor's EAP class, Rain, for the first time, learned how to search databases and write papers in academic English. He also expressed his gratefulness towards the course for preparing his future career as a chemist:

EAP as a tool for research guaranteed me to have first-hand information in the field. (Rain narrative)

Rain commented on the critical thinking skills he had acquired from the EAP class:

My critical thinking was strengthened in EAP study, seeing things I had not seen, challenging things people took for granted.

He particularly pointed out that critical thinking had given him the vision to discover some academic dishonesty and bureaucracy in the society, which upset him. It, therefore, strengthened his dedication to become an influential chemist, with the hope of doing innovative research in a senior position to change any unfairness existing in the academic context after his completion of further study in the UK. Seen from Hyland's (2012) concepts of proximity and positioning, Rain demonstrated his budding disciplinary identities.

In the case of Lee, the instructor asked her to work on and write an essay about research in engineering. Along with her group members, she chose photo-curing technology, which is a common term in the field. Guided by the instructor, Lee and her group partners learned how to narrow down their research topic by searching for and then reading materials. They finally touched upon 3D printing in the photo-curing technology field and produced an in-depth systematic review. Lee and her peers published their work in the class academic journal. Conducting and publishing research boosted her skills and confidence to be a researcher.

Furthermore, in the EAPC organised “Polytechnic & Humanities Research forum,” Lee and her classmates presented a study on the urban heat island effect and won the championship. Lee recalled that one of the reasons their group excelled among all the other presenters was the rigorous demonstration of the research gap. Planning for further studies in the United States, Lee seemed to have already seen herself as a member of the academic community.

Leaf joined the EAP course because of her love of the English language, but later she became interested in pharmacy. She was particularly interested in finding better antidotes for snake bites. The instructor recounted a story in which Leaf strove to research anti-venom serum:

When I asked her to conduct and write up research on the topic that interested her, she looked all over intending to experiment on anti-venom serum, but that was hazardous research, and she was not allowed to enter the laboratory. Understanding the struggle, I told her to do a systematic literature review on this topic in English, and the work she wrote was outstanding. (Instructor interview)

In Leaf’s auto-narrative, she mentioned that EAP was useful for her study:

EAP can keep me abreast with the updated knowledge in my area, which is necessary. (Leaf narrative)

Leaf’s comments revealed her vision and devotion to the field. However, Lee’s and Rain’s backgrounds could also have influenced their disciplinary identity formation. For example, in the narrative, it was revealed that Rain’s father was a chemist and Rain had been influenced by his father since a very early age. In another example, Lee had become familiar with 3D printing in the United States, even before going to university.

4.3 Reasons for some students' low motivation to study EAP?

4.3.1 Students' underdeveloped disciplinary enthusiasm

The instructor felt that her EAP course, which had been designed to elevate the students' motivation by constructing their disciplinary identities, was not successful in general. She said:

It is challenging to solve this motivation deadlock because whether students choose to proceed on to an academic path, at this stage, is never a language issue but a life career choice. (Instructor interview)

The instructor felt the students had not seriously considered their future careers or studies in their disciplines, which caused their indifference to study EAP:

If the students have passion for studying the disciplines, they are easily motivated to study EAP, even though their English was not good enough. (Instructor's journal)

On the other hand, the instructor explained that Lee's, Rain's, and Leaf's motivation to study EAP was related to their long-held enthusiasm to research their respective areas. Thus, she felt that the root of the lack of motivation among many of the students stemmed from their lukewarm feelings about their chosen discipline, as opposed to any negative feelings about EAP.

4.3.2 Chinese students' previous English-learning experience

The instructor knew the way that the students had learned EAP was different from their previous English learning in fundamental education, which emphasised grammar-translation and rote learning. For example, Leaf claimed that:

The EAP course is challenging and different from English learning in primary and secondary schools, in which we were asked to study grammar and to remember words. (Leaf interview).

Furthermore, the instructor also found that even some students with a good foundation in English were resistant to EAP:

The students spoke English very well, but their interest in English was watching and imitating English TV dramas and other popular cultures.

She noted that these students had very different priorities with regard to language learning than she did:

They had more conflicts with me, and their standard of good English was to speak like native speakers, they learn by repetition, but in my EAP class, I valued those who could read critically and write academically in English and those who based their arguments on multiple resources. (Instructor interview)

The instructor also stated that she recommended throughout the EAP course the importance of critiquing others' ideas in the field and to evaluating certain theories, which was beyond many Chinese students' schema of English learning.

4.3.3 The wash-back effects of standardised exams on Chinese students

As reflected by the instructor, most EAP students retained their pre-established habit of learning for the exams:

They came to university just for passing exams and getting a degree, due to the foundation education in China. Secondary school students study only for the Gaokao (the national college entrance exam), and this belief towards learning for exams lingers on into university. (Instructor interview)

The assessment of the EAP course further worsened the situation because 60% of the students' total course grade was not related to the EAP course material (university streamlined English tests made for all non-English major students regardless of studying EAP or EGP at the end of each semester), while 40% was for the formative assessment (completing writings and research assignments) assigned

by the instructor. As a result, the students who failed to satisfy the instructor's assessment requirements could still pass the EAP course simply by sitting the required tests. Therefore, in the instructor's opinion, some students resorted to the tests as the easiest way to pass the subject, rather than to spend more time doing research in the EAP course.

However, if the EAP students wanted to achieve a higher grade in English, then they had to do well both in the summative tests and the instructor's assignments. Compared with the students in EGP classes, earning a higher mark from the EAP course was more difficult, and this irritated some of the students:

Some EAP students felt they had to spend more time than students in EGP in order to attain higher marks in English...so they were feeling negative towards the EAP class. (Harvest interview)

The instructor believed that there were also some students who thought as long as their English level could meet the requirements of passing the CET Band 4 (an English qualification that many companies use in measuring their employees' English proficiency), there would be no need for them to study EAP.

4.3.4 Dearth of institutional support of the EAP course

The last factor that the instructor emphasised was the lack of support for the EAP course from the university. According to her, the university did not provide any platform for her to collaborate with disciplinary departments. As EAP is a discipline-related subject, without the disciplinary teachers' advice, the instructor noted her limitation in understanding and accommodating disciplinary differences in an EAP class of students from multiple disciplines. For example, Kirin studied business management, which is a practice-based subject. Consequently, Kirin's research was very different from students of pharmacy or engineering. Students in business management are not expected to become researchers. Therefore, using a uniform academic standard to teach students from different disciplines may not have met the specificity of each discipline, nor could it have satisfied all of them.

The instructor blamed the university for using Chinese as a Medium of Instruction (CMI) instead of EMI in their teaching. In her university, only one chemical engineering course for postgraduate students could use EMI as regulated by MOE, and only some business students used English and Chinese in their courses. According to the instructor's observation, in the university, there were few discipline teachers capable of teaching high-quality bilingual courses. What they often did was merely giving the students imported English textbooks while using Chinese to teach in the "bilingual" subject classes; the assignments were also in Chinese. Therefore, most first-year students were not obliged to improve their academic writing in English, even for their disciplines. Notably, as Leaf claimed when the disciplinary course workload became heavy at the end of the semesters, many students would treat EAP as a redundant subject, as in the following example:

The students' coursework of disciplines was very demanding; even students' evening sessions were full of classes, so they had to balance their time. While studying EAP sometimes required time, energy, and team-work, forcing students to evade it. (Leaf interview)

5. Discussion and implications

5.1 Urgency to teach cultures of learning in EAP

As shown in the findings, some students' interest in English (imitating native speakers' English) and their emotional affiliation with English-speaking countries did not necessarily lead to their motivation to study EAP. Curiously, this result was somewhat opposite to a Brazilian study parallel to the present one (Cerqueira & Badger, 2015). In that study, the Brazilian students showed strong motivation to study EAP and positivity towards the English-speaking community. These differing results might have happened because the social and academic distance of learning (Parris-Kidd & Barnett, 2011) between Chinese and the learning required in EAP is more substantial than those between Brazilian students and their Western counterparts. In other words, Chinese students may have more intercultural challenges to studying EAP.

The instructor originally thought that students' EAP motivation would increase with their strengthened disciplinary identity. However, among the five students in the case study, Kirin and Harvest did not develop themselves with disciplinary identities academically; rather, they sustained a strong motivation to study EAP for the sake of self-perfection (either as an admirable figure in class or a future entrepreneur), which was similar to Komiyama's (2013) finding of students' drive to excel as motivation to study EAP. Moreover, as reported in the findings, many students' previous ways of learning English, coupled with the wash-back effects of standardised tests challenged them to adapt to EAP study. These results highlight the necessity to understand Chinese students' culture of learning (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996); particularly when teaching EAP, where students and teachers from different cultural backgrounds met. One of the vulnerabilities of EAP, according to Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002), is ignoring students' cultures, but students' long-nurtured way of learning will affect them when they move to a new environment. For example, Cortazzi and Jin (1996, p.169) stressed that: "many behaviours in the language classroom is set within taken-for-granted frameworks of expectations, attitudes, values, and beliefs about what constitutes good learning, about how to teach or learn, whether and how to ask questions, and what textbooks are for."

Parris-Kidd and Barnett (2011) claim that teachers of academic discourse should be aware of the social, academic and even psychological distances between students' home culture of learning and those of the target discourse. Teachers, including the instructor in the present study, should play the role of intercultural ambassadors while teaching EAP because EAP teachers are often their students' first port of call to academia and thus students EAP learning is a process of cultural and academic exchange (de Chazal, 2014). However, empirical studies related to cultures of learning in EAP teaching are rare in China. Consequently, more consideration of this issue should be given in future EAP curriculum and textbook design.

5.2 Calling for an EAP course readjustment

The instructor pointed out that her students' low enthusiasm toward their disciplines discouraged them from studying EAP. The students who showed strong interest in EAP were those who possessed disciplinary passion, such as Lee, Leaf and Rain. This result supports Huang's (2006), claim that the students' disciplinary background and schema determined their motivation in EAP. However, because the students had all started their EAP course soon after completion of their general education in high school, it was unrealistic to expect that all of them would be equipped with disciplinary schema.

Even though the instructor had arranged as many discipline-related activities as possible to develop the students' affiliation with their discipline communities, not many students had developed their disciplinary identity. Even among the five case-study participants who were actively engaged in discursive activities, but only Lee, Leaf, and Rain showed any interest in research. The formation of students' disciplinary identities required both external learning of discourse and the internal drive to become a member of a particular discourse community, which reflects the proximity and positioning binary theory of disciplinary identity (Hyland, 2012, 2015). To better develop this proximity, the EAP course could have provided certain learning opportunities. However, for positioning, it would depend on students' self-agency, which is beyond the control of a single course.

This result is consistent with Li's (2013) report that EAP learners' self-agency, rather than learning environment, spurs motivation. Therefore, artificially strengthening the students' disciplinary identities via an EAP course tends not to be effective, unless they are motivated to accept a new identity. Furthermore, family backgrounds, personal passion, and previous educational experiences seemed to play some roles in promoting Lee, Leaf, and Rain's disciplinary identity formation and motivation to study EAP.

Therefore, this suggests EAP courses, in general, should be designated as electives rather than compulsory courses for first-and-second-year students in the instructor's context, or perhaps students should start studying EAP even in year three and four. By then, they should have accumulated more disciplinary knowledge and are more likely to find EAP necessary. According to the Shanghai EAP reform guideline, most university students are expected to study EAP as early as possible, such as in year one, which policymakers assumed could facilitate them to study subjects afterwards (Cai, 2017). However, without some disciplinary foundation, most students may find it difficult to build a connection with EAP. This result echoes Cheng (2016, p.101), who claimed that some Chinese university students would not find any relevance to EAP courses in year one and two: "some first-and second-year college students may not have declared their majors and, thus, may not even have engaged in any discipline-specific communication tasks in Chinese, let alone in English." Thus, it may be useful for policymakers to reconsider the time to teach students EAP.

5.3 Necessity of needs and environment analysis

Rather than being based on the needs analysis of students, the EAP class activities in the present study were benchmarked with practices in academic communities from the instructor's perspective. The instructor assumed that the students could be socialised into disciplinary identities after being immersed in an academic environment, and she hoped that their motivation of learning EAP would increase. However, the students seemed to be unconsciously seen as "others" who were inferior to members of the academic community, and this was considered a limitation in their socialisation process. (Hyland, 2006). This limitation is suspected of encouraging a hierarchy that disempowers and alienates students (Benesch, 2008). Consequently, most of the EAP students in the present study may have been resistant to the identities that the instructor had imposed on them.

Rather than socialising the students into an imagined community, the priorities before starting an EAP course should include analysing their needs, wants, and deficiencies (Nation & Macalister, 2009). The EAP teachers should also

establish connections with all the students in the classes in order to adjust the lessons to meet the students' needs and interests (Alavi & Dashtestani, 2015), rather than only follow the course instructions and focus on some students. Furthermore, an environment analysis of the EAP course before its commencement is also necessary (Nation & Macalister, 2009). Given that most of the disciplinary courses in the instructor's university used CMI, the students questioned the usefulness of learning EAP in their contexts, which helps to explain why the instructor's EAP course appeared to be less effective than other EAP courses, such as the one described by Li (2013), where English was the medium of instruction.

In the Shanghai EAP framework, policymakers encouraged the institutions that offered quality EMI or bilingual courses to finish teaching EAP in the students' first year of university (Cai, 2017). Compared with the limited universities that are entitled to use EMI regulated by the MOE (He & Chiang, 2016) and the unsatisfactory situation of bilingual education in most Chinese universities (Luo & Wang, 2004; Li & Wang, 2010), the advocacy of teaching EAP intensively within one year for newly enrolled students seems to be unrealistic.

The suggestion in the framework could also be misleading because the expression "a relatively high proportion" (Cai, 2017, p. 143) is vague, and it relies on the individual university's or teacher's interpretation of the policy and their judgement of the teaching environment. There are, however, successful cases inside and outside Shanghai. For example, Zhao and Yu (2017) reported the EAP teaching in Shuren University in Zhejiang Province, whose course was designed on the basis of the local students' needs. Another example is an EAP course in Peking University in Beijing, and Gao and Bartlett (2014) reported the EMI context there laid the foundations for teaching EAP. Similarly, Li and Wang (2018b) reported the successful integration of Project-based learning method with EAP in an international business-oriented university in Shanghai, in which most of the students took lessons in English, and the students all had exchange opportunities to study abroad; so the environment in this university created the necessities to launch the EAP course. Consequently, each university and teacher should implement needs

and environment analysis before any EAP curricular reform because a “cookie-cutter” unified EAP reform policy may not fit the context of every institution.

5.4 Advocacy for better institutional support

Even though the university acquiesced and allowed the instructor to implement an EAP course, little autonomy was conferred to her. As seen from the findings, she was only responsible for 40% of the course assessment, while the remaining 60% was taken charge of by the university in the form of tests unrelated to EAP. As previously discussed, these tests had a negative wash-back effect on many EAP students. In addition, the instructor did not handle the enrollment of the EAP classes, which led to students with varied disciplines participating in the course. EAP is a disciplinary specificity-driven field (Hyland, 2006) and, therefore, the diverse number of disciplines hindered the instructor in teaching disciplinary discourse, particularly when the university did not facilitate any form of cooperation between EAP and discipline teachers.

As an English-language teacher, the instructor may not have fully understood the expected learning outcomes of disciplinary identities in each major, discounting teaching efficacy. For example, Kirin could have been trained as an entrepreneur in his discipline rather than as a researcher, which the instructor aspired him to be. This result echoes Hyland and Hamp-Lyons (2002), who pointed out that it is challenging for EAP teachers to capture and to conceptualise the specificities, epistemologies, and recognised knowledge construction in discourse communities. Because each discourse community is closely related to one’s disciplinary identity (Hyland, 2009), better institutional support seems to be vital in contexts where EAP courses are offered.

5.5 Reflection on the instructor’s concept misunderstanding

Intending to motivate the EAP students, the instructor pedagogically emulated discourse communities to establish so-called students’ disciplinary identities. The failure of the course made constructing such identities a utopia.

However, Widdowson (1998) had already pointed out that the authentic discourse community cannot be replicated in classrooms. As the classrooms only formulated a learning community, in which all the discourse are purposefully pedagogical; however, in the authentic discourse communities, members are not learners, who communicate pragmatically (Widdowson, 1998). Hyland's (2012) binary concepts of disciplinary identity (proximity and positioning), which was claimed by the instructor to inform her practices in the present study, was explanatory rather than pedagogical. Hyland (2012) used the binary concepts to explain the disciplinary identity formation of academics. Thus, the discourse community and disciplinary identity the instructor claimed to use in theorising her teaching turned to be a misunderstanding.

6. Conclusion

When many universities in Shanghai were immersed into pedagogical reform for non-English major students' compulsory university English courses, teachers who had previously taught on EGP courses were encouraged to teach EAP. In the present study, the instructor designed a three-semester EAP course aiming to develop the students' motivation by strengthening their disciplinary identities. As a result of the course intervention, apart from a few students who had developed disciplinary identities and motivation of EAP, most of the students were unmotivated. The authors partly attributed this underperformance to the students' underdeveloped enthusiasm for the disciplines; the Chinese students' previous English-learning experience being different from learning EAP; the wash-back effects of the university standardised tests on the students; the dearth of institutional support provided to the EAP course. Implications were given regarding improvements in EAP classroom teaching, particularly with regard to the teaching cultures of learning in EAP, needs and environment analysis in course designing, readjustment of course time arrangement, and the need for institutional support. Consequently, further action research is necessary to alleviate the EAP students' lack of disciplinary enthusiasm as it pertains to EAP. In addition, it is recommended that further work be done on the influence of the Chinese students' culture of

learning, and to provide a better plan to improve the support and logistics of EAP teaching.

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Nursing Students' Attitudes towards Learning Communication Skills

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Abstract

Effective communication is acknowledged as the cornerstone of high-quality care in nursing as the work of healthcare is mostly one of interactions and relationships. Therefore, this study purports to assess the attitudes of nursing students towards learning communication skills and finding the correlation between the attitudes of nursing students towards learning communication skills with their selected demographic variables. Findings revealed that the participants of the study always have a very high attitude towards communications. No significant differences exist in the attitude of nursing students towards communication skills according to their age, and year level; however, a significant difference exists for

sex. It further implies that indeed, they appreciate the role of communication their course nursing. This study highlighted the importance of improving nursing students' communication skills. It also showed the necessity for curriculum revision and adding some specific theoretical lessons for improving communication skills during a bachelor's degree education.

Keywords: communication, attitude, healthcare, quality care, curriculum

Introduction

Communication is a vital element in nursing in all spheres of nursing care, including prevention, treatment, rehabilitation, education, and health promotion. However, it is often taken for granted as part of daily life, yet communication, in particular, competency in communication, is central to nursing.

According to Escobar (2019), in any healthcare setting, the role of communication is essential, and one factor that can improve communication has a common language. Useful communication abilities make the difference between average and excellent quality nursing care. The interchange between patients and nurses form the foundation of nursing care throughout the field of health, illness, healing, and recovery.

Nursing is not merely the capability to successfully carry out various routine tasks. Instead, it is a holistic practice which includes social, physical, psychological, political, and environmental characteristics of an illness and its influence on patients and their families. Effective communication is recognized as the cornerstone of high-quality care in nursing as the work of healthcare is largely one of the interactions and relationships (Kourkouta & Papathanasiou, 2014; Berwick, 2002).

Nurses play a pivotal role in communicating well with patients and families, also liaise with physicians, and other healthcare teams to provide holistic care. When there is a gap in this process of building trust leads to ineffectiveness of nurses' and other healthcare teams' potentials (Ashford & LeCroy, 2010). Hence, early identification can help in empowering the skill of communication.

Nursing communication skills are associated with higher patient satisfaction, better health outcomes, greater adherence to treatment, and more active self-management of chronic diseases (Schoenthaler et al., 2009). Hence, it is necessary for nurses to master communication skills. To attain this goal, they need training and evaluation in communication and interpersonal skills, so this can become one of their areas of competence (Joyce, Steenbergh, & Scher, 2010).

Taupan (2019) emphasized that communication is a crucial part of nurses' care encounters where communication barriers in situations where they do not speak the same language as their patients can be a significant obstacle for nurses and can lead to an insufficient exchange of information and poor quality nursing care.

According to the Joint Commission on Accreditation of Health Care Organizations, (JCAHO), effective communication is a priority for patient safety since. Hence, recognizing nursing students' attitudes towards communication skills is a priority for planning and modification in the future.

With this, the researchers explored the nursing students' attitudes towards communication skills and their relationship with the participants' profile.

Related Literature

There are studies which investigated medical and dental students' attitudes toward learning communication skills, but very scarce for nursing students. Mullan and Kothe (2010) assessed the level of communication skills of 209 nursing students and found improvement after the communication intervention program.

Ak et al. (2011) study have shown that in the emergency unit of the hospital that the number of undesirable events decreased between patients and nurses after 16 nurses attended a six-week communication program. A study carried out among nursing students demonstrated that most of them required improvement in their communication skills in both clinical communication behavior and treatment communication ability (Esmail et al., 2013).

Xie et al. (2013), in a descriptive study, showed that 88.1% of nursing students had poor skills in clinical, treatment, and interpersonal communication. Besides, Sabzevari et al. (2006) showed that nurses' performance was almost favorable in starting the conversation and interactive skills, intermediate in following the problems and describing the current disease, and completely inappropriate in terminating the conversation.

Communication skills used in nursing and treatment communication behaviors are the most essential skills that aim to resolve some main problems of communicating (Swinny & Brady, 2010). Expressing support, providing information and feedback, giving hope to patients, and helping them cope with anxiety are some examples of treatment communication behaviors (Elizabeth, 2006).

Since communication between nurses and patients is a core principle in patient care, a study among nursing students undertaken by Zavertrnik et al. (2010) where communication skills were taught to nursing students using trained actors to portray standardized family members but for clinical learning laboratory setting only. The teaching approach was assessed using post-test design. Moreover, the intervention group obtained training based on a communication framework and a 1-h practice session with the actor. Four domains of communication: introduction, gathering of information, imparting information, and clarifying goals and expectations were assessed in the intervention and control groups. The intervention group accomplished better than the control group in all four tested domains of communication skills. The difference concerning the domain of gathering information was statistically significant ($p = 0.0257$). This study confirms that communication skills can improve and the teaching strategies used are essential in determining the outcome.

Kruijver et al. (2000) examined studies on communication training programs for nurses ($n = 14$). It found limited impacts on nurses' skills, nurses' behaviors, or patient outcomes. The study reported that most studies had weak designs and called for experimental designs in future studies. Doyle et al. (2010)

pointed out that there are existing studies assessed communication skills training for medical doctors. It is the reason why more studies are needed in the evaluation of the effectiveness of communications training and program for nurses and other types of clinicians.

The attitude of the nursing student is pivotal, and nurse educators should be aware of how the students' attitude could affect the learning of communication skills. Attitudes involve the creation of evaluations towards which good or bad qualities of a topic/organization or person are attached. Ajzen (2001) espoused that attitude constitutes the evaluation of a psychological object captured in such attribute dimensions as good-bad, harmful-beneficial, pleasant-unpleasant, and likable-dislikeable. Therefore, attitudes expedite the adaption of an individual to an environment and drive behavior (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993).

The evaluation of attitudes towards patient-oriented care has its legitimation, as they refer to beliefs that are relatively stable over time (Wahlqvist, 2010). Research has been undertaken in the past on healthcare personnel's attitudes for learning communication skills. Initially, the research focused on medical students but has moved to consider attitudes of various health-related disciplines.

Several studies have examined attitude scores before and after a communication skills training (Rees & Sheard, 2003; Harlak et al., 2008; Bombeke et al., 2011; Tiuraniemi, 2011; Koponen, 2012). Research utilizing the CSAS shows different patterns of attitude development during medical education, showing decreased (Harlak et al., 2008; Fazel & Aghamolaei, 2011; Cleland, Foster, & Moffat, 2005) to increased scores (Khashab, 2006).

Anvik and colleagues (2008) found stable cognitive attitudes compared to decreasing affective attitudes. Furthermore, attitudes to communication skills appear to be not favorable in students with higher levels of state anxiety (Loureiro, 2011). Findings from Lumma-Sellenthin (2012) and Molinuevo et al. (2016) reproduced the gender effect known from earlier research (Cleland et al., 2005; Rees & Sheard, 2002) where it was determined that female students were more

favorable to communication skills training than their male peers. It was due to the female students' stronger openness towards information-giving, partnership building, and interest in psychosocial topics.

It seems that students' positive attitudes to learning communication skills are related to a caring patient orientation and good self-regulation of learning strategies (Lumma-Sellenthin, 2012). However, a caring patient orientation did not rely solely on meta-cognitive capabilities. Instead, caring patient orientation depends on a positive attitude to communication skills learning with variables such as older age, female gender, and parents' work outside the health sector (Lumma-Sellenthin, 2012).

The literature highlighted the importance of communication skills for nursing students; therefore, this cross-sectional study explored the attitudes of nursing students in learning communication skills.

Theoretical Underpinnings

Bandura (1997) defined self-efficacy as the beliefs in one's abilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to produce given attainments." Individuals with elevated self-efficacy tend to be more committed and set to accomplish challenging goals; whereas, individuals with low self-efficacy are easily discouraged by obstacles or failure. Moreover, people could be predicted by their perceived self-efficacy rather than by their actual performance (Bandura, 1997; Shapka & Ferrari, 2003).

This constructivist model of competence, as advocated by Abreu (2007), will take time to be achieved. However, it is a personal and professional journey that will naturally be shaped by all the experiments and projects, studies, and activities that will be carried out and by the student's emotional involvement. Every health course syllabus should include educational practices that would facilitate the acquisition and development of clinical communication skills that will help students

to understand that they are dealing with human beings and to help them face their patients' fears and uncertainties (Silva & Sena, 2006).

Methodology

A descriptive, longitudinal design was used to gather the necessary data from a convenience sample of undergraduate nursing students ($n = 100$). It was conducted among select undergraduate nursing students in the Zamboanga Peninsula. Parental consent was secured for those below 18 years old. It utilized a modified form of the Communication Skills Attitude Scale (CSAS; Rees, Sheard, & Davies, 2002) which was initially a 26-item questionnaire that measured attitudes to learning communication skills. The CSAS used a 5-point Likert scale with scores ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Results and Discussion

Table 1 presents the communication skill attitudes of the 100 nursing student participants in the study. Data show that all the ten statements obtained always descriptive ratings with means ranging from 3.62-4.09. The total mean of 3.84 has an always descriptive rating. Always means that the participants of the study have a very high positive attitude towards communications. It further implies that indeed, they appreciate the role of communication their course nursing.

It is a fact that communication skills are vital for nursing practice and that these can be learned and developed through skills training. The attitude of nursing students towards learning these skills is a crucial factor before they become licensed nurses. This study examined nursing students' attitude towards communication skills. In the research, it was found that positive attitude for communication skills is in line with previous research (Al-Bizrah et al., 2016; Ihmeideh et al., 2010; Neupane et al., 2012).

One of the main findings of our results was that communication skills were recognized as a significant part of nursing practice by the students.

Table 1. Communication Skill Attitudes of Nursing Students

Indicators	Mean	SD	Descriptive Ratings
1) Learning communication skills have helped me or will help me facilitate team-working skills.	3.95	.892	Always
2) Learning communication skills have enhanced my ability to communicate with patients.	3.68	.815	Always
3) Developing my communication skills is just as crucial as developing my knowledge of nursing.	4.09	.889	Always
4) Learning communication skills have helped me recognize patients' rights regarding confidentiality and informed consent.	3.62	.814	Always
5) Learning communication skills helped me respect my patients.	3.75	.857	Always
6) Learning communication skills have helped me or will help me to respect my colleagues.	3.94	.851	Always
7) Learning communication skills is essential because my ability to communicate is a lifelong skill.	3.78	.824	Always
8) In order to be an excellent nurse, I must have excellent communication skills.	3.87	.895	Always
9) Learning communication skills is exciting and fun.	4.05	.903	Always
10) I think it is beneficial learning communication skills in the nursing program.	3.63	.787	Always

Total Mean	3.84	0.853	Always
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To test the hypothesis “There is no significant difference in the attitude of nursing students towards communication skills when data are grouped according to the participants' sex" a t-test was computed since the data for this particular variable were dichotomous. As shown in the table, the obtained t value is $t(98) = -3.24, p = .002 \leq .05$, *significant*. The null hypothesis is rejected. It means there is a significant difference in the attitudes towards communication skills among male and female nursing students. It can also be seen in the group statistics where the means of both sexes do not significantly differ. It implies that male and female nursing students have different attitudes towards communication skills.

The result of this study contradicts with Neupane et al. (2012), where female students had more positive and less negative attitudes to learning communication skills than male students. However, these differences were not statistically significant. It suggested that the sex differences between the students to communication skills identified in past studies as statistically significantly different are becoming less pronounced as sex roles are changing in society.

However, studies of Fazel & Aghamolaei (2011) and Shankar et al. (2013) have found a significant difference between attitudes toward learning communication skills and sex; where female medical students had more positive attitudes compared to their male counterparts, thus making their communication more effective.

Table 2. Communication Skills and Sex

Male		Female		T value	p value	Interpretation	Remarks
Mean	SD	Mean	SD				

4.05	.2235	3.84	.3733	-3.245	.002*	Significant	Reject Ho
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* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

As shown in table 3, the descriptive statistics show the age of the participants of the study as 16-17 years old, 18-19 years old and more than 19 years old. As can be seen, participants who are 18-19 years old and more than 19 years old have almost the same mean. On the other hand, their standard deviations were quite varied, indicating a disparity in their scores.

As further shown, the computed ANOVA for the variable age is $F = .974$, $p = .381 > .05$, *not significant*. Hence, the hypothesis is accepted. It means that the age of the participants does not significantly affect their attitudes towards communication skills. It implies further that the participants who are more than 19 years old have the same attitudes towards communication skills as the participants who are 16-17 years old.

Table 3. Communication Skills and Age

Age	Mean	SD	F value	p value	Interpretation	Remarks
16-17 years old	3.8519	.45605				
18-19 years old	3.9189	.36350	.974	.381	Not Significant	Accept Ho
>19 years old	3.9722	.16667				

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

As shown in the descriptive statistics, the participants' year level was categorized into level 1, level 2, level 3, and level 4. As can be seen further, the participants in all these categories have almost the same means. On the other hand, their standard deviations were quite varied, indicating a disparity in their scores.

As further shown the computed ANOVA for the variable year level is $F = .659, p = .580 > .05$, *not significant*. Hence, the hypothesis is accepted. It means that the year level of the participants does not significantly affect their attitudes towards communication skills. It implies that the participants from level 1 have the same attitudes towards communication skills as those in level 4.

This result is supported by Wright and colleagues (2009), who found no significant differences between first- and fourth-year medical students' attitudes to learning communication skills.

Table 4. Communication Skills and Year Level

Year Level	Mean	SD	F value	p value	Interpretation	Remarks
Level 1	3.862	.4411	.659	.580	Not Significant	Accept Ho
Level 2	3.912	.3788				
Level 3	3.947	.2294				
Level 4	4.000	.0000				

Implications

Communication skills training will remain an essential component of nurse education. In line with Steckler (2012), it is contended that universities, colleges, and schools offering nursing courses need to continue to develop and implement

the use of effective communication skills to students to exemplify the need for these critical skills and the importance of their part in nursing education for practice.

The teaching and learning process of clinical communication techniques is reported in the literature as an area where nurses training institutions should invest actively, seeking to empower their students with the appropriate communication skills along their academic path (Ustun, 2006).

After having analyzed the data, it appears that nursing students are aware of the importance of acquiring good communication skills and interpersonal relationships. It confirms the principle that the helping function is a crucial area in any health care professional and that communication competence is an emerging phase of the intervention. It has a significant potential and labor field to explore and develop. It is a relevant and sensitive area and a challenge for the schools themselves as well as for students and nurses already in the profession, and it will help improve health care quality.

Improving nurses' communication skills as a requirement in nursing education core competencies will consequently improve other incorporated core nursing education outcomes like professionalism, problem-solving, and leadership (Oh et al., 2011).

Conclusion and Recommendations

This study highlighted the importance of improving nursing students' communication skills. It also showed the necessity for curriculum revision and adding some specific theoretical lessons for improving communication skills during a bachelor's degree education.

Students need to be prepared with various skills for clinical practice in order to deal with patients' needs, anxieties, and concerns. Students' attitudes to communication skills may lead to more accurate assessments and treatment processes, thereby increasing patient satisfaction and safety. Supplementing

extracurricular activities with role-playing to enhance students' efficacy and decrease their anxiety is recommended.

Replication of this study is also essential to help understand factors other than the time that could have affected the results, particularly concerning more evidence-based studies and collaborative inter-professional approaches in nursing education.

This study can influence the increase of interest in the specific communication skills of students and develop the departmental testing of specific communication skills of nursing students.

The results of this study can be utilized for better preparation between teachers and their students in increasing successful communication and support the recommendation that greater importance is placed on communication and the provision of more chances for students to learn these skills.

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Fifty Years of Communicative Language Teaching:

A Synthesis of Critical Implementation Issues

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Abstract

The last few decades have witnessed the widespread adoption of the communicative approach to teaching English to students of other languages with a view of helping them achieve communicative competence. However, in terms of implementation, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has encountered various problems in the EFL and ESL contexts. Drawing on previous research, this article presents the reader with a critical review and synthesis of the issues precluding the usage of CLT in ESL/EFL countries around the world. Specifically, it examines the problems faced by teachers in

using the approach and the constraints resulting from their lack of skills and capability, culture, context and examination-oriented education systems. The article concludes with an emphasis on the need to develop teachers' English language proficiency, provide regular pedagogical training in CLT, adapt the approach to be more culture- and context-sensitive, and create more authentic language learning assessment to overcome the washback effect. CLT may be looking at a better future in ESL/EFL countries if these critical issues can be addressed effectively.

Keywords: CLT pedagogy, communicative competence, Communicative Language Teaching, cultural appropriateness, Grammar Translation Method, washback effect

Introduction

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) was introduced in the 1970s to overcome the shortcomings of traditional English instruction. Specifically, it arose in reaction to the lack of success of the Grammar Translation Method (Mitchell, 1988) in producing competent English speakers. As a language teaching method, the GTM focuses instruction almost exclusively on the presentation and mastery of grammatical items. Its ultimate goal is grammatical competency. Owing its origin to the rigorous study of Latin and Greek as academic subjects in the 19th century, GTM is a classical method that emphasizes direct translation of texts, mastery of grammar, and rote learning of vocabulary. Learners are given explicit grammar instruction and constantly drilled to reproduce template sentences. As such, the method places little emphasis on speaking and listening skills. As a result, students who are products of the GTM may show a good mastery of English grammar but may lack the ability to use English effectively in authentic oral communication.

In contrast to the GTM, CLT prioritizes the learner's speaking ability over grammatical competence. It places a predominant emphasis on learners' achieving both fluency and accuracy in communication. Hailed as an innovative approach to language instruction, it represents a movement away from regimented grammar

drills and rules memorization towards more authentic learning contexts that encourage students to use English actively and meaningfully (Richards, 2006). The core objective of CLT is to develop “communicative competence” (Hymes, 1966), an idea in second language acquisition that refers to a speaker’s ability to use a second language functionally and effectively in a truly communicative setting. Language scholars and linguists agree that this functional ability would depend largely on context (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007). Taking into account the important role of context, Tarvin (2014) synthesizes the various interpretations of communicative competence into a single contextually relevant definition, i.e. “the ability to use language, or to communicate, in a culturally-appropriate manner in order to make meaning and accomplish social tasks with efficacy and fluency through extended interactions” (p. 2). Thus, a non-native English speaker is judged to have acquired communicative competence if he/she could convey his/her ideas correctly and fluently in culturally acceptable situations.

How does CLT propose that this communicative competence be achieved or developed? In his definitive work, Richards (2006) explained CLT as “a set of principles [not a method] about the goals of language teaching, how learners learn a language, the kinds of classroom activities that best facilitate learning, and the roles of teachers and learners in the classroom” (p. 1). The strength of CLT lies in its emphasis on oral proficiency rather than grammatical competency. Its main goal is to develop fluency and communicative ability for effective communication in myriad real-life contexts. To reach this goal, CLT propagates the use of authentic and meaningful communication tasks in the classroom where learners would acquire the different language skills through “trial and error” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 172). It does not aim at teaching or learning “bits of language” (Harmer, 2007, p. 70), but rather, at how to use language in authentic communication contexts. In contrast to the GTM that focuses solely on grammatical and structural aspects, CLT views language learning as a process that should be “functional and communicative” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 161). Learners are expected to use the language “productively and receptively, in unrehearsed contexts” (Brown, 2007, p. 241). Thus, a CLT classroom is one that is abuzz with activities where learners would be practising the English language in various authentic roles and contexts,

make errors while practising, and acquire competency through teacher feedback and error correction.

The narrative of CLT has gained traction in English language teaching over the past few decades (Pan, 2013). Critics of traditional ELT methods, like the GTM and Audiolingual Method, argue that while acquiring grammatical proficiency is important, it is certainly not all there is to language learning. In non-native English speaking countries that place a high value on English as a medium of communication, it becomes a national concern when school students and university graduates are manifestly unable to express themselves in the language. Hence, CLT presents an attractive option to “old school” methods that appear retrograde and sluggish in producing the desired outcomes, i.e. capable second language speakers of English.

However, as an innovative approach to English language teaching, CLT has not always been successful. Although it is well accepted among teachers in English-speaking nations in the West, it is not as widely adopted in Asia and in non-native English countries. According to Kustati (2013), the method is not entirely successful in Southeast Asian countries like Vietnam, Cambodia, Indonesia, Thailand, Myanmar, Laos and Malaysia. Whatever success it has experienced in these countries, it is limited and varies by country and socio-cultural context. On the surface, teachers appear to embrace the idea of teaching communicatively, yet much is to be desired in terms of classroom implementation. Koosha and Yakhabi (2013) wrote, “teachers...find it difficult and challenging to adopt the [CLT] approach and maximize the learning; especially in EFL classrooms” (p. 78). In Singapore, according to Cheah (1998), the implementation of CLT is at best superficial. While the idea and rationale behind the approach are laudable, its implementation suffers from a number of pressing issues. Are English teachers resistant to implementing CLT methods in the classroom? What factors might explain this resistance? Bax (2003) argued that context, which is generally neglected by English educators, is a significant factor in the use of CLT.

In the 50 years since its introduction, CLT has been afflicted with many problems, and these are reported in countries that have embraced CLT in their ESL/EFL classrooms. The core principles of CLT appear ideal for developing communicative competency, but due to many factors, they have not been or could not be properly applied in the classroom. What factors were responsible for this situation? In this article, we seek to address this question by summarizing and synthesizing five of the most critical issues affecting the implementation of CLT in various ESL and EFL contexts.

Discrepancies between Theory and Practice

In English classrooms where CLT was implemented, discrepancies were observed between theory and practice. Studies looking into CLT implementation have identified some obvious departures from its principles. According to Yan (2012), ESL/EFL classrooms remain teacher-oriented, textbook-oriented and test-oriented despite teachers' claims of widespread CLT adoption. Teaching grammar explicitly, Zheng and Borg (2014) explained, is against the doctrines of CLT, yet this activity remains prevalent in supposedly communicative English lessons, along with practices like using L1 to teach L2 and translating grammar rules.

In Japan, classes are usually conducted in the native language. Very little use of English takes place as teachers tend to focus mostly on language structures and translation. In her visits to English classes in Japan, Rosnani (2007) was taken aback to discover that English was learned entirely in the native language:

“When I visited an English class in Japan, I was advised to bring along an interpreter. That puzzled me initially but once I sat in the class, I understood why. The students were asked to read a passage written in English quietly to themselves. A short while later, they discussed the passage – in Japanese!”

Rosnani's (2007) account was recently corroborated by Humphries and Burns (2015), who examined Japanese teachers' use of CLT. They captured the following scenario of English language learning in Japan:

“Classes were primarily teacher led, highly structured, conducted in Japanese, and focused on recurring language structures. English language production was limited to repetition and written gap-filling exercises...they focused on simple grammatical patterns and word-level translations. [The teachers] avoided communicative activities, especially those challenging students to use problem-solving skills, and they fed answers orally to students who had not completed exercises. In addition, rather than asking students to listen for comprehension, they used the transcripts and translated the content for them. ...only [one] teacher...attempted listening and pair work, but he also avoided embarking on less structured, more creative activities.” (pp. 242-243)

Instead of using English to teach English, teachers feel more comfortable using L1 (Tarat, 2016), like the case of Indonesian teachers who mostly code-switch or resort completely to the native language due to students' low proficiency (Yulia, 2013). The consequence of this instructional choice is students' having a very limited exposure to practical English usage, as concisely explained by Rahmatuzzman (2018). In an observation of Bangladeshi teachers, he noted that they tend to “use their first language more than English, which obstructs exposure to the target language...and may suggest [that these teachers are] insufficiently proficient teachers” (p. 30). Likewise, the English curriculum in Vietnamese education expects secondary school teachers to teach using CLT, but teachers have little option but to revert to GTM activities to prepare students for traditional grammar tests. As a result of teachers' teaching to the test, students are unable to

use English in real-life situations. Additionally, teachers shy away from communication-based activities, and choose to confine their teaching to the textbook. These practices, needless to say, achieve little in the way of promoting students' communicative competency.

Similar discrepancies characterize the instructional practices of school teachers in Libya (Orafi & Borg, 2009) and Turkey (Hos & Kekec, 2014) where teachers' knowledge of CLT is not reflected in their classroom instruction. Although theoretically favouring the approach over regimented grammar instruction, practice-wise teachers still cling to the old way of translating vocabulary and grammar rules. Much time is engaged in the classroom to translate ideas and expressions from the target language to L1, and to conduct teacher-led discourses. Teachers might know and believe that grammar should be taught contextually as explicated in CLT, but remain tethered to the established routines of mechanical drills and grammar exercises propagated by GTM.

Why do these discrepancies between theory and practice exist? This leads us to the discussion of the next two critical issues that are closely intertwined with the issue of discord between theory and practice: teachers' own limited proficiency in English and inadequate pedagogical content knowledge.

English Language Proficiency

Proficiency is an extremely important aspect of teacher expertise (Canh & Renandya, 2017), and is perhaps the biggest obstacle to the implementation of CLT. As Richards (2015) correctly asserts, "language proficiency *does* affect how well a teacher can teach a second language" (p. 113, original emphasis). Indeed, the success of any language instruction depends, to a large extent, on teachers' command of the language. It should come as no surprise that teachers' low proficiency in English limits their ability to implement CLT (Fang & Garland, 2014), or any language learning activities for that matter, hence affecting the quality of their students' learning experiences (Farooq, 2015). Grappling with their own English proficiency is a longstanding battle among many EFL/ESL teachers

(Butler, 2004) who do not speak English as a first language. The requirement for native-like fluency often prevents CLT from being effectively used in ESL/EFL classrooms, as shown in the case of Iranian teachers (Sarab, Monfared, & Safarzadeh, 2016; Jafari, Shokrpour, & Guetterman, 2015; Razmjoo & Barabadi, 2015,) and their Korean counterparts (Han, 2016; Li, 1998). Although the Korean language teaching policy expects English to be used as much as possible in the classroom, teachers' lack of confidence and competency have prevented the communicative approach from being applied. As research on CLT shows, language proficiency of EFL/ESL teachers is an indispensable prerequisite for the implementation of the method in the classroom (Chowdhury & Mustaque, 2014; Ahmed, 2014; Ahmed, 2013; Al-Issa, 2005).

Since CLT techniques largely emphasize the skill of speaking in various authentic contexts, naturally it would demand that the teachers handling such activities be proficient English speakers. But this is often not the case. Ozsevik (2010) documented that 78% of the English teachers in his study doubted their own language capability, citing this deficiency as a major challenge in implementing CLT in the Turkish classroom. The teachers felt they had little opportunity to practice English in authentic contexts. They were also products of grammar-focused lessons. One reminisced how he had learned English as a subject in school: *“What we did all the time was solving grammar tests and having drills. There was little interaction, if any, and almost no speaking activities. The result was perfect grammar knowledge but no speaking abilities”* (Ozsevik, 2010, p. 86). A teacher participant in Sherwani and Kilic (2017) remarked, “a lot of the teachers who teach English do not know the language itself...CLT requires a fluent teacher.... Therefore, if the teachers are not fluent, problems result” (p. 198). A Japanese teacher in Humphries and Burns (2015) lamented that he “lacked confidence in English proficiency” (p. 244). The study was a documentation of an unsuccessful attempt to introduce CLT as a curriculum innovation into a Japanese school context.

Inprasit (2016) shared some insights into the psyche of Thai teachers who felt “no confidence to communicate in English” (p. 41). Many admitted to having difficulties in listening, speaking and pronunciation. Pronunciation is particularly

problematic because Thai speakers often confuse between the alveolar approximants of /l/ and /r/; they often drop the vowels between consonant clusters and pronounce vowels as nasalized sounds. The study reported some revealing admissions from teachers who struggled with their own proficiency. According to two of them (pp. 41-42),

I have a bit of a problem with speaking, I cannot think of the words or structures naturally. [Teacher 1]

I personally struggle in listening more than other skills. When I listen to foreigners, I have to watch their mouth which is a problem for conversation via phone. For speaking, I am a little nervous about grammatical accuracy. It's because we don't really use English all the time. [Teacher 2]

It is really not uncommon to find teachers who are non-native speakers expressing feelings of diffidence and discomfort due to deficiencies in the English language. Kasumi (2015), writing from the European context, reported that proficiency is a problem for both rural and urban teachers in Kosovo where three out of four teachers, on average, were unqualified to teach the language. In Huang (2016), some 58% of Taiwanese English teachers felt that “their communication proficiency was insufficient, and 67% claimed that they lacked knowledge related to appropriate language usage” (p. 193). As for Malaysian teachers, only about 52%, of a total population of 40,000, are graded C1 or proficient under the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) (The Sun Daily, 2016). The remaining 48% are graded at the B2 level, which is an upper intermediate level describing not fully proficient English speakers.

The literature has enough evidence of how non-native teachers of English struggle to teach the language due to their own lack of mastery, and this has caused a great amount of diffidence and discomfort with teaching communicatively. As a result, most of such teachers prefer to conduct “safer” classroom activities that do

not challenge their command of the language, such as silent reading of passages, grammar exercises, or pronunciation drills.

According to an interview participant in Huang's (2016) study, declining proficiency among non-native English teachers is a natural phenomenon. Decline or stagnation results after years of being in a school system that does not promote linguistic competency and mastery of the language. Such a system tends to be incapacitating. Teachers see no chances for meaningful practice, nor do they feel any need for improvement as the system they are in does not mandate high levels of proficiency. One Thai teacher, in Inprasit (2016), said, "*Teaching primary levels for so long made me feel like [my] English knowledge diminished*" (p.41). This is a revealing admission; if teachers themselves lack communicative competency, how can they be expected to teach English with this goal in mind? Cullen (1994) appropriately suggested that teachers need to "improve their own command of the language so that they can use it more fluently, and above all, more confidently in the classroom" (p. 164). Greater communicative competency is regarded as a precondition to the adoption of CLT among non-native English teachers. Thus far, research evidence has shown that teachers' lack of fluency and inadequate command of the language are two major obstacles to the implementation of the approach.

Pedagogical Content Knowledge

Teachers are tasked with improving students' learning outcomes, and to do this successfully, they must possess pedagogical content knowledge, commonly known as PCK. This body of knowledge refers to the specialized knowledge about teaching methods and techniques that teachers must have in order to create effective environments for student learning (OECD, n.d.; Olfos, Goldrine & Estrella, 2014). Liu (2013) makes a direct link between ELT and PCK, writing that "effective ESL teaching is...the ability to implement a stock of [instructional] strategies" (p. 129). PCK can sometimes be a complex and nebulous construct to capture, a view put forward by Magnusson, Krajcik, and Borko (1999) that can be used to explain the CLT situation. In English classrooms that aspire to implement CLT, teachers' PCK poses a major challenge. Two sub-issues are intricately tethered to this problem.

First, do ESL/EFL teachers understand what CLT is all about and what it requires? CLT itself is not one specific ELT method or technique; it is a broad approach that encompasses a variety of communication-based activities to develop learner proficiency. The ambiguity surrounding the nature of CLT creates a second pedagogical issue for ESL/EFL teachers, that is, “What exactly is the nature of the PCK for CLT? What methods or classroom activities would be considered to represent CLT?” According to reports as discussed below, teachers' actual practices were not consistent with the CLT principles advocated in the English Language curriculum. How teachers taught English deviated considerably from what communicative language teaching should be like. Researchers agree that the discrepancies were largely caused by ESL/EFL teachers' lack of understanding of and competency in CLT.

Lacking pedagogical content knowledge is frequently cited in previous studies as the major reason why CLT has met with little success. Rahman (2015) wrote, “teachers’ incompetence in CLT is a major shortfall of CLT in Bangladesh” (p.17), as was the case in Japan (Humphries & Burns, 2015), China (Zheng & Borg, 2014), Thailand (Baker, 2016), India (Jabeen, 2014), and Korea. According to Jeon (2009), a majority of Korean English teachers are not familiar with delivering their lessons using the communicative approach and have not had enough experience in CLT as the GTM remains the dominant method in ELT. Furthermore, the teachers themselves are products of GTM, and are not trained to teach speaking (Jeon, 2009; Hadikin, 2014). They have had some theoretical exposure to the principles that underpin CLT, but rarely any opportunities to observe actual CLT lessons (Jeon, 2009).

Many ESL/EFL teachers apparently do not have this much needed pedagogical knowledge. They are either unable to develop students’ English language skills or unwilling to use CLT due to their own lack of ability in the approach (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017). According to Zheng and Borg (2014), Chinese teachers felt they would need more pedagogical training if they were to implement the CLT curriculum to replace the traditional methods they had been using. In Saudi Arabia, teachers shied away from implementing CLT because they

did not fully comprehend the method. With Thai teachers, the challenge to equip them with pedagogical knowledge is doubled as they too do not have the right amount of proficiency in the English language (Baker, 2016). In Oman, the government adopted CLT in 1999 to replace the General Education System (GES), but the initiative barely met with any success as Omani teachers were ill-equipped with the knowledge and skills to implement CLT activities in the classroom (Al-Issa & Al-Bulushi, 2012).

These reports show how teachers' lack of pedagogical knowledge adversely affects the implementation of the intended CLT curriculum (Ahmad, 2014; Chowdhury & Mustaque, 2014; Ahmed, 2013; Al-Issa, 2005). Needless to say, it has also diminished the quality of classroom practices (Farooq, 2015) resulting in students' not achieving the desired level of communicative competency targeted by CLT. Baker (2016) correctly remarked that it is an uphill task to develop teachers' pedagogical proficiency along with their content knowledge and language ability. It is this instructional inadequacy that has been a major hindrance to effective CLT implementation, resulting in the failure of its intended curriculum to meet the stipulated objectives. As CLT is a technically demanding approach (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017), proper teacher training is key to its success in language instruction. Diallo (2014) observed that expert trainers in CLT are hard to come by; in Senegal, this scarcity accounted for the failure of CLT in its secondary schools. Given the situation, developing ESL/EFL teachers' pedagogical content knowledge is a high priority.

A PCK-related point worth discussing is the role of the teacher in a CLT classroom. About this, Larsen-Freeman (1986) wrote:

“The teacher facilitates communication in the classroom. In this role, one of his major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication. During the activities he acts as an adviser, answering students' questions and monitoring their performance. He might make note of their errors to be worked on at a later time during more accuracy-

based activities. At other times he might be a ‘co-communicator’ engaging in the communicative activity along with students.” (pp. 128-129)

How does a teacher play the role of co-communicator in the classroom? And how capable and how good are most non-native EFL/ESL teachers at this? Some features of CLT are nebulous to teachers, and it does not help that they lack pedagogical training in the approach. Many resort to using the old, didactic way of teaching English, i.e. teaching the language non-communicatively. Inadequate professional expertise explains the limited use of CLT methods in China (Yan, 2012), and Japanese teachers’ pedagogical uncertainty (Humphries & Burns, 2015). As CLT is a potentially demanding approach requiring strict adherence to its principles, inadequately trained teachers will not be able to use the approach to help students develop their communicative competence.

In Thailand where English is viewed as the language of development and globalization, there has been persistent dissatisfaction with students’ low level of proficiency. While CLT is expected to address this issue teachers have failed to deliver the results due to their own instructional incompetency (Baker & Jarunthawatchai, 2017). Similarly in Senegal, the scarcity of well-trained teachers is one of the key reasons behind the little success of CLT implementation in its secondary schools (Diallo, 2014). Ariatna (2016) notes that the major challenge of implementing CLT in Indonesia is teacher quality. It can be seen that the same issues of teacher quality and professional expertise affect CLT implementation in many parts of the world.

Cultural Appropriateness and Contextual Relevance

Is CLT a cultural imposition on ESL/EFL teachers and students? Do its principles and practices conflict with the beliefs, values and norms of certain non-Western cultures or contexts? Zhang, Li, and Wang (2013) argued that CLT is certainly not compatible with the Chinese culture and context. Using the role of the teacher in CLT as a point of contention, they illustrated how it differs in principle

to the Chinese conception of what and how teachers should teach. In the Chinese culture, teachers are regarded as the source of knowledge whose authority should not be challenged. Their primary role in education centers around "telling students moral standards, teaching knowledge, and answering questions" (p. 2). In conformity with this role, English teachers in China are expected to prepare ESL/EFL learning materials and activities that can best bring about Chinese students' understanding of life and moral standards; communicative competence as championed by CLT is *not* the main focus.

In ELT, contextually, the role of teaching knowledge means that teachers must explain grammar points and vocabulary explicitly. Chinese teachers would go to great lengths to give students "a meticulous analysis of meaning in all its minute detail" (p. 2) so as to guide them to the correct interpretation and usage of the language. In stark contrast, CLT does not propagate the explicit teaching of grammar and lexicon which is the norm among Chinese EFL/ESL teachers. It focuses instead on *process* rather than *content* (Ellis, 1996). Furthermore in CLT, as Brown (2001) pointed out, the role of the teacher is to guide and facilitate authentic communication exercises in the classroom. He/she is not expected to be "an all-knowing bestower of knowledge" (Brown, 2001, p. 43). But in the Chinese culture, it is shameful if a teacher is unable to correct mistakes or answer questions (Harvey, 1985). In this context, there appears to be a conflict between CLT principles and cultural expectations. Hence, as suggested by Ellis (1996), teachers will have to make some shifts in their value orientation and find points of congruence between teachers' practices of CLT and students' cultural expectations in order for CLT to be culturally appropriate

The views of Zhang et al. (2013) strike a familiar chord with an earlier observation by Tan (2005). She wrote, "the CA [Communicative Approach] is only efficacious if it is culturally appropriate" (p. 22). Tan explained why the relationship between CLT and the Asian/Chinese-Singaporean context is one of cultural disagreement. The Asian/Chinese perception of teaching as knowledge transmission, where children would listen carefully and the teacher would check their understanding, conflicts with the CLT principles of active communication and

meaning construction through authentic interaction with others. The Confucian value of filial piety, which characterizes most Oriental societies, reigns supreme over many other values and shapes the learning styles and behaviours of many Asian students. In cultures that subscribe to Buddhist-Confucian ethics, like Vietnam, Singapore, Hong Kong, Taiwan and Cambodia, students are taught to show deference to authority, and practice restraint and propriety. In these societies, teachers generally do not expect students to question, challenge and demand; yet CLT sees these behaviours as necessary communicative techniques to develop fluency, competency and meaningful language use.

In Cortazzi and Jin (1996), some 41 per cent of the Chinese students surveyed said shyness prevented them from asking questions in class; this feeling of restraint is endemic among Asian students. Thus, the communicative practices of CLT like authentic dialogues, role-playing, language games, public speaking and oral presentations are culturally unfamiliar to a large number of students in non-Western contexts, and may pose some psychological threat to them. Being "active" in the mindset of Chinese (or Asian) students does not necessarily entail speaking up in class and using the language verbally. Asian students in general, and Chinese students specifically, tend to participate by listening, thinking, asking questions in their minds, asking questions after class, and discussing with each other after class (Jin & Cortazzi, 1998). Furthermore, Asian students may not take to playing language games, a frequent activity in CLT classrooms, seriously, and may perceive it as entertainment rather than academic learning (Zhang et al., 2013; Anderson, 1993; Rao, 2002). Sripathy (1998) concluded that these English language activities are "practices and perceptions of learning that are situated within the lived experiences of white, middle-class families," (p. 272) that are culturally and contextually alien to many ESL/EFL classrooms. Thus, to apply CLT in the Asian cultural context of learning may also require changes in student behaviour (Ellis, 1996), in addition to shifts in teacher roles and practices.

The expected roles of students and teachers in CLT also pose some challenges in Japanese classrooms where *yakudoku* has been a long-standing tradition in ELT (Humphries & Burns, 2015). *Yakudoku* is a non-oral way of

teaching English similar to the GTM. It focuses mainly on translating English texts into Japanese for the purpose of understanding the texts in Japanese, rather than in English. Unlike the case in the GTM, grammar instruction is a secondary concern in *yakudoku*. Also, verbal language production is not a feature in *yakudoku* lessons. Gorsuch (1997) documented that the language of *yakudoku*-based instruction was “overwhelmingly Japanese,” (p. 23) despite the lessons being English lessons. She further wrote that “*Yakudoku* was found to resemble intensive reading classes with a strong focus on the written text. Oral /aural skills were not developed” (p. 32). Obviously the emphasis, practices and language learning goals of *yakudoku* run counter to those of CLT. But it is the mainstream ELT method in Japan; between 70% and 80% of teachers use it in their classes, and for many Japanese students, learning English is synonymous with the method. Being over a thousand years old and steeped in Japanese culture, history and tradition, it has defined and dominated language learning in Japan. It will be a monumental challenge for English teachers to replace it with CLT.

For Thai teachers, the issue is more about context rather than culture. Many do not see CLT as relevant to the Thai context. Inprasit (2016) explains this view at length, citing the words of two teacher participants in her study (p. 35):

“CLT focuses on communicative English in ... real [life] situation[s]...But Thai students cannot connect their knowledge [to the situations]...they are poor in vocabulary too, so they get confused. It causes them trouble speaking English. English is not our mother tongue. We learn English as a second language. We use English infrequently in daily life. Let’s [just] say, we don’t learn English naturally. We learn [it] as a language.” [T1]

“...We don’t use English in daily life. Truthfully, the students do not practice at home, they only practice in classes. Additionally, there are no foreign teachers in many schools. The students don’t have a chance to practice with

foreigners. Due to this, CLT is not effective for Thai students, in my opinion.” [T2]

Insights from these studies help us to understand how culture and context preclude English teachers’ use of CLT. Cultural realities are inherent in all learning contexts, and they are potential impediments to the adoption of communicative EFL/ESL activities. Thus, in selecting a suitable ESL/EFL method, it is essential to consider the method’s contextual relevance and possible clashes in culture. CLT might be an effective approach for developing communicative competence, but not considering the issues arising from context and culture may lead to its failure.

The Washback Effect

Assessment policies and practices can have favourable and unfavourable consequences on classroom teaching and learning. In the research literature, they are called positive and negative washback effects. Understanding these effects would help us understand what is (and has been) happening in ESL/EFL classrooms and why teachers teach the way they do, despite the offerings of CLT. Studies have found that the implementation of CLT has not been successful in many cases because of the discord between the curriculum and the examination system. In most instances, the exam system is traditional. It follows the GTM that requires didactic instruction that does not abide by the principles of CLT. As a result, CLT has not been translated into actual classroom teaching. According to recent reports (Raouf & Sultana, 2018), a significant number of learners (70%) rarely or never use English with their classmates or teachers to develop communicative competence, but spend much time in mastering grammar for examination purposes.

Although teachers might believe in the value of group work and pair work in developing communication skills, they feel that explicit grammar instruction and teaching to the test are very important as student performance is very much bound to traditional, examination-oriented systems (Zheng & Borg, 2014). In English language classrooms across China, instruction is driven by paper-and-pencil assessment, resulting in teachers rarely putting into practice the ideas of the new

communication-based curriculum (Fang & Garland, 2014). In Japan and Korea, teachers are pressured to use *yakudoku* or GTM, rather than CLT, due to centralized examination demands (Thompson & Yanagita, 2017). Rohlen (1983) demonstrated how the fiercely competitive university entrance system of Japan affected high school teachers' ELT pedagogy. One Japanese teacher was reported to have uttered the following words to Rohlen, revealing a belief and practice deeply entrenched in the discourse of examinations in Japan:

“I know I can’t speak English, and your presence in school embarrasses me, but I study the fine points of English grammar, and this is more helpful to my students. They can use it on the exams.” (p. 244)

From the above reaction, it can be inferred that Japanese teachers do not use CLT for at least two reasons. First, their lack of communicative competency forestalls efforts to implement speaking-oriented activities. Second, the country's high stakes examinations demand a mastery of grammar, so teachers see complete sense in teaching to the test and abandoning speaking activities that are generally seen as less important. Likewise in neighbouring Korea, teachers regard the traditional Grammar-Translation method as the best pedagogy to prepare students for major exams (Han, 2016). Lee (2014) concluded that South Korean teachers' actual practices are different from CLT activities due to the washback effect. Teachers see the practicality and usefulness of the GTM over CLT, as Korean tests and exams emphasize non-speaking skills and grammatical content. Communicative activities might be seen as irrelevant and time-wasting by students since they do not prepare them for the tests and exams. Jafari et al. (2015) also found that grammar-based examinations influenced the classroom practices of Iranian high school teachers, while a number of studies (Ahmed, 2016; Ahmad, 2014; Ahmed, 2013; Chowdhury & Mustaque, 2014; Das et al., 2014; Mitu, 2015) observed the same washback effects in secondary schools in Bangladesh.

In general, we can conclude that learning activities in EFL/ESL classrooms are predominantly exam-oriented where teachers reportedly teach to the test,

encourage rote learning and engage in exam predictions (Ibrahim & Ibrahim, 2017). These activities may prepare students well for test-taking, but will not cultivate the oral competencies that we desire to see in them. As the nonalignment increases between the curriculum and examination system, English language instruction becomes further removed from CLT (Yan & He, 2012).

Conclusion and Recommendations

How can these implementation issues be addressed? How may teachers' difficulties with CLT be solved? First it must be understood that much of the predicament with the approach, upon close analysis, actually stemmed from two major factors: teachers' own lack of ability in English and lack of pedagogical content knowledge. Only then can enhancement measures be designed and undertaken. Certainly, teachers need to upgrade and refine their grasp of English, and we suggest they do this by attending regular language proficiency workshops. Naturally, teaching confidence and instructional efficacy will come with good mastery of English. With the adequate level of proficiency, teachers can better correct students' language errors and act as facilitator and mediator in the CLT classroom.

In regard to CLT pedagogy, language improvement programmes for various levels of proficiency, like the one designed by the British Council for Senegalese teachers in 2009, appears to be a practical solution. In the British Council series of programmes, teachers' pedagogical and communicative competencies are developed through task-based activities, such as working on effective teacher talk, giving instructions, responding to students' queries, and using stories for teaching comprehension and communication. Implicitly embedded within these activities is knowledge on the six elements of language, i.e. grammar, lexis, pronunciation, skills, discourse and genre. Given the sensitivities of culture and context, the activities should be made culturally appropriate and contextually relevant. For example, in Asian contexts, both students and teachers may be trained on how to conduct communicative activities, like challenging ideas or assumptions, asking questions, and responding to queries, in a manner that conforms to the Buddhist-

Confucian ethical framework. Matching CLT with culture and context in this way promises greater success for the approach in the future.

An untested method for teaching CLT pedagogy to English teachers is lesson study, a Japanese model of teacher training that has been proven effective in developing teacher capacity. In this method, teachers work in teams (usually a triad) to design a lesson unit. They then observe the actual lesson together, reflect on its strengths and weaknesses, and suggest a subsequent plan of improvement. Using lesson study, English teachers get to test out various types of CLT instruction. They get to see in concrete forms what works and what does not in a communicative lesson. Since CLT is a technically demanding approach, the insights gained from lesson study sessions, in particular, will benefit pre-service teachers who are just learning the ropes. ELT experts, schools and teacher training institutions should seriously consider using lesson study to enhance English teachers' pedagogical competencies and reflective ability.

In terms of washback, how might teachers in any ESL/EFL country overcome the effects? To remove the effects of examinations and high stakes testing on teacher practices, the nature and system of assessment would have to go through a reform. More emphasis is to be given to the productive skills of speaking and writing, and in line with this emphasis, assessment should be authentic and contextually relevant. Learning assessment tasks should reflect or represent actual life situations requiring the use of English. A movement away from paper-and-pencil tests should be initiated. While it is a necessary evil, too much of traditional assessment will not help students develop communicative competence. Additionally, teachers need to learn how to assess students' language performance creatively, and not restrict themselves to regimented testing and mundane assessment exercises. Most importantly, educational systems cannot be governed by rigid, traditional examinations, and expect teachers to implement CLT and not teach to the test. Reform must take place.

In conclusion, the success of any ELT approach or method depends on teachers' ability to take it from theory to practice. Of course, this ability relies

immensely on their theoretical and procedural understanding of the approach. Therefore, training teachers to be pedagogically knowledgeable and competent, in addition to developing their command of the English language and equipping them with authentic and creative assessment strategies is expected to bridge the gap between CLT theory and instructional practices.

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Students and Lecturers' Perceptions toward the Plan of Nursing English Material Development Based on Needs Analysis*

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Abstract

This research was done to find out students and Lecturers' Perceptions toward the Plan of Nursing English Material Development Based on Needs Analysis. The result of this research will be put into background of the next research in developing Nursing English material. A research method applied in this research was survey research. It was held at Nursing Study Program of Sekolah Tinggi Ilmu Keperawatan (STIK) Famika, Indonesia, in academic year 2017/2018. The samples of this research were 50 nursing students and 14 lecturers of STIK Famika. The research data were collected through a questionnaire and interview. All the samples of this research were involved to respond the questionnaire, and there were only 10 students and 5 lecturers who involved in follow-up the interview. The results of this research revealed that the mean score of students' perceptions were 45.18 and lecturers' perceptions were 43.43. Based on the both mean scores and interview data, it showed that both students and lecturers had very high perceptions toward the Plan of Nursing English Material Development based on needs analysis.

Keywords: Nursing English Material, Perception, Needs analysis

Introduction

The success of learning English is actually also influenced by the success of the teaching and learning English research. While, there are still many challenges in conducting the findings of the teaching and learning English research, such as a cultural factor, paradigm, and the way of transferring knowledge between lecturers and students in a classroom (Una, 2017). In teaching English, besides having a good strategy, a lecturer should also have a suitable teaching material which is needed by students. A Material for teaching and learning is quite important to be noticed by a lecturer, because a material on a subject can be also a variable which can influence the interest of students in learning.

English is quite important for Indonesian nursing students. Although English is not the national language of Indonesia, but in some hospitals the language

is needed very much. It happens because the patients in some hospitals not only local people but also western people who cannot speak Indonesia well. That's why the nursing students should also have the English skills to support their job. (Yang, 2005) stated that medical language which is used by medical and nursing professional in doing their job, it is used to write medical records, medical terminology, to read, and to speak with others, to carry out nursing interventions, to take care of their patients, and others.

Furthermore, The ASEAN (Association of Southeast Asian Nations) has established the ASEAN Economic Community in 2015. So that is why, every ASEAN country should prepare their individual competence to compete in the ASEAN Economic Community. And now, we know that we have been in the ASEAN Economic Community area, so every single person should be able to compete in this area. Preparing individual competence should be done not only for economic students, but also to all students, including nursing students. (Gunadi, 2016) stated that the Asean Economic Community will reduce the cost of trade transaction to have a zone of economic integration, will facilitate the natural process for business, selling, and also will improve the micro, small and medium business competitiveness. So, there will be a free market, which will motivate every ASEAN society to have skills to compete in the market.

One of the preparations to compete in the area of the ASEAN Economic Community is English. That's why the English lecturer should be able to support their students to have the English skills. Ministry of High Education has struggled to increase the proficiency of lecturers, the struggle could be a workshop, educational training and also providing scholarships for the lecturers, including English lecturers to continue their study (Kwedlju, 2001). Related to the importance of having English skills, the nursing students should study English well. Besides, they should study by themselves, the English lecturer should also teach them well. The English lecturer should pay attention to the need of the students in learning and the language which are needed by them in the workplace. The English material which is needed by the students is considered as English for specific purposes, so it

should be done prior to the course design. The output of needs analysis is the input of a syllabus (Long, 2005).

The English subject which is implemented at Nursing Study Program of STIK Famika is included English for specific purposes (ESP). The English lecturer gets some problems related to the teaching and learning process at the study program. The lecturer does not find suitable nursing English material which accommodates the needs of students in learning. The syllabus which is used in teaching English subject is not based on needs analysis. That is why; the writers assume that the benefit of the material to students will not be maximal. It is including one of the reasons why this paper was done.

The writers also acknowledge that the syllabus prepared by the stakeholder of the campus for the English lecturer is good enough, but unfortunately the syllabus is changed almost in every semester. The changes of the syllabus as the result of evaluation from the stakeholder, but again the changes are not based on students' needs. It caused the English lecturer is quite difficult to teach the subject in every new semester. Besides that, the writers trust that teaching by using Nursing English material which is developed based on needs analysis will be better than the current material.

In this opportunity, we would like to say that, we have a plan to develop a Nursing English material based on needs analysis. We hope it will be a solution to solve the problem faced by the English lecturer at the Nursing Study Program of STIK Famika. But, before doing the paper, we would like to know the perceptions of students and lecturers about our plan to develop the learning material.

Literature Review

A. Concept of Perception

Perception is an internal sensational set which stimulates the cognitive processes in the brain at the function of the subconscious cognitive which interprets,

relates, detects, and searches information of internal cognitive in the mind (Wang, 2007). Perception and attitude are related each other. Perception is a process happens in our body to organize and interpret the sensation to have significant experience in the life (Lindsay & Norman, 1977). It also can be said that, a person is faced with stimulus or situation to interpret or organize the situation into something useful to someone else based on the experiences before (Pickens, 2015).

The writers conclude the definition of perception as an opinion of which is given by someone based on experiences, knowledge or how things look like.

B. Needs Analysis

Brown (1995) stated that needs analysis as the actions which involved in piling up information that will serve as the foundation for producing a course of study that will conform to the learning needs of a special group of learners. Related to language programs, the needs will be language related. The needs which are identified can be put forward in terms of the aims and the objectives of learning, which in turn, can serve as a foundation to develop teaching materials, test for the materials, teaching activities, and strategies for doing an evaluation. It also can be used to reevaluate the accuracy and the preciseness of the original needs assessment. That is the needs assessment in an integral part of a systematic curriculum building.

Needs analysis is defined as a process in developing a course book material. In this process the language and skills that the learners will utilize in their target professional or vocational work or in their study fields are identified and studied in recounting to the present state of knowledge of the learners, their perceptions of their needs and the virtual possibilities and constraints of the context of the teaching. The information which is got from this process will be used to decide and soften the methodology and content of the ESP course (Basturkmen, 2010).

Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated about the importance of teaching subject based on students' needs that the relevance of the English material to the learner's needs will improve their motivation to study and make better and faster in learning

the subject. From the above definitions, the writers conclude the definition of needs analysis is a process to get information in order to know clearly what the reader/ listener/ client wants related to a subject.

C. Research Question

Based on the explanation in the introduction and the importance of having Nursing English Material which is developed based on needs analysis. That is why; the writers were interested to know the students and lecturers' perceptions toward the Plan of Nursing English material development based on needs analysis. The research questions were formulated as follows:

1. What are the students' perceptions toward the Plan of Nursing English material Development based on needs analysis?
2. What are the lecturers' perceptions toward the Plan of Nursing English material development based on needs analysis?

Methodology

A. Research Design and Subject

This research attempted to describe the nursing students and the lecturers' perceptions toward the Plan of Nursing English Material Development based on Needs analysis. Therefore, the survey research design is considered as the suitable research design in this research. Usually, the goal of a survey research is to collect information about conditions, attitudes, or events at a time (Nunan, 1992). Questionnaires and interviews are used to get in-depth responses of the students and lecturers' perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

The subjects of this research were: (1) 50 Students. The students are the nursing students who were still studying at STIK Famika, Indonesia, in academic year 2017/2018. They were taken through *simple random sampling technique*, based on

the reason that the simple random sampling technique is trusted to be representative of giving population. (2) 14 Lecturers. They were the Lecturers of STIK Famika. They were involved in this research to know also their perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis. The writers used *total sampling technique* to involve the lecturers in this research.

The writers involved the same subject in survey study to interview section. But not all the subjects in survey study were involved. Only 10 students and 5 lecturers were involved in the interview section. The interview section was done after doing a survey study to find out in-depth information about students and lecturers' perceptions toward the Plan of Nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

B. Research Instrument and Technique of Data Collection

There were two instruments used in this research, namely questionnaire and interview. Both of the instruments were about students and lecturers' perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

In collecting the data, the writers used the technique as follows:

1. Perception questionnaire was given to students and lecturers to find out their perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.
2. The interview was done to the same subject of the perception questionnaire. In interview section, only 10 students and 5 lecturers were involved.

Results and Discussions

A. Results

1. The Students' Perceptions Toward The Plan of Nursing English Material Development Based on Needs analysis

This section provides the results of students' perceptions. The questionnaire was distributed to the students to find out their perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis. The results of students' perceptions can be seen in the table below:

Table 1. The students' perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

Questionnaire Items	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Undecided (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Disagree (%)	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
A nursing English material based on Needs analysis is able to be used and taught in Nursing Campus	0	0	2	36	62	4.60	0.535
A nursing English material based on Needs analysis is able to replace the English material which is not made	0	0	22	66	12	3.90	0.580

based on needs analysis							
Teaching nursing English material based on needs analysis will be more useful for nursing students	0	0	0	36	64	4.64	0.485
Nursing students will be motivated to study by using nursing English material based on needs analysis.	0	0	0	48	52	4.52	0.505
Nursing students can improve their English through studying by using nursing English material based	0	0	0	40	60	4.60	0.495

on needs analysis							
Teaching English by using nursing English material based on needs analysis will help students to improve their nursing skills.	0	0	2	42	56	4.54	0.542
Nursing students will be more active in studying English if the teaching material is based on needs analysis	0	0	2	38	60	4.58	0.538
Nursing students will be more interested in studying English if the teaching material is	0	0	4	46	50	4.46	0.579

based on needs analysis							
I agree to study English by using nursing English material based on needs analysis	0	0	0	40	60	4.60	0.495
Teaching nursing English based on needs analysis, means preparing students to be able to work in international hospital	0	0	0	26	74	4.74	0.443

Table 1 above shows that most of the students chose agree and strongly agree to respond the questionnaire which was given to them. Only few of them chose undecided and none of them chose disagree or strongly disagree as the response to the questionnaire. Furthermore; there are 5 questions in the questionnaire given that there are some students chose undecided. The 5 questions are question number 1 (A nursing English material based on Needs analysis is able to be used and taught in Nursing Campus). Question number 2 (A nursing English

material based on Needs analysis is able to replace the English material which is not made based on needs analysis). Question number 6 (Teaching English by using nursing English material based on needs analysis will help students to improve their nursing skills). Question number 7 (Nursing students will be more active in studying English if the teaching material is based on needs analysis). And question number 8 (Nursing students will be more interested in studying English if the teaching material is based on needs analysis). The important thing to be noticed that mostly the students chose agree and strongly agree. Only few of them chose undecided and none of them chose disagree or strongly disagree.

The data of the students' perceptions interval score was in high and very high category. There were 46 (92%) of the students had very high perception and 4 (8%) of the students had high perception, and none of the students had moderate, low or very low perception toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis. It also can be seen in the figure below:

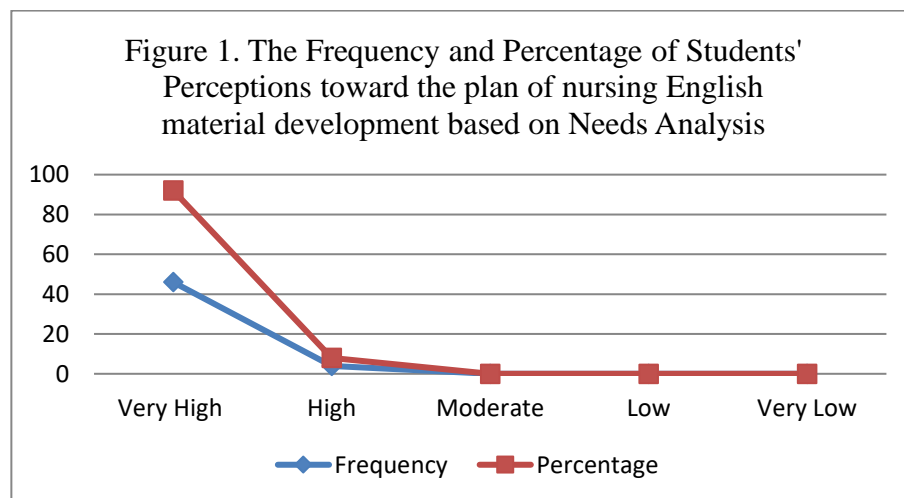


Table 2. The mean score and standard deviation of Students' perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

Variable	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
Students' Perceptions	45.18	2.988

Table 2 above shows that the mean score of students' perceptions were 45.18 with standard deviation was 2.988. It shows that the students had very high perception toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

2. The Lecturers' Perceptions Toward The Plan of Nursing English Material Development Based on Needs analysis

This section provides the results of lecturers' perceptions. The questionnaire was distributed to the lecturers to find out their perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis. The results of lecturers' perceptions can be seen in the table below:

Table 3. The lecturers' perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

Questionnaires Items	Strongly Disagree (%)	Disagree (%)	Undecided (%)	Agree (%)	Strongly Agree (%)	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
A nursing English material based on Needs analysis is able to be used and	0	0	0	14	86	4.86	0.363

taught in Nursing Campus							
A nursing English material based on Needs analysis is able to replace the English material which is not made based on needs analysis	0	14	7	71	7	3.71	0.825
Teaching nursing English material based on needs analysis will be more useful for nursing students	0	0	7	43	50	4.43	0.646
Nursing students will be motivated to study by using nursing English material based on needs analysis.	0	0	7	50	43	4.36	0.633
Nursing students can improve their English through studying by using nursing English	0	0	7	57	36	4.29	0.611

material based on needs analysis							
Teaching English by using nursing English material based on needs analysis will help students to improve their nursing skills.	0	7	0	57	36	4.21	0.802
Nursing students will be more active in studying English if the teaching material is based on needs analysis	0	0	14	50	36	4.21	0.699
Nursing students will be more interested in studying English if the teaching material is based on needs analysis	0	0	14	43	43	4.29	0.726
I agree my nursing students are able to study English by using nursing English	0	0	0	36	64	4.64	0.497

material based on needs analysis								
Teaching nursing English based on needs analysis, means preparing students to be able to work in international hospital	0	0	0	57	43	4.43	0.514	

Table 3 above shows that most of the lecturers chose agree and strongly agree to respond the questionnaire which was given to them. Only few of them chose undecided and disagree, none of them chose strongly disagree as the response to the questionnaire. Furthermore; only question number 2 (A nursing English material based on Needs analysis is able to replace the English material which is not made based on needs analysis). And question number 6 (Teaching English by using nursing English material based on needs analysis will help students to improve their nursing skills) that there are few lecturers chose disagree. The important thing to be noticed that mostly lecturers chose agree and strongly agree. Only few of them chose undecided and disagree, none of them chose strongly disagree.

The data of the lecturers' perceptions interval score was also in high and very high category. There were 10 (71%) of the lecturers had very high perception and 4 (29%) of the lecturers had high perception, and none of the lecturers had moderate, low or very low perception toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis. It also can be seen in the figure below:

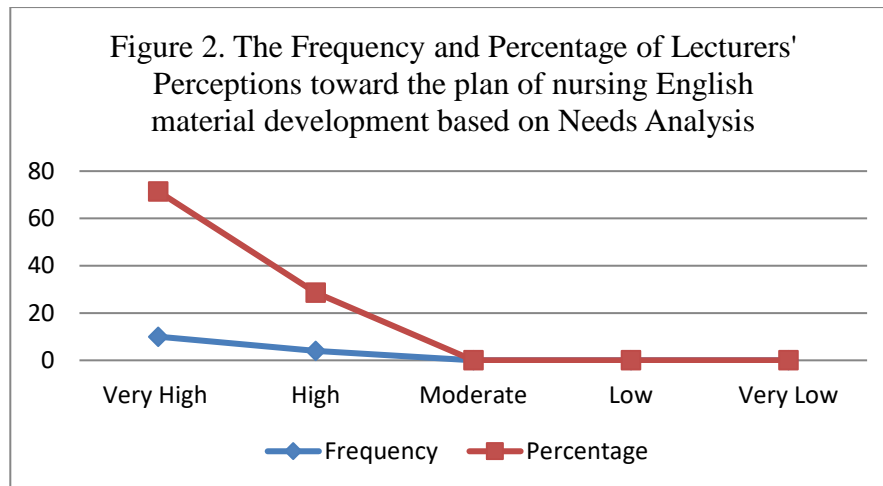


Table 4. The mean score and standard deviation of Lecturers' perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

Variable	Mean Score	Standard Deviation
Lecturers' Perceptions	43.43	2.980

Table 4 above shows that the mean score of lecturers' perceptions was 43.43 with standard deviation was 2.980. It shows that the lecturers had very high perception toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

3. The Results of Interview

The results of the interview show that the students agree with the plan to develop nursing English material based on needs analysis. The same opinion given by the lecturers that they also agree with the plan. It means that both students and lecturers agree with the plan toward the nursing English material development based on needs analysis. The results of the interview are shown as follows:

“From my point of view, I agree with the plan to teach nursing students with nursing English material based on needs analysis. The students, who will work in hospital, will need English skills, and the skills can be also gotten through studying by English material which is done based on needs analysis” (student a).

“In my opinion, I agree very much with the plan to teach by using nursing English material based on needs analysis. Nursing students should accustom their selves to study nursing English skills which are based on needs analysis. The nursing students need English to work in international hospitals. To have an appropriate skill with what they need, they have to study from needs analysis material. It means that all the material which is taught to nursing students should be based on needs analysis, so the students will be easier to understand the material” (student b).

“I agree with the plan to develop nursing English material based on needs analysis, because the English skills are important for nursing students. Moreover, for students, who will work in international hospitals. And as a nurse, I have to have English well, so I can handle if there will be a foreign patient in our workplace” (student c).

“I agree very much, because the material is needed by nursing students. In nursing area, English is used in many aspects, so the students need English to implement their knowledge in daily activity at workplace and many more in nursing area which need English skills” (lecturer a).

“Yes, I agree, because from what I see about the English lesson material in this campus. The material is too general. The material is the English material development from senior high school, and the material is not based on students’ needs” (lecturer b).

“I think it is a good idea to develop a Nursing English material based on needs analysis. It can be one of the preparations to face globalization area, where we know that there will be opportunities for foreign nurses to work in Indonesian hospitals. It means that a nurse will speak not only using Indonesian language, but also English language in Indonesian hospitals. So, develop a material which is based on needs analysis is needed very much” (lecturer c).

The results of the interview also show that students will be interested in studying English if the teaching material is based on needs analysis. It is also supported by the lecturers that nursing students will be interested to join English lesson if the material used in teaching is based on needs analysis. The more explanations of the students and lecturers about their interest to study nursing English material based on needs analysis are as follows:

“Yes of course, the students will be more interested in studying English later. We are nursing students; we will need very much nursing English skills, the nursing English material will be more interested to be studied if the material is based on needs analysis” (student d).

“In my opinion, yes, the students will be very interested in studying nursing English material which developed based on needs analysis” (student e).

Yes, the students will be more interested in joining an English class if the teaching materials used are based on needs analysis” (student f).

“In my view, teaching material which is based on needs analysis is good enough, but the more important thing is the method to teach the material. Although the material is good, but the method used in teaching is not good, it will make the students uninterested in studying. So the combination of good material and method are very important in teaching” (lecturer b).

“The students will be interested in learning the nursing English material based on needs analysis. Moreover the material is started from the small things related to nursing tools. So, the nursing English material, should contain the introduction of small things, then followed by bigger things. So that, the students will know all many things in English related to nursing tools” (lecturer d).

“The students will be interested because this is a new material for them. They will have desire to know the material. The material now is not based on needs analysis so, if the nursing English material based on needs analysis given to them, they will be more interested in studying the subject” (lecturer e).

The interviews data above show that both students and lecturers agree or give positive opinions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis. It means that the plan to develop nursing English material based on needs analysis is supported by the students and lecturers.

B. Discussions

The analysis data shows that mostly students gave positive responses to the questions which were given to them by choosing agree and strongly agree. Only few of them chose undecided and none of them chose disagree or strongly disagree as the response to the questionnaire. Furthermore; the mean score of the students' perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis was 45.18 and the standard deviation was 2.988. It shows that students had very high perception toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

The analysis also shows that most of the lecturers chose agree and strongly agree to respond the questionnaire given to them. Only few of them chose undecided and disagree, none of them chose strongly disagree as the response to the questionnaire. Besides that, the mean score of the lecturers' perceptions toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis was 43.43 and the standard deviation was 2.980. It shows that the lecturers had very high perception toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

The data from the interview is consistent with the data from the questionnaire. From the data of interview, we know that students and lecturers agree or give a positive response toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

Conclusion

Based on the results and discussions above, it can be concluded that the perceptions of students and lecturers toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis is positive. It is proved by the mean score of students' perceptions was 45.18 with standard deviation was 2.988 and the lecturers' perceptions was 43.43 with standard deviation was 2.980 which show that both students and lecturers had very high perception toward the plan of nursing English material development based on needs analysis.

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Voices of English Teachers on Professional Development

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Abstract

The study aims to listen to the English teacher's voices on professional development and how it affects their teaching practices. Specifically, it endeavored to answer questions on English teachers' perceptions on professional development, factors influencing these teachers' perceptions on effective professional development, and the challenges or difficulties experienced by these teachers in relation to teachers' professional development. It utilized phenomenological design to explore the participants' lived experiences in an attempt to enrich that experience by drawing out its meaning. Five themes emerged: (a) haunted by perfect English proficiency; (b) valuing newly qualified teachers; (c) isolated and stagnant teacher

culture; (d) tension between professional development goals and classroom reality; and (e) lack of support from policymakers, the Department of Education, and school administrators. This study may contribute to the body of research about the provision and success of professional development in the Philippine context. The analysis in this study provides insight into the changes made in these English teachers' practice through professional development experience over time by exploring themes that recurred across all the individual cases.

Keywords: professional development, experiences, insights, challenges, tensions,

1. INTRODUCTION

Educators of today face many challenges within the education profession. They have been asked to educate every child to the best of his/her ability, maintain high academic standards for every student, understand and perform skillful teaching, and realize the accountability implications for their teaching. These requests tend to overwhelm even the most veteran educators. In a time when classroom has become so diverse that it typically is continually changing, teachers often bear the sole responsibility of educating the masses. If society and policymakers continue on this course, teachers will need to be equipped with even more tools to educate the ever growing diverse classes of learners truly. These beneficial tools of teacher knowledge can only be acquired through intensive, ongoing professional development. For teachers to receive the greatest rewards from professional development, they must first realize the importance of professional development.

Professional development for English teachers is believed to equip them with the necessary knowledge and skills to implement the changes as intended by the reform introduced. Although teachers are believed to have gained many benefits from their participation in professional development programs as that highlighted in the literature; several issues regarding the effectiveness of such programs are also raised. One of the most concerning issues highlighted is the negative perceptions among teachers who viewed professional development as “something that they

must endure and get out of the way” (Guskey, 2000, p. 15). A further investigation of this issue identifies several factors that contributed to such negative views.

The teachers’ understanding of the idea of professional development very much influenced their attitudes towards having to participate in one. Traditionally, teachers’ professional development has been understood as “a series of unrelated short-term workshops and presentations with little follow-up or guidance for implementation” (Guskey, 2000). This is normally done by having outside experts conduct a training session or series of training sessions for teachers outside of the school environment.

However, a large number of resources and time have been invested in developing and managing professional development for teachers. Hence, it is important that the effectiveness of professional development experienced by teachers and its impact on the quality of teaching practice are continuously researched. It is expected that the financial resource spent on providing teachers with the needed professional development will help to achieve its goals of providing its citizen with the quality education.

The decision to research on the teachers’ perceptions of the impact professional development on teaching practice was made to also seek the rationale for having teachers participate in numerous professional development programs. This research study is also designed to identify some of the best practices in the field to maximize the benefit that teachers gained from their professional development experience.

This research study is not just aiming at providing justification for the number of resources spent on English teachers’ professional development and the benefit received by the teachers. The decision to research on the teachers’ perceptions of the impact of professional development on teaching practice was made to also seek the rationale for having teachers participate in numerous professional development programs. This research study is also designed to identify

some of the best practices in the field to maximize the benefit that teachers gained from their professional development experience.

2. Related Literature

Changes in the government policies, particularly those related to the educational system have a tremendous impact on the teaching profession and the professional development of the teachers (Cardno, 2005; Fullan & Mascal, 2000). Day and Smethem (2009) argue that most governments believe that its intervention in the educational system is necessary to ensure the nations' economic competitiveness. Hence, standards-based reforms are introduced to raise the standard of education received by the children; however, government interventions in the forms of education reforms are argued to have taken away teachers' autonomy in their practice (Day, 2002).

Key authors suggest that teachers' professional development is central to the successful implementation of any education reforms (Desimone, 2009; Desimone et al., 2002; Fishman, Marx, Best, & Tal, 2003; Guskey, 2002). This claim is supported by Fullan and Mascal (2002) who restate that "professional development is the key to the success of any reform initiative, provided that it is linked to ongoing learning of individuals and to school improvement and to related policy and program implementation" (p.33). In the context of the American educational system, Birman, Desimone and Garet (2000) highlight that "professional development plays a key role in addressing the gap between teacher and standards-based reform" (p. 28).

Fullan (2001b) contends that these one-shot workshops are ineffective as the topics are selected by the people in charge of the workshop instead of the teachers. Moreover, this narrow perspective of professional development for teachers is also criticized as the outside experts may disregard teachers' opinion and classroom experience. Hargreaves and Fink (2006) describe this as "the perceived superiority of the hard research knowledge of the experts to the soft practice wisdom of the teachers" (as cited in Garrett & Bowles, 2007, p. 29).

Fishman et al. (2003) claim that continuous research on teachers' professional development will help to create an empirical knowledge base that links various forms of professional development to effective teacher learning. However, having the knowledge of effective forms of teachers' professional development alone is insufficient to ensure successful professional development for teachers. Buczynski and Hansen (2010) argue that for any professional development to be effective, teachers must practice their professional experiences.

Yuwono, G.I., and Harbon, L. (2010) explored the issues of professionalism and professional development among English teachers in Indonesia. The paper was based on some of the findings of a fieldwork conducted in 2007, in which 46 English teachers were interviewed. The aim of the study was to investigate the nature of professionalism as perceived by Indonesian EFL teachers. Findings suggest that English teacher professionalism in Indonesia is unique which is different from what is constructed by common literature on teacher professionalism, and could be elaborated in terms of five areas and these are: motives for entering the profession, teaching rewards, the wider society's views about teaching profession, English teachers' career progression, and teachers' perceptions on the meaning of professional EFL teachers.

Morewood, Ankrum and Bean (2010) lend their support to this statement saying that this happens as "professional development may be perceived differently by individual teachers (p. 202). Hence, Powell, Terrell, Furey, and Scott-Evans (2003) state that the teachers' experiences and perceptions of the impact of their professional development amount to an important part of an evaluative process of their continuing professional development.

The quality of a child's education depends largely on the quality of the teacher. Professional development can contribute to the effectiveness of teachers by providing continuous individual and collective improvement that is necessary to address the heightened expectations for improving student learning adequately. However, not all professional development is equally effective in improving teacher quality. Researchers confirmed what teachers already know, which is that teachers

in the United States are not participating in well-designed professional development opportunities (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009).

3. Method

3.1 Design

The phenomenological inquiry is the most appropriate to address the meanings and perspectives of this study. The primary concern of phenomenological analysis is to understand “how every day, the inter-subjective world is constituted” (Schwandt, 2000 as cited in Bu & Pares, 2018) from the participants’ perspective.

According to Holloway (2005), phenomenology is an inductive descriptive method which aims to describe participants’ lived experiences (phenomena) in an attempt to enrich the lived experience by drawing out its meaning. This study examined the particular unique experiences of individual teachers in a given situation, thus exploring not what is reality but what is preconceived to be. It further concerned with meaning and the way in which the meaning arises from experience.

3.2 Setting and Sampling

The study was conducted among five veteran teachers in Mindanao Philippines. They were selected based on inclusion criteria such as the number of years teaching, exposure to professional development trainings and programs, and their willingness to be part of this study.

3.3 Instrument

The present study involved face to face interviews among the five participants. Permission and willingness to participate were solicited from the participants personally before setting of the schedule for an appointment for a one-on-one interview based on their availability. All of them were interviewed in locations of their choice and lasted for about 45 minutes to one hour to elicit natural responses to the questions.

The in-depth interviews were conducted in the English language since the respondents are proficient in English, but they have the freedom to answer the questions in other languages like Filipino or other languages which they are comfortable with to ensure the richness of data.

3.4 Procedures

Before the conduct of the study, permission was sought from the personally from the participants of the study. Before the conduct of the interview, the researcher oriented the participant about the study and explained the necessity of the informed consent and their rights as respondent of the study. The researcher assured the respondents of the confidentiality of their responses. Each interview lasted from 45 minutes to one hour depending on the responses of the participant. All the interviews were tape recorded. However, if the respondent is not comfortable, notes were taken by the researcher.

Once saturation of information was achieved in accordance to the objectives of the study, the researcher started to transcribe the recorded interviews or notes if the answers were in the vernacular than translate them through contextualization to English. Themes were categorized depending on the objectives of the study. After the analysis of the transcription, the researcher went back to the respondents to have them validate the transcription in order to be sure that the data the researcher has is really what the respondents mean.

3.5 Ethical Consideration

Pseudonyms were used in respect to the participants who were selected for the purpose of this study. It was stipulated that any information obtained from the participants would remain confidential between the two parties. The purpose of this is to ensure that anonymity and confidentiality will be strictly adhered to.

During the time of data collection, the analysis was safeguarded as data will be locked up in the researcher's computer by using data protection passwords. The purpose of this is to make sure that nobody has access to it.

Consent forms were given to the participants of the interviews. They were encouraged to have the interview transcripts checked and verified before it is used as a data in this research study. The identities of the participants were not revealed in this study. Instead, a special code was assigned to each of them to protect their true identity.

3.6 Data Analysis

The researcher initially looked into a particular point of view through the realization of subject consciousness as perceived in the objects, to understand human phenomena as lived and experienced, which Giorgi (1985) pointed out as the significant characteristics of a phenomenological psychological method. Interviews were the primary data source for this personal perspective.

It is guided by Lichtman (2012), three C's - coding, categorizing, and conceptualizing where in-depth interviews revealed the experiences of these teachers on professional development. The following steps were undertaken: First, the researcher transcribed the recorded responses of the participants of the study by taking note not only of their verbal but also non-verbal actions and expressions. Second, all the written transcriptions were segmented and coded into statements that capture and reflect the broad insights of the participants on professional development. Third, the researcher categorized insightful statements into core concepts or the core themes of their insights through the process of reading and rereading until a conceptual structure emerges from the data; Fourth, there was the description and explanation of the thematic insights, and also quote some of the relevant verbatim statements of the respondents from the interview transcripts; and lastly, the researcher culled out the eidetic insights which describe the meaning that the participants ascribed to in their current situations.

4. Results and Discussions

Concern about their own proficiency never seemed to end for these experienced teachers despite the long list of professional courses they had taken. They perceived that they possessed a low level of teaching competency. Moreover, their negative perceptions of how it is needed to have perfect English presentations also contributed to their feeling of distress about their English competency and prevented them from acknowledging their strength as teachers. This also made it difficult for them to focus on extending their teaching skills.

These experienced English teachers reported that they felt uneasy when they had to use English in the presence of other teachers such as when conducting demo-class because they perceived they had a low level of English proficiency and they felt inadequate. They assumed that the observing teachers would judge how well they speak in English. This low level of self-confidence in their English ability was also evident when they reflected on professional development courses which required teachers to speak in English.

“I was reluctant to speak in English during professional development courses because of my low-level ability in speaking in English. I might give an impression to other teachers that I am an underperforming English teacher.” (Teacher Jo)

Experienced English teachers were afraid that they did not fit the image of senior teachers expected by their pupils and society. Teachers who could communicate well in English seemed to be regarded as teachers who could teach well by these teachers. Speaking skills were especially easily observable and comparable.

“It is easy to find out who speaks English well by seeing them talking with other teachers.” (Teacher Julie)

Comparing their English skills with those of other teachers seemed to have a profoundly negative influence on experienced teachers' self-confidence. Participating teachers' concern about their English pronunciation also showed how important observable English ability was among teachers.

"I do not like my Bisaya-style English pronunciation" and Julie said,
"Experienced English teachers need to improve their English pronunciation first to give a good first impression to pupils."
(Teacher Gina)

It was hard for these English teachers to resist comparing themselves to other teachers because there were several teachers in one school on average. These teachers seemed to regard other colleagues as threats rather than collaborators. The worries about their own English skills and continuous comparison with the speaking skills of other teachers overwhelmed these experienced teachers and contributed to their low sense of self-efficacy in English. Teacher Julie admitted that teachers even considered English speakers who had no teaching background as their competitors in teaching. This showed an excessive focus on English ability among experienced teachers. Therefore, the language proficiency was regarded as almost insurmountable regardless of the professional development activities they had undertaken.

Teacher Gina was a notable exception. She reported that for many years she had focused on improving her English proficiency thinking that this would have helped her teaching. However, her diverse professional development experiences revealed that achieving perfect proficiency in English was impossible and this need not be a significant factor in teaching her pupils. Although she took as much professional development as she could and was even called "the queen of taking professional development," Teacher Gina reflected that the impact of professional development on improving her English ability was insignificant.

“It seems that I followed a false dream to be a proficient English-speaking teacher by taking PD. Now I realize that it is better to focus on how to teach to my pupils, not myself.” (Teacher Gina)

Teacher Gina was able to change her focus from her own proficiency to what and how to teach her pupils. Although Teacher Gina’s transformation can be attributed to her high level of self-confidence and high level of English ability, which was different from other participating teachers, focusing on teaching seemed impossible for all the participants unless they could first overcome concerns about their proficiency in English. These teachers in this study were excessively concerned about acquiring perfect English and their failure to achieve this undermined their self-confidence. This over-emphasis on their own English language ability led them to overlook their skills as professional teachers.

During the interviews, it was noticeable that the participating teachers compared themselves to newly qualified teachers and perceived that they were less adept than newly qualified teachers at using English and adopting new teaching methods such as technology in the classroom. Undermining their own long teaching experience further lowered their self-confidence and inhibited them from taking a leading role among teachers in their schools.

Observing newly qualified teachers' use of the English language during demo-classes and professional development courses, these experienced teachers perceived their own English skills as limited in comparison. Teacher Pilar mentioned that she envied young teachers’ bravery in organizing activities. Regarding professional development courses, Teacher Jo reported that she did not feel comfortable attending the same professional development as newly qualified teachers because of their high English proficiency.

“They, the newly qualified teachers could respond to the instructor right away. But it took time for me to think about words and grammar.” (Teacher Pilar)

Aside from admiring their English ability, the participating experienced teachers seemed to value the fresh ideas of novice teachers. These teachers' teaching methods and technology were regarded as being abreast of new trends in teaching. Their skilful use of Information and Communications Technology (ICT) impressed Teacher Isabel.

"I would like to learn their skills of using computer programs for teaching, such skills as editing." (Teacher Isabel)

Teachers Julie and Pilar reported that they were impressed by new and seemingly innovative classroom activities and teaching methods of newly qualified teachers. Their judgments made them reluctant to conduct demo-class since their way of teaching did not have anything new to offer. In their perception, conducting demo-class meant incorporating new methods or approaches into their existing teaching practices even though those new methods or approaches were not part of their normal practice.

Therefore, preparing for demo-class was regarded as a burden and Julie described demo-class as an obligatory professional development activity that had to be done annually. Furthermore, these participating teachers were not working in an environment in which their experience was valued. They commonly reported that their extensive teaching experience helped them develop skills in student discipline and counseling.

"I did not feel so inferior to newly qualified teachers when I returned to my class after attending professional development sessions." (Teacher Pilar)

She was confident in her skills in student discipline and counseling, which were not specific to teaching. However, in-school professional development activities such as demo-class and peer observation combined with speaking-focused initiatives put experienced teachers in situations where their English ability received more attention than teaching itself. Therefore, experienced teachers' skills in

managing students, accumulated over many years of teaching, were overlooked. The extensive experience of these experienced teachers seemed to impede their openness. Julie's concern was that others might have thought that she did not teach well in spite of her professional experience.

"I want others to keep their expectation about my teaching as an experienced teacher by not showing my teaching practice." (Teacher Julie)

Unlike the other participating teachers, Teacher Gina reported that she invited new and less-experienced teachers to her class to observe and discuss her teaching practice. They discussed issues such in teaching and how to manage classroom issues on the spot, for example dealing with a pupil who was sleeping in the classroom. These participating teachers generally refused to take a leading role as they did not think that they deserved to be leaders among teachers in their schools.

Despite Gina's reported pride in taking a leading role voluntarily through creating a study group among colleagues and inviting other colleagues to her classroom, the limited leadership roles assigned to experienced teachers also showed disregard for their experience.

Teachers Jo and Isabel reported that they had not thought that becoming the head teacher of their department was an important role among teachers. They perceived this role as managerial rather than leading professional learning among teachers. These experienced teachers except Gina tended to be unwilling to take a leading role.

The participating teachers this study thought that they were falling behind the current teaching trends and, despite their long experience, their self-confidence in using English continued to drop as a result of comparisons with less-experienced teachers. Newly qualified teachers' use of ICT also appeared to undermine senior teachers' extensive teaching experience. This made them feel vulnerable and that

they had lost ground as professionals. They questioned their professional expertise and became reluctant to promote their skills or take a leading role. Therefore, they perceived that new teachers were more valued than experienced teachers.

Teachers' interviews also revealed a unique teacher culture in public elementary schools. Although participating teachers were from different schools, a stagnant teacher culture pervaded all their schools. This culture seemed distinguished by individualism rather than collaboration in teaching. There was also a prevalent resistance against accepting new methods or practices, as experienced and senior teachers felt more confident about maintaining their existing practice. Firstly, experienced and senior teachers assumed that teaching was an individual and private matter. Keeping their classroom door shut was a normal practice in schools. Therefore, there was little communication among teachers. When asked in the interview about what they shared with other teachers, they only came up with sharing teaching materials or handouts for classes. Teachers reported that the main purpose of staff meetings was administration rather than discussing classroom teaching. This culture did not allow for sharing their classroom experiences.

"I used to ask senior teachers how they dealt with pupils or how they planned their classroom teaching when I was in my early years of teaching. Now I do not do that as I have some years of teaching experience."(Teacher Jo)

It seems that Jo thought asking others might not be seen as professional behavior. Moreover, these participants seemed to equate sharing to evaluation. This is one reason why they were reluctant to conduct demo-class. Teachers do not share any judgments of others' teaching materials because

"It becomes evaluation if I say the teaching materials were good or bad. If I share teaching materials with colleagues, how they use them is up to the individual." (Teacher Julie)

Therefore, there was no communication related to teaching practice among teachers. Teachers did not talk about their teaching practice voluntarily because they did not want to be evaluated. They also did not ask about others' teaching practice since they did not think that they deserved to evaluate others. For participating teachers, it was difficult to escape from the firmly established isolation of their teacher culture. They reported that their attempts to be collegial had been criticized.

"When I suggested to one of my colleagues that we should observe each other's teaching regularly, she refused and said to me that I must be proud of my teaching to think of opening my classroom door to others. If that had happened, my teaching might be different now."

(Teacher Julie)

Efforts to bring about changes were constrained by the rigid culture and the resulting professional isolation led teachers' concerns about the opinions of other teachers in the school to become magnified. Therefore when Teacher Isabel incorporated some professional development learning at an individual level, she did not consider asking other teachers to work with her.

"First of all, it was hard to find the same-minded colleague. Moreover, it would be hard to reflect the content of the new project in the exam when not all the teachers who teach the same grade agreed to participate." (Teacher Isabel)

When these teachers were asked how they viewed the influence of professional development on their teaching practice, they welcomed the idea but simultaneously doubted whether other teachers would agree to the idea. As new innovations could not penetrate into the established teacher culture, teachers became more accustomed to the existing culture. This teacher culture did not encourage teachers to be active or dynamic in seeking learning opportunities to improve teaching practice. Rather, they accepted the status quo.

In this culture, it was difficult to introduce or implement new professional development activities. Some teachers view professional development activities negatively. They avoided participating in demo-class. Teacher Jo reported that she did not want to conduct demo-class as she did not like to reveal her teaching practice. In the case of peer evaluation, Teacher Julie observed that teachers only did the minimum that they were required to do such as filling out an evaluation form. Discussion sessions after demo-class or peer observation did not result in professional discussions about teaching practice because experienced teachers embedded in this culture were worried that discussion meant evaluation and invasion of teachers' privacy. They were afraid of giving honest comments since these may have hurt others' feelings so they avoided talking about others' teaching practice.

"Invited teachers commented that my demo-class was great or that it must have been difficult to prepare this class, then nothing further than that." (Teacher Julie)

Therefore, Julie reported that she did not expect genuine critique from post-discussion sessions. In such an environment it was difficult for professional development to bring about substantial learning to teachers and ultimately affect teaching practice positively. The isolated and stagnant teacher culture was evident and prejudiced teachers' attitudes towards professional development. Teachers had a conception of sharing that was limited to sharing materials. Other than that, they rarely shared teaching practices because they viewed sharing as evaluation rather than learning for improvement. Therefore discussion and reflection could not proceed to a deeper level.

The participants constantly reiterated that there was a gap between professional development content and what they were teaching, and this discrepancy made these teachers confused about goal-setting. The participating teachers tended to set their goals in compliance with the demands of classroom teaching and examinations and did not consider the professional development goals to be achievable.

Professional development is designed to support teachers to achieve goals of the national curriculum. Documents shared by the participating teachers showed that the current professional development focused on enhancing teachers' efficiency in the classroom setting. On the other hand, because of high-stakes examinations, the main focus of classroom teaching was on preparing pupils for written tests. Therefore, preparations for written tests are needed.

A tension between these two different goals made these teachers confused about how to align their teaching practice. These participating teachers focused on the goal of classroom teaching, which was preparing pupils for examinations. As teachers grounded in the classroom, their immediate focus was on their pupils' needs. Moreover, these teachers found it hard to ignore pupils' demand for exam preparation. Teachers were also faced with pupils' and parents' negative reactions against any new ways of teaching drawn from professional development.

"Parents of pupils do not seem to like it if a teacher has a unique way of teaching." (Teacher Pilar)

Therefore, professional development learning which could not bring immediate results was regarded as ineffective. Teacher Jo reported that she returned to her existing practice after a few attempts of learning from professional development. Gina's attempt to incorporate professional development learning was confined to an after-school class because she did not need to prepare those pupils for an examination.

It was not easy to balance the ideal and reality even for these experienced teachers. Pilar noted how difficult she found it to apply professional development learning in her classroom, when this learning seemed to be different from what she required for her classroom teaching. Even Julie cynically mentioned that professional development was no use in terms of improving teaching practice. These teachers struggled to find a link between professional development learning and their teaching practice. These teachers perceived that the importance of professional development was in participation rather than in learning and so it did

not matter whether professional development goals were achieved or not. The participating teachers took professional development to expose themselves to current trends in teaching and to remind them of the importance of being up-to-date as teachers rather than to achieve substantial learning. They took professional development as the system required.

The different goals suggested by professional development and real classroom teaching made these teachers confused about setting goals for teaching. It led these teachers to doubt the value of taking professional development and look at professional development goals as unrealistic.

This study showed that these teachers felt the lack of support from policy and schools in matters relating to their professional development experience and learning. Three issues regarding policy support were: (a) lack of any assessment of teachers' professional development needs, (b) top-down professional development that treated teachers as passive participants, and (c) limited leadership roles for teachers. Regarding school support, these teachers either perceived that there was none or they perceived the bureaucracy surrounding school support as a burden. It did not seem that teachers' needs were considered when designing professional development. Despite the Department of Education's efforts to meet teachers' needs, lack of consultation with teachers led to gaps between professional development content and support for classroom teaching. Some participating teachers insisted that a thorough needs analysis was necessary. Pilar reported that what policy described as "customized professional development" was far from what that term suggests because the individual teaching context was ignored.

Another effort of DepEd was to offer professional development courses in schools near where teachers work to minimize the constraint of distance. However, as only a few professional development courses were available, similar content was repeated every year, and there was no time to take professional development because of workload, few benefits arose from this proximity.

“The PD content offered was the same as last year, so I did not take it this year. I hope that the PD course next year has different content.” (Teacher Jo)

Jo also mentioned that she had not been asked about her professional development needs despite attending professional development courses at nearby schools. Teachers’ interviews also revealed that DepEd seemed to regard teachers as passive participants to be trained. According to these teachers, DepEd initiated new educational policies without thorough consideration of the teachers’ requirements.

“As the lowest position, what can we teachers do? I sometimes feel embarrassed in front of pupils because of the changing policies. If teachers understood the educational policies thoroughly, we could convince pupils why these policies were necessary. But sometimes I hear about the initiatives from media like TV. Then how can I make pupils follow them?” (Teacher Isabel)

DepEd’s apparent relegation of teachers to consumers of professional development made teachers feel that they had little to offer and they were not motivated to participate in professional development. Pilar perceived that teachers were required to take corresponding professional development courses to catch up with new initiatives only after they had been announced. This made her feel frustrated because she struggled to understand their purpose. Isabel said that they had no choice but to comply since teachers were regarded as being on the lowest rung of the teacher education system.

“After a few years of abrupt implementation of the new initiative, they might get some materials from other teachers as a result of their brave attempts. However, in the meantime, teachers felt vulnerable and struggled in front of pupils. Pupils also became victims of the new initiatives. (Teacher Julie)

DepEd did not help teachers to understand the rationale behind taking demo-class and peer observation thoroughly. They imposed compulsory demo-class as “an event to be practiced once a year.” These teachers’ perceptions of using only English in a demo class and the necessity of incorporating new classroom activities were affected by DepEd’s top-down PD enforcement. As their practice in demo-class was not the same as their normal practice, these teachers did not perceive this as a learning opportunity, but rather a burden on them.

Nominal peer observation was also reported. Julie said, “Teachers go to other teachers’ classroom briefly and fill out the peer-evaluation form.” Isabel mentioned that she tried to incorporate what she would plan for demo-class in her existing teaching practice, but she did not value the post-discussion.

“After demo-class, I watch the video clip of my demo-class to reflect. Other teachers usually just give compliments about my overall teaching performance.” (Teacher Isabel)

The discussion was not critical enough for her to see strengths and weaknesses in her teaching practice. From the participating teachers’ perspectives, it seemed that DepEd must limit its responsibility to offering professional development programs and did not consider how professional development learning could be applied into the classroom. While teachers’ attendance at professional development courses was regarded as important and teachers were forced to take professional development every year, the results of professional development learning seemed less important. There was no evaluation of how teachers’ professional development experience linked to teaching practice and even further to pupils’ learning in the classroom. As Isabel and Jo mentioned that they did not have time to review what they learned in professional development after returning to the classroom, systematic implementation of professional development learning seemed unknown.

“After taking one PD course the next step is to take the next one.”

Furthermore, it seemed to be assumed that teachers would apply PD

learning in their classroom. Jo said, *“Some PD learning looked interesting and suitable to my pupils. I included it in my teaching a few times, but it sprang back to the way I have always done.”* (Teacher Isabel).

The absence of follow-up professional development made Jo discard the changes after a few attempts rather than retaining them since learning and application were solely up to her own effort. Unlike Julie’s hope of having someone observe her newly adopted changes with an objective viewpoint, teachers’ own beliefs and definition of effectiveness were usually the only criteria to judge the usefulness of professional development learning in the classroom. These teachers even reported confronting objections to new practices from their pupils. Unless teachers had a firm belief in the changes they made in their practice, it was easy to revert to their prior teaching practice.

The success and failure of incorporating professional development learning into the classroom was solely the teachers’ responsibility. Lack of school support was another issue especially for teachers. As schools were also subject to the national evaluation, schools tended to urge teachers to take more than the recommended number of hours of professional development (Ban, 2012) to gain the school a high score in the teachers’ professional development participation component.

Other than that, schools did not seem to give much thought to the professional learning of their teachers. Taking professional development was solely dependent on individual teachers. Schools did not mediate teachers’ struggle between professional development goals and exam-oriented classroom teaching goals. Moreover, schools did not support teachers to do experiments and to implement professional development learning into their classroom. Seeking school support was regarded as an administrative liability.

“When I incorporated a new project, which I and my colleague agreed to do, my school was not aware of our project. If they had

known, they might have asked me to make reports. I did not want to get any support from school.” (Teacher Isabel)

She did not perceive the school as a helping hand. As fellow teachers did not seem to be perceived as team members by teachers within a particular school, the teachers were not motivated to work together. Participants’ interviews did not reveal any school-led professional development initiatives. Schools did not seem to create an atmosphere for teachers to share their PD learning with other teachers.

“I have never met a principal who wanted to help teachers’ teaching and learning.” (Teacher Julie)

In her perception, principals seemed to close their door on teaching when they took on the role of administrators. Schools appeared to take a similar position to DepEd’s by not sharing PD responsibility with teachers. Even the position of head of the department was limited to managerial work rather than promoting learning for better teaching practices of teachers within schools.

Lack of support from policy included absence of any teachers’ needs analysis. Professional development courses were offered based on what DepEd assumed to be the needs of teachers. Being placed in the position of passive participants of professional development, it made teachers feel vulnerable in the classroom. Teachers were expected to follow suggestions from DepEd without thorough preparation. While assuming authority for professional development planning, DepEd did not seem to be accountable for the translation of professional development learning into teachers’ teaching practice. Professional development learning and its application in teaching practice solely depended on individual teachers without any external support. Furthermore, the concept of school support was unfamiliar and teachers had negative attitudes towards the idea of school support.

5. Conclusions

The analysis in this study provides insight into the changes made in these experienced teachers' practice through PD experience over time by exploring themes that recurred across all the individual cases. Five themes were: (a) Haunted by perfect proficiency, (b) Valuing newly qualified teachers, (c) Isolated and stagnant teacher culture, (d) Tension between PD goals and classroom reality, and (e) Lack of support from policy, DepEd, and school.

Findings from five individual cases and across cases have been presented. Given that these teachers' PD experiences were diverse over their career, interviews from each teacher revealed unique themes based on their own context for teaching, which were related to teachers themselves, their school, and educational policy.

6. Implications

Their preferences and opinions about PD were different from each other's and some themes were unique to a specific teacher. As well as the voices of individual cases, findings across cases were described. These teachers were excessively preoccupied with having perfect English speaking skills and their imperfect English reduced their self-confidence as teachers. Instead of realizing their value as experienced teachers, they perceived newly qualified teachers as more capable teachers by emphasizing the importance of their higher English proficiency and their use of new methods and strategies.

As they became more experienced, these teachers were assimilated into an isolated and stagnant teacher culture. They became increasingly resistant to sharing their teaching practice and considered sharing to be another form of evaluation. These teachers tended to focus on the classroom teaching goal of pupils' exam preparation. This led PD goals, which are different from classroom teaching, to be discarded by them. These teachers perceived that support from policy was lacking in several areas: Policy did not help teachers learn or implement PD thoroughly. The current system, with few follow-up PD programs, appeared to restrict them to

the role of followers. Finally there were few chances for teachers to become leaders. Support from schools was not apparent and some of the teachers did not perceive that school support was necessary.

7. Recommendations

There are a number of implications arising from this study. Those implications are: (a) recommendations for system-level changes, (b) PD design focusing on teachers' needs and strengths, (c) support from policy and school to create a positive PD learning environment, and (d) recommendations for teachers.

It is important to address how to improve teachers' limited self-confidence before addressing how to raise their actual ability. If policymakers, schools, and teachers can recognize the strengths of PD including their strengths as teachers within their school context, teachers' lowered self-confidence might be increased. For this, PD courses need to build upon these strengths. This means that PD designed for early career and more experienced teachers may need to be differentiated. Once their level of self-confidence has been boosted through these PD activities, teachers may then perceive PD focused on ability as a learning chance and be more willing to reveal their weakness in PD courses. Creating a relaxed atmosphere for PD could also help them focus on learning rather than comparing themselves with other teachers.

Given that teachers rarely engage in reflection, PD activities incorporating building reflection and inquiry skills could be beneficial. This may help these teachers revisit their existing beliefs and current teaching practices which have developed over many years. For such PD to be effective, these teachers will need to understand the rationale before any introduction to reflection strategies. PD incorporating inquiry and reflection is also significant for experienced teachers because such teachers can be reinvigorated as teachers by trying new methods and materials and taking risks. Such an approach could help equip teachers with tools to develop their teaching practice independently. Through acknowledging their deeply rooted beliefs, teachers may be able to realise changes to be made in their

own teaching. Exercising reflection and inquiry in one's teaching practice may also prompt these teachers to explore new opportunities such as seeking learning opportunities from PD voluntarily. Constant reflection on their own teaching practice might encourage isolated teachers to move beyond their familiar routines.

The current concept of customised PD could be improved by conducting a thorough PD needs analysis with teachers. This may find specific areas to be tackled enabling PD courses to be more specialised and fine-tuned. Such PD may be more attractive to teachers and result in more substantial learning compared to PD prepared for the general population of teachers. Teachers' feedback as another form of needs analysis, could provide insights to improve the PD courses and inform the design of successive PD courses.

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Semantic-Based Analysis of Bank Slogans in The Philippines:

Implications for ESP Teaching

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ABSTRACT

This linguistic research analyzes the semantic structuration of the idealized textuality of the select bank slogans in the Philippines. It focuses on these thrusts: 1. the idealization of the raw data for semantic analysis of normal sentences, clauses, and phrases (surface structure); 2. analysis of the deep structure which are

segmented further as functions and notions; and 3. construction of idealized sentence transforms using several syntactic structures of the same meaning. This study utilizes qualitative descriptive method using the semantic-based grammar model of the surface structure segmentation of the textuality of the select bank slogans in the Philippines. The semantic structuration of the bank advertisements in the Philippines follows the immediate constituent linear idealization as analyzed according to syntactic unit of its sentence where there are two simple sentences. Findings reveal that the semantic structuration of the textuality of the bank slogans in the Philippines follows the standard surface structure of the English language. Thus, the sentences have both functions and notions that revealed the deep structure and in effect, revealed sentence transforms for each idealized sentence. In conclusion, therefore, through the idealization of the raw data, analysis of its immediate constituents, and word order based on the syntactical structure, these bank slogans follow the standard syntactic structuration.

Keywords: Semantic-based analysis, structuration, idealization, notions, functions and sentence transforms

INTRODUCTION

Rationale of the Study

All over the world, the dominance of English is well-established in the fields of international business (Lai, 2012). Banks, for example, employ a discourse that can instigate customers to act favorably toward their respective companies. Money and investment have been an emerging issue in the Philippines as people are concerned on saving and making their money grow. Banks usually use a slogan, a short and scanty phrase or sentence that is remarkable to costumers. An inexorable number aim of most slogans is to promote the sale of some goods or services (Tahmasbi and Kalkhajeh, 2013). Additionally, they commented that almost everybody can say that s/he is not mesmerized by the memorable form of advertisements which explicitly exploit catchphrases, catchwords, mottos and slogans in a tactfully arranged structures. Kids and even elderly people verbalize

the words and phrases in slogans and practice them in daily conversations (127).

However, Foucault cited in Tahmasbi and Kalkhajeh (2013) warned that agencies and individual who have the knowledge to manipulate language can control people with impunity; that is why enormous objectives and wishes are manifested via language. Costumers like students, teachers, parents and the public in general must be critical so that they should understand all the words tactically structured to persuade them. Generally, Language is used to convey information, ask question, give commands and express wishes (Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams, 2018). Every individual has a capacity to discover is the sentence is true or not. To know the meaning, one must know the truth condition and knowledge of the world. Fromkin, Rodman, and Hyams (2018) say that one goal of linguistics is to reveal and make explicit the knowledge about the meaning that every speaker has. In fact, according to them, the study of linguistic meaning of morphemes, words, phrases and sentences is called semantics. This study focuses on the phrase and sentential semantics which is concerned on the meaning of syntactic unit larger than a word. Particularly, this study will focus on surface structure (syntax) and deep structure (semantics) which is further segmented to function (speech acts) and notion (concept/idea) and construction of idealized sentence transforms using several syntactic structures of the same meaning.

Furthermore, Goddard (cited in Alshara 2016) claims that the study of deep and surface structures of a word leads further to the study of meanings. Semantics conveys not only meanings but also the nature of language. It investigates how language works, how an individual communicates, and how semantics is perceived by receivers.

According to Tahmasbi and Kalkhajeh (2013), discourse as a social practice entails disguise and fabrication. It can serve particular interests, while misleading others.

Getting familiar with the tremendous alternation that alluring sounds, a piece of song, a simple conversation, and some pure colors generate is prerequisite

for living in a society which is interwoven with instructive discursive elements. Furthermore, advertisements and slogans, whether spoken or written, are “discourses that may employ social power abuse, dominance, and inequality, and eventually change and maintain social practices” (Tahmasbi and Kalkhajeh, 2013). Researchers working on advertisements cautiously argue that costumers and consumers or the public in general are consciously or unconsciously influenced or often misled by the very convincing and loaded language of advertising or persistent marketing. Therefore, analyzing bank advertisements or slogan through semantic – based/ case/transformational/generative grammar can offer the public, teachers of English who teaches English across curricula (thus English for Specific Purposes), and most especially students in the marketing and business courses deep insights and understanding about the very compelling language of slogans.

Theoretical Background

This study argues that Philippine bank slogans reveal semantic-based deep structures in standard English. It is supported by the theory of the Semantic-based grammar model postulated by Chomsky. It focuses on meaning or semantic structure or message of sentences. Smolinski (cited in Pesirla, 2010) thus, says that this model of linguistic description is also called “case grammar” since it attempts to the underlying “notion” or “case categories “to the surface structure (function) or syntax of the sentence.

Since meaning can generate different sentences in a certain “notion”, this model of linguistic description is also called transformational or generative grammar (Labov cited in Pesirla 2010).

In semantic –based/ case/transformational/generative grammar, a sentence can be transformed to several variedly constructed sentences having a common message.

For example:

- John opened the door with a key

Transforms:

- Nominative

John used a key to open the door.

A key opened the door; John did it.

- Possessive focus

John's key opened the door.

John's door was opened with a key.

- Objective focus

A key was used by John to open the door.

The door was opened by John with a key.

All six sentences have the common meaning/message with the original sentence. Hence, meaning is their common denominator using different syntactic structures with different case focuses.

In semantic-based grammar analysis, two structural dimension of the sentence are directed: 1.) the surface structure (syntax) and 2.) the deep structure (semantics) which is segmented as (a) function (speech act) and (b) notion (concept/idea).

REVIEW OF RELATED READINGS

Related Literatures Reviewed

A careful review of literature and studies has been conducted by the researcher in relation to the problem. It appears that this study is a maiden attempt to analyze a certain corpus particularly the bank slogans using semantic-based/case/transformational/generative grammar.

Noam Chomsky (2002) has established himself to be a modern linguist. In fact, his innovation of the Transformational Generative Grammar has implications to human cognitive process which reflects the cognitive structure of the brain. The Chomkian linguistics started the concept of transformational – generative grammar. Chomsky believes that the goal of linguistic description should be to construct a theory that would account for the infinite number of sentences of a natural language. Such a theory would show which strings of words were sentences and which were not and would provide a description of the grammatical structure of each sentence (1).

The theory came known as the Generative Grammar as it provides the description of a natural language would be a formal descriptive theory which would contain a set of grammatical rules that could generate the infinite set of sentences of the language, would not generate anything that was not a sentence and would provide a description of the grammatical structure of each sentence (Chomsky, 1976).

A grammar is said to be generative when by following its rules, it can generate any possible sentences of the language. It can generate a possible set of sentences. Chomsky (2002) says that a generative grammar though generates an infinite number of sentences, it does not make a

grammar infinite. A grammar has only a finite set of rules from which infinite sentences can be generated (2). On the other hand, a grammar is said to be

transformational when a sentence that will be transformed into another would still have the same meaning.

Chomsky (1976) postulated that in his *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* that there are “three essential parts of grammar, namely, a syntactical component that generates and describes the internal structures of the infinite number of sentences of the language; a phonological component that describes the sound structure of the sentences generated by the syntactical component, and a semantic component that describes the meaning structure of the sentences” (3).

Chomsky (20012) added that the syntactic description of sentences has two aspects: the surface structure and deep structure. Surface structure is the aspect of description that determines the phonetic form of sentences; while deep structure determines semantic interpretation. The rules that express the relation of Deep and Surface structures in sentences are called Grammatical Transformation and hence the terms Transformational Generative Grammar (3).

The most common definition of semantics is that it is the study of meaning. Kroeger (2018) suggests that it would be more accurate to define it as the study of linguistic form and meaning. Further, he claims that language learners acquire the meaning of vocabulary together with a set of rules on how to combine these words into meaningful sentences (4). In other words, to understand a certain expression and to be able to communicate well, learning word meanings is not enough without acquiring the rules governing (linguistic features) on how words are combined. When we study semantics, we are trying to understand this shared system of rules that allows hearers to correctly interpret what speakers intend to communicate (Kroeger, 2018).

The following related studies have bearings to the problem of this investigation.

Related Studies Reviewed

Studies on semantics did not just focused on actual spoken language but also on a written discourse such as poems, idioms, and songs.

Maxilom (2008) traced the Semantic Change in Selected Cebuano Words. Twenty (20) selected Cebuano words were used for the data analysis. The results showed that in the written text, metaphor was frequently used, while broadening was the predominant type of semantic change in the spoken language. Metaphor was predominantly used by the Cebuano writers to clearly express their ideas, let the readers clearly understand their points, and raise the readers' thinking into a higher level. Broadening was usually used in the spoken data due to various reasons such as language contact, social conventions, technology, religion, and expressive use of language.

In a different study, Hu (2002) used functional grammar and cognitive linguistics in interpreting Sylvia Plath's Poems: "Words", "The Rabbit Catcher", "Event", "Winter Trees". She examined thematic structure, mood and transitivity, lexis, metaphor formation, and imagery. The analysis shows usage of the word *ring* appearing in all four works. She scrutinized its strikingly divergent effects on the poems. The poetic meanings that emerge provide a sharper understanding of Plath's works and a renewed endorsement of linguistics as a tool for literary criticism. (197)

Handoko (2018) in his thesis entitled Transformational Generative Grammar Analysis of English Imperative as found in "Lie to Me" season 1 TV Series. He analyzed imperative sentences using TGG proposed by Chomsky. The analysis focused on deep structure of imperative sentence by implementing phrase structure rules and transformational rules. The research showed there are variations of imperative structure reflected by transformational rules that used in emerging surface structure. He reported that the result also indicated that subject is the main focus of imperative sentence and play important rule in forming imperative sentence. It can be inferred in his study that different subjects may form different transformational form which involve different transformational rules (1)

Alshara (2016) in his research entitled *A Semantic Analysis of Daud Kamal's "An Ode to Death"* offers a semantic approach to Daud Kamal's poem "An Ode to Death". The research covers seven types of meaning by Leech denotative, connotative, collocative, affective, stylistic, thematic and reflective. It analyzed the different semantic meanings which the poet uses to impart his attitude to death and the temporality of life. It also scrutinized how the poet manages to create an image in the mind of reader about death and the life to come.

Istanari (2018) also studied *Semantic Analysis of English Contextual Meaning in Maher Zain's Songs*. He analyzed song entitled *Open your eyes, Hold my hand, Thank You Allah, For the Rest of my life, Insya Allah*. From the songs, the writer has found three types of context as contextual meaning: Linguistic context, Syntagmatic context and paradigmatic context. He found out that some figure of speech in the lyrics of songs - metaphor, symbolism, personification and simile. The songs have different themes, *Open your eyes* is a song about God. Each lyric invites people to meditation, reminding about the creator of the universe. *Hold my Hand* is a song discussing about humanity, peace or reconciliation. *Thank You Allah* is about someone who was so far from *Allah*, but *Allah* always guide and be close to His Believers. *For the rest of my life* is a song about life as a human being and loving because of Allah. And the last song *Insya Allah* is about inviting to introspection of our mistake. These songs considerably and positive discussed more about religion. The findings show that there are changes of meaning of words when they are used in different contexts; hence, lexical ambiguity arises when a single word has more than one meaning (1).

In view of the forgoing, although all these studies deal with the semantic analysis of a particular corpus e.g. songs, poems, idiomatic expressions using many different linguistic devices, none had yet to use semantic/case/transformational-generative grammar apparently.

Hence, this study has been conceived. This kind of analysis should be conducted as this is a maiden attempt to use the semantic/case/transformational-generative

grammar model to analyze a certain corpus such as the select bank slogans in the Philippines.

Statement of the Problem

This study investigates the semantic-based structuration of the select major bank slogans in the Philippines. Specifically, the study answers the following questions:

1. What are the sentence structures of the slogans of the select bank in the Philippines?
2. What are the functions that can be identified from these bank slogans?
3. What are the notions that can be identified from these bank slogans?
4. What sentence transforms can be constructed from each bank slogans?

METHODOLOGY

Research Method Used

This investigation is qualitative in nature. Particularly, a qualitative case analysis through linguistic structuration of the select bank slogan in the Philippines.

Sources of Data

The data are generated from the bank advertisements which contains a slogan, tagline or catchphrases at the end. Rivers (2008) says that the revolution of electronic communication across the planet is now accessible, fast, and commonplace, it is important to consider the content of such communications. Since they are shown to the public through media (broadcast, print or social media) meaning to say it is a public domain so that there is no need to ask permission from

the banks formally or informally. Thereafter, the research collects the slogans from these advertisements' linguistic analysis.

Data-generating Process

To analyze the select slogans in the Philippines, the Semantic-based/transformational grammar analysis takes the following steps: 1. Immediate constituents identified (surface structure; 2. Function identified (speech act); 3. Notion identified (idea expressed); and 4. Sentence transformation constructed (using several syntactic structures of the same meaning)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The data are presented, analyzed, and interpreted in response to the sub-problems raised.

Idealization of Raw Data

The textuality of the bank slogans of the select banks in the Philippines is idealized into normal sentences, phrases and clauses.

This template is used.

Original Text	Idealized Text
We find ways	We find ways for you.
You're in good hands	You are in our good hands.
Make the best happen	We will make the best happen for you.
You deserve better	You deserve better banking offers.

Your success is our business	Your success is our business.
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The idealized syntactic data provides a normal sentence coming from six simple sentences.

Immediate Constituent Analyses of Idealized Sentence

The idealized sentences are structurally analyzed according to immediate constituents. They are thereby analytically segmented in terms of immediate constituents.

1. We will find ways for you.

Pron + aux + V + N + Conj + Pron

Rewrite Rule:

Sentence- Pron + aux + V + N + Conj + Pron = S

Where:

Pron ----- Stands for pronoun

Aux ----- refers to auxiliary (verb)

V ----- Means verb

N ----- is for Noun

Pron ----- for another Pronoun

S ----- Sentence

The sentence number one is composed of pronoun, auxiliary verb, verb, noun, and pronoun. It is composed of six words and falls under simple sentence according to structure.

2. You are in our good hands.

Pron + aux + Prep + Pron + Adj + Noun

Rewrite Rule:

Sentence- Pron + aux + Prep + Pron+ Adj + N = S

Where:

Pron ----- refers to pronoun

Aux ----- stands for auxiliary verb

Prep ----- means preposition

Pron ----- symbolizes pronoun

Adj ----- represents adjective

N ----- embodies noun

The second sentence is composed of a pronoun, auxiliary verb, preposition, pronoun, adjective, and noun. It consists of six words and is a simple sentence according to its structure.

3. We will make the best happen for you.

Pron + Aux + V + D + Adj + V + Prep + Pron

Rewrite rule:

Sentence – Pron + Aux + V + D + Adj + V + Prep + Pron = S

Where:

Pron	-----	stands for pronoun
Aux	-----	represents auxiliary
V	-----	means verb
D	-----	denotes determiner
Adj	-----	symbolizes adjective
Prep	-----	represents preposition
Pron	-----	means pronoun

The third sentence is composed of pronoun, auxiliary verb, verb, determiner, adjective, preposition, and a pronoun. The sentence structure of the above is a simple sentence and is composed of eight words.

4. You deserve a better banking offers.

Pron + V + Adj + N + N

Rewrite rule:

Sentence: Pron + V + Adj + N + N

Where:

Pron ----- stands for pronoun

V ----- means verb

Adj ----- denotes adjective

N ----- embodies noun

N ----- also embodies noun

The sentence is composed of pronoun, verb, adjective, noun, and another noun. The sentence consists five words and its structure is also a simple sentence.

5. Your success is our business.

Pron + N + Aux + Pro + N

Rewrite Rule:

Pron + N + Aux + Pro + N

Where:

Pron ----- means pronoun

N ----- embodies noun

Aux ----- denotes auxiliary verb

Pron ----- stands for pronoun

N ----- refers to noun

This sentence is composed of pronoun, noun, auxiliary verb, pronoun and a noun. There are five words that consists this sentence. In terms of its structure, the above sentence is a simple sentence.

Functions Identified

The idealized sentences are structurally analyzed according to function. They are thereby analytically segmented in terms of speech acts.

1. You are in our good hands.

Good hands + action + doer = instrument reporting something

2. We find ways for you.

Ways + action + doer = instrument reporting something

3. We will make the best happen for you.

Happen + action + receiver + instrument persuading/convincing somebody

4. You deserve a better banking offers.

Better + action + instrument convincing somebody

5. Your success is our business.

Success + action + instrument giving hope or assurance

As analyzed through their functions, both the first and the second sentences report something; the third and the fourth sentences on the other hand are convincing somebody and the fifth sentence gives hope or assurance.

Functions Identified

The idealized sentences are hereby structurally analyzed according notion. They are analytically segmented in terms of ideas expressed by the sentences.

1. You are in our good hands.

Assuring somebody of comfort = doing something for somebody.

2. We find ways for you.

Finding many possible ways = doing something for somebody.

3. We will make the best happen for you.

Making the best happen = doing a thing for somebody

4. You deserve a better banking offers.

Somebody deserves a better offer = doing a thing for somebody

5. Your success is our business.

Making somebody succeed = doing a thing for somebody

All the sentences reveal that the doer is doing something for somebody as analyzed through their notions or how readers understood them.

Sentence Transforms Constructed

The idealized sentences are now transformed into several sentences using different syntactic structures of the same meaning.

1. You are in our good hands.

Nominative focus:

You are in good hands

We put you in good hands

Possessive focus:

You are in our good hands

Our good hands will take care of your money

Objective focus:

Put your trust in us.

Entrust your money in us.

2. We find ways for you.

Nominative focus:

We find ways for you.

Our bank finds ways for you.

Possessive focus:

Our banks ways are better

Our banks customers have better ways.

Objective focus:

Our banks ways are better for you.

The better ways of banking are with us.

3. We will make the best happen for you.

Nominative focus:

We will make the best happen.

The best will happen with us.

Possessive focus:

Our bank will make the best happen.

You best will happen with us.

Objective focus:

The best happens with us.

The best happens when you bank with us.

4. You deserve a better banking offers.

Nominative focus:

You deserve a better offer.

The client deserved better; The bank did it.

Possessive focus:

Our clients deserve better.

The bank's clients deserve a better offer

Objective focus:

A better offer is deserved by you.

A better offer was given to its clients.

5. Your success is our business.

Nominative focus:

The bank's business is our client's success.

The success of our clients is our business.

Possessive focus:

Our business is to make you succeed.

Client's success is our business

Objective focus:

The success of our clients is the bank's business.

The bank's business is to make the clients succeed.

The bank slogans have been transformed into nominative, possessive and objective focus.

Conclusion

Therefore, through the idealization of the raw data, analysis of its immediate constituents, word order based on the syntactical structure, identification of deep structure (functions and notions) and sentence transforms it has been proven that: Philippine bank slogans reveal semantic-based deep structures in standard English.

Pedagogical Implications

As Yang (2012) stated that ESP curricula are increasingly planned on the basis of generic pedagogy in view of building learners' generic competence including rhetorical, linguistic and sociocultural awareness of a particular situation. The English teachers who teach English for specific purposes like that of commerce, business management, accounting and marketing programs must therefore give exercises on the idealization of raw data from the original text to determine correctly constructed sentences, clauses and phrases; moreover, exercises in analyzing the words through immediate constituents from the idealized sentences can be given to students as well to master segmentation according to structure and sentence patterns; and intensify the semantic-based analysis in order to determine the surface and deep structure of sentences. With these, students will be able to construct meaningful sentences specially for business communication purposes and practice constructing sentence transforms using several syntactic structures without changing the meaning of the original text.

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English for Nursing Purposes (ENP): Investigating the Students, Academicians, and Administrators' Language Needs at Mandala Waluya Health Institution

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Abstract

This study aimed to investigate the need of English for Nursing Purposes (ENP) at Department of Nursing in Mandala Waluya Health Institution, Kendari, Indonesia. Several issues had been brought into account including the frequency of the use of English in nursing education, the perception of ENP course requirement as well as the perception of English language skills on various nursing related activities. The subject of the research were 92 pre-clinical students, 27 clinical students, and 16 academicians as well as the head of nursing department as administrator. A mix-method data collection and analysis were conducted. The quantitative data were obtained using survey questionnaires to academicians and students, then qualitative data collection was conducted through interview to the administrator. The quantitative data were analyzed using various descriptive

statistics, and the interview was analyzed by going over the transcript. The result found that English was frequently used in various nursing related materials. All parties argued that ENP was obviously important for nursing education. Findings on need analysis showed that all four language skills were important both for the students and the academicians. Findings also revealed that English was required in various nursing related activities in education and target career. However, the administrator had not yet initiated any ENP course in the department. The administrator confirmed that the English course in nursing department was limited on general English curriculum and teaching-learning materials. As the result, this study proposes a new ENP curriculum based on need analysis obtained from various sources.

Keywords: ENP, Need Analysis, Students' Perception, Academicians' perceptions, Course Development

1. Introduction

1.1. Background

Hutchinson and Waters (1987: 19) define ESP as an “approach to language teaching in which all decisions as to content and method are based on the learners’ reason for learning”. ESP course concerns with people who learn English with a clearly identifiable and specifiable reason and need (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998; Johns & Price-Machado, 2001; Widdowson, 1983). In short, ESP is a course that underlines the different types of learners including their needs, motives, interests and goals for learning.

Concerning that learners’ needs are varied, ESP course should be organized and taught based on those certain needs of learners and reflect to their goals. Richard (2001: 32) states that “different types of students have different language needs and what they are taught should be restricted to what they need”. Accordingly, all courses concerned with such a problem must be set up by trying to find out what is specifically appropriate and applicable for target learners.

In regard to the above-mentioned paragraph, the attempt to deal with different types of learners’ needs brings most of the ESP practitioners to consider

need assessment or need analysis in order to meet the particular needs within the course content. As Hutchinson and Waters (1997: 53) argue that “any language course should be based on need analysis”. Moreover, Need Analysis (NA) is defined as “an umbrella term that embraces many aspects, incorporating learners’ goals and backgrounds, their language proficiency, their reasons for taking the course, their teaching and learning preferences, and the situations they will need to communicate in” (Hyland, 2006: 73).

In time, there have been a lot of NA administered in various ESP branches, from the field of economics and business (Bargiela-Chiappini & Zhang, 2013; Çelik, 2003), engineering and aviation (Al-Tamimi & Shuib, 2010; Moder, 2013), to any other fields which consider English is severely important issue to occupational and academic context, and not forgetting the field of medical science (Hwang and Lin 2010, Maher, 1986; Tasçi, 2007) that becomes the area of interest in this research.

Maher (1986: 121) gives a wide-accepted concept of English for medical purposes (EMP) which refers to “the teaching of English for doctors, nurses, and other personnel in medical profession”. Specifically, EMP can be categorized into smaller unit such as English for medical doctors, English for nurses, English for laboratorian and other medical profession regarding to what language area be and to whom the English needed for (Maher, 1986). Henceforth, this research will focus on more specified branch of EMP called English for nursing purposes (ENP).

English for Nursing Purposes (ENP) is an English course focuses on how nurses using English in both occupation and academic field (Bosher, 2013). It is seen as one important subset from EMP as the use of English in hospitals and medical clinics in the EFL setting has prevailed in centuries. The importance of NA in ENP is paramount since it is required to fulfill the nursing students’ need in their future career and their communication in various medical situations. More specifically, Lai (2016) has revealed some clinical function of English in nursing field such as communicating with patients using English, reading research papers and other nursing related reports, presenting in a meeting, and writing E-mail in English. Thus, it is important to nurses to consider English as one important aspect of their future professional career.

1.2. Problem Statement

Numbered of studies have been conducted in Indonesia and Worldwide to identify the specific needs of English to nursing students in order to provide guideline for designing curricula for related ENP courses. Studies are conducted worldwide to identify the English language needs of nursing students (Alfehaid, 2011; Miyake & Tremarco, 2003; Romo, 2006; Waidarp, 2011). All of these studies share similar finding that the need of English for nursing students was considerably extensive. They argue that it was important for nursing students to learn specified nursing related topics in their English lesson. Regarding to this research, the students at the Nursing Department of Mandala Waluya Health Institution (STIKES-MW) become an area of interest to identify their English language needs. Although General English (GE) is being offered in the department, no single specific ENP is designed for nursing students. Consequently, without any need-based nursing English in the department, a gap is created between students' English language needs and the type of English course which are being given to them. Therefore, there must be a renewal of course curriculum which started with a need analysis in order to deal with the nursing students' specific needs. Henceforth, this research aims to find out the medical students' specific language needs from the students and academicians' point of view.

2. Literature Review

2.1. English for Nursing Purposes (ENP)

The dominance of English in medical practice had paved the way to the emergence of another ESP branch called English for Medical Purposes (EMP). Dudley-Evans and St. John (1998) argued that EMP was an ESP branch designed for medical students. More specifically, Maher (1986:112) defined EMP as "the teaching of English for doctors, nurses, and other personals in medical profession". The focus on EMP covers 1) the English language needs of medical students and professions; 2) the material design and content instruction specific to the medical field, and; 3) limited range of language skill that might be required by medical

students and professions (Maher, 1986). In brief, EMP was generally defined as an ESP course for medical students, practitioners, doctor, nurses, and other medical personnel which based on their specified needs in medical circumstances.

Considering that the nursing field was a part of EMP, then English for Nursing Purposes (ENP) emerged to provide clinical nurses and nursing students with specified English course based on their certain needs (Lai, 2016). Medlin (2009) also emphasized that as nurses required to communicate with various people and various nursing related topics, ENP appeared to help nurses communicating with all people worldwide. ENP was seen as a micro level of EMP, thus the ENP teaching itself should consider several issues, including the learners, what need to be learned, and how the language used as well as what type of course appropriate to them.

Several literatures had sought to identify the language and communicative tasks in the nursing field (Alfehaid, 2011; Boshier, 2006; Cameron, 1998; Epp & Lewis, 2008; Hussin, 2008; Maston & Hansen, 1985; Romo, 2006; Waidarp, 2011). As the result, there were several tasks that required by nursing students in both academic and target careers which shared in common from those studies including reading course handouts, textbooks, journals and other nursing related materials, reading medical/nursing related tables, graphs, and charts, reading e-mail inquiries from (foreign) doctors and patients, writing labels, memos, and short notes, writing e-mail to (foreign) patients and doctors, listening to (foreign) patients' histories and their needs, listening to (foreign) doctors' diagnosis and symptom management, giving information and feedback to (foreign) patients, explaining medical procedures to (foreign) patients, and many more.

Those language tasks and skills were the common language tasks that nursing students, in the context of EFL/ESL, should obtain. These tasks were summarized from several need analysis studies on nursing students in EFL/ESL context. All of the aforesaid tasks were considered as 'clinical language tasks' and 'academic language tasks' Boshier (2006) argued that both clinical and academic language tasks were necessary for nursing students to succeed in the academic field

and future clinical career. She continued that a combination of both aspects would provide a meaningful learning. It was not suggested to deliver only in clinical or academic due to these both aspects were supporting one another. Henceforth, the combination of these two with comparable proportion would be splendid in ENP classroom.

2.2. Need Analysis

In most literatures about ESP, it is difficult to make a generalization about the types of needs since there are numerous of them postulated by various experts and scholars under the headline ‘needs’. Brindley (1989) identifies that the main source of this ambiguity is the distinction between various concepts of needs, including lacks and demands or learners’ want, and the method of bridging the gap between these two points. Brindley (1989) provides two categories of needs; *objective* and *subjective* needs. Objective needs refer to the identifiable need including information about learners, how they need to use language in real situation, their current language proficiency and what they need to learn; and subjective needs cover learners’ personality, attitudes, expectations, wants, cognitive styles, and learning strategies.

Other types of needs also postulated by Flowerdew (2013) who distinguished needs into *present situation* analysis (PSA) and *target situation* analysis (TSA) (see also: West, 1994; Hyland, 2006). PSA referred to the learners’ current proficiency of language use, their wants, familiarity with the subject, and their awareness of the genres and demands of the course. TSA involves the learners’ goal, objective and linguistic skills and competence they need to perform in their future disciplines (Flowerdew, 2013). It closely relates to communication needs rather than learning needs. In other word, this kind of needs focus on the product or what the students are needed to achieve in order to survive in target situation.

Finally, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) make a clear classification of needs that might cover all aforementioned terms. They offer a current concept of need analysis that includes:

- a) Professional information about learners includes the task and activities that will be used for (similar to Hutchinson and Waters' *target situation analysis*, Brindley's *objective needs* and Berwick's *perceived needs*)
- b) Personal information about learners includes learning experiences, cultural information, reasons for participating in the course, motivation and expectation (similar to *wants* or *subjective needs* or *felt needs*).
- c) English language information about learners includes their current skill and language competence (*present situation*).
- d) The learners' lacks (the gap between c and a)
- e) Language learning information includes the strategy of learning skills and language (*learning needs*)
- f) Professional communication of how the language and skills are used in the target situation includes linguistic analysis, discourse analysis, and genre analysis (*target needs*)
- g) Information how the course will be run (*learning needs*)

2.3. Previous Study

There have been a lot of researches conducted worldwide in order to investigate the learners' need in different contexts. Alfehaid (2011) conducted a research to develop an ESP curriculum for the students of health science (including nursing) in Saudi Arabia. A mix-methods approach was applied to 246 participants involved in the research. The findings showed that four English skill were important for both academic and target career. Interestingly, the statistical analysis revealed the relation among all parties and found that speaking and reading were the most important skills to be performed in both academic and target career purposes.

Moreover, Alebachew (2016) conducted a need analysis study to 107 BSc nursing students. He made the need analysis covered into six categories including 1) importance of English for nursing education; 2) Wants and needs; 3) General English; 4) English language skills; 5) proficiency in English, and 6) Target needs (importance of English for future career). The finding showed that English is very important for both present situation and target career as perceived by both groups.

However, General English was seen less favorable as they perceived more in other categories. In regard to English skills, reading and writing were the most required skills for both groups if compared to listening and speaking. As for perceptual target needs, the students perceived that activity involving reading and writing patient document and engaging in conversation with patient and doctors were found as the most required skills in target career.

Finally, Ayas and Kirkgoz (2013) investigated the need of English for the nursing and midwifery students attending the School of Health at Mersin University in Turkey. The study involved 134 midwifery students and 99 nursing students attending the second and third year of study. Since this research concerns only to the nursing field, the reports are merely limited on the field of nursing. The findings of the study were organized from the general view about ESP course to the specific issues about English language skills. In the nursing context, the study showed the use of English skills in various medical activities. In regard to reading skill, the students perceived that understanding English articles, translating English articles into Turkish, guessing the new words in articles and reading to answer the question were all important. As for writing skills, writing medical reports, writing a paragraph on a nursing related topic, writing a text with professional terms, and using correct grammar in writing were all important to the students. In regard to listening skill, understanding foreign patient and understanding daily conversation were also important. As for speaking skill, the students perceived that talking to foreign patients, being able to speak with correct grammar use, and being able to speak in daily conversation were found important to nursing students.

All of these studies indicated that English is much more important for nursing students. The common fundamentals outcomes from these studies indicate that receptive skill such as reading is the most important skill for medical students. This is explained why most of the students perceive that reading to medical articles, books, journals, and other medical literatures are important for them. These studies also emphasized that English is important to their academic and future professional career. Therefore, there is no doubt that English, or English for medical purposes is

what the medical students need in order to succeed in their academic and professional career.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research Design

This study aimed to investigate the English language needs from the perception of students, academicians, and administrator at Mandala Waluya (M-W) Health Institution. A mix-method design was conducted, which included survey research to 92 pre-clinical students, 27 clinical students, and 16 academicians as well as qualitative study was conducted to investigate the perception of administrators through interview.

3.2. Research Instrument

As for instrument for data collection, two sets of questionnaires were used in the research. One was *directly* administered to 119 students and the other was *mailed* given to 16 academicians. The questionnaires were adapted from several questionnaires of needs analysis study on the general medical field and nursing field in particular (Alfehaid, 2011; Faraj, 2015; Gessesse, 2009; Hwang& Lin, 2010; Iwai & et al, 1998; Javid, 2011; Romo, 2006; Tasci, 2007; Waidarp, 2011). The questionnaire was close-ended which were constructed in several forms, including fill-in item, checklist items, multiple response items, Likert items and ranking items. As for scale of measurement, nominal and ordinal data were applied to the questionnaire. Several items such as multiple responses and Likert scale items consisted variables as the sample could check more than one answers in a single multiple response item. The other instrument was the interview draft to the dean of Nursing Department.

3.3.Data Collection and Data Analysis

The data were collected by using questionnaire. For students, direct questionnaires were distributed during class hour on Thursday, 12 October 2017 and collected after the class hour. As for academicians, mailed questionnaires were submitted during office hour on Thursday, 12 October 2017 and collected by hand on Saturday, 14 October 2017. After the data had been analyzed, interview was held to the dean. The quantitative data were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS 23). The descriptive statistics and One-Way ANOVA test were used to find out if there was significant difference between the responses of the separate groups. In order to make a good understanding of the data, the interview was analyzed after the process of quantitative had been completed. The interview was analyzed by going over the transcript.

4. Findings

4.1. The frequency of learning materials in English

This sub section considers the frequency of the material used in English in teaching and learning in nursing context. Four Likert-scale items from 4= very often to 1= never were used. The data of students and academicians' responses are shown on table 1.

Table 1: Frequency of English use in nursing related materials

Materials	Group								Statistical		
	Clinical		Pre-Clinical		Acad.		Total		Test		
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD	F	df	p

Journals/ articles/ books	3.148	.71 8	3.391	.770	3.125	.71 9	3.311	.75 8	1.638	134	.198
Presentat -ion slides	2.815	.78 6	3.065	.626	3.063	.68 0	3.015	.66 9	2.163	134	.119
Video/ audio lessons	2.778	.57 7	2.978	.711	2.625	.88 5	2.896	.71 5	1.520	134	.223
Oral lectures [1]	2.519	.89 3	1.957	1.037	1.687	.60 2	2.037	.99 6	4.689	134	.011
Tests/ exam	2.667	.73 4	2.598	.890	2.125	.61 9	2.556	.84 3	2.488	134	.087

[1] Turkey HSD - C x PC, $p = .024$; C x Acd, $p = .020$; PC x Acd, $p = .563$

Over the following materials shown on table 1 above, journals/articles/book were the most frequently used materials in English ($M = 3.311$, $SD = .758$), followed by presentation slide ($M = 3.015$, $SD = .669$), video/audio lessons ($M = 2.896$, $SD = .715$), tests ($M = 2.556$, $SD = .843$), and oral lectures as the least frequently used ($M = 2.037$, $SD = .996$). The statistical test indicated no significant difference among perceptions, *except* for the material of oral lectures. There was a statistically significant difference perceptions among groups ($F(2,132) = 4.689$, $p = .011$). The post hoc test revealed that the frequency of English on oral lecture was higher experienced by clinical students ($M = 2.519$) if compared to pre-clinical students ($M = 1.975$, $p = .024$) and academicians ($M = 1.687$, $p = .020$). There was no significant difference between pre-clinical and academicians. Going over the interview record, the dean corresponded that English was frequently used on

journals, books and presentation slides materials. The dean clarified that there was no nursing subject taught in full-English oral lecture, yet the subjects contained many English terms related to nursing field. In addition, the portion of English terms was varied among semesters. The clinical students, according to the dean, experienced more advanced technical terms in nursing as they faced with English more often in workplace if compared to the pre-clinical students who often found general English terms.

4.2. The Importance of General English and ENP Course

This sub section considers the importance of general English and ENP course in nursing department. The Likert-scale items from 5= strongly agree to 1= strongly disagree were used. The data indicated that general English was very important as indicated by average perception ($M= 4.125$, $SD= 0.639$). However, the test indicated that there was significant difference ($F(2,132) = 4.738$, $p= 0.010$) among perceptions. In this case, both academicians ($M= 4.50$, $SD= 0.516$) and pre-clinical students ($M= 4.250$, $SD= 0.622$) perceived somewhat “agree” compared to the group of clinical students which perceive slightly lower ($M= 3.926$, $SD= 0.675$). The post hoc test revealed that there was significant difference between the academicians and the clinical students ($p= .011$), whereas no significant difference found between academicians and pre-clinical as well as between groups of students. The data of students and academicians’ responses are shown on table 2.

Table 2: Perception on the Importance of English

Statement	Group	Mean	SD	F	Df	P
EGP is important to nursing students ^[1]	C	3.926	.675	4.738	134	.010
	PC	4.250	.622			
	Acad.	4.500	.516			

	Total	4.215	.639			
ENP is important to nursing students ^[2]	C	4.533	.670			
	PC	4.222	.801	3.464	134	.034
	Acad.	4.750	.447			
	Total	4.496	.690			

Turkey HSD ^[1] C x PC, $p = .059$; C x Acad, $p = .011$; PC x Acad, $p = .302$

^[2] C x PC, $p = .095$; C x Acad, $p = .434$; PC x Acad, $p = .039$

Moreover, the table also indicates that ENP was also important for nursing students ($M = 4.496$, $SD = .690$). Even though all parties were somewhat 'agree' to this issue, the test indicated significant difference among perception ($F(2,132) = 3.464$, $p = .034$). the post hoc test indicated significant difference between academicians ($M = 4.750$) and pre-clinical students ($M = 4.222$, $p = 0.39$) and no significant difference found between perception of academicians and clinical students as well as both groups of students. The interview with the dean corresponded that either general English of ENP was very important. The dean also argued that all nursing students were supposed to understand English related to nursing context. Therefore, English has been considered as a core competence in nursing academic setting. As the result, general English was taught for 4 semesters to pre-clinical students. The dean corresponded that English teaching in the department of nursing was one of academic policies as English had become the international language of medicine and nursing. However, the dean stated that there was no specific English for nursing taught at the Department, yet English lesson still considered the area of nursing terms. In addition, the dean argued that English for specific nursing had been put into consideration, but it was not yet implemented.

4.3. The Preference of English Course

This sub section considers the preference of English course in nursing department. The data of students and academicians' responses are shown on table below.

Table 3: Perception on the Preference of English Course

Statement	Group	Mean	SD	F	Df	P
In my opinion. nursing students should learn only general English	C	2.444	1.050	1.169	134	.314
	PC	2.283	1.072			
	Acad.	2.688	.602			
	Total	2.363	1.027			
In my opinion, nursing students only need English for nursing purposes, no need for general English	C	3.889	1.219	.657	134	.520
	PC	3.141	1.280			
	Acad.	2.875	.719			
	Total	3.059	1.214			

Table 3 shows that all parties perceived somewhat 'disagree' if general English was put as the only English course in the Department (M= 2.363, SD= 1.027). However, the perception to the issue of ENP as the only English course in the Department was slightly higher (M= 3.059, SD= 1.214). In addition, the dean had no preference in this case, yet she claimed that combination between both

approaches would be a perfect course. Nevertheless, it would take much effort to implement such specific course in the Department and it was not ready to put into practice. As the result, the general English became the only instruction taught in the Department.

4.4.Materials and Instructor

This sub section considers the perception on materials and instructor for ENP in nursing department. The data of students and academicians' responses are shown on table 4.

Table 4: Perception on Materials and Instructor of ENP

Statement	Group	Mean	SD	F	Df	P
Material of ENP should be relevant to Nursing field	C	4.111	.698	.038	134	.963
	PC	4.130	.952			
	Acad.	4.188	.834			
	Total	4.133	.888			
Material of ENP should help to communicate in future nurse-foreign patient communication context	C	4.370	.688	.418	134	.659
	PC	4.239	.732			
	Acad.	4.187	.834			
	Total	4.259	.733			
	C	4.148	.718	.108	134	.897

Material of ENP should help to communicate in future professional nursing context	PC	4.163	.745			
	Acad.	4.250	.775			
	Total	4.170	.739			
English language instructor should have a fairly knowledge about nursing field when selecting the materials	C	4.111	.974			
	PC	4.207	.884			
	Acad.	3.688	.946	2.224	134	.112
	Total	4.126	.918			

Having a look the data on table 5, all parties perceived that Material of ENP should be relevant to nursing field ($M= 4.133$, $SD= .888$). The parties also perceived the materials of ENP would benefit the students in future professional communication context with foreign patients ($M= 4.259$, $SD= .733$) and in medical profession ($M= 4.170$, $SD= .739$). The dean argued that the material of ENP should deal with the future professional communication. Such communication covered the daily and professional communication with foreign patients, doctors and fellow nurses. Moreover, the materials should also deal with international medical literatures and related documents. The dean stated that the materials were supposed to help the students working in international medical units or working abroad in order to improve their professionalism. In addition, all parties perceived that it was important for the language instructors to be knowledgeable in the field of nursing ($M= 4.126$, $SD= .918$). The dean corresponded to this issue. The dean continued that the instructor should not only be knowledgeable in English but also in nursing field.

5. Discussion

This section reveals the students' perception about English in the Department of Nursing Mandala-Waluya. The academicians clearly argue that they often use English related material such as English journals, articles and textbooks. The students also argue the same way, then there is no significant difference between perceptions on this case. The academicians also argue that they often use English in presentation slides and video as well as audio material. In some study of need analysis, the findings correspond with this study where the academicians often use English in reading and audio visual materials (Hwang & Lin, 2010; Tasci, 2007; Waidarp, 2011).

In addition, GE or EGP is seen as one important course to nursing students to consider about. However, both groups perceive that EGP solely is not enough to fulfill the needs of both parties. They argue that the faculty should consider the ENP as one course in nursing department. The students and the academicians perceive that ENP is very important. They perceive ENP as a course that much more important than general English course. Both groups regard that ENP is important for nursing to deal with academic study, indeed, the academicians place a great emphasis on the importance of ENP to the students' future professional career.

The academicians clearly perceive the necessity and importance of English, presumably reflecting the fact that they often have to use English for their own professional studies. As for the students, they may not be so conscious of the importance of English for their professional studies in the future but, in time it is likely they will realize the importance of English more consciously. The researchers who conducted needs analyses in nursing contexts (Ayas and Kirkgoz, 2013; Lai, 2016; Miyake and Tremarco, 2005; Waidarp, 2011) also reported that almost all the students find English very important, particularly English for their academic studies while academicians perceive more on the occupational field.

In term of the materials, both the students and the academicians perceive that the material of ENP should be relevant to the nursing field. This finding also

correspond most of need analysis studies in the nursing context (Alfehaid, 2011; Alebachew, 2016; Ayas and Kirkgoz, 2013; Lai, 2016; Miyake and Tremarco, 2005; Waidarp, 2011). In this case, the students demand a meaningful material that is relevant to the nursing context. As Hutchinson and Waters (1987) argue that one indicator of successful ESP program is the content which relevant to the field of students.

Both group perceive that the material of ENP should help the students to communicate in future nurse-foreign patient communication context. They also perceive similarly to the professional communication context between nurse-foreign nurse and nurse-foreign doctor communication. This finding is in line with the finding of need analysis conducted by Waidarp (2011). Moreover, Romo (2006) argue that the content of teaching material for ENP should include the discourse topics about the communication between nurse and patient as well as nurse and doctors. Javid (2011) also argues that it is important to include the material about nursing professional communication in work field. Therefore, it is obvious that the future ENP course should include the content about nursing professional communication both in academic and occupational field. In regard to the instructor, both group have different perception, but not significant on this topic. Although both groups place a great emphasis that the language instructor should have fairly knowledge in nursing field when selecting the material, the students seem correspond more on this topic. West (1994) and most literatures about ESP (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987; Basturkmen, 2010; Hyland (2006) do not emphasize that the language instructor should have a good knowledge of the field he or she is teaching. Whereas, it is more important to know who are the students are, and what they need for. Then having a fairly knowledge of the field being taught can be an additional benefit to the language course.

6. Conclusion

The study reveals that there is no specific ENP course available in the nursing department. The use of English in the nursing department is highly frequent. Moreover, the academicians emphasize that the use of English is prominently

frequent as they often use English in written materials during teaching nursing related subjects. Both the students and academicians argue that ENP is much more important to nursing students. They add that EGP solely is not enough for students to deal with academic and occupational tasks. They argue that the material of ENP should be relevant to nursing field and, therefore, the students can succeed in professional communication context as the future nurses. Finally, they argue that the instructor of ENP should have a fairly knowledge of nursing field when teaching ENP.

Recommendation

Considering several limitations and weakness experienced in this study, there are several recommendation proposed for future researches they are: The future researches need to be done by considering some documentary analysis including the syllabus of current English program offered by college. Since the participant of this research does not consider the sample weight, the future research should consider the weight of sample to proportionally consider the gender and level of study.

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The Push and Pull Factors in the Dwindling Use of
***Ibanag* Language**

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Abstract

The phenomenon on the dwindling use of Ibanag language in Tuguegarao City has taken heightened significance in the recent years. To shed light on this concern, this study uncovers the push and pull factors explaining the diminishing use of Ibanag language in the city. Using qualitative grounded theory design and multisectoral approach, data were gathered through the inquiry process and observation process to make sense of the interpretation and meaning of the informants' experiences about the Ibanag language.

Results reveal that the dwindling use of Ibanag is a confluence of numerous non-linguistic factors which do not necessarily operate independently of each other. Rather, they sometimes overlap, or at least two or more factors may work together. The push factors affecting the Ibanags to give up their language are migration; ethnic intermarriage and home factors; language attitude; availability and access to Ibanag materials; and school factor. On

the other hand, the pull factors attracting the Ibanags to adopt another language are economic growth and development; media; globalization and modernization; political factor; and institutional support. Without institutionalized, methodological, multidisciplinary, systematic, and grassroots support and interventions from the schools, government, and other agents of cultural revitalization, the dwindling use of Ibanag language and the gradual loss of Ibanag culture will continue and will be inevitable.

Keywords: push and pull factors, dwindling language use, language shift, language endangerment

Introduction

Language plays a key role in passing a people's history as it is a medium and a repository of knowledge about a community. If a language disappears, it takes along with it vital information about the early history of a people. Campbell (1994) asserts that "every language is the guardian of its speakers' history and culture and its extinction represents the irretrievable loss of a portion of our own humanity." The demise of a language does not only mean a loss of community speakers but also the death of common knowledge which welded a community through the years. These pieces of information are the age-old indigenous science, literature, philosophy, art, wisdom, and other forms of local knowledge which helped them weather all individual and collective problems and challenges in their lives.

The phenomenon on the declining use of a language is not new or even recent fact of life. It is a universal phenomenon which has pervaded through time in the process of change. Like human beings, languages undergo "survival of the fittest" where some languages have to 'live' and 'die' as people adapt with the demands of the changing times. As early as 1881, John Wesley Powell, believed that humanity was evolving toward a single world language. "Lower" cultures to die out and be replaced by "higher" cultures – and for "lower" languages to be replaced by "higher" languages.

Reports on language death and endangerment are more common in the 21st century. These are mostly indigenous languages which are forced into assimilation with a dominant language in the course of time. Chauvot (2016) predicted that "up to half of today's living languages will be extinct by the end of the 21st century as more than three billion people –

nearly half of the world's current population – speak one of only 20 languages as their mother tongue.” Janse (2002) supports this prediction noting that, “the rate by which languages are dying around the world is very alarming” while Rogers and Campbell (2015) acknowledge that it is unusual today seeing “language obituaries” reporting the death of a language with its last speaker.

The Philippines is a home to numerous indigenous languages. According to Gordon (2005), “the country has 185 individual languages. Of these, 183 are living and 2 are extinct. Of the living languages, 175 are indigenous and 8 are non-indigenous. Furthermore, 39 are institutional, 67 are developing, 38 are vigorous, 28 are in trouble, and 11 are dying.” In determining the status of language endangerment, Crystal (2000) utilizes a system distinguishing the five (5) levels of language death continuum. He points out that a language is “potentially endangered” when its speakers are adopting a majority language which may start to have fewer new child speakers. It has reached its “endangered” state when there are no child speakers and the only speakers who know the language well are young adults. If the youngest proficient speakers are over the age of 50, a language is “seriously endangered” and it is “terminally endangered or moribound” when only a few, mostly quite old, speakers remain. Finally, it is “extinct” when there are no remaining speakers of the language.”

Gordon (2005) considers the Ibanag as a living language with level 4 status (or educational) in the *Ethnologue*. This status is characterized as “the language that is in vigorous use, with standardization and literature being sustained through a widespread system of institutionally supported education.” In the same encyclopaedic language reference cataloguing, Ibanag has the official recognition as “de facto language of provincial identity in Cagayan and Isabela which means that majority of citizens in these places identify Ibanag as being closely associated with their identity but for practical reasons the language is not generally used for governmental operations.”

On the basis of the foregoing scale, it can be surmised that Ibanag is not a dying language. This is further supported by reports that there are 13,862 Ibanag speakers in Cagayan (NSO, 2000) and 277,000 speakers in Cagayan Valley Region (UNSD, 2005). However, the dwindling use of Ibanag in Tuguegarao City started drawing serious attention with the proliferation of symposia, special interest groups, and publications. Several Ibanags are becoming concerned with the diminishing use of their language or sometimes referred to in

this paper as language shift defined as a situation wherein increasing number of speakers of the less influential language adopt or give way to the pressure of the dominant language endangering their language to extinction (Fasold, 1984; Schiffman 1998). For example, Dayag (2011) reports that “if nothing is done about the dwindling use of Ibanag, then its death will be inevitable and the next generations will never know about its existence.” Although the use of language death in describing the language status of Ibanag may sound premature, dramatic and a big exaggeration, it nonetheless puts a “red alert” among Ibanags to do something to resuscitate their language.

Two sources provide a factual baseline assessment on the dwindling use of Ibanag language in the absence of census on this matter. First is the Language Map Survey conducted by Morales (2011) presenting an abrupt decline (33.82%) of the residents in Tuguegarao City speaking Ibanag when grouped according to age from 75.63% (1975 Census) to 23.81% (Language Map Survey, 2011). He notes that “ten percent of those 1-10 years old speaks the language. Only about five percent of the babies are spoken to in Ibanag and about 40% decline was observed among those aged 71 and over. This results for the Tagalog (now Filipino as the national language) to upsurge to about 67% high among the young generation.

The second source is the result of the MTB-MLE implementation in the Division of Tuguegarao City for School Year 2012 to 2019. The data show that of the 46 elementary schools (28 public and 18 private), 44 offer MTB-MLE in Filipino, 1 in Ilokano, 1 English, and none for Ibanag and Itawes (SDO Tuguegarao, 2019). This data mark a pronounced increase in the number of Tagalog/Filipino speakers among younger population (ages 6-8) as evidenced by their mother tongue defined as the language that the learners know very well and frequently use at home and community.

Premised on this concept, the linguistic continuity of the Ibanag is a great concern in Tuguegarao City. Scholars, linguists, elders, and local leaders, among others, are increasingly alarmed at the rate at which it is going out of use. A number of initiatives are planned to address this phenomenon but there have been little empirical evidences examining the factors that cause its dwindling utilization. To aid in this concern, it is extremely essential to describe and uncover the push and pull factors associated to Tuguegarao City and the Ibanags as a speech community. The push factors are the micro-variables or specific internal forces in Tuguegarao City affecting the Ibanags to give up their language. On the other hand, the pull factors are the macro-

variables or broader situations external to Tuguegarao City attracting the Ibanags to adopt another language. By carefully examining these factors, advocates of Ibanag linguistic continuity are in a better position to develop policy interventions and programmatic actions for its revival.

Objectives

This study uncovers the push and pull factors in the dwindling use of Ibanag language in Tuguegarao City. The purpose is to present a broader context by which advocates can frame their future language policy formulation, programmatic action, and other relevant initiatives along Ibanag linguistic and cultural revitalization.

Methodology

Research Design

This research used qualitative grounded theory design as it attempted to make sense of the interpretation and meaning of the informants' experiences about the dwindling use of Ibanag language. Several data gathering techniques were utilized to obtain robust information in the study. The inquiry process was used to build a complex and holistic picture of the narratives of the informants based on their words and detailed perspectives. On the other hand, the observation process was utilized to see concrete situations of their ideas and narratives in the real setting. Individual interview and focus group discussion were also utilized to obtain a comprehensive and detailed information narrating the informants' experiences about the dwindling use of Ibanag language. This was further augmented by facebook messenger chat to probe deeper into narratives and analysis of their experiences.

Participants

The sixty-seven (67) selected participants were chosen from all walks of life to ensure multisectoral representation in the study. They include the Ibanag elders, barangay officials, language specialists, teachers, school administrators, religious leaders, media practitioners, vendors, tricycle drivers, and other linguistical groups. These informants were purposively sampled following two criteria namely: (a) they have lived in Tuguegarao City for twenty years

and over; and (b) they have observed and immersed themselves with the socio-economic, cultural, and political development in Tuguegarao City.

Data Analysis

The data were organized, interpreted, and analyzed using coding approaches. Open coding identified and broke down the concepts and categories from the participant's narratives. On the other hand, axial coding determined the core themes as well as the differences and relatedness of these concepts and categories. Thereafter, the data were analyzed using the cool and warm analysis in consideration of the thematic categorizations made. The cool analysis ascertained the significant statements and data categories while the warm analysis examined the essence of the phenomenon.

Results and Discussions

Discussions explaining the causes for the dwindling use of Ibanag language in this section are broadly divided into push and pull factors. The push factors include migration; ethnic intermarriage and home factors; language attitude and cultural orientation; school factor; and availability and access to Ibanag written materials. On the other hand, the pull factors are the economic growth and development; modernization and globalization; political factor; and institutional support.

It is also interesting to note that these broad factors are considered non-linguistic forces explaining the reduction of Ibanag use instead of linguistic factors i.e., factors relating to the Ibanag language system such as phonology, morphology, and syntax formation. The attribution on the dwindling use of a language due to non-linguistic factors affirms Wolfram's (2008) assertion that "factors leading to language death are non-linguistic rather than linguistic."

Push Factors

Migration

One of the most obvious factors explaining the dwindling use of Ibanag language is the influx and migration of other ethno-linguistic groups in Tuguegarao City, which, in the process,

has redefined cultural experiences and realities for the Ibanags. Numerous papers have documented the long history of Ilokano migration to Cagayan in which Tuguegarao has been a capital of the province prior to its cityhood in 1999. Malumbres (1918), points out that Ilokano migration to Cagayan was facilitated when the Spaniards opened the Abra-Cagayan trail which is now located in Kalinga Province. This was completed on February 23, 1880 through the efforts of Don Domingo Moriones, governor general of the Philippine islands. Mallo (1987), on the other hand, presents that Ilocanos came to Cagayan as fugitives from their Spanish masters in Ilocos while several others came as force laborers (*polistas*) to build roads which the natives of Cagayan refused to construct. Meanwhile, Tamayao (2009) reveals that Ilokano diaspora to Cagayan is traceable to ecological factors such as lack of resources, limited arable lands, prolonged dry season and shallow streams and rivers in Ilocos. He adds that socio-economic factors, peace and order concerns as well as Spanish colonial policy related to the use of agricultural lands in Ilocos caused the influx of Ilokano migrants to Cagayan.

With the long history of Ilokano migration in Tuguegarao, the Ibanags were assimilated to the Ilokano language. Ibanags, Itawes, Aetas, and Malauegs (the natives of Cagayan) have consequently embraced this language as their own. As Grimes (2001) notes, “sociolinguists agree that migration, either voluntary or forced, is a cause of language assimilation. When members of a language community migrate, the remaining community decreases in size and thus they may be unable to maintain their language.”

In the recent years, Tuguegarao has been attracting enormous migrants from different provinces and countries. The 1975 Integrated Census of the Philippine Population reports that Tuguegarao was truly an Ibanag municipality with more than half of its population speaking it (57.65%). To date, however, this linguistic landscape has abruptly changed as the city has been reported to have high linguistic diversity with Linguistic Diversity index of 0.7494 which is a quarter close to full diversity of 1 (Morales, 2011). This increased contact with numerous ethnic groups has made the Ibanags to commonly use Tagalog/Filipino. Ibanags are forced into assimilation with this dominant language as this is a way to show adaption and survival in their changing landscape. Aquino (2009) laments the abrupt shift of lingua franca in Tuguegarao City citing that “many young people nowadays do speak Tagalog instead of Ibanag or Itawes, expressing themselves in Tagalog, disguised as Filipino – the National Language.” Such lamentation of Aquino echoes the view of Almurashi (2017) that “if people do not speak their

language in their community and pass it to the next generation, their language may decline and eventually die.”

Ethnic Intermarriage and Home Factors

Inter-ethnic marriage is also an important factor that has long term impact on Ibanag culture and Ibanag language use. Marriage of Ibanag people with members of other dominant ethnic groups, like Ilocano, results to the former being discarded as cultural reality in child rearing. Ibanag is a soft culture that could easily be overcome by forces of other ethnic cultures. In a marriage between an Ibanag and Ilocano, it is the language of the latter that dominates in the household, resulting to subsequent condition where the descendants grow to use Ilokano or Filipino or other languages. Tamayao (2019) strengthens this idea with his claim that “Ilokano language is primarily used in a marriage between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes. This is because the Ilokano partners continue to speak their native tongue while their Ibanag and Itawes spouses easily adapt to their language.”

In other cases, mix language couples opt to use a third language for child and household communications, most notably Tagalog (Filipino). The effect, however, is the same: the use of Ibanag language in the home dwindles, also affecting subsequent and extended families. The children of Ibanag and Ilocano couples grow to be culturally detached from Ibanag. As Tamayao (2019) observes “the preferred languages in the intermarriage between Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes are Ilokano, Filipino, and English. Mastering these languages capacitates them to understand and broaden their interest about their social, economic, political, and cultural concerns making them develop a higher linguistic capital to adapt and survive in their society.”

The above finding is in accord with David and Nambiar (2003), who posited that “marriages or partnerships where one parent speaks a minority language and the other only the majority language, can have a negative influence in the retention of the minority tongue by the children. The tendency is to adopt the majority language only.” A good case in point is Fulfulde (a language spoken in Gombe Nigeria) which is endangered because of intermarriage with speakers of other languages (Baldauf & Kaplan, 2007).

Another factor leading to the decline use of Ibanag is the view held by Ibanag parents. Parents today encourage their children to learn and speak Filipino, English, and Ilokano instead

of their own heritage language to prepare them for future life. Such situation is alarming in the recent years wherein the new generation of parents, although of Ibanag descent, prefer to use Filipino or English as their domestic medium of communication. As one informant revealed: *“Nowadays, Ibanag parents believe that their children are more likely to succeed if they are able to speak the popular and dominant languages in order to access education, better jobs, and prospects in life.”*

As parents no longer transmit the language to their children, the connection between children and older generation in the family is slowly broken and traditional values are gradually lost. This is initially seen in intergenerational language gap wherein younger generations could not effectively communicate with the older generations and vice versa in the family. An elder informant expressed her sentiments on this matter when she feels being misunderstood and hardly understood by her grandchildren every time she communicates with them in Ibanag. Such domestic practice is affirmed by Dayag (2011) revealing that the Ibanag language is now seldom used at home, and that only a few send their cell phone text messages in Ibanag language. Ibanag, he insisted, is one of those indigenous languages being slowly displaced by English and other dominant Philippine languages like Filipino and Ilocano. By the same token, UNESCO (2003) sees that “many indigenous peoples, associating their disadvantaged social position with their culture, have come to believe that their languages are not worth retaining. They abandon their languages and cultures in hopes of overcoming discrimination, to secure a livelihood, and enhance social mobility, or to assimilate to the global marketplace.”

Language Attitude

Language attitude plays a critical role in the maintenance or abandonment of a language. A positive attitude allows transmission of a language while negative attitude renders its decline. One recurrent theme in all interviews points that Ibanags are linguistically pliant people. A typical adult Ibanag of Tuguegarao City is multilingual because he/she is capable of communicating at an average five languages namely Ibanag, Itawes, Ilokano, Filipino and English. Speaking these five languages is a norm rather than an exception, a reason why they willingly adopt and easily speak practically all languages spoken in the region. Whenever and wherever Ibanags meet migrant people, they speak to them in their language instead of talking to them in Ibanag. An Ibanag tricycle driver and vegetable vendor during an interview note that *“we readily speak Filipino to our customers because it is difficult to guess their ethnolinguistic*

affiliation. To facilitate the communication process, we quickly use Filipino (Tagalog) as this is generally understood by everyone.” Ferraro (1999) expounds this narrative of the informants citing that: “people are assimilated to a language for various reasons such as the desire for prestige, economic, and social gains or a new and more efficient way of solving problems.” In the same vein, “a language can change or become modified due to the influence of other languages through the process of borrowing (Fasold 1984).”

The Ibanags are also considered pragmatic language users. They generally learn and speak a new language that provides them higher social incentive in order to fully engage in any economic, cultural, spiritual, and political activities. As most informants reveal, *“learning and speaking numerous languages (Filipino, Ilokano, and English) is advantageous and beneficial in daily living. We have better understanding of the social issues and concerns in radio, television, market, church, and school if we possess competence in these languages.”* Crawford (1995) offers a comparable and pragmatic reasoning on this matter citing that “as indigenous languages decline in power and number of speakers, they are no longer “useful.” With English taking their place in more and more domains, they no longer seem worth maintaining.” This finding affirms Bourdieu’s (1998) claim, that the ability to speak more language increases one’s linguistic capital which in turn bestows him/her better opportunities in life.

Related to pragmatic thinking is the subjective attitudes (motivation) of the Ibanags towards their own language vis-à-vis the dominant, national or official languages. For the Ibanags, speaking English, Filipino, and Ilokano is pregnant with various symbolisms. These widely spoken languages confer great pride as it conveys higher status and intelligence. Aside from bearing a mark of excellence, these languages also convey a symbol of civilization and progress as they are generally used in national and international transactions. In contrast, Ibanags perceive their heritage language to have low linguistic prestige and power. It is a “low class language” in the words of most informants. They feel the stigmatization of their language whenever it is likened to a bird by other ethnolinguistic groups because of its speed and intonation. “The low prestige attached to the Ibanag language confirms the idea that, “the low self-esteem of a speech community towards their language is a factor to their decision to abandon it. Minority speech community considers their language to be inferior than the languages they are acquiring; hence the prestige of a language is one essential variable in examining language death. More prestigious languages tend to replace less prestigious ones (Brenzinger, et al., 2015).

Availability and Access to Ibanag Materials

One great influence in the partial assimilation of Ibanags to dominant and popular cultures and languages is their exposure to numerous cultural capital of Filipino, Ilokano, and English in Tuguegarao. Local literatures, in print, visual, or spoken forms, presented in quad-media include extremely few materials that utilize the Ibanag language. It is noted that in Tuguegarao, Ilokano, Filipino and English materials are abundant and popular than Ibanag. Take for instance, the availability of Bannawag (Magazine Ilokano weekly magazine) with no existing Ibanag counterpart. Also, Ilokano, Filipino, and English songs are more common and popular than Ibanag songs in Tuguegarao. It is these resources (cultural capital), which enable the Ibanags to be influenced by dominant ethnic groups and to develop a feeling of low social and cultural status.

In the course of numerous interviews, Ibanags are conscious that their linguistic and cultural assimilation to the powerful and influential languages and culture as normal, acceptable, and inevitable. They admit that they do not have influential and powerful language and culture like the Filipino, English, and Ilokanos making them susceptible to their influence. Some informants attribute this condition to the fact that Ibanag language specialists and scholars are not as energetic as other ethnolinguistic groups in preserving, enriching, and propagating their language, culture and history. The scant reading materials in Ibanag is a manifestation of the slow or insufficient cultural production and reproduction in this regard. In effect, Ibanags have not preserved and intellectualized their language and culture resulting to their low cultural and linguistic status in the city, Cagayan province, and Cagayan Valley region. This proves Bourdieu's (1998) thesis that one's ethnic, linguistic, and social status is dependent on how much cultural or symbolic capital that a social group possesses.

The scarcity of Ibanag reading materials is explained, in part, by Aquino (2014) who averred that "Ibanag was hardly a written language just like many indigenous Philippine languages." This situation ushers in problems and issues on orthography which discourages the Ibanags to write in their own language. Problems on spelling and sentence structure still pervades among few Ibanag writers in the absence of established Ibanag orthography. With this situation, Ibanag written materials such as poems, songs, short stories, and the like are scarce. As Dayag (2011) aptly says; "Ibanags are adaptive individuals, becoming subservient to other languages due to scarcity of reading materials and other modes to enrich their

language.” In conjunction, Hoffmann (2009) sees that “losing language is likely to lead to the loss of many verbal art forms such as poetry, and traditional songs. Even if the language was written, it may lose some aspects such as its tales unless they are translated into other languages.”

Since production and reproduction of Ibanag cultural capital is a problem, access to it is another essential concern. In any barangay of Tuguegarao, one can hardly find materials such as Ibanag Bible, dictionary, pasyon, songs, prayers, poetry, verso, and the like. Access to them are difficult, if not nil, because Ibanag elders and culture bearers appropriate these scarce cultural items exclusively for themselves and their family. Sharing, reproducing, and transmitting these materials for wider readership and utilization is hardly done. Community members see and hold these materials only during special occasions such as Holy Week, fiesta, wake, and other relevant occasions. From the lens of the FGD informants, *“Ibanag cultural items are kept in the hands of elders and culture bearers because these materials confer them higher status in the community. They take prestige in safekeeping these cultural items for years but by keeping them away from younger generations and other community members, they unwittingly usher their death with the owners.”*

School Factor

The diminished use of the Ibanag language is not only a phenomenon observed in homes and households in Tuguegarao. It is likewise observed in Tuguegarao schools from elementary to graduate program. Teachers and school administrators prescribe the exclusive use of English and Filipino languages as they are the favored languages of the school. As Yazigy (2015) notes “mastering a foreign language, English or French, is highly valued for social communication as well as higher educational purposes.”

Before the implementation of the MTB-MLE, it was illegal to speak the indigenous languages in Tuguegarao. The school language policy deprives the pupils of their right to speak their native tongue and they were penalized by paying a fine once caught speaking the dialect. In the campus, one easily finds school rules posted in conspicuous places such as: “This is an English speaking school” or “Thank you for transacting business in English”. One informant narrates his Grade 3 experience of being penalized twenty pesos (P20.00) after having been caught speaking Ibanag in the classroom. This experience taught him at a young age that Ibanag

has lower linguistic value and to accept the primacy of English and Filipino in Philippine society. Such scenario is very much similar in Kenyan schools wherein any child caught speaking Gikuyu was fined, caned, or forced to carry a slate saying, “I am a donkey,” or “I am stupid.” (Almurashi, 2017).

In relation to the implementation of the MTB-MLE, a teacher informant from Tuguegarao Northeast Central School revealed that: *We could hardly organize one Ibanag class for our MTB-MLE this year even if there is one teacher available and competent to teach the subject. Nowadays, the number of pupils speaking Ibanag are very few and they cannot constitute one class. That is why the principal decided to offer Filipino as our MTB-MLE class.* Such scenario is explained by Grimes (2001) who cited that, “nation-state building through the schools (by educating pupils in the national language) has contributed to language shift in several countries, although it does not cause universal shift of the language. This is because sub-ethnic languages are not given attention in all education policies drawn up by the government.”

The impact of promoting English and Filipino in schools resulted to a different parenting behavior among Ibanag parents, too. Many parents perceived speaking Ibanag to be irrelevant and useless for their children. In effect, they taught Filipino and English to their children as a way of preparing them to hurdle academic challenges and to become competitive in school. Teaching their children these languages is the best way to prepare them for school life. To most of them, *teaching these languages makes them easily adopt to the demands of schooling because they are required to recite, write, and express their ideas in Filipino and English in school.* As a result of this practice, children develop a negative attitude towards their native tongue which is a good example of linguistic discrimination and inequality. Others also revealed that in effect to this practice, Ibanag language is undermined through indirect shame and subtle condescension.

The school policies prejudicial against Ibanag is also reflected in the absence of opportunities provided to hone the students’ writing and oral skills in their native language. A survey of all school papers and bulletins shows that students’ articles or cultural art works in Ibanag are not displayed and communicated. No part in the school paper, for example, is allotted for students to write their Ibanag short stories, poems, and other literary pieces. This occurs since press conferences and journalism activities promote and favor English and

Filipino in school, division, regional, and national competitions. With the advent of MTB-MLE, however, one can now read Ibanag sayings, proverbs and other literary pieces on the school fences and walls but its impact on language and cultural revitalization is something to be examined in the future.

Pull Factors

Economic Growth and Development Factors

“Economic factors are becoming common and insidious factors for displacing indigenous language due to industrial expansion. They include on-going industrialization, rapid economic transformation, migrant labor, and communication with outside regions, among others” (Rogers & Campbel, 2015). Mufwene (2004) states that “cities are important contact settings, where the new industries that have transformed the population structures of various places around the world have developed. They have become magnets for working age adults in rural areas in search of alternative economic opportunities. They have also produced non-traditional dynamics of competition and selection among the languages in contact, fostering the language of the industry as an urban vernacular and regional lingua franca, while collapsing ethnic boundaries.”

Although there is a need to update present statistics, common impressions among long-time residents of Tuguegarao suggest that there are now more non-Ibanags than Ibanags in Tuguegarao. This development is brought about, in a large part, by the rise of Tuguegarao as center of commerce and education, among others, in the Province and in Cagayan Valley. Two scholar informants revealed a historical account in this manner: *“The progressive urbanization of Tuguegarao had made the Ibanag language to suffer. When Tuguegarao was not yet a city, people particularly the youth have carried with them the fluency of using the language wherever they go. But when it became the center of education and commerce in Region 02, it has welcomed business opportunities and brought with it not only the massive arrival of transients but the migration of people from different towns/provinces. Thus, Ibanag as the known dialect of Tuguegarao has continuously diminished with the use of Ilocano, Filipino, English, and some known languages introduced.”*

In the recent years, Tuguegarao City is considered a growing urban area becoming more and more progressive with the presence of SM and Robinson malls and other trendy establishments. This index of economic growth further transformed the city as a melting pot of numerous ethnic groups and foreigners. As Ibanags are now experiencing an increasing contact with a wide variety of people due to various economic, political, social, cultural and spiritual activities, they also experience a dwindling use of their language, a thinning popularity of their language and a gradual loss of their cultural identity. One informant reveals: *“A great number of Ibanags are “forced” to utilize Filipino and English which are the common languages that everyone can speak in the market, business, school, and government transactions. As a result, they are influenced to adopt these languages for their advantage or for purpose of favorable trade negotiations. In the end, it threatens their way of life by deserting their native language.”* Mufwene (2004) affirms this condition when he pointed out that “in many places, one can speak only a specific language at the market, with the local administration or government, at church, at school, or even with their neighbors. The pressure grows when the population of a particular locality, such as a city, is mixed and integrated.”

Building on this concept, Ridler and Pons-Ridler (1984) further adds that the choice of language reflects the workings of the market. People choose a language that will benefit them in the long run. In addition, Schiffman (1998) observes that language shift in the minority group is inevitable when the language of the minority is seen as a language which does not help the speakers to improve their economic status and social mobility. Thus, the minority group will shift to the dominant language. Such language shift is evident in multicultural country like Singapore. As Coupland (2011) cites “parents in Singapore are shifting toward English and abandoning Asian languages in the home because of the market value the English language has and the advantages it will give their children.”

Media Factor

Media is another aspect of Ibanag lifeways that undermines their language. Krauss (1992), viewed technology such as radio and television as facilitating forces of language loss. Although he called the television as “cultural nerve gas,” he also avers that television and radio can also be useful in enhancing the prestige of a language. Over the years, local television and radio programs in Tuguegarao rarely utilize Ibanag as linguistic medium. Ibanag people are, most often than not, exposed, and are made to discuss, social and political issues that are

important in their lives in languages other than Ibanag. Radio stations do not produce as much Ibanag programs as compared before. The *arubang ta arubang* (face-to-face) which was a popular radio program in DZCV and Ibanag verso in DZTG were not continued in the passing of time. Today, one can rarely hear or read announcements aired in Ibanag language. Although Ibanag songs are aired on RBC TV channel, informants expressed that its viewership is small because not all households are connected with RBC cable network. This is not to mention that younger generations are more enticed to Filipino and English movies readily available in the different channels.

Most music played in the city are not in Ibanag language but they are in Ilokano, Filipino, and English languages. These songs are played not only during ordinary days but also during weddings, fiestas, (local festival celebrating the feast of a patron saint) and other celebrations. This scenario surfaces because Ilokano, Filipino and English music recordings in CDs, tapes, and karaokes are conveniently available in the city. Meanwhile, the Ilokano drama series aired over Bombo Radio and DWPE, as well as Filipino and English drama series in ABS-CBN, GMA, and other TV networks including movie houses are equally influential. Ibanag spouses, children, and other family members, keep track of these radio and television programs on daily basis which become contributory to their facility in assimilating a language not their “supposed” mother tongue.

Interestingly, the use of Ilokano, Filipino, and English languages by these type of media does not only facilitate wider and proper understanding of the information conveyed but it also legitimizes the dominant languages as the prominent or lingua franca in the northern part of the Philippines. As lucidly narrated by Aquino (2014) “Ibanag started to fade when Manila stations beamed their signals to outer space so that their Tagalog programs could be heard all over the Archipelago. These satellite televisions efficiently passed on to viewers from Tuguegarao numerous Tagalog programs in the southern end of Cagayan to Calayan, its northernmost island. In effect, this atrocious cultural assault was granted legal fiat.”

A more powerful force influencing language and culture in Tuguegarao nowadays are computer, internet, cellphone, facebook and other social platforms. Many Ibanags most especially the younger generations today possess smartphones, tablets, and computers and they are heavy users of this new technology. Among these generations, shout outs, cellphone texts, e-mails, letters, and the like are rarely expressed in Ibanag. Few informants attribute this fact

to the conflicting knowledge and difficulty in writing Ibanag due to its unestablished orthography.

Globalization and Modernization

The dwindling use of indigenous languages is usually attributed to the phenomenon of globalization. Numerous researchers such as Nettle & Romaine (2000), Crystal (2000), Skuttnab-Kangas (2000), Maurais & Morris (2003), and Hagège (2006) have reported that the worldwide spread of English language as the lingua franca of globalization has already dominated and silenced all indigenous languages. This was made possible by other instruments of globalization, such internet, computer, social media, and fast food chains (McDonald and Shakeys), among others, where English and Filipino are the most common and appropriate working language for transaction.

In the past decade, Ibanags, like many indigenous groups in the country, have wholeheartedly accepted modernization as a way of finding an effective place in a world that is constantly changing and highly uncertain. There is an increasing contact among Ibanags with the outside world through facebook, cellphones, online education, travel, movies, among others. There is massive consumption of foods, music, clothing, electronic gadgets and the like that are not only nationally but globally circulating. These contact and consumption have contributed in part or in full on their language preference and assimilation. This phenomenon is similar in “Kenya wherein English and Kiswahili are replacing the indigenous languages in more domains, including the home domain (Ogechi, 2003).

The role of globalization and modernization in the dwindling use of a language is well explained by Grimes (2001). She notes that “modernization, among other things, is a factor which accompanies language shift. When industrialization comes to areas where minority languages are spoken, it is the majority language which is used to train employees in the new plants and factories, and the majority language which is used as a lingua franca.” In the same line of thinking, Crystal (2000) observes that “although there is an ample historical record to show that some languages inevitably die out, global forces now pose threats on an unprecedented scale. This is done as a matter of survival in the face of modernization.”

Political factors

It is a general observation that Ibanag language is no longer the dominant language of politics in Tuguegarao especially in legislative meetings, ordinance-making, presentations, seminars, and conferences. Perhaps this is a reflection of the diminishing role of the Ibanag people in the political leadership in the city. But a bigger and stronger factor in the dwindling use of not only Ibanag but also other indigenous languages, is the official language policy of the Philippines. As one informant from the academe notes: *Indigenous languages like Ibanag are at the brink of endangerment because of government actions favoring the dominant languages. Through the years, the government has erroneously espoused the conventional wisdom that monolingualism is the key to national consolidation and development since language diversity is a source of ethnic conflict and a roadblock to education, commerce, and political negotiations in the country.* Dawe (2014) explicates this concept citing that “from the arrival of American colonizers, language policy in the Philippines has been designed to produce an ideal citizenry capable of speaking the languages (in this case, Filipino and English) seen as promoting democracy and national unity. Though the goals of democracy and national unity are laudable, this language governmentality has had the unfortunate consequence of marginalizing minority languages and alienating their speakers from full participation in society.”

A recurrent theme in the interview shows that the formulation of a National Language Policy identifying Filipino and English as the media of instruction is a great contributor in the dwindling use and language shift in Ibanag language. Informants averred that English and Filipino have continued to marginalize the Ibanag and other indigenous languages in the country. This confirms Agcaoili's (2007) claim that the Philippine language policy is skewed, unjust, and culturally tyrannical and dictatorial as it entitles and privileges Filipino and English in all domains of life at the expense of other lingua francas”. A lawyer informant said that “No less than the 1987 Constitution, Article XIV, Section 8 (Nolledo, 1995) declares that Filipino and English are the official languages and the regional languages as auxiliary languages of the country. In this constitutional provision, English becomes a co-official with the Filipino language and positions the regional languages as less prestigious. Interestingly, the Department of Education and the Commission on Higher Education play a key role in promoting the prestige of English and Filipino as they are mandated to be at the forefront in its implementation in cooperation with government and non-government organizations.”

The consequence of the above-cited constitutional provision is the implementation of the bilingual policy defined as the separate use of Filipino and English as the media of instruction in specific subject areas and developing competence in both languages at the national level. With bilingualism, the Filipino and English language were cultivated and elaborated as a scholarly discourse bringing their continuous intellectualization. It also resulted to a curriculum that does not give preference to Ibanag as medium of instruction or as a subject matter formally learned in school by pupils and students. All of these consequences, in addition to their widespread utilization in Tuguegarao and the country, have slowly pushed the Ibanags and other ethnic groups to adopt them more than their heritage language which remained unexamined, undeveloped, and less imposed.

Institutional Support

Language maintenance and development is secured in numerous social institutions such as churches, government, media, business, legal bodies, schools, and the home. For Crawford (1995), one cardinal sign that the number of language speakers is diminishing is when the usage declines in these “domains”. Rogers and Campbell (2015) affirm this claim when they noted that “institutional support is considered essential for assuring the vitality of a language. Its absence can influence speakers to shift away from a minority language.”

Over the years, there is little institutional support on the use, transmission, production, preservation, and intellectualization of Ibanag language and culture by various social institutions. According to the informants from media and academe, “*the institutional support to revitalize Ibanag language, is very little to zero. This is because of the weak support from the Local Government Unit, media, business, church, higher education institutions (HEIs) in Tuguegarao for programs, projects, and activities that are meant to promote Ibanag culture and language.*”

The same observation is true, generally, with the Church, which is considered a medium through which culture is passed from one generation to the next. The Eucharistic celebrations and sermons are rarely delivered in Ibanag as there are few Ibanag priests. Ibanag prayers are spoken extremely rare that once made they are casually mistaken to be a foreign tongue akin to Latin. There is only one Ibanag Eucharistic celebration scheduled at 4:30 am every Sunday where only the adults are more likely to attend.

Few informants opined that learning Ibanag culture and language is no longer a way of life rather it is relegated at the level of entertainment by different social institutions. Ibanag songs, dances, and other cultural artworks are seen and heard only during fiesta or purposely made to entertain visitors and guests of government offices, schools, churches, and media on special occasions. Others also expressed their sentiment on the absence of genuine and effective programs for cultural revitalization despite heightened decline of Ibanag language and culture. For them, the introduction of the annual Afi Festival in Tuguegarao and the establishment of Ibanag Heritage Foundation Inc. (IHFI) are noteworthy and praiseworthy. More, however, should be undertaken in reviving, revitalizing, and maintaining Ibanag language and culture.

The role of higher education institutions is also much desired inasmuch as they have the language professionals and social science teachers who can spin the wheel for the conservation and development of Ibanag language and culture. The case of Ilokano linguists and professionals in the University of Hawaii at Manoa offering Bachelor of Arts degree with a specialization in Ilokano is a good model for the Ibanags to pursue their quest for cultural determination and survival. In this way, more Ibanag studies and curricular revival efforts are made to address this essential and urgent concern.

Conclusion

The dwindling use of Ibanag language is a confluence of broad and multiple non-linguistic factors which come into play over the years in Tuguegarao City. The push factors include migration; ethnic intermarriage and home factors; language attitude and cultural orientation; school factor; and availability and access to Ibanag materials. On the other hand, the pull factors are the economic growth and development; globalization and modernization; political factor; and institutional support. These push and pull factors accounting for the decline of Ibanag use in the city do not necessarily operate independently of each other. Rather, they sometimes overlap, or at least two or more factors may work together. Without institutionalized, methodological, multidisciplinary and grassroot support as well as systematic interventions from the schools, government, media, and other agents of culture, the dwindling use of Ibanag language and the gradual loss of Ibanag culture will continue and will be inevitable. This can be spearheaded by higher education institutions as they have the available

human resources, professional competence, curricular flexibility, and pedagogical systems to work for its revitalization.

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Differences in vocabulary, clauses, and voices in published academic articles written by native and non-native speakers of English

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Abstract

Academic papers written by native and nonnative speakers of English can be differentiated easily. Some of the features that distinguish papers written by native speakers from those written by nonnative speakers are the levels of vocabulary, grammar, and style used in the papers. The current study aimed to identify differences between native and non-native speakers' academic writing in terms of vocabulary, grammar and voice. Data were collected from 20 papers. Ten papers were written by native speakers of English and published in the

ELT Journal, and the other ten were written by non-native speakers of English and published in the *Asian EFL Journal*. To determine whether a paper was written by a nonnative speaker of English, the introduction section of the paper was read by a native speaker. To find out whether a paper was written by a native speaker, the identity of the writer was checked. The researcher identified the types of main clauses and subordinate clauses in each sentence extracted from the papers. In addition, the vocabulary used in the papers was categorized into vocabulary levels based on the COCA/BNC and an Academic Word List. The results were compared statistically using a significance test with a significance level of 0.05 to determine differences in vocabulary, clauses, and voice between the two categories of academic writing. The results of the analysis revealed differences between the two speaker groups in the percentage of passive voice used, but not in clauses and vocabulary.

Keywords: vocabulary, clauses, passive voice, native speaker, non-native speaker, academic writing

Introduction

Language produced by native and non-native speakers can be differentiated by several factors, including vocabulary, grammar, and style. Language teaching has largely focused on achieving a native speaker-level of the target language (Jenkins, 2006, p. 169). Therefore, in English language teaching there has been much research investigating the features of English used by a native speaker, such as interpretation (Wray, Bell, & Jones, 2016), speaking rate (Baese-Berk & Morrill, 2015), stance strategies in writing (Shirzadi, Akhgar, Rooholamin, & Shafiee, 2017), the use of cohesive devices (Saadat & Alavi, 2018), and the use of speech segmentation (Sanders, Neville, & Woldorff, 2002). In addition, research has also been conducted on teaching methodologies that aim to help people obtain native-like language abilities. However, in English as a Foreign Language teaching contexts, a native speaker-level has been claimed to be unachievable (Wang & Hill, 2011, p. 208).

Since English has been the dominant language for academic publication (Genç & Bada, 2010, p. 142), the demand for native speaker-level academic writing has been increasing. Unlike spoken language, the standard of which is difficult to define (Jenkins, 2006, p. 171), academic writing expects native-like levels within specified limited varieties, i.e. British English and American English. Therefore, non-native speakers of English are often required to have qualified native speakers proofread their manuscripts prior to publication (Harwood,

Austin, & Macaulay, 2009, p. 167). The proofreading usually involves two levels of language editing, i.e. vocabulary and grammar (Carduner, 2007, p. 284).

Research on the use of grammar, vocabulary, and style by a native speaker in academic writing has examined several different subjects, including the use of the introductory *it* pattern (Larsson, 2017), adjective clause processing and interpretation (Street, 2017), the use of discourse marker *like* (Diskin, 2017), lexical bundles (Ädel & Erman, 2012), gender agreement violation (Lewis, Lemhöfer, Schoffelen, & Schriefers, 2016), and passive voice (Baratta, 2009). However, research that comprehensively compares vocabulary, grammar, and voice used by native and non-native speakers of English in published academic writing is lacking. Therefore, the current research analyzed syntactic, voice, and lexical differences in published academic journal articles written by native and non-native speakers of English. The results of this research can benefit non-native speakers in academic writing, by helping them avoid rejection due to linguistic and stylistic problems when submitting their paper to an international journal.

Review of literature

Grammar, voices and vocabulary in English academic writing

Academic writing is most commonly characterized by the use of academic vocabulary (Paquot, 2014, p. 211). Research has created lists of academic vocabulary, beginning with Campion and Elley in 1971 (Coxhead, 2000, p. 214). With the advent of computer technology, it has been possible to develop more comprehensive academic vocabulary lists, such as that created by Coxhead (2000). This vocabulary list has been used by many researchers, including Aziez (2018). The most current academic vocabulary was developed Gardner and Davies (2014), called the New Academic Vocabulary List. The list contains 3,000 words, and covers 13.8% of the academic texts in the *Corpus of Contemporary American English* (COCA) and 13.7% of the *British National Corpus* (BNC) (Gardner & Davies, 2014, p. 323). However, most of the words used in academic writing can also be categorized based on the frequency of their use. Nation (2004) built a 25-level vocabulary list based on their frequency in COCA and BNC, each level of which contains 1,000 word families.

In a pedagogical context, teaching academic vocabulary has been recommended as the ultimate goal for academic writing classes (Coxhead & Byrd, 2007, p. 133). In addition, ESL

students admitted that academic vocabulary helps them choose better words in academic writing (Bee Choo, Tan Ai Lin, Mehar Singh, & Ganapathy, 2017, p. 63). However, many researchers also doubt that the academic word list is significant in academic writing (Durrant, 2016; Mozaffari & Moini, 2014; Paribakht & Webb, 2016). They suggest that discipline-specific vocabulary, also known as technical words, is more beneficial. Ha and Hyland (2017) propose a model to determine which words are considered technical words in a given discipline.

Another language feature which distinguishes academic writing from general-purpose writing is the use of specific grammatical features. These features are not very distinguishable from style in many language pedagogy publications (see Brinton, 1988; Holdich, Chung, & Holdich, 2004). These features are very significant because grammatical features are predictors of high-quality academic writing (Holdich et al., 2004). Language features of academic English include, among others, complex noun phrases, premodifying nouns, and nominalization (Staples, Egbert, Biber, & Gray, 2016, pp. 162–163). Coxhead and Byrd (2007, p. 134) added that, in academic writing, verbs are rarely repeated, and passive voice is more common than in general-purpose writing.

There is a consensus that voice is categorized as part of style, rather than grammar (Amare, 2005, p. 159). Therefore, the selection of either active or passive voice is contextual, rather than rule-governed (Ruben, 2001, p. 45). Williams and Bizup (2007) revealed three conditions where passive voice is preferred over active voice. First, we use passive voice when the doer in the sentence is unknown, if it is not important for readers, or if the writer does not want the readers to know. Second, passive voice is recommended when its use will make the sentence easier to understand. A writer tends to start a sentence with more familiar information (Baratta, 2009, p. 1410) and end it with a new idea or a complicated long phrase. Finally, when a writer needs to create a consistent point of view for a certain reader, a passive verb is necessary to make the noun, which is of interest to the reader, the subject of the sentence.

Academic writing by native and non-native speakers of English

A complex and wide range of grammar and high vocabulary variability are the written language features of a native speaker's English, if not all languages. This common knowledge is often found in advanced language proficiency descriptions, such as C2 for CEFR (see Isbell, 2017, p. 38), or language test rubrics, such as Band 9 for IELTS (Soleymanzadeh & Gholami, 2014, p. 1813). In fact, many native speakers of English develop their writing skills during

their undergraduate study until they reach the commonly-defined native speaker level of English (Aull & Lancaster, 2014, pp. 172–173). One of the differences between undergraduate students' and post-graduate students' writing is that undergraduates tend to use more finite dependent clauses as freshmen; then, in their later years, they prefer nonfinite clauses, and finally, during their postgraduate studies, they prefer dependent phrases (Staples et al., 2016, p. 162).

The goal of language teaching in ESL and EFL contexts is to achieve the level of language produced by a native speaker. This trend was identified in a study conducted by Çagatay & Gürocak (2016, p. 711), who revealed that most EFL teachers in Turkey wanted to try incorporating the CEFR into their curriculum. This expectation is over ambitious. Although a non-native speaker of English believes that they are disadvantaged by having to write in English, a study by Römer (2009, pp. 98–99) shows that advanced and experienced L2 English writers might match a native speaker in certain aspects of academic writing. However, less advanced and novice L2 writers might be handicapped by their non-native status. Tillema, van den Bergh, Rijlaarsdam, and Sanders (2013) discovered that young L1 and L2 writers wrote at a higher level of language in their L1 compared to in their L2. Isbell (2017, p. 39) speculated that the difference in the language levels between L1 and L2 should be smaller for adult writers. One of the factors which separates the quality of English written by L1 and L2 writers is the application of style, which is not easy for an L2 writer to learn (Hyland, 2016, p. 60). Unlike grammar, style involves the selection of two grammatically accepted sentences based on the context (Williams & Bizup, 2007, p. 10). A native speaker, on the other hand, selects the proper style based on instinct, while a non-native speaker uses their memory.

English has become the major language used in academic publications (Lillis & Curry, 2007, p. 1). Universities in non-English speaking countries are trying to increase their quality in order to become world-class universities (Cremonini, Westerheijden, Benneworth, & Dauncey, 2014, p. 342). One of the factors determining the quality of a university is the number and quality of publications by their faculty (Huang, 2015, p. 213). Therefore, this creates pressure among faculty members to publish in English, as it is the current language of publication (Mok & Wilding, 2003, pp. 145–146). Unfortunately, poor-quality English is one of the top ten reasons for rejection after initial submission, even for journals in a non-English speaking country (Dogra, 2011, p. 124). And poor grammar is the most common factor that contributes to writing deficiency (Parmar & Sarkar, 2017, p. 141).

Regardless of their level of language proficiency, it is still recommended that L2 writers have their final version proofread (Kennedy, 2018, p. 367), and many hire native speakers (Lillis & Curry, 2006, p. 4). Some L2 writers prefer to wait until they have completed the revisions requested in reviewers' feedback (Hyland, 2016, p. 65). Reviewers who are native speakers frequently recommend L2 speaker submissions be proofread by a qualified native speaker of English (Mungra & Webber, 2010, pp. 47–49), although they do not tend to recommend rejecting articles based on the quality of English (see Hyland, 2016). Some journals suggest that L2 writers should have their paper proofread by a native speaker and require a proof of proofreading even for the initial submission (McKinley & Rose, 2018, p. 9). However, proofreaders rarely change types of clauses, style (particularly voice), or vocabulary unless they are incorrectly used by the authors (Bisaillon, 2007, p. 313; Lillis & Curry, 2006, p. 15). As a result, the “non-nativeness” often persists in the published article.

Types of sentences and clauses in English

Determining the types of sentences used is also within the scope of the current study. Sentences in English are divided into four types, i.e. simple sentences, complex sentences, compound sentences, and compound complex sentences (Ruben, 2001, p. 66). A simple sentence only has one main clause, usually referred as the independent clause, and no subordinate clause, or dependent clause. When a sentence is composed of two main clauses or more, still without a subordinate clause, it is termed a compound sentence. In the event that one or more subordinate clauses are used with one main clause, the sentence is known as a complex sentence, and it is called a compound complex-sentence when there are two or more main clauses in the sentence (Hacker & Sommers, 2014, pp. 510–511).

There are three types of subordinate clauses in English, i.e. noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses. A noun clause is a clause which replaces a noun, an adjective clause replaces an adjective, and an adverb clause replaces an adjective (Ruben, 2001, p. 66). Adjective and adverb clauses can be reduced to adjectival and adverbial phrases. An adjective clause can be reduced by omitting a relative pronoun that is not a subject, along with the verb *to be* (*is, am, are, was, were, will/may/might/can/could/would be*) in a passive or non-verbal clause (Kennedy, 2003, p. 282). Only the main verb, including the verb *to be*, is omitted in a reduced adverb clause, and some adverbial conjunctions such as *because* and *while* are also deleted (Gear & Gear, 1996).

Methods

This study was conducted through quantitative research, where the data were analyzed and presented as numbers. In this study, the data were analyzed using statistical formulas. The following subsection describes how the data sources were selected and how the data were collected and analyzed.

Selection for source of data

The data were obtained from papers written by native and non-native speakers of English. The papers were obtained from two international journals. The non-native speaker papers were obtained from the “Teaching Article” section in the *Asian EFL Journal*, because many papers in that section were written by L2 writers. The papers were selected based on the affiliation of the authors. Plagiarism (the similarity index) was checked using *Turnitin*, and papers with a similarity index greater than 10% were not selected for analysis. Afterwards, papers were checked by a native speaker of English to ensure that the papers were not proofread by a native speaker. Meanwhile, the papers written by native speakers of English were collected from the *ELT Journal*. Papers published in this journal are articles on the subject of teaching, and are similar to those in the *Asian EFL Journal*. The papers were selected based on the authors’ affiliations. Details of the selected papers are presented in Table 1.

Table 1: *Description of selected papers for analysis*

Authors	Affiliation country	Number of papers	Average word count	Average Number of sentences
Native speakers	United States	2	3096	127
	United Kingdom	2	3542	133
	Australia	2	3293	125
	Canada	2	3470	132
	New Zealand	2	3111	148
Non-native speakers	Indonesia	4	3327	157
	Japan	1	7328	142

China	1	3715	173
India	1	3956	172
Malaysia	1	3333	141
Iran	1	3208	123
Philippines	1	3264	121

Data collection and analysis technique

This study involved two types of data collection. Data for vocabulary analysis were collected by grouping all the vocabulary from all the papers into 25 levels of vocabulary, as provided by Nation (2004). Each level contains 1,000 words found in the British National Corpus (BNC) and the Corpus of Contemporary American English, with Level 1 containing the most frequently used words and Level 25 containing the words used least frequently.

To find out whether the vocabulary used by both groups were similar or different, a significance test was run in R, an open-source software program for advanced statistical computing. The difference was tested at each level of vocabulary. To decide whether I could use an Independent Sample T Test, the normality test was determined using the Shapiro-Wilk Test at the level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. The data, which were not normally distributed, were transformed using a square root transformation technique. In case the data were not normally distributed after the transformation, I used a non-parametric test, i.e. the Mann Whitney U Test, as an alternative for the Independent Sample T Test.

To analyze the articles' clauses and voices, each sentence was analyzed remotely by determining the type of sentences, voice, and the types of dependent clauses in the sentence. The following diagram shows how the sentences were analyzed.

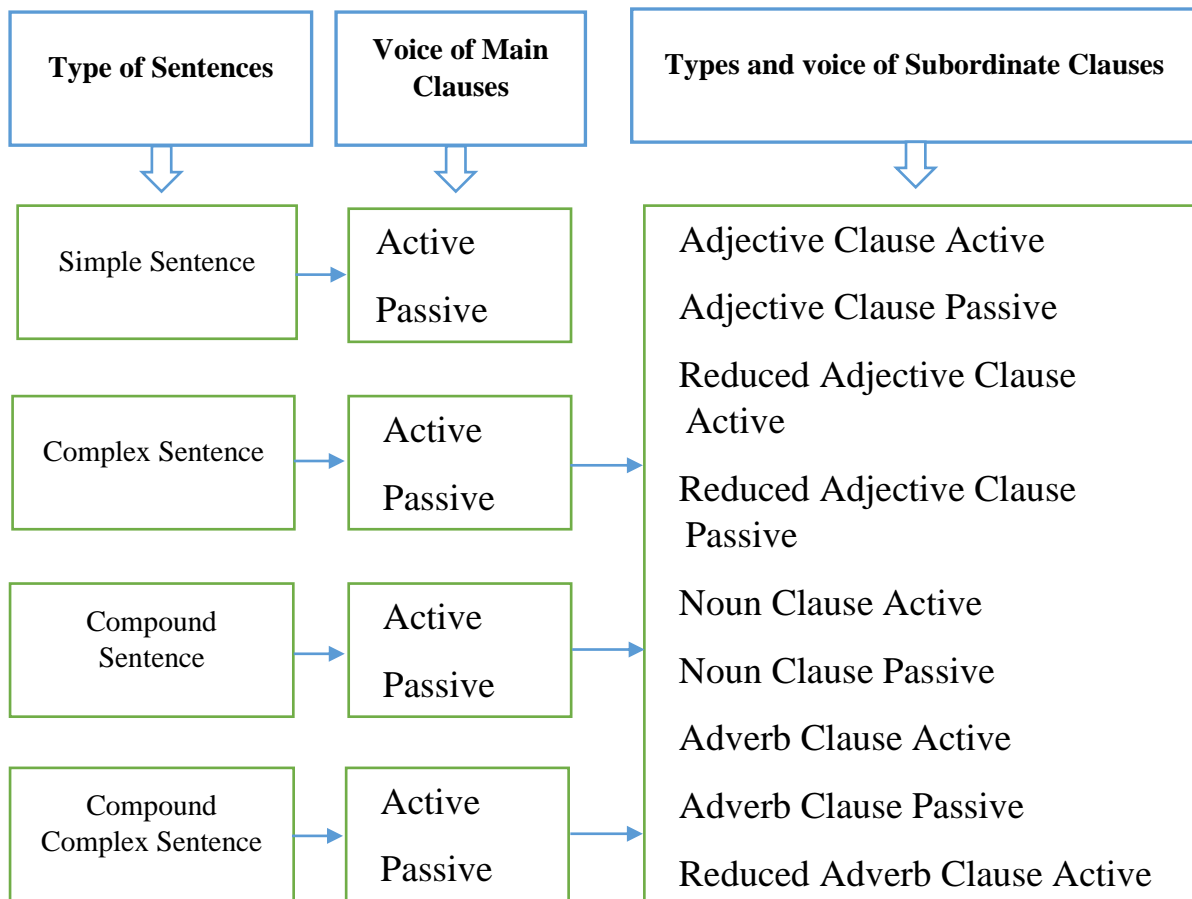


Figure 1: *Procedure of data collection for clauses and voices*

As illustrated in Figure 1, for each sentence I determined the type of sentence, i.e. simple sentence, complex sentence, compound sentence or compound complex sentence. The voice for all dependent clauses in a sentence was determined based on the verb. For non-simple sentences, the types of dependent clauses were found for each dependent clause in the sentence. Sentences that were so grammatically incorrect that analysis was impossible were removed. Each paper was split into five parts, i.e. Abstract, Introduction and Literature Review, Method, Result and Discussion, and Conclusions.

Findings

The presentation of the results of this study is divided into three parts, i.e. vocabulary, clauses, and voice. The data for clauses and voices, particularly passive voice, are split into groups to illustrate how certain clauses and passive voice were used in different constructions.

The difference in vocabulary

A summary of the data regarding the vocabulary found in papers written by two speaker groups, along with a statistical comparison, is presented in Table 2. Analyses were only possible for vocabulary Levels 1 through 11. A small number of papers with higher vocabulary levels made analysis uninterpretable.

Table 2: *Description and comparison of vocabulary levels by L1 and L2 English writers*

Vocabulary Levels	Native Speaker			Non-Native Speaker			t/W	p-value
	mean	sd	SW	mean	sd	SW		
1	0.6023	0.0468	0.1878	0.5869	0.0478	0.9508	0.7268	0.4767
2	0.0977	0.0160	0.3318	0.1039	0.0185	0.3833	-0.8001	0.4338
3	0.0855	0.0219	0.8614	0.0846	0.0144	0.8831	0.1028	0.9194
4	0.0090	0.0034	0.908	0.0118	0.0050	0.3937	-1.4416	0.1687
5	0.0050	0.0022	0.3288	0.0055	0.0027	0.0679	-0.4624	0.6495
6*	0.0052	0.0020	0.2322	0.0039	0.0032	0.2644	1.4831	0.1609
7	0.0020	0.0017	0.4124	0.0048	0.0034	0.1394	-2.2654	0.0409
8**	0.0021	0.0017	0.0232	0.0025	0.0041	0.0000	62.0000	0.3843
9*	0.0006	0.0004	0.6313	0.0008	0.0010	0.3985	0.10592	0.9171
10*	0.0007	0.0005	0.6566	0.0010	0.0015	0.0740	-0.0905	0.9291
11*	0.0006	0.0007	0.0891	0.0006	0.0006	0.4465	-0.7825	0.4452

* square root transformation, ** non-parametric test, SW (Shapiro Wilk) = p-value for normality test

Table 2 shows that the data transformation was necessary for Vocabulary levels 6, 9, 10, and 11 due to a non-normal distribution of the original data. The transformation did not work for Level 8, and thus a non-parametric test was used for the significance test. The mean and standard deviation (sd) were calculated based on the original data for easier interpretation. The results of analysis in the table show that the vocabulary for each level used by L1 and L2 writers in published English academic writing was not statistically different. Statistical

evidence for different usage vocabulary was only found at Level 7 (p-value = 0.04). However, because the number of papers analyzed for each speaker group was limited, the results of statistical analysis may be not very interpretable. A detailed visualization of the results is presented in Figure 2.

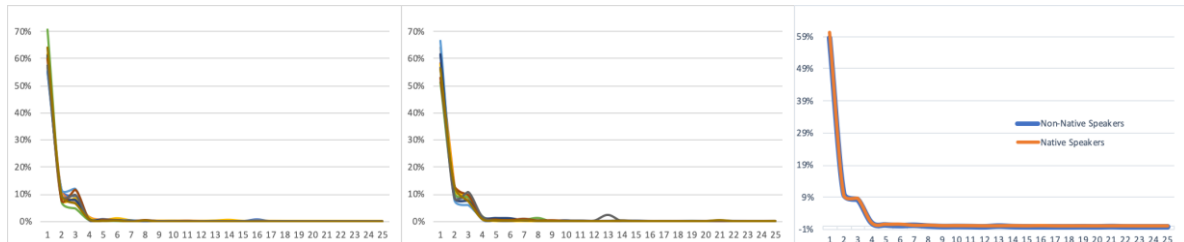


Figure 2: *Vocabulary levels in papers written by native and non-native speakers of English*

Figure 2 illustrates vocabulary levels in each paper written by native speakers (left) and non-native speakers (center). In addition, the average vocabulary levels by both speaker groups is presented on the right in Figure 2. The illustration above confirms the results of statistical analysis, which showed that the vocabulary levels in both paper groups are generally similar.

The current research also investigated the use of words on a list of academic vocabulary in published academic papers written by native and non-native speakers of English. The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: *Description and comparison of academic vocabulary by L1 and L2 English writers*

Native Speaker			Non-Native Speaker			t	p-value
mean	sd	SW	mean	sd	SW		
0.1557	0.0162	0.4257	0.1561	0.0182	0.5946	-0.0367	0.9711

SW (Shapiro Wilk) = p-value for normality test

Table 3 also shows no evidence that the words listed as academic vocabulary were used differently by both speaker groups in their published academic writing.

The difference in types of sentences and clauses

Both native and non-native speakers of English used all types of sentences in their published academic writing. The differences in frequency of each sentence are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: *Differences in frequency of sentence types by L1 and L2 English writers*

Types of Sentences	Native Speaker			Non-Native Speaker			t/W	p-value
	mean	sd	SW	mean	sd	SW		
Simple*	0.340	0.093	0.280	0.382	0.101	0.007	37	0.353
Complex	0.573	0.095	0.558	0.525	0.101	0.853	1.099	0.286
Compound	0.038	0.016	0.315	0.041	0.029	0.806	-0.287	0.778
Compound Complex	0.049	0.028	0.508	0.053	0.038	0.121	-0.253	0.803

* non-parametric test, SW (Shapiro Wilk) = p-value for normality test

In Table 4, only data for simple sentences were not normally distributed ($p < 0.05$), and data transformation with either a log or square root did not make the distribution normal. Therefore, a non-parametric test (the Mann Whitney U Test) was used, while an Independent Sample T Test was used for other data. The results show that both native and non-native speakers of English used all types of sentences with the same frequency ($p > 0.05$).

The following table shows the description and comparison between the frequency of clauses used by both speaker groups in published academic writing.

Table 5: *Difference in frequency of clause types by L1 and L2 English writers*

Types of Clauses	Native Speaker			Non-Native Speaker			t	p-value
	mean	sd	SW	mean	sd	SW		
Noun Clause	0.264	0.068	0.461	0.240	0.063	0.970	0.829	0.418
Adjective Clause	0.348	0.077	0.646	0.345	0.061	0.827	0.094	0.926
Adverb Clause	0.202	0.074	0.523	0.219	0.051	0.980	-0.590	0.564
Reduced Adj Clause	0.146	0.063	0.413	0.154	0.054	0.929	-0.324	0.750

Reduced Adv Clause 0.041 0.017 0.995 0.042 0.031 0.151 -0.155 0.879

SW (Shapiro Wilk) = p-value for normality test

As shown in Table 5 above, the p-values for all types of clauses used by L1 and L2 English writers in published academic writing were not smaller than 0.05. Therefore, we do not have adequate evidence to assume that there is a significant difference in frequency between the types of clauses used by L1 and L2 English writers.

The difference in voices

Previous studies have indicated that passive voice is very common in academic writing. The current study compares the proportion of passive sentences between L1 and L2 English writers. Table 6 shows descriptive statistics and significance tests for passive sentences in main clauses found in published academic writing.

Table 6: *Difference in frequency of passive voice in main clauses*

Sections of Paper	Native Speaker			Non-Native Speaker			t	p-value
	mean	sd	SW	mean	sd	SW		
Abstract	0.169	0.148	0.178	0.366	0.222	0.425	-2.337	0.033
Introduction	0.137	0.082	0.793	0.182	0.065	0.940	-1.345	0.196
Methods	0.399	0.265	0.086	0.426	0.112	0.118	-0.299	0.770
Finding	0.127	0.097	0.326	0.218	0.110	0.978	-1.899	0.075
Conclusion*	0.157	0.187	0.103	0.393	0.311	0.887	-2.021	0.060
All	0.178	0.081	0.340	0.251	0.057	0.841	-2.323	0.034

* square root transformation, SW (Shapiro Wilk) = p-value for normality test

Only data for the conclusion section were not normally distributed (p-value < 0.05), so the data were transformed using a square root transformation technique. Original data were kept for the mean and standard deviation in Table 6 for ease of interpretation. The table shows evidence of differences in the use of passive voice (p-value < 0.033) in the abstract section, and also when the data were not split into sections.

Analysis of subordinate clauses is presented in Table 7. As in the main clauses, the data were split into 5 groups based on the sections of the paper.

Table 7: *Differences in frequency of passive voice in subordinate clauses*

Sections of Paper	Native Speaker			Non-Native Speaker			t	p-value
	mean	sd	SW	mean	sd	SW		
Abstract	0.160	0.174	0.108	0.378	0.243	0.103	-2.309	0.034
Introduction	0.240	0.117	0.309	0.267	0.078	0.293	-0.609	0.551
Methods	0.283	0.144	0.387	0.439	0.158	0.619	-2.233	0.040
Finding*	0.225	0.137	0.861	0.326	0.144	0.199	-1.775	0.094
Conclusion	0.229	0.224	0.086	0.349	0.226	0.094	-1.157	0.263

* square root transformation, SW (Shapiro Wilk) = p-value for normality test

Table 7 shows that native and non-native speakers of English used different proportions of passive sentences in subordinate clauses in the abstract and method sections. There was no evidence of differences in other sections of the articles.

Subordinate clauses in English can be categorized into two main categories, i.e. non-reduced clauses, which includes noun clauses, adjective clauses, and adverb clauses; and reduced clauses, including reduced adjective clauses and reduced adverb clauses. To determine the difference in the proportions of passive sentences between two categories, a significance test was conducted, and the results are provided in Table 8.

Table 8: *Differences in frequency of passive voice for each type of clause*

Types of Clauses	Native Speaker			Non-Native Speaker			t	p-value
	mean	sd	SW	mean	sd	SW		
All Sub Clauses	0.231	0.098	0.373	0.313	0.075	0.969	-2.103	0.050
Reduced Clauses	0.465	0.144	0.750	0.724	0.159	0.967	-3.830	0.001
Nonreduced Clauses	0.163	0.085	0.986	0.182	0.053	0.453	-0.598	0.559

SW = p-value for normality test

Table 8 shows evidence that native and non-native speakers of English used different proportions of passive voice in subordinate clauses. When the data were split based on the clause categories, this difference was only present in reduced clauses.

Discussion

The objective of this research was to examine the use of vocabulary, clauses, and voice in published academic articles written by native and non-native speakers of English. To achieve this objective, the data were analyzed statistically using data transformation and non-parametric significance tests, as parametric tests were not possible because of a non-normal distribution. The results of analysis show that vocabulary used by both writer groups are not statistically different, but there were some differences found in the use of clauses and voice.

Regarding the use of vocabulary in published academic papers, both native and non-native speakers of English used more than 55% of the 1,000 words l. Although not statistically different, the data shows that native speakers used more of the Level 1 1,000 words (60%) compared to non-native speakers (58.70%) on average. Words at vocabulary levels greater than Level 4 were very rarely used by both speaker groups, i.e. 2% of words from level 5th through level 11th, and 0.5% from level 12th through level 25th. The similarity between the vocabulary levels in published academic papers by native and non-native speakers of English is assumed to exist because both writer groups are exposed to the same texts, which they read both for the current research purposes and for their studies when pursuing a degree. Therefore, they have the same level of vocabulary, and as a result they use words similarly. This conclusion is also supported by the finding that the same proportion of words listed by Gardner and Davies (2014) as academic vocabulary were used in both groups.

Similarly, for types of sentences in main clauses, both native and non-native speakers of English used the same proportion of simple sentences, complex sentences, compound sentences, and compound-complex sentences. Both speaker groups used more complex sentences, i.e. 57% for L1 writers and 53% for L2 writers, than simple sentences, i.e. 34% for L1 writers and 38% for L2 writers. Compound sentences and compound-complex sentences were used no more than 5% of the time by both speaker groups. These mixed types of sentences by both speaker groups follow recommendations by Hacker and Sommers (2014, p. 247) as an effort to avoid monotony and choppiness in academic writing. This mix was also achieved by both speaker groups for types of subordinate clauses, which were also similar between native and non-native speakers of English. Both speaker groups showed that adjective clauses

appeared to be more prominent, both in the reduced and non-reduced forms. Considering the many differences in other grammatical aspects between native and non-native speakers of English, as presented in previous research (Kozáčíková, 2015; Larsson, 2017), it is surprising to learn that native and non-native speakers of English used similar proportions of main clauses and subordinate clauses in academic writing. However, Kilimci (2014, p. 315) also found a similar trend in the use of noun clauses between advanced English non-native speakers and undergraduate native speakers.

The results of analysis for the use of passive voice are rather interesting. In general, it was statistically proven that native speakers of English used a lower proportion of passive voice in main clauses than non-native speakers. When the data were analyzed in more detail, based on sections of the papers, a significant difference was found only in the abstract section. However, for subordinate clauses, differences were found in both the abstract and method sections. Although passive voice is a legitimate feature of academic writing (Kennedy, 2003, p. 222), in all cases, non-native speakers seemed to overuse it. They did not use passive voice for the reasons suggested by Williams and Bizup (2007) and (Baratta, 2009, p. 1410), as in the following example extracted from the data. From the response made, English is understood to be the language of the internet websites where one can gather information about anything and almost everything around the world.

The use the passive voice in the example above was not because the doer in the sentence is unknown, or it is not important for readers, or the writer does not want the readers to know, or the passive voice will make the sentence easier to understand. The writer made a completely-random selection of the voice, and it was possibly influenced by L2 negative transfer.

The final analysis examined the data based on the category of subordinate clause, either reduced or non-reduced form. When the data were not split based on subordinate clause category, the difference between both speaker groups in the proportion of passive voice in subordinate clauses was statistically significant. When the data were split, evidence for significant differences was only observed in the reduced form of clauses. The reduced forms of subordinate clauses include reduced adjective clauses and reduced adverb clauses. As in other analysis results, non-native speakers of English tended to use more passive voices than the native speakers. In addition, the selection of passive voice in the absence of active voice is unpredictable, as in the following extracted example. In the recent studies conducted in ESL

and EFL contexts, it was found that students' attitude toward English language learning is extremely positive.

In the example above, the reduced form of the adjective clause is not required. The information could have been added as a modifier, such as *In ESL and EFL contexts, recent studies found that ...*. This correction could transform the reduced adjective clause *conducted in ESL and EFL contexts* and the adjective clause *it was found that* into active voice forms, which is always recommended for clarity (Hacker & Sommers, 2014, p. 200; Ruben, 2001, pp. 73–74; Williams & Bizup, 2007, p. 53).

It is acknowledged that the sample size in this study was quite small, since a sentence-by-sentence analysis is a laborious and time-consuming task. A bigger sample size could open the possibility for more varieties of statistical analyses, and we could be more confident in making generalizations based on the results of the analysis. In addition, grammatical accuracy in published papers written by non-native speakers of English was ignored in the current study. It is recommended that further research in this topic also examines grammatical accuracy. With the addition of grammatical accuracy data, we will be able to analyze modulated effects using a multiple linear regression analysis, which would give us more insight into the differences in published academic writing between native speakers of English and intermediate, post-intermediate, or advanced non-native English speakers. Finally, the results of the current study show a significant possibility that non-native speakers lack a sense of style in academic writing; however, I only have data on passive voice. If we acquire more data related to style, we will be able to confidently confirm whether or not style differentiates native and non-native speakers' language in published academic writing.

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implication

The results of this study have shown that native and non-native speakers of English used vocabulary at similar levels of frequency, for both vocabulary levels provided by Nation (2004) and the academic vocabulary list provided by Gardner and Davies (2014). In terms of sentence types for main clauses, both speaker groups also used mixed types of sentences with similar percentages, as they do for the types of subordinate clauses. Differences in clauses between native and non-native speakers of English in published academic writing could be seen in the percentage of passive voice usage in main clauses and subordinate clauses. Non-native speakers overused passive voices in main clauses in the abstract section and in

subordinate clauses in the abstract and method sections. Finally, both speaker groups used similar percentages of passive sentences in non-reduced subordinate clauses, but the percentages were different for reduced forms of subordinate clauses.

The results described above have important pedagogical implications. Since non-native speakers of English seemed to overuse passive voice, their affiliations, in this case higher education institutions, should provide training on contexts where passive voice is more appropriate. While this might not be very useful advice for many faculties, as most universities in Southeast Asia and elsewhere are very preoccupied with other responsibilities, this could be a good start. However, the best way of providing support is to provide it when it is needed. To achieve this, the author recommends that universities establish academic writing centers where faculty members can have their paper read and critiqued on in a one-on-one conference. Therefore, writing associates can actually teach and address errors they made previously. Thus, it will be easier for faculty members to internalize the sense of appropriate use of passive voice.

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The Impact of Mother Tongue on the Performance of ESL Students' in Listening and Speaking Skills embracing Mother Tongue Based- Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) Curriculum

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Abstract

One of the most significant event that had happened in the educational system of the Philippines was the implementation of the mother tongue as a medium of instruction from kindergarten to grade three as stipulated in Republic Act 10533 otherwise known as the “Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013” (Dep Ed Curriculum Guide, Mother Tongue (2013). This remarkable shift is part of the K to 12 basic education program which enhances the Philippine Basic Education System by strengthening its curriculum and increasing the number of years for basic education. The DepEd K to 12 Curriculum clearly states that if learners begin their education in the language they understand best-their mother tongue- and develop a strong foundation in their mother tongue develop strong literacy abilities in the school language. Hence, the study was undertaken to find out the impact of mother tongue or first language (L1) in the Performance of Junior High School Learners in Listening and Speaking Skills over a popular method, the immersion approach. The FLC-BP approach was used for two groups of

respondents: Tagalog-English and Iloko-English while the immersion approach, the mandated traditional way of teaching English was the All English. The Pre-test and Post-test Control Group Factorial Design was used in the study. The statistical test utilized the ANCOVA with the Grade Six English Grades as covariate. The researcher found out that all respondents in the three classes showed a moderate level of performance in listening and speaking skills in the pre-test. In the administered post-test, the immersion group, All English indicated a high level of performance in listening and moderate in speaking. The Tagalog-English indicated a high level of performance in speaking and the Iloko-English were moderate. Therefore, the use of first language will not only improve the quality of education, it will be the tool for learning and improving the learning of English.

Keywords: Socio Linguistics, Mother Tongue, Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education, Macro Skills, Factorial Design, Philippines

INTRODUCTION

Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) implementation in the Philippine educational system received various criticisms or objections from the different sectors of the society. Some agreed while others posed several arguments on the issue saying it is a step backwards and does not solve the problem in our educational system. In spite of the negative perceptions towards mother tongue, the overwhelming numbers of researches that support the use of L1 have outweighed the misconceptions presented.

Tonio and Ella (2019) study examined the attitudes of the pre-service teachers in the use of Mother Tongue as a medium of instruction in Grades 1-3 and the perceived problems associated with its use. They believe it would enable teachers to express themselves clearly, and it would also make the lessons interesting to pupils. However, some problems associated with its use were also identified, such as: difficulty in translation, teacher's low proficiency in Mother Tongue, pupils' low proficiency in Mother Tongue, degradation of English proficiency, and lack of teacher's training in teaching Mother Tongue. Findings further revealed that the place of origin, not age and gender, influences the respondents' attitudes. Their study, therefore, proved that the pre-service teachers, in general, have positive attitude towards the use of Mother Tongue as medium of instruction and are willing to undergo training to be able to teach using the mother tongue.

Those supporting the implementation of MTB-MLE are guided by the mandate of UNESCO which is one of the paramount advocates of using mother tongue as MOI. UNESCO has encouraged mother tongue instruction in early childhood and primary education since 1953 (UNESCO, 1953). UNESCO believes that when children are offered opportunities to learn in their mother tongue, they are more likely to enrol and succeed in school (Kosonen et al., 2005) and their parents are more likely to communicate with teachers and participate in their children's learning. Mukherjee (2015) also reinforced the mandate of UNESCO which showed that learners learn better in their own mother tongue as a prelude to and complement of bilingual education approaches.

Moreover, Perez and Alieto (2018) have said that significant consequences are results of mere decision on determining the language of instruction specifically in the early years of education. It means that rightful language choice leads to educational success. Contrariwise, an inappropriate selection of a language proves to be detrimental in the taking place of learning. With the recent language policy shift from English to Mother tongue (MT), in the context of the Philippines, as medium of instruction in the teaching of mathematics in early grades, their study examined how language proficiency in the MT relates to mathematics achievement. Study participants include 71 grade 2 students aged 6-8. The findings show that the respondents' mean achievement in mathematics and their mean proficiency in the MT are both described as '*advanced*'. Moreover, it was revealed that there is a very strong positive correlation between the respondents' achievement in mathematics and proficiency in the MT.

On the other hand, multilingual education seeks to address the low functional literacy of Filipinos where language plays a significant factor. This has been conceptualized in support to House Bill No. 3719 known as Multilingual Education and Literacy Bill. House Bill 3719 which upholds the use of the first language as the primary medium for pre-school to Grade 6 and that English and Filipino should be taught in the elementary grades but only as separate subject and not media for instruction. The strategy is that of nurturing the children's cognitive, academic, and linguistic skills in the use of first language (L1) and to gradually transfer this knowledge in the prescribed languages, English and Filipino. The use of the local languages will not weaken the national language but will in fact, strengthen and reinforce it. This is in accordance with the constitutional provision which states that the national language should be developed and enriched on the basis of existing Philippine and other languages.

If we take a closer look about the Philippine Basic Education, it is now at a critical crossroad. It now calls for the revisiting of our commitment to “Education for All” so we could realize our goal of seeing the Filipino youth become critical thinkers, coherent communicators and productive citizens. Since the Philippines is a multilingual and multicultural nation with more than 150 languages, a national language is a powerful source for inter-ethnic dialogue, political unity, and national identity.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

This study was conducted to determine the impact of mother tongue on the performance of Junior High School Learners in their Listening and Speaking skills. It aimed to assess students’ performance in their listening and speaking skills using FLC-BP as a methodology in the MTB-MLE Curriculum.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Experimental Design

The quasi experimental design, specifically the Pre-test Post-test Control Group Factorial Design was adopted in the study. Three groups of teaching strategies: Tagalog-English, Iloko-English, and English-English were tested for effectiveness along the two macro skills: listening and speaking considering their Grade Six Grades in English as covariance.

Subjects in the Study

The study was conducted in one of the public high schools in the Division of Nueva Vizcaya. Three intact classes were chosen from the 15 sections intended for grade 7 students. The selection of these 3 classes was based on the results of the qualifying examination. The examination was personally administered by the researcher to avoid some doubts and suspicions as to the validity and reliability of the test. It was a 90 multiple choice item covering the two skills: listening and speaking. After administering the test, the researcher collated all the results of the examination and computed the calculated weighted mean ratings of the different sections, after which, the three classes which had the closest weighted mean ratings were chosen as the direct respondents of the research.

After determining the three intact classes for the study, the researcher had conducted a draw lots method to assign which treatment should be given to each section. Section *magiting* was assigned as Treatment 1 (All English), section *pluto* was assigned as Treatment 2 (Tagalog-English) and section *malikhain* was Treatment 3 (Iloko-English). These three selected classes had 30 – 45 students each and were randomly assigned to the three teaching strategies.

Research Instruments

The study made used the following instruments. A qualifying examination, a 90-item examination designed to identify 3 comparable classes for the experiment. A pre-test and post-test, a 60 multiple choice item that focused on the listening and speaking skills. The examination was intended for one hour. The listening skill was a 30 item test which required the students to listen carefully as the teacher reads the text or played the recorder from which the text was recorded. The speaking skill had also 30 items. In addition, the Quarterly Kit was given by the Department of Education (Dep Ed). The kit contained the outlined lessons that served as guides for grade seven teachers. The same Kit was translated to other languages such as Iloko and Tagalog. The kits were also used in the experimental treatments.

Experimental Treatments

The three treatments used in the study were as follows:

Treatment 1: *All English*. The researcher used the English language as a medium of instruction for the whole duration of the class. Discussions, questions, and answers coming from the students were strictly all English.

Treatment 2: *Tagalog-English*. This time, the researcher conducted the lesson in Tagalog for the first 25 minutes and the second half in English. The 10 minutes remaining was used for evaluation. The evaluation was in English.

Treatment 3: *Iloko-English*. The researcher used the Iloko language in explaining the lesson for the first 25 minutes. Then, the next 25 minutes was done in English. The 10 minutes remaining was utilized for evaluation, in English.

The content coverage, time frame, examination were all the same, only the translated lectures for the discussion were unique from each strategies. The lessons taught were based from the Quarterly Kit given by the Department of Education (DepEd). The kit contained the outlined lessons that served as guides for grade seven teachers during the year.

Statistical Tools

The statistical tools used in the study were descriptive statistics such as frequency counts, mean, standard deviation and ranks to determine the demographic profile of the respondents; mean and standard deviation to determine the level of performance of the respondents in the pre-test and post-test. Inferential methods were used such as ANCOVA, to determine differences on the post-test scores of each respondent group subjected to the MTB-BLE strategies; Omega Squared (w^2) to calculate the measure of association for the ANCOVA; and the Bonferonni Procedures to conduct pairwise comparisons following significant main effect.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Profile of the Respondents

The respondents were within the normal age of regular grade VII students with an average age of 12.54 years old, and female dominated. As to the type of elementary school, 97.3% of the respondents were graduates of public schools and 2.7% from private schools. Majority of the respondents' parents were college graduates and their fathers' occupations were mostly drivers and carpenters. Most mothers were housekeepers. Presence of reading materials, 97.3% of the respondents owned books, 77.5% newspapers, 79.3% magazines, 73.0% had comics and almost all of them owned mass communication materials at home. The respondents used Tagalog and Iloko as their home language.

Performance of the Respondents in the Listening and Speaking skills before the study

Table 1. Performance levels of the respondents in listening and speaking skills based on the pre-test result

Experimental Group	Particulars	MACRO Skills	
		Listening	Speaking
All English	Mean	7.51	6.51
	SD	2.20	3.29
	Description	Moderate	Moderate
Tagalog-English	Mean	8.91	7.66
	SD	2.50	2.13
	Description	Moderate	Moderate
Iloko-English	Mean	7.68	6.73
	SD	2.37	3.20
	Description	Moderate	Moderate

The table revealed that the *All English* group obtained a mean score of 7.51; while the intervention scheme, the *Tagalog-English* group had a mean score of 8.91, and the *Iloko-English* group had also a mean score of 7.68. It was observed that the performance level of each group of respondents in these particular skill was within moderate level. On the other

hand, the mean scores of the *All English* group, *Tagalog-English* group, and *Iloko-English* group were 6.51, 7.66, and 6.73, respectively in their speaking skill.

This further implied that before the conduct of the study, the students had already stock knowledge in their listening and speaking skills which can be attributed to their earlier exposures in English during their elementary grades. However, the other implication was that these skills were found wanting. From the researcher's observations, the students in the *Tagalog-English* and *Iloko-English* groups were very vocal in expressing their thoughts and ideas. They were able to express information relevant to the topic. They were able to illustrate, define, compare and contrast factual information supporting the thesis. However, the students in the *All English* group were passive because they had not fully comprehended and analysed critically what is called for in the tasks. As a consequence there was no smooth flow of ideas from one sentence to another.

Furthermore, students in the *Tagalog-English* and *Iloko-English* groups exhibited more self-confidence and spirited behaviour in classroom activities. They were not the sitting students taking in all what the teacher said. They asked questions and discussed thoroughly issues presented in class in the first language, and admirably reacted the same in the English phase of the lesson. It was also evident that during classroom discussions students learned from each other in positive ways through partner activities discussing first in the first language, followed by the English language in the later hour.

Evidence from around the world showed that children learn best when taught in their mother language in the initial years at school. Yet, too often, children are immersed in classrooms and taught in a language that they do not recognize. Children are expected to effortlessly learn in the school language without additional support. In southern Thailand, a Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education project in which the local language was used alongside Thai in primary schools has produced remarkable results: lower absenteeism, greater parental involvement, and test scores that average at least 40% higher than students in nearby schools taught only in Thai. Significantly, boys in these schools were 123% more likely to pass their Thai language examination, and girls were 155% more likely to achieve passing marks in math (Person and Lee, 2012).

Similar results have been observed in Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education projects in Vietnam, Cambodia, Indonesia, India, Bangladesh, Pakistan and the Philippines. That is why UNESCO, UNICEF and other development partners strongly advocate Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education Curriculum. For children from minority-language backgrounds, learning in their own language in the early years is not a luxury; it is a fundamental right to have access to educational opportunities. Furthermore, their ability to acquire second and additional languages is determined by the strength of their linguistic foundations in the first language. Therefore, learning in the mother language is also the right way to promote better learning of the national language.

Performance of the Respondents in the Listening and Speaking Skills after the study

Table 2. Performance levels of the respondents in listening and speaking skills based on the post-test result

Experimental Group	Particulars	MACRO Skills	
		Listening	Speaking
All English	Mean	9.6286	7.5714
	SD	2.4142	2.9032
	Description	High	Moderate
Tagalog-English	Mean	12.1429	10.4286
	SD	2.3407	1.6321
	Description	High	High
Iloko-English	Mean	11.3171	9.2195

	SD	1.7810	2.5151
	Description	High	Moderate

The table showed that the three groups of respondents were within the high level of performance in their listening skill after going through the intervention strategy. The overall performance level of the respondents in the speaking test was within the moderate level particularly the All-English and the Iloko-English groups. In particular, the respondents' performance on the post test results shows the following:

Listening test. The computed mean scores of the *All English* group, *Tagalog-English* group and *Iloko-English* group in the listening test were 9.63; 12.14, and 11.32, respectively. This means that the performance levels of the respondents in each group were within the high level mark. Generally, the two group respondents' were within the high level of performance in their listening skill after going through the intervention strategy, the FLC-BP as revealed by the computed mean score of 11.045.

Speaking test. The overall performance level of the respondents in the speaking test was within the moderate level, revealed by the computed mean score of 9.08. The same findings were also observed in the group of the *All English* group and the *Iloko-English* group with mean scores of 7.57 and 9.22, respectively. However, the group of the *Tagalog-English* indicated a high level of performance with mean score of 10.43.

The table revealed that students in the *Tagalog-English* and *Iloko-English* performed better in the listening skill than the *All English* group. The two group of students understudy, speaking their language at home found a continuity of learning by the use of their language as bridge to learning the English skills and indeed succeeded at acquiring the two macro skills. This was manifested through the active participation of the students in the classroom. Everybody wanted to share his/ her ideas every time a question was raised. There was an observable change of attitude shown by the two groups in their increased enthusiasm and self-confidence as they participated in the different classroom activities. They learned actively and

with fun a second and a third language and more quickly via the FLC-BP more than the All English group.

Comparison of the Performance Levels of the Respondents in Listening and Speaking skills based on the Gain Score and Grade VI English grades as covariance

The table presents the comparison of the performance levels of the respondents in the listening and speaking skills based on their post-test. The discussion explains how the respondents performed in their post-test relative to their grade six English grades.

Table 3. ANCOVA of the Post-test Scores of the Respondents when subjected to various treatments in MTB-MLE and the Effect of their Grade VI English Grades as Covariate

Experimental Group	Test for Homogeneity (Independent Variable and Covariate)		Results of ANCOVA Analysis					
	Computed F-value	Significant level	n	Mean	SD	Computed F-value	Significant Level	η^2
LISTENING								
All English	1.839	0.164	35	9.63	2.41	7.524	0.001*	9%
Tagalog-English			35	12.14	2.34			
Iloko-English			41	11.32	1.78			
SPEAKING								

All English	2.599	0.079	35	7.57	2.90	6.1780	0.003*	7%
Tagalog-English			35	10.43	1.63			
Iloko-English			41	9.22	2.52			

Degree of Freedom = (2, 110)

* - significant

Listening skill. The ANCOVA results, $F(2, 110) = 7.524$, $p = 0.001$ for the performance of the respondents in the listening skill with grade six English grade as covariate revealed a significant difference. This means that the respondents differed significantly in their performance when subjected to the FLC-BP treatment, and 9% ($w^2 = 0.09$) of the total variance was accounted for by the three strategies, *All English*, *Tagalog-English*, *Iloko-English* controlling effect of the grade six English grades.

Speaking skill. The performance level of the respondents differed significantly as indicated by the ANCOVA results of $F(2, 110) = 6.178$, $p = 0.003$ with grade six grade in English as covariate. However, 9% ($w^2 = 0.09$) of the total variance in the speaking skill was accounted for by the three strategies, *All English*, *Tagalog-English*, *Iloko-English* controlling effect of the grade six English grades.

The table further showed the respondents' performance levels on their post-test results in listening and speaking skills when the MTB-MLE Curriculum is implemented through the structured approach, the FLC-BP and their grade six English grades as covariate. The table further revealed that the performance levels of these respondents differed significantly as indicated by the ANCOVA results. These findings imply a clear picture that students have varying levels of interest, abilities and cultural experiences. As demonstrated by the respondents during the eight weeks of comprehensive discussions in all the topics contained in the quarterly kit prescribed by the DepEd, the students showed different behavior as regards to classroom activities. The *All English* group was very much passive when contrasted with the *Tagalog-English*, *Iloko-English* groups. Students of the *All English* seemed to have no comprehension of the language in which the materials were written. No matter how much cues and clues the teacher provided, still these students found difficulty in comprehending the text. This observation concurred with the findings of Cummins (2000, 2001) that poorly developed

first language and intensive exposure to the second language impedes language development. If children are made to operate from a poorly developed first language, the quality and quantity of what they learn from the complex curriculum materials (English) relatively produces poor literates in English.

Table 4. ANCOVA of the Gain Scores of the Respondents when subjected to various treatments in MTB-MLE and the Effect of their Grade VI English Grades as Covariate

Experimental Group	Test for Homogeneity (Independent Variable and Covariate)		Univariate Analysis of Covariance					
	Computed F-Value	Significant Level	n	Mean	SD	Computed F-value	Significant level	W ²
LISTENING								
All English	0.564	0.571	35	2.11	2.11	6.471	0.002*	4%
Tagalog-English			35	3.23	1.83			
Iloko-English			41	3.63	1.92			
SPEAKING								
All English	0.099	0.906	35	1.06	2.98	5.468	0.005*	8%
Tagalog-English			35	2.77	2.10			
Iloko-English			41	2.49	2.17			

Degree of Freedom = (2, 110)

* - significant

The results showed that students taught in *Tagalog-English* or *Iloko-English* had significantly higher performance in the listening skills than the students taught using the *All English*, the controlling effect of their grade six English grades. The table revealed that students in the *Tagalog-English* and *Iloko-English* performed better in the listening skill than the *All English* group. The implication is that using the FLC-BP approach in the classroom had positive effects on students' linguistic and educational development. When students were allowed to develop their cognitive skills in their first language they gained a deeper understanding of how to use it effectively; these skills in the long run will transfer easily and comfortably to a second or third language (Jim Cummins, citing Baker and Skutnabb-Kangas, 2000).

In addition, students learn best in a language they speak and understand well; they need to think well using that language to learn well. This further supports Nolasco (2008) that the Multilingual Education (MLE) encourages active participation by children in the learning process because they understand what is being discussed and what is being asked of them. They can immediately use the first language (L1) to construct and explain their world, articulate their thoughts and add new concepts to what they already know.

Table 5. Pairwise Comparisons using Bonferroni Procedure of the Gain Score of the Respondents in the Listening Skills subjected to MTB-MLE with English Grade Six Grade as Covariate

Pairwise Comparisons	Mean difference	Standard Error	Significant Level
All English vs Tagalog-English	-1.370	0.523	0.030*
All English vs Iloko-English	-1.542	0.450	0.003*
Tagalog-English vs Iloko-English	-.172	0.498	1.000

* - significant

The table showed that there were significant differences in the listening performance of the respondents exposed to *All English* and those who were exposed to *Tagalog-English*, $p = 0.030$; and between the group of students taught in *All English* with the group of respondents taught in *Iloko-English*, $p = 0.003$. However, there was no significant difference in the listening performance of the respondents exposed to *Tagalog-English* and *Iloko-English*, $p = 1.00$. The results showed however, that students taught in *Tagalog-English* or *Iloko-English* had significantly higher performance in the listening skills than the students taught using the *All English*, the controlling effect of their grade six English grades.

A striking observation made during the conduct of the study was that the *Tagalog-English* and the *Iloko-English* groups were consistently on equal footing in listening and speaking skills. Having personally observed the activities done by these students before the experimental program began, clearly the students cannot speak fluently much less with speed. But after undergoing the FLC-BP treatment they reflected good levels of fluency, speed and comprehension. Thomas and Collier (1997) hypothesized that children instructed entirely via a second language will, in general, manifest learning deficits especially with respect to more challenging and difficult academic content. On the other hand, students being instructed via their mother tongue are able to actually learn the curricular content of instruction.

Table 6. Pairwise Comparisons using Bonferroni Procedure of the Gain Score of the Respondents in the Speaking Skills subjected to MTB-MLE with English Grade Six Grade as Covariate

Pairwise Comparisons	Mean difference	Standard Error	Significant Level
All English vs Tagalog-English	-1.990	0.652	0.009*
All English vs Iloko-English	-1.455	0.561	0.033*
Tagalog-English vs Iloko-English	0.535	0.621	1.000

For the comparison of the speaking performances based on the gain scores of the students taught using immersion, *All English* and the students taught using *Tagalog-English*, a significant difference of ($p = 0.009$) was revealed. This means that the group of students exposed in the *Tagalog-English* performed significantly better over the students exposed in the *All English* as well as the students taught using *Iloko-English* performed also significantly better than the students in the *All English* indicated by the value $p = 0.033$. The two experimental classes that used the FLC-BP treatment were comparatively at par in the speaking skills contrasted to the class that used the immersion approach.

Table 6 further implied that the speaking skills of students were best developed using the FLC-BP rather than using immersion approach in which the cognitive skills acquired via a first language were fully ignored. The use of the first language, Iloko, and the ascended lingua franca, Tagalog, spread throughout of Vizcaya via media television helped the students expressed their messages clearly. Speaking Tagalog has not only been spread via television but Tagalog spoken as another lingua franca spoken in the market, in the super markets, in the churches, and in the schools; have now become a language of wider communication side by side with the lingua franca, Iloko. A result of the Tagalog widespread use has put itself at par with the regional language, Iloko, and that explained why both languages were on equal footing in the speaking skills performance of the experimental classes. The implication of the table showing pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni procedure of the gain score of the respondents in the speaking skill subjected to the treatments with English Grade Six Grade as covariate revealed that there was no significant difference between the *Tagalog-English* and the *Iloko-English* as media of instruction in the performance level of the two groups. The FLC-BP approach worked consistently well to contribute to the self-esteem of students in their significant performance and their esteem manifested itself in my observation notes that they were vibrant in their class participation. They expressed their insights like pros devoid of apprehensions. Students who recited and learned in their first language were trained to think more likely to help themselves learn to speak a second language, because language skills that are developed well in a first language are transferrable to a second language. Moreover, mastering cognitively the first language promotes cognitive development needed to more easily learn a second language.

Test for Significant Interaction Effects

Table 7. Summary Table for the ANCOVA on the MACRO Skills Achievement Level of the Students (Factor A) subjected to MTB-MLE Strategies (Factor B) with Grade Six Grade as Covariate

Sources of Variations	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Significant Level
MACRO Skills (A)	725.293	3	241.764	54.284	0.000*
MTB-MLE Strategies (B)	181.470	2	90.735	20.373	0.000*
MTB-MLE*MACRO Skills	17.975	6	2.996	0.673	0.672
Error	1919.539	431	4.454		
Total	40740.000	444			
Corrected Total	3248.108	443			

* - significant

From the results of the ANCOVA, it was found out that the interaction between the teaching strategies (MTB-MLE) and the different MACRO skills did not differ significantly. This means that there was not enough evidence to conclude that the students in the MACRO skills and the teaching strategies had significant interaction effect on their achievements in English. This finding was indicated by the F-ratio of 0.673 with significant level of 0.672 controlling effect of grade six English grades.

Test for (Factor A) Differences. The achievement levels of the students from the different MACRO skills differed significantly as revealed by the F-ratio of 54.284. This implied that MACRO skills affected the students' achievement in English and at least one pair

of the students' MACRO skills was significantly different from each other (Factor A). Pairwise comparison using Bonferroni was conducted to determine the pair of MACRO skills and the results are presented in Table 8.

Table 8. Pairwise Comparisons using Bonferroni Procedure of the Achievement of the Respondents in English subjected to MTB-MLE Strategies with Grade VI English grade as Covariate

Pairwise Comparisons	Mean difference	Standard Error	Significant Level
All English (8.206) vs Tagalog-English (9.793)	1.587	0.283	0.00*
All English (8.206) vs Iloko-English (9.512)	1.306	0.243	0.00*
Tagalog-English(9.793) vs Iloko-English (9.512)	0.281	0.269	0.890
<p>* – <i>significant</i></p> <p><i>Numbers in parentheses are adjusted means evaluated at covariate appeared in the model: English Grade VI grade = 84.3499</i></p>			

Table 8 showed the pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni procedure of the Achievement of the respondents in English subjected to the treatments with Grade VI English grade as covariate.

The table revealed that there was a significant difference in the achievement of the students taught in the *All English* and *Tagalog-English*. The students exposed in the *Tagalog-English* performed significantly better than the students exposed in the *All English*. Also, the students exposed in the *Iloko-English* and in the *All English* differed significantly in their achievements. This implied that the students taught in the *Iloko-English* had better performance than the students exposed in the *All English*. There was no significant difference in the

performance of the students subjected to *Tagalog-English* and *Iloko-English*. This means that if the students were taught using the same approach, the FLC-BP, their performances in the MACRO skills would still be closely similar. This indicates that when *Iloko-English* was used by students as mother tongue or first language and *Tagalog-English* as their wider language of communication influenced by media, this study had shown the researcher that the principles of the FLC-BP can be expanded into the lingua franca, be it a regional language or even a national language.

The findings above revealed a theory supporting the primacy of the spoken language. Some believed that a person only had to reach a certain level of oral proficiency in English. Listening also is vital to academic success and meaningful relationships; yet it is rarely taught (Coakley&Wolvin, 1997; Linebarger, 2001). Neglect of this most used language mode is the result of a number of conditions, one is teachers' limited knowledge of listening instruction or adults' behavioural attitude, and they talk more than listen. Although some teachers provide students with frequent opportunities to practice listening skills, however; few directly and systematically teach the listening process. The best way to teach it is to model the behaviour.

Listening is anything but an active activity. It is a complex, active process in which the listener must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain what was gathered in all of the above, and interpret it within the immediate, as well as the larger socio-cultural context of the utterance. Coordinating all of these involves a great deal of mental activity on the part of the listener. Listening is hard work, and deserves more analysis and support. Listening comprehension as a separate and important component of language learning only came into focus after significant debate about its validity. Recent research has demonstrated the critical role of language input in language learning (Dunkel et.al, 1991). This has led Dunkel to confirm that listening skill should be possessed by those who are involved in language learning.

As mentioned above, it is now generally known that the listening skill plays a key role in facilitating language learning. According to Gary (1975), giving pre-eminence to listening comprehension, particularly in the early stages of second language teaching or learning provides advantages of four different types: cognitive, efficiency, utility and affective.

Lapus (2010) also disclosed that education that begins in the language of the learners has far more positive effects in the school children. He pointed out that when the use of mother tongue is discarded in favor of an unfamiliar language upon the children's entry into grade school, the learners lose interest in their studies because there is a disconnect in the language used at home and in school.

CONCLUSION

In the light of the findings, the following conclusions were presented. First, all respondents indicated a moderate level of performance in listening and speaking in the administered pre-test before undergoing the treatments. Second, all respondents indicated a high level of performance in the listening skill but for the immersion group, they were moderate in speaking skill after they were subjected to the FLC-BP treatment. Meanwhile, the *Tagalog-English* group significantly showed a high level of performance in speaking skill, and for the *Iloko-English*, they were moderate .

Furthermore, a significant difference was noted in the achievement of the students exposed to the locally initiated approach, the FLC-BP over the standard, the immersion approach. There were also significant differences noted on the performance levels of the students in the listening and speaking skills controlled by the effect of their grade six English grade results for the FLC-BP classes. On the other hand, there was no significant interaction noted between the teaching Strategies (MTB-MLE) and the two MACRO skills in the achievement of the students in English with their grade six English grade as covariate.

RECOMMENDATION

As classroom teachers in basic education we became increasingly aware of how difficult it is to look for ways to help students become effective and efficient language learners. Faced with these problems and challenges and the outcomes of low scores and apathetic participation, our conscience had become keener on finding means to improve their test scores and enthruse participation in the class recitations. The accepted and popular way to teach English is the immersion approach. Practically all teachers use this approach. The locally initiated methodology, the First Language Component-Bridging Program though untrendy, was the approach that proved effective in teaching listening and speaking skills to Grade VII.

Based from the findings the following recommendations are suggested by the researcher:

Teachers should be encouraged to use the methodology to enhance students' active participation in the classroom even though the MTB-MLE mandates its use up to Grade VI. What is more important in any learning process is the how to go about it. The FLC-BP is a good road map to improve the acquisition of MACRO skills in Grade VII. Furthermore, the FLC-BP is a good practice for remediation classes.

Administrators are enjoined to compare and contrast different approaches: the immersion and the FLC-BP. The results of this study lays a good ground work for administrators to explore various methods on how best teachers can deliver MACRO skills for Grade VII. The FLC-BP is indeed a good method.

Curriculum Planners should not be the monopoly of the DepEd Central office. Curriculum Planners should be within the domain of the region if not the division or the district. The notion of one curriculum or one methodology fits all is an inappropriate notion. A standard approach doesn't necessarily spell out success. Even a local initiative like the FLC-BP presents an effective way to teach the MACRO skills for Grade VII.

Parents and Students. Using the FLC-BP, the process of learning finds its continuity from the home to school without losing a global focus, the learning of English. This research is significant since it directly invites parents as stake holders in the classrooms, it encourages them to be active participants in the education of their children for now, via a methodology the language that had long been silenced and cultures ignored in the past is now a part and parcel of the curriculum content. Culture and language feed content to the curriculum and because of it education becomes relevant for all.

Future Researchers will help them strengthen their teaching skills and techniques as well as methods. It will also provide them the basic lessons in helping students acquire knowledge in the four MACRO skills. This study can be used as reference in another similar or follow-up research to determine the effectiveness of the methodology that is beneficial to grade VII students especially in their four MACRO skills.

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Unoni: A Textual Analysis of Ybanag Proverbs

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Abstract

The Philippines has various names for proverbs. Proverbs are called salawikain or sawikain in Tagalog, sarsarita in Ilocano, Unoni in Ybanag, Unoni or Akkakahi in Ytawes and Agoononi or Akkakagi in Malaweg. Like most of the proverbs of the world, the Philippine proverbs contain sayings which prescribe norms, imparts a lesson or simply reflects standard norms, traditions and beliefs in the community. The study looked into the Ethnic speech communities of Cagayan. More specifically, on the Cagayan Ethnic proverbs – Ybanag Unoni of Tuguegarao City. It is only limited to proverbs which the informant-participants shared. This study is the ethnolinguistic analysis of common ethnic proverbs particularly the Ybanag unonis - a description and its contextual analysis governing their use and interpretation. The study reveals that there are many but situations or occasions in which the unoni or the ethnic Ybanag proverbs are mentioned or uttered. The study likewise reveals that the Ybanag *unonis* are classified into five types. The findings show that the informant-respondents use proverbs in their everyday language, their public speaking as well as in their oral and written literature. The obvious familiar words in most of the proverbs mean much more than they seem on the surface. The deeper underlying level of meaning of the proverbs is filled with images and symbols that are aesthetically illuminating. Based on the findings, it could be deduced that the Ybanag Unonis are reflective of the values and virtues of the ethnic groups using them and that the Ybanag Unonis are philosophical, instructive and delightful and have the potentialities of enriching the indigenous knowledge base of the people. The *unonis* are not just simply just uttered rather they must be carefully chose to suit the situation where one will be using it. The speaker must consider context of the situation. It is a form of behavior involving choices on

these components which are made, often unconsciously by the folks.

Keywords: *Unoni*, Proverbs, textual analysis, Ybanag

Introduction

Languages play an important role in the daily lives of people. It does not only serve as a tool for communication, education, social integration and development but also as a repository for each person's unique identity, cultural history, traditions and memory. But despite their immense value, languages around the world continue to disappear at an alarming rate. With this in mind, the United Nations declared 2019 The Year of Indigenous Languages (IY2019) in order to raise awareness of them, not only to benefit people who speak these languages, but also for the others to appreciate the important contribution they make to the world's rich cultural diversity (UNESCO, 2019)

Himmelman as cited by Banti (2019) in his blog site said that the aim of a language documentation is to provide a comprehensive record of the linguistic practices characteristic of a given speech community which differs fundamentally from language description which aims at the record of a language as a system of abstract elements, constructions, and rules.

Preservation of the native language, as De Guzman (2018) claims, requires a strong culture. Language is culture, culture is language. When a language dies, so does the culture it nurtures. For a language not to become extinct, it must have writing systems and adequate historical records intact. A strong culture can be brought about by literature. If a nation really wants to preserve regional languages, then it must develop, preserve and promote regional culture.

Studies have shown that there are indigenous communities that have chosen to abandon their mother tongue and have shifted to languages that are perceived as superior because it would make them easier to become part of the bigger community that they live in and opens greater economic opportunities particularly in employment. The same concept was found out by Dayag (2016) in his study, 'Ethnolinguistic Analysis of Ilocano Songs. His research shows that the parents no longer see the need to teach their children Ibanag, one of the languages in

Northern Luzon, since it is not the language of the community and it is no longer needed in any other endeavour that their children may be part of.

The Senate acknowledges the problem on dwindling use of indigenous languages as Legarda (2016) in an article published in The Manila Times said that there is a need to comprehensively document all endangered languages of the ethno-linguistic groups in the country thus the continued use of such (*indigenous*) languages must be promoted. She cited that the partnership between and amongst the various agencies in the country is of big help in maintaining the vitality of a language. In the same article, Legarda said that to complement the Language Markers Project of KWF, the Department of Tourism and the local government units can provide language tours to include discussions on how the language started and was embraced by the community in order to widen the perspective of the youth, students, and tourists when visiting various tourist sites in the country.

However, there is one aspect of the indigenous language that actually is incorporated in the daily utterances of the people- that is the proverb to which Melad (2014) agrees. In his study, he said it is not a secret that many Filipinos are unfamiliar with Philippine Literature especially those written long before the Spanish arrived in our country. This is due to the fact that the stories of ancient time were not written, but rather passed on from generation to generation through word of mouth. This is the case of the proverbs as the proverbs are oral literature and are spoken everytime they are necessary.

Estanislao Caldez, as cited by Melad (2014) said that people maintain and preserve their culture by using their mother tongue, they maintain and preserve their culture as they pass this successfully to the next generation. It is to the credit of literary scholars and anthropologists that this oral literature has been gathered, collated and written thus becoming part of the precious literary heritage of the nation.

The researcher shares this concept. She agrees that one of the many things that may save a language is analysis of said language which forms part of language documentation. Various researchers say that massive emphasis should be given on documentation, because that is the only way that a language will never truly die. They too say that one cannot really force people to speak a language that they no longer identify with and language constantly evolves but they may appreciate it provided they will come to understand it more than the mere using

it. In fact UNESCO recognize the need to preserve and document languages particularly the Indigenous languages thus even declaring 2019 as the International Year of Indigenous Languages.

Dyag (2016) in his study found out that Ybanag is no longer a preferred language in the Ybanag speaking towns in Cagayan. Being afraid of this stark reality of one day losing altogether the indigenous languages of Cagayan particularly the Ybanag, the researcher wanted to preserve and restore not only the interest in, but also the way of life of these indigenous groups as evident in their *unonis* and *akkakagis* as a legacy to the future generations. By bringing this *unonis* or ethnic proverbs into the mainstream, the researcher hopes to rekindle the interest of the younger generation towards the languages under study.

Objective of the Study

This study looked into the classifications of Ybanag *Unonis* and the interpretation and meaning of the *unonis* as viewed by the Ybanag. This is to be able to understand how the Ybanag views his world as manifested in the *unonis* that he uses in his utterances.

Methodology

This chapter describes the methods of research in order to acquire the desired result of the study. It presents the research design, the locale of the study, the respondents and the sampling procedures, the source of data, the research instruments and how the data were gathered and analysed. The researcher sees the need to use in-depth observation, to interview, to document and to list down the proverbs dictated, or recited by the Malauegs.

Study Design

Qualitative - descriptive method was used in the ethno linguistic analysis of the Cagayan Ethnic Proverbs in three levels of analysis employing the Text-context analysis.

An in-depth ethnolinguistic analysis of the proverbs focusing on the contextual analysis of the Ybanag *unoni* using Dell Hymes text, and context analysis however excluding

‘performance’ as proverbs are not performed on specific occasions, rather are uttered in various situations depending of the shared conventions of the three ethnic groups.

The text analysis will look into the language variety particularly focusing on the language style, message/subject matter and the form or structure of the gathered *Unonis*. In the case of the context analysis, the speech situation, the setting-time, place and frequency and the purpose of speech situation/event for which the gathered *unonis* will be analysed. Lastly, the shared conventions of the three ethnic groups under study regarding the proverbs that are common among them were also analysed.

The study made use of the combination quantitative and qualitative research method. Qualitative design was used in order to determine the types of the Cagayan ethnic proverbs shared by the key informants. To classify the proverbs collected, the researcher adopted the classification proposed by Professor Damiana Eugenio of the University of the Philippines who is considered as the Mother of Philippine Foklore, classified the Philippine proverbs into six groups according to subject matter since her study of on the Ilocano proverbs which is also a spoken dialect in most of Cagayan. The classifications are: (1) proverbs expressing a general attitude towards life and the laws that govern life; (2) ethical proverbs recommending certain virtues and condemning certain vices; (3) proverbs expressing a system of values; (4) proverbs expressing general truths and observations about life and human nature; (5) humorous proverbs and (6) miscellaneous proverbs.

Respondents of the Study

The proposed respondents of the study, from which the primary and secondary data were sourced from, are the Ybanag folks of Gosi Norte, Tuguegarao City. The choice of the first interview was dependent entirely on the host or contact person, simply because the researcher hardly knows the people in the place except for some.

Purposive and convenience sampling was be used to get sample respondents from the place. The informant-participants chosen were those who are fifty (50) years old or older since they are the very people who has been speaking the language and the ones who could provide authentic data for language documentation.

The Ybanag is also known as "Ybanag" and "Ybanak" or "Ibanak". The word Ybanag literally means people of the/from the river has two main parts: first is the prefix "Y-" which may refer to "native, resident, or people of" and bannag which means "river". The ybanags are an ethnolinguistic minority numbering a little more than half a million people, who inhabit the provinces of Cagayan, Isabela and Nueva Vizcaya. They are one of the largest ethnolinguistic minorities in the Philippines. Ibanags speak the same language under the same name.

However, due to the Philippine government imposing Filipino as a lingua franca, the use of Ibanag language has now diminished but remain strong with Ibanags living overseas. Thus while there may still be Ibanags around, the language is slowly being displaced. In addition to this, many if not most Ibanags speak Ilocano, which has over the years, supplanted Ibanag as the more dominant language in the region.

Since Cagayan is basically an agricultural province, farming is a leading source of livelihood amongst the Ybanags.

Data Collection Procedure

A letter for the conduct of the study was given to the National Commission on Indigenous People (NCIP) Regional office. The researcher was later endorsed to the Provincial Office. She was asked to submit two (2) sets of her dissertation proposal and was made to sign request forms and pay the necessary fee. After that, she was asked to submit an Affidavit of Undertaking duly notarized.

The Provincial NCIP office later informed her that she could already start gathering data as long as she local contact persons are available. The researcher took care of choosing her contact person since she has been staying in the Tuguegarao City she the time she started teaching in Cagayan State University – Andrews Campus.

The researcher personally visited the Barangay Captain of Gosi Norte, Tuguegarao City and and personally ask for the permission to conduct the study.

For the key informant in Gosi Norte, Tuguegaro City, the researcher was accompanied by a teacher who is also teaching at the Cagayan State University – Andrews Campus and a resident of Gosi Norte in visiting the office of Barangay Captain. She likewise formally asked permission to conduct the study and she was allowed. The Barangay Captain asked the the host (point person) to assist the researcher and to identify possible key informants for the study.

The primary data generated was gathered through interview of the key informant-participants. The researcher then conducted the guided interview. During the course of interview, the local host or principal contact helped in translating the questions whenever the informants do not fully understand them. In the same manner that the local host also assisted the researcher fully grasp the explanations and all other information given by the informant-participant particularly in Gosi Norte.

The researcher along with some students who served as videographers and photographers visited Gosi Norte for two occasions. The first was to gather data and the second to have the encoded data and its translations be validated by the informants and the Ybanag translator.

. The researcher made use a recorder and camcorder. The researcher also documented and photographed the sessions that were conducted.

For the proverbs gathered by the researcher, and especially those that do not have translations, or equivalent whether in Filipino or English, the researcher sought the help of a local translator. To validate or check the English translations of these proverbs, the researcher asked other informants.

The initial translations were already given by the informants. The said translations made were checked by one of the respondents who is already 60 years old, a businesswoman and is also a resident of Gosi Norte. The draft was then forwarded to one of the consultants for the translation. The translations were validated by one who is fluent both in the the old Tuguegarao Ybanag and the English. The translator also served as informant-participant sharing Unonis which the researcher added to the collection of Ybanag Unonis

In classifying the types *unonis* under study, the proverbs gathered were thematically analysed and classified using the classification proposed in Eugenio's classification grid. Eugenio (2001) classified Philippine proverbs into six groups according to subject matter: (1) proverbs expressing a general attitude towards life and the laws that govern life;(2) ethical proverbs recommending certain virtues and condemning certain vices;(3) proverbs expressing a system of values;(4) proverbs expressing general truths and observations about life and human nature; and (5) humorous proverbs.

To further validate the perception and analyses of the values and virtues of the Ybanag as reflected in their proverbs, documentary data that were available from the published sources were also used for comparison purposes.

Analysis of Data

To analyse the data collected specifically its text (language variety, language style, message/subject matter, formal structure and stylistic devices/features), context (speech situation, setting-time/place/frequency, purpose of speech situation/event

The researcher adopted the text – context analysis used by Padilla (2017) when he conducted an ethnolinguistic analysis on Ilocano songs. The researcher, however, modified the text - context analysis used by Padilla specifically removing the item on and 'performance' and speech event since she only focused on the Ethnic proverbs.

The study also made use of the thematic analysis. This method of literary analysis was employed to draw and ascertain the values of the ethno-linguistic group under study. The Cagayan Ethnic Proverbs were analysed to draw the theme or main idea that they reflect. The central idea is to focus on the values and virtues that each ethnic proverb reflects.

The analysis of the proverbs or *unonis* shared are from the informant-participant recall or memory was limited the contextual analysis. The proverbs gathered were also thematically analysed and classified using Eugenio's classification grid. Eugenio (2001) classified Philippine proverbs into six groups according to subject matter: (1) proverbs expressing a general attitude towards life and the laws that govern life;(2) ethical proverbs recommending certain virtues and condemning certain vices;(3) proverbs expressing a system of values;(4)

proverbs expressing general truths and observations about life and human nature; miscellaneous; and (5) humorous proverbs.

Results and Discussion

The study reveals that there are many but situations or occasions in which the *unoni* or the ethnic Ybanag proverbs are mentioned or uttered. The study likewise reveals that the Ybanag *unonis* are classified into five types. The findings show that the informant-respondents use proverbs in their everyday language, their public speaking as well as in their oral and written literature. The obvious familiar words in most of the proverbs mean much more than they seem on the surface. The deeper underlying level of meaning of the proverbs is filled with images and symbols that are aesthetically illuminating.

Classification of Ybanag Unonis

One of the early attempts of people in creating literary work as stated by Sto Tomas (1999) is their versification, generally contained in what are commonly called as proverbs today. The term generally referred to as ‘agergo attolay’ is called *unoni* in Ybanag.

The Ybanag *unonis* are classified into five (5) types according to subject matter. These are: (1) proverbs expressing a general attitude towards life and the laws that govern life; (2) ethical proverbs recommending certain virtues and condemning certain vices; (3) proverbs expressing a system of values; (4) proverbs expressing general truths and observations about life and human nature; and (5) humorous proverbs.

Proverbs expressing a general attitude towards life and the laws that govern life

The wisdom and spirit of the people are manifested in their proverbs and sayings. Documenting or putting into record the use of *unonis* in the utterances or daily conversations (whenever possible) does not only contribute to a better knowledge of the language, but also promotes a better understanding of the way of thinking and the nature of the people who speak it. Proverbs and sayings are pearls of folk wisdom.

The first type of Ybanag *unonis* or proverbs is the ‘**Proverbs expressing a general attitude towards life and the laws that govern life**’. Under this type are those that are expressive of the point of view of the respondents regarding life and how one should live his life. For the informants, their attitude towards life as expressed in their *unonis* determines how far they can go in life as they put their trust to the Almighty.

For the Ybanag, life which is God centered will never go wrong and should they (Ybanag) feel like giving up, they always tell themselves or each other the *unonis*:

Affutan y debosion y tentasion. (Prayer is stronger than temptation)

Ari nga makkaturug y Dios. (God is omniscient.)

This type of proverbs are most of the time parabolic. Parabolic means that the first line of the proverb illustrates the second. The second line is the teaching, the first line is an analogy. Many of these that are parabolic seem to make little sense.

Ybanag Unoni		
1	<i>Affutan y debosion y tentasion.</i>	Prayer is stronger than temptation
2	<i>Ari nga makkaturug y Dios.</i>	God is omniscient.
3	<i>Y napia nga pangnga-pangwa na</i> <i>Y kurug nga vulawan.</i>	Good human relations Are precious gems.
4	Ari ka maniguru Ta sinaddak na kayu Siempre egga umafun Ta kutu-kutu na davvun	Don't be trusty On a pleasant personality; In the guise of beauty, Is something that may be ugly.
5	<i>Y nelamamo nga danum, adallam</i>	A quiet river runs deep
6	<i>Maski vuvun, mabbatan</i>	Even the well gets dry.



The eldest informant-participant explaining how the unonis have shaped her and her family through the years.



Ethical proverbs recommending certain virtues and condemning certain vices

The *unonis* under this classification highlights the good attributes of a person and how said attributes help a person achieve better in life while downright presents the negative implications of a bad habits to a person.

One informant mentioned the unoni ‘Ya napasensya e makkubinensya’ (A person who has patience will reap convenience). The *unoni*, according to the informant emphasizes that one can get what one wishes for if he has patience in life.

This type is sometimes presented in antithetical format. In an antithetical form, a thought is given in the first line, and the negative result is given in the second line. One general example is:

‘Ya tollay nga nalappat e massappat,

Ya tolal nga nalatac, e makkapag.’

(An person who is industrious will always have something to eat;

A person who is lazy has nothing to eat’)

So the negative line really accentuates the positive one.

Ybanag Unoni		
1	<i>Ariammu tagatutan y Grasya nicao nga duttal, Innaggam mu mabunnay Y allo na Dios ta tolal.</i>	Do not be impatient The blessing will come to you, Just keep on waiting For God’s mercy will come

2	<p>Ya tollay nga nalappat e massappat,</p> <p>Ya tolai nga nalatac, e makkapag</p>	<p>An person who is industrious will always have something to eat;</p> <p>A person who is lazy has nothing to eat</p>
3	<p><i>Yatun gare y kuku nikaw</i></p> <p><i>Ariam gininnam y cadiac ku nikaw</i></p> <p><i>Awan tu nesummu nikaw</i></p> <p><i>Nu ginnam mu y cadiac ku nikaw</i></p>	<p>That is what I have been telling you</p> <p>You did not heed what I told you</p> <p>Nothing will happen to you</p> <p>If you listen to what I tell you</p>
4	<p>Ari ka mamapalla</p> <p>Ta bagu kala neyana</p> <p>Vulawan paga y kukum</p> <p>Ammu y ginafu-gafum.</p>	<p>Do not be haughty,</p> <p>For you just had been born</p> <p>You may have golden nails</p> <p>We know from where you hail.</p>
5	<p><i>Mesipu u masippo</i></p> <p><i>Manigurang y maporay</i></p>	<p>The good will share</p> <p>The stern will govern</p>
6	<p><i>Awan tu kebalinan na kukuwa</i></p> <p><i>Nu marake y pangnga-pangwa</i></p>	<p>A man's wealth is useless I</p> <p>If his character is worthless</p>
7	<p><i>Ari ka mappa-pakke</i></p> <p><i>Ta awan paga tu neture</i></p>	<p>Do not be arrogant</p> <p>You have not proven anything yet</p>
8	<p><i>Y bisin e wagi na katalakagan</i></p>	<p>Hunger is the sister of indolence.</p>



The informant-participant sharing all the Unonis that she knows and remembers to the researcher as well as telling stories of how these unonis have motivated her continue life despite all her struggles.

Proverbs expressing a system of values

The value system of the Ybanag is their standard of self discipline which is dependent on two things – their common sense and their wisdom of knowing what is proper and acceptable.

This is however an individualistic concept as a persons's or a community's value system is molded by their own virtues and vices, but then these three groups shared the idea of a value system which means that they have have unonis expressive of system of values.

The *unoni* below fairly expounds on the the ybanag concept of the golden rule which could also be put this way – whatever you give to others is what others will give back to you. The Ybanag value system highlights the doing of good deed as their value system a a people is anchored on karma regardless whether it is good or bad.

Gukug nga iyawa mu.

(The measure you give

Yayya y gukug nga alawatammu.

is the measure you receive)

Ybanag Unoni		
1	<i>Gukug nga iyawa mu.</i> <i>Yayya y gukug nga alawatammu.</i>	The measure you give is the measure you receive
2	Mappolu bi y baggi Maporyan y pakawagi.	Help yourself first Before others.

Proverbs expressing general truths and observations about life and human nature

It is said that unonis have the power to teach people the more essential truths about life and the intricacies of living. Without necessarily taking too much time making lengthy discussions and narrations.

An informant said that the unonis are able to have that effect and teach a lesson in a matter of seconds. The proverbs classified under those that express general truths and observations about life and human nature which includes the unoni:

Danum nga malimamo.

Makari ta inangngo.

Water though soft

Can take away life

This unoni is based on the characteristics or the disposition of people who are basically calm and silent as they have the tendency to be deep thinking.

Ybanag Unoni		
1	<i>Y attolay allale pilig Ta makaro-karolig Umay ta utun Umay ta gukab.</i>	Life is a like a wheel That goes round and round You go up You go down
2	<i>Pasensya ka laman nga palak Ta sikaw y nagingukak Egga noka y dagun Sikaw y magin utun.</i>	Be patient with your life Though how miserable it is Time will surely come When you will be on top.
3	<i>Ta kunna ikuam Kunne y kakkuam</i>	As you do So it will be done to you.
4	<i>Y zila kagitta na lanseta Y bibik kagitta na garsik.</i>	The tongue wounds like a knife The lips cut like scissors
5	<i>Danum nga malimamo. Makari ta inangngo..</i>	Water though soft Can take away life
6	<i>Davvun a paggafuan Davvun a panolian.</i>	What comes from dust To dust shall return.
7	<i>Managuibi ka ta gayang Nga manuttuk ta matam</i>	You bring up a crow Who will peck you eyes.
8	<i>Ipeppe mu lagapa ta pempel mu</i>	Bear the consequences of your actions.
9	<i>Ykaddu mu laggapa ta pempel mu.</i>	Bear the consequences of your actions.
10	<i>Idague mu ta pattak mu</i>	Sew it with your flesh

Humorous proverbs

The Humorous proverbs are the *unonis* that at first glance are funny but when one look closely then he would discover the logic behind the the proverbs.

Ybanag Unoni		
1	<i>Y vuyū, ari mesussu.</i>	Anything odorous smells
2	<i>Mappaga y makagatu</i>	He who owes ought to pay

Conclusions and recommendations

The Ybanag Unonis are reflective of the values and virtues of the ethnic groups using them and that the Ybanag Unonis are philosophical, instructive and delightful and have the potentialities of enriching the indigenous knowledge base of the people. The *unonis* are not just simply just uttered rather they must be carefully chose to suit the situation where one will be using it. The speaker must consider context of the situation. It is a form of behavior involving choices on these components which are made, often unconsciously by the folks.

With this, the *unonis* must be included as one of the subject matters in Literature and Social Science (History) subjects. Also, studies on the *unonis* of other ethnic groups in the Philippines should be encouraged and supported by Local Government Units (LGUs).

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A Case Study on Vocabulary Learning Strategies in Malaysia: Implications for Teaching and Learning

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Abstract

Within the context of learning English for specific purposes (ESP), vocabulary acquisition plays a crucial role in the development of written and spoken communication in both technical and non-technical industries. Thus, the use of vocabulary learning strategies would determine both learners' fluency as well as confidence in communicating. This paper analyzes the factor structure of the most frequently used vocabulary learning strategies by Malaysian ESL learners studying at a higher learning institution. A confirmatory factor analysis identified vocabulary learning strategy use as a 3-factor structure, with Dictionary Use, Memory Rehearsal and Activation strategies as the underlying constructs, based on the responses of 201 undergraduates. The instrument used was a 27-item questionnaire, adapted from Gu & Johnson's Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire (VSLQ). Results indicate a good model fit model fit with a chi-square statistic ($\chi^2 = 64.3$, $df = 32$) with $p > .001$ and $CMIN/df = 2.010$, $CFI = .946$ and $GFI = .939$. The implications of the findings are discussed, and suggested practices for implementing vocabulary learning strategies in the language classroom, such as mobile-assisted language learning and game-based language learning; are presented.

Keywords: vocabulary learning strategies, memory, teaching, learning

Introduction

The foundation of effective language learning lies upon vocabulary acquisition, especially for ESP environments where learners are expected to master vocabulary items and language structures for specific use in technical fields as well as the social sciences. Both vocabulary size and vocabulary depth have a strong influence on academic reading (Qian, 2002), meaning that learners with better vocabulary knowledge would have better reading comprehension skills. Vocabulary knowledge is viewed as a multidimensional construct, consisting of vocabulary breadth as well as depth of vocabulary knowledge (Qian & Schedl, 2004), and can be broken down further into vocabulary size, depth of vocabulary knowledge, lexical organization, and automaticity of receptive-productive knowledge (Qian, 2002).

Improving vocabulary knowledge could greatly improve one's English proficiency and the issue of improving English proficiency has always been a focus among Malaysian teachers,

academics, and Ministry of Education officials (Mohd Asraf, 2003). However, the challenges in learning vocabulary arise when the enormous amount of lexical items for students to master is compounded by additional phrasal lexical items (Schmitt, 2008). It is crucial that ESP learners enrich their technical vocabularies, especially for the field that they are studying for, thus there should be “special emphasis on the teaching of technical vocabulary” (Machmud, 2017, p. 70).

Students' lack of proficiency in English could be a stumbling block to developing their educational potential and also impinge their future career opportunities, and rural students are twice as likely to fail national standardized examinations (Mohd Asraf, 2004). Many rural school students have difficulty using English in simple conversation, or understanding the most basic information in a reading passage. Worse still, the lack of English proficiency was having alarming repercussions on the job market and the national economy, as these students found it difficult to obtain jobs after graduation. This was not due to a lack of available jobs, but rather a mismatch between workforce requirements and graduates' skill sets.

In Malaysian universities, improving English language proficiency has always been a fundamental part of the learning process, and it is compulsory for learners to attend English courses that are specifically designed to help them improve their language skills for the field that they are pursuing (Lee, 2004). However, some learners still show slow progress in improving their reading comprehension. One of the biggest concerns cited by students is not being able to understand the words that they read, which impedes their reading and understanding of texts (Qian, 1998). This vocabulary deficit can be seen clearly during reading comprehension activities which require them to paraphrase highlighted words and phrases, as well as answering comprehension questions which require higher order skills such as synthesis of ideas (Laufer, 1997; Qian, 1998, 1999). Weak students often cite limited vocabulary as the main factor that impedes their learning development in English (Qian, 1998). This handicap overrides factors such as knowledge of grammar and text structure when reading passages containing new and unfamiliar words, resulting both in impeded reading comprehension and demotivation when developing academic language in the classroom. However, it is undeniable that the environment of learning a second language has changed largely due to technological advancements that have transformed the learning process. There are greater technological affordances today that were not in existence in previous studies on vocabulary, and it is timely to understand how vocabulary learning strategies are structured in the current

language learning environment. Thus, this paper delves into current learner practices by analyzing the factor structure of vocabulary learning strategies in order to shed more light as to how students learn vocabulary today, with the view of exploring new ways to learn vocabulary.

Vocabulary Learning

Students learning a second language, especially at tertiary level where the performance of both second language learning and academic studies are linked to their communicative competence in the target language, may find vocabulary learning rather daunting (Hulstijn, 2001). The task of vocabulary learning involves not only learning the meaning of a word, but also acquiring familiarity with the word families of the word (Read, 2000). Word families, says Nation (2001), refer to the headword in all its possible forms, be it inflected and/or derived, and occur at four levels of frequency- high frequency words; academic vocabulary; technical vocabulary; and low frequency words. (Nation, 2001). High frequency words cover a very large proportion, about 80%, of running words. This includes function words and could possibly have over 2,000 word families; appearing in various language settings and contexts. Academic vocabulary is an expansion of high frequency words, covering “8.5% of academic text, 4% of newspapers and less than 2% of the running words of novels” (Chung, & Nation, 2003, p. 104), while technical vocabulary has relative importance to people with technical and specialized careers, occurring in about 5% of running words. Low frequency words occur very infrequently and cover a small proportion of a text, about 5% (Nation, 2001). Frequency aside, however, Bonk (2000) posits that language learners would need to understand about 90% of lexical items in a written discourse in order to adequately comprehend it (in Schmitt, 2008, p. 331). All in all, a vocabulary of about 8000 word families, comprising of 34, 660 words is required for wide reading and good comprehension (Nation, 2006).

Vocabulary learning can take place both in a classroom and beyond, however, it is necessary for learners to be equipped with vocabulary learning strategies to enable greater self-direction and maximize their vocabulary learning, as merely depending on exposure to language tasks in class is insufficient. Unfortunately, many teachers are pressed for time and are unable to teach vocabulary learning strategies, thus learners often develop their own methods and strategies of learning vocabulary.

Vocabulary Learning Strategies

Vocabulary learning strategies are a crucial part of language learning strategies (Nation, 2001) and at tertiary level involves the development of academic language proficiency, which enables students to process the content of academic discourse (Nagy & Townsend, 2012). Academic language refers to “specialized language, both oral and written, of academic settings that facilitates communication and thinking about disciplinary content” (Nagy & Townsend, 2012, p. 92), and students with weak academic language proficiency would struggle with basic course requirements such as reading required course material, and presenting, developing and justifying their ideas in writing. Thus, it is necessary for students to have sound strategies for learning vocabulary in order to be able to complete their coursework. Judicious application of vocabulary learning strategies can foster increased autonomy for learners, who then gain more independence, (Oxford, 1990), which can potentially transfer to their academic learning. By consciously focusing on strategy use, more gains in vocabulary can be achieved (Coady, 1997; Oxford and Scarcella, 1994; Nation, 2001).

There have been many attempts to capture the dimensions in vocabulary learning in vocabulary learning taxonomies. However, the theoretical basis of vocabulary learning strategies for this study is the Vocabulary Learning Strategies Taxonomy as outlined by Schmitt (1997), which is based on Oxford’s classification of learner strategies (Oxford, 1990). Schmitt proposed 2 major clusters of strategies that learners use when during their initial exposure to a new lexical item (Schmitt, 1997). The first cluster refers to when the learner first identifies the meaning of new words, and the second cluster is when the learners consolidate the meaning of the word learned. The first cluster of strategies includes determination and social strategies, while the second cluster includes social, memory, cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Determination strategies are used when learners have to discover the meaning of a new word without the benefit of having someone to assist them (Schmitt, 1997). Social strategies are used when learners ask someone for help with the meaning, implying that they have to have access to someone who can help. Memory strategies are used when learners try to link new information to what they already have in their schemas, while Cognitive strategies “include repetition and using mechanical means to study vocabulary” (Schmitt, 1997, p. 22). Finally, Metacognitive strategies refer to the different forms of self-regulation of their learning activities and outcomes (Schmitt, 1997, p. 23).

Taxonomies of Vocabulary Learning Strategies

There have been a number of attempts at classifying vocabulary learning strategies used by learners, the most notable taxonomies put forward by Gu and Johnson (1996), Schmitt (1997) and Nation (2001). For Gu and Johnson (1996), the second language (L2) vocabulary learning strategies are metacognitive, cognitive, memory and activation strategies. Metacognitive strategies consist of selective attention and self-initiation strategies. Those employing self-initiation strategies would expand the vocabulary learning to beyond the language tasks assigned in class, while learners using guessing strategies harness their background knowledge and search for “linguistic cues like grammatical structures of a sentence to guess the meaning of a word” (Gu & Johnson, 1996, p. 675).

Schmitt’s taxonomy of vocabulary learning strategies does include social strategies, (1997) and, as previously mentioned, distinguishes the vocabulary learning strategies into two groups: strategies for determining the meaning of new words when encountered for the first time, and strategies consolidating the meaning when encountered again. Social strategies are included in both categories since they can be used for both purposes. The first set of strategies includes determination and social strategies and the second set of strategies includes cognitive, metacognitive, memory and social strategies. Determination strategies are used when learners try to uncover the meaning of a new word by guessing it with the help of context, structural knowledge of language, and reference materials like dictionaries. Another way to discover a new meaning is through employing social strategies by asking someone for help with the unknown words. However, apart from learning the meanings of a word, learners also need to employ a variety of strategies to practice and retain vocabulary. A word learned is useless if forgotten, thus we shall now turn to reviewing the role of working memory in decoding, storing, organizing and retrieving of words.

Vocabulary Acquisition and Working Memory

Words are not learned in a linear manner (Nation, 2001), and forgetting words that have just been learned is a normal part of the learning process. In this case, words which are in a state of flux – neither mastered nor totally forgotten – would mean that the learner only has partial vocabulary knowledge. Ellis (1996) had put forward the notion that short-term memory capacity is a strong predictor of both eventual vocabulary and grammar achievement (in

Nation, 2001). However, words which were most easily forgotten were those that were known receptively, words which were used productively were more easily remembered. In this regard, it is crucial to look into the role of memory, specifically working memory and the role it plays in language learning.

Working memory involves the temporary storage and manipulation of information necessary for a wide range of complex cognitive activities. Baddeley (2003) proposed that it could be divided into three subsystems initially – “the phonological loop, the visuospatial sketchpad and the central executive”, then a fourth subsystem was later added, known as the episodic buffer, which functioning primarily to arrange the memories into blocks known as ‘episodes’ (see Figure 1). The episodic buffer provides a way of binding together information from a variety of different sources into chunks or episodes (Baddeley, 2003).

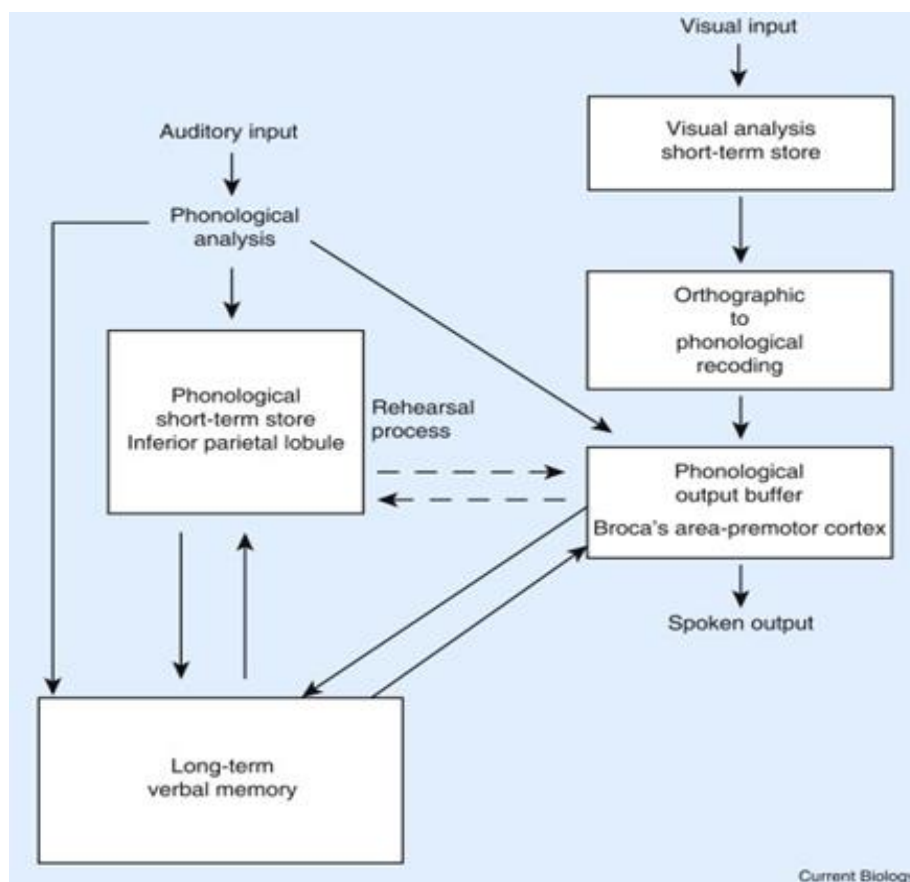


Figure 1: The phonological loop (Baddeley, 2010)

According to Baddeley (2010) the auditory input undergoes a phonological analysis and is sent to a short-term storage. The information here then proceeds to a phonological output system, which is responsible for producing the rehearsal for spoken output. Thus, when a learner learns a new word for the first time and listens to the pronunciation of that target word, the sounds of that words are initially analysed phonologically and then rehearsed prior to repeating it, through the phonological output buffer, which is situated in Broca's area in the premotor cortex (Baddeley, 2010).

Meanwhile, the visual input undergoes a visual analysis for orthographical and phonological recoding. It is at this phase where the mind has to analyse the orthographic features of the word to ensure that there is no confusion with other polysemous words that already exist in the mental lexicon that have the same form but have different meanings - for example, *bank* can be both a verb and a noun. Thus, in this case a learner needs to scan the whole sentence and visually process other words in that sentence as well to identify the context. It often helps that words often collocate with each other, as this helps with letting the learner gain a context for understanding and predicting what other words could exist in the text. Indeed, effective memory engagement plays a critical role in developing learners' vocabulary knowledge as the more words they read, the more new words they will acquire and will need to remember for the long-term.

Methodology

The sampling technique used here was stratified random sampling, since it captures key population characteristics in the sample (Creswell, 2008). For the purposes of this research the strata consisted of 201 undergraduate students from 4 different disciplines - Actuarial Science, Applied Mathematics with Computing, Physics, Quantity Surveying, Mechanical Engineering from a local private university (see Table 1 below).

Table 1: Distribution according to gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage %
Female	105	52.2%
Male	96	47.8%
TOTAL	201	100 %

The participants in this study were then divided into 3 groups of proficiency; High Proficiency, Average Proficiency and Low Proficiency in order to provide us with some indication of their language abilities. They were divided into 3 groups of proficiency based on the following criteria. High proficiency students were those who scored between A+ - B+ in their most recent English examinations. Average proficiency students were those who scored between B – C+ in their most recent English examinations, while Low proficiency students were those who score less than a C+. Table 2 below shows the distribution among the respondents according to proficiency.

Table 2: *Distribution according to proficiency*

Proficiency	Frequency	Percentage %
High	45	22.4 %
Average	105	52.4 %
Low	51	25.5 %

TOTAL	100 %
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As we can see above in Table 2.0, there is a bigger proportion of respondents from the Average proficiency range (52.4%), while the High proficiency students form the smallest group (22.4%). The Low proficiency students formed the second largest group (25.5%).

Instrument

The Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire was developed by Gu and Johnson (1996) to establish vocabulary learning strategies used by EFL students in China. Vocabulary learning strategies involves an understanding of 2 levels - the *process* of learning a word and the *product* of vocabulary learning which is vocabulary knowledge (Gu, 2003). Essentially, vocabulary learning strategies refers to knowledge about what students do to find out the meaning of new words, retain them in long-term memory, recall them when needed in comprehension, and use them in language production. The items in the Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire were operationalized by Gu and Johnson based on previous qualitative and quantitative research (Gu, 1996; Oxford, 1990). Additionally, this self-report instrument had been revised and adapted over time (Fan, 2003; Ruumets, 2005) and used in various settings with positive results, indicating the robustness and reliability of the instrument, despite scaling back on items.

The questionnaire comprises of 2 sections. Section 1 is related to personal data including demographic details such as gender and age. Section 2 features 4 categories measuring 4 underlying constructs: guessing strategies, dictionary strategies, memory rehearsal strategies and activation strategies. Although the original version contained more constructs, only 4 were used for this study as the other constructs were found to be either irrelevant to the study (eg: “Beliefs about Vocabulary Learning”, which we deemed as not being a strategy), or overlapping in item description, which could be a potential problem when running the analysis (Supian, 2014).

The first construct “Guessing strategies” refers to what extent do the learners use background knowledge to gain a wider context of what they are reading, as well as to what

extent they are using linguistic cues to understand the immediate context of the text. Examples of guessing include items with statements like ‘I look for any definitions or paraphrases in the text that support my guess about the meaning of the new word’ and ‘I make use of the grammatical structure of a sentence when guessing the meaning of the new word’.

The second construct “Dictionary strategies” refers to what extent the learners use dictionary strategies for comprehension, looking up of words and also whether they have any extended dictionary strategies. Examples of dictionary strategy use include items with statements like ‘When not knowing a word prevents me from understanding a whole sentence or even a whole paragraph, I look it up’ and ‘If there are homographic entries (ie: words that have the same form but different meaning, eg: bank) I will use various information from the text (part of speech, collocation) to reduce them by elimination.

The third construct “Memory Rehearsal strategies” refers to what extent do the learners use rehearsal strategies such as word lists, oral and visual repetition. Examples of rehearsal strategy use include items with statements like ‘When I try to remember a word I repeat it aloud to myself’ and ‘When I try to remember the word, I repeat its pronunciation in my mind.’

The fourth construct “Activation strategies” refers to the extent the learners take to activate their language production by using the newly learned words in practice. Examples of activation strategy use include items with statements like ‘I make up my own sentences using the words I just learned’ and ‘I try to engage in role-plays with my friends to practice the feel of speaking and pronouncing newly learned words.’ Altogether, the instrument featured 27 items in total, rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 =I NEVER do this, to 7 = I ALWAYS do this. A pilot test was then conducted, followed by a reliability analysis.

To determine the reliability of each subscale, an internal consistency reliability analysis was performed. As can be seen in Table 3, the Cronbach’s α for the Guessing sub-construct was 0.826 (6 items), the Dictionary sub-construct was 0.792 (7 items), the Memory Rehearsal sub-construct was 0.802 (7 sub-constructs) and the Activation sub-construct was 0.863 (7 sub-constructs).

According to Gliem and Gliem, the “closer Cronbach’s α coefficient is to 1.0 the greater the internal consistency of the items in the scale” (Gliem & Gliem, 2003, p. 87). Since all the

α values were above 0.79, it can be interpreted that this instrument that measures Vocabulary Learning Strategy Use has reasonably good reliability.

In any study, the constructs are based on the literature and must be validated. Once both convergent and divergent validity has been established, the next step would be to perform an exploratory factor analysis (EFA).

Table 3: Reliability analysis for Vocabulary Learning Strategy Use

Construct	Cronbach's Alpha α	N of Items
Guessing	.826	6
Dictionary	.792	7
Memory Rehearsal	.802	7
Activation	.863	7

However at this stage it is necessary to highlight that EFA is a process usually reserved for instruments that are self-developed and have yet to be validated. Instruments which have already been validated and tested in many different settings usually do not need to undergo EFA, so we proceeded with the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA).

CFA is a process that analyses the structure and content of the factors, leading to an estimate of the statistical results of these established factors. Usually item deletion is done at this stage, to establish a better model fit. For this study the CFA was performed using Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 18.0 to perform Structural Equation Modelling.

Data Screening

Data screening was done once the data collection process was complete. The patterns of missingness, identification of univariate and multivariate outliers were examined. Also examined were the statistical assumptions for multivariate analysis such as multicollinearity, which refers to a situation in which two or more explanatory variables in a multiple regression model are highly linearly related. With regards to accuracy of data input, an examination of the data revealed that there were no out of range values for each of the individual items / variables when checked against the questionnaire, and a further examination of the data revealed that there were no missing values when checked, indicating that all the respondents had answered all the items accordingly. The data was also found to be of normal distribution. The observation of univariate outliers was done through the inspection of the AMOS text output under Assessment of Normality through Mahalanobis distance in order to determine if the remaining data contained any outliers. 9 outliers were discovered and eliminated from the analysis (initially the study had 210 respondents), leaving a total of 201 respondents. Assessment of multicollinearity was performed by an examination of the correlation matrix as well as an examination of the collinearity diagnostic. This is important as an analysis of the relationship among the independent variables is required when using structural equation modelling. Therefore, correlations were checked between the independent and dependent variables, which indicated that none of the values exceeded .90. Since a value of 1.00 would indicate singularity, it was concluded from the analysis that there no such cases in this study.

Collinearity diagnostics indicated that none of the Tolerance values were smaller than .1 which indicated that collinearity between variables is unlikely. In addition, the Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values were all under 10, again concurring with the earlier observation that collinearity between variables is unlikely. According to Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2013) any tolerance value that is found to be between < 0.1 or VIF value that is > 10 , would indicate multicollinearity. As such, upon inspection in this study it is concluded that assumptions of multicollinearity and singularity were satisfied. In order to check for linearity, the normal p-plot of regression standardised residual was checked., and the probability plot of regression standardised residuals that was extracted for the dependent variable indicate a normal distribution. Thus the assumption of linearity was met.

As previously mentioned, all statistical calculations including estimation fit indices, errors and model parameters via Structural Equation Modeling were performed using the programme Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) version 18.0.

Descriptive Statistics

Prior to running Structural Equation Modeling, the data were first screened for the analysis. The results of the descriptive analysis showed that the means for the overall items and fell within accepted ranges of the standard deviation. The mean scores from the 7 point Likert scales ranged from 2.75 to 5.48. The standard deviations ranged from 1.22 to 1.15, indicating a narrow spread of items around the means. The statistical values (z) of skewness and kurtosis fell within the recommended points as suggested by Kline (2005). In general, the statistical values for skewness and kurtosis were within the recommended range, indicating that the overall items appeared to be normally distributed and the instrument highly reliable. As the data showed normal distribution, the study adopted the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) in generating estimates of the full-fledged model. After the model was estimated, a set of accepted criteria was applied to evaluate its goodness of fit. The measures, based on the conventionally accepted criteria for deciding what constitutes a good fit model, included (i) the consistency of the hypothesized model with the collected data, (ii) reasonableness of the estimates.

The general specifications of a simple measurement model are that firstly, each indicator is a continuous variable comprising single non-zero loading on the underlying targeted factor and an error term; the error terms are independent of each other and the factor and finally, the associations between the measured variables are not analysed. In addition, one of the loading paths from the latent construct is constrained to 1.00 in order for the model to be identified.

Item deletion is performed at this stage to enable a better model fit. Items that are deleted are those that had factor loadings of less than 0.30 and also did not load on only 1 factor. Also, item deletion is only done if there is evidence in the literature that supports such a decision. Lastly, care is taken to ensure that deleted items do not result in an adverse impact of the validity indices of each scale.

Assessing Model Fit

Fit refers to the ability of a model to reproduce the data, which is usually the variance-covariance matrix (Kenny, 2011). A good fitting model is “one that is reasonably consistent with the data and so does not require respecification” (Kenny, 2011). Analyses of the structural model will begin with the fully saturated model in which all paths among the variables are examined. The fitness of the structural model to the data is examined via several fit indices.

The chi-square test functions as a statistical method for evaluating models, while the fit indices describe and evaluate the residuals that result from fitting a model to the data. Notably, the test of absolute model fit, which is the chi-square statistic, would not be the sole criteria for examining for model fitness. Chi-square essentially tests the difference between the sample covariance matrix and the restricted covariance matrix, with the assumption that the residual discrepancy between them is zero.

In SEM, a nonsignificant chi-square would indicate that the hypothesised model is congruent or consistent with the observed data. With regards to the p-value, a better fit is usually indicated by a higher probability level (p value) associated with chi square. In other words, a significant chi-square indicates lack of satisfactory model fit, while a non-significant chi-square indicates that the hypothesized model fits the data. Thus, the smaller the chi-square, the better the model fit.

However, the literature tells us to treat chi square with caution as it is “stringent in nature and is sensitive to large sample sizes (Kenny, 2011). Thus, it is recommended that incremental fit indices, which are the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) and the Tucker Lewis Index (TLI) are also used in addition to chi-square values. The first index, the Comparative Fit Index (CFI) compares the hypothesized model with the independence model. Since the values of CFI and Normed Fit Index (NFI) are consistent with each other, only CFI will be reported. The Tucker Lewis Index, also known as the Non-Normed Fit Index balances the effect of model complexity, and a TLI index of above 0.90 is acceptable with medium sample sizes (Hu and Bentler, 1999), as is a CFI index of above 0.90. For Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), values of .08 and below indicate adequate fit, while values of 0.5 and below indicate excellent fit (Byrne, 2010; Hoyle and Panter, 1995; Marsh, Hau and We, 2004).

Reporting Fit Indices

Jaccard and Wan (1996) recommend the use of at least three fit tests, each representing a different type of measure so as to represent diverse criteria. Kline (1998) recommends at least four tests, such as model chi-square; NFI or CFI; NNFI; and SRMR. Kline (2005) later recommended reporting model RMSEA, CFI, SRMR, and the deviance (2LL, a.k.a. model chi-square), its degrees of freedom, and its p value. Hu and Bentler (1999) recommend reporting SRMR plus NNFI, RMSEA, or CFI. Thompson (2000) recommends the comparative fit index (CFI) and the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) as being the most useful when assessing model fit. McDonald and Ho (2002), based on a review of the literature, found the most commonly reported model fit indexes were CFI, GFI, NFI and NNFI. Hooper, Coughlan, & Mullen (2008) recommend reporting deviance (model chi-square), its degrees of freedom, and its p value, along with RMSEA and its associated confidence interval, SRMR, CFI and a parsimony measure such as PNFI. Garson recommends reporting model chi-square (CMIN), RMSEA, and one of the baseline fit measures (NFI, RFI, IFI, TLI, CFI). It should be noted that some measures, particularly AGFI, are no longer preferred. This study shall therefore report the following indices: CMIN\DF, p value, CFI, TLI and RMSEA.

Results and Discussion

Using the maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) procedure, the validity of this model was tested by applying confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) using AMOS version 18.0 on the data collected from 201 respondents.

Initially, as can be seen in Figure 2, the measurement model had an adequate fit, with a normed chi-square of 2.172, which is below 3. The fit indices showed adequate model fit with CFI of 0.916, GFI of 0.912 and RMSEA of 0.077. Model modification indexes were also checked to examine the existence of cross-loadings and error covariances. It was found that 14 items had a high value of error covariance. The modification index values ranged from MI = 163.94 to MI = 12.757, suggesting the existence of covariance between some errors. The high value of modification index (MI) is usually indicative of cross loading and error covariance (Byrne, 2001).

Based on the values gleaned from the model modification indexes, 3 items were deleted from the Activation strategies subscale, while 4 items were deleted from both the Dictionary strategies subscale and the Memory Rehearsal strategies subscale.

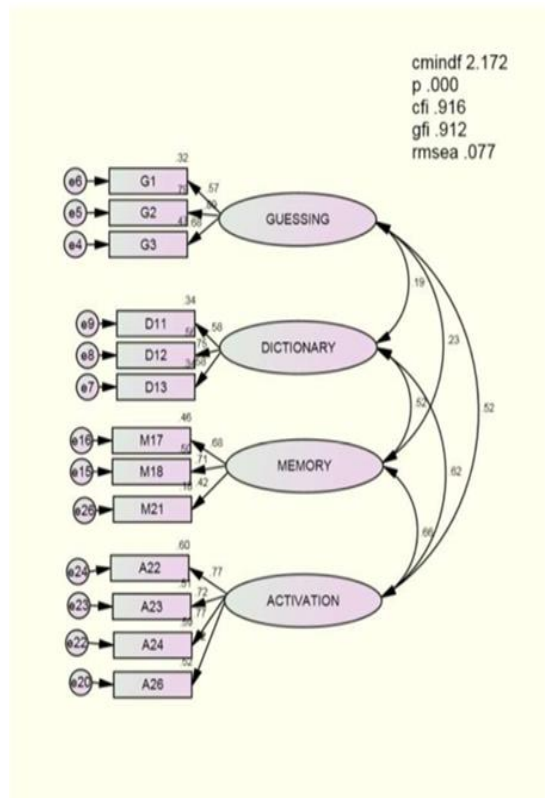


Figure 2: Measurement Model for Vocabulary Strategy Use

The items that were deleted from the Dictionary strategies subscale were Item 8 “When I want to confirm my guess about a word, I look it up”, Item 9 “When not knowing a word prevents me from understanding a whole sentence or even a whole paragraph, I look it up” Item 10 “I pay attention to the examples of use when I look up a word in a dictionary” and Item 13 “If there are homographic entries (ie: words that have the same form but different meaning, eg: bank) I will use various information from the text (part of speech, collocation) to reduce them by elimination”.

The items that were deleted from the Memory Rehearsal strategies subscale were Item 15 “I write the newly learned words on a vocabulary list”, Item 16 “I go through my vocabulary list several times until I am sure that I do not have any words on that list that I do not

understand”, Item 19 “When I try to remember the word, I repeat its pronunciation in my mind” and Item 20 “When I try to remember a word, I write it repeatedly”.

Finally, the items that were deleted from the Activation strategy subscale were Item 25 “I try to use newly learned words in real situations”, Item 27 “I try to engage in role-plays with my friends to practice the feel of speaking and pronouncing newly learned words”, and Item 28 “I try to practice my vocabulary with my friends using cloze passages and reading comprehension practices in workbooks”.

Once the items were deleted, the model was then re-specified. At this stage, due to its low correlation with the other constructs, the decision was made to revise the model by dropping the

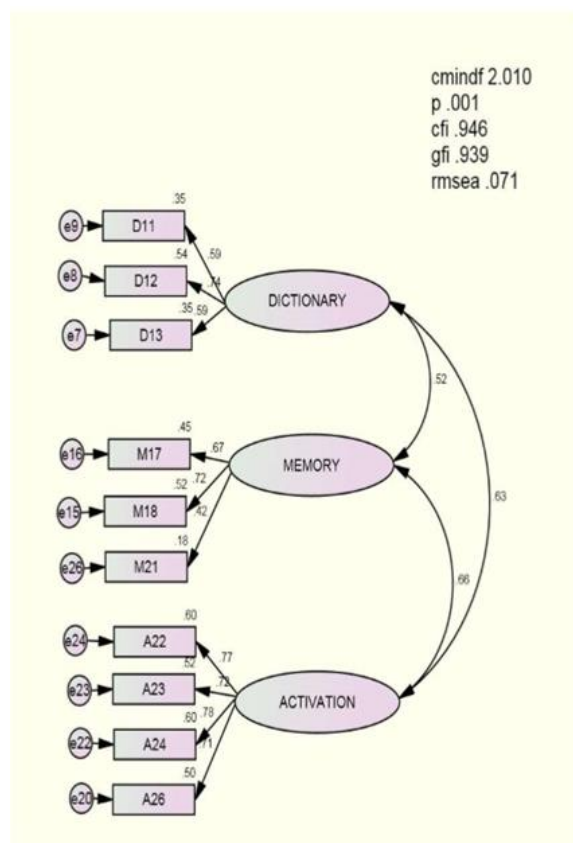


Figure 3: Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Vocabulary Strategy Use

Guessing construct altogether (see Figure 3 above). This was further supported by findings in the literature, where Schmitt (2008) reported that Guessing, while often cited as a

popular strategy, is unfortunately often unreliable - unless the learner already knows 98% of the words in the discourse (Schmitt, 2008, p. 341) and also provided minimal engagement required for successful recall, Dóczy argues further that it could even possibly be “counter-effective” when done incorrectly (Dóczy, 2011, p.144). Further to this, learners reported being more connected to their phones (which had internet access) and preferred to refer directly to online dictionaries whenever they encountered unfamiliar words (Mohd Asraf & Supian, 2017), instead of guessing from context, which was claimed to be time-consuming.

The revision resulted in an improved model fit, with chi-square statistic ($\chi^2 = 64.3$, $df = 32$) with $p > .001$ and $CMIN/df = 2.010$. The CFI = .946 and GFI = .939 exceeded the threshold of .90. In addition, RMSEA = .071 showed a reasonable error of estimation. In other words, the revised model featured a better fit than the previous model.

The model was also assessed in terms of its convergent validity, to check if the variables within a single factor are highly correlated, which is evident by the factor loadings. Sufficient loadings depend on the sample size of the dataset. Generally, the smaller the sample size, the higher the required loading. The procedures proposed by Fornell and Larcker (1981) were used for this study, whereby for a sample size of 200, firstly the item reliability of each measure should be equal to or exceed the recommended point of 0.40; that the composite reliability of the construct should be equal to or exceed the threshold point of 0.40. The measurement model satisfied these criteria, since the factor loadings of items ranged from 0.42 to 0.89. In addition, the Cronbach alpha for this construct was 0.820, and the composite reliability was 0.893, which was above the threshold of 0.7 indicating that convergent validity was satisfied. Discriminant validity was also confirmed as the square correlations for each construct was less than the average variance extracted by the construct indicators.

Furthermore, all factor loadings were statistically significant ($CR > 1.96$) with no violation of error variances (Hox & Bechger, 2007). The proportion of variances explained for the three measurement variables are represented by the squared multiple correlation (SMC) in Table 5.0 (see Appendix A). The variance explained for Vocabulary Learning Strategies ranges from 17.7% for M21 to 60.3% for A24. More specifically, 34.7% of the variance was explained by D11, 54% by D12, 35.3% by D13, 45.2% by M17, 51.5% by M18, 59.9 by A22, 52.2% by A23 and 50.4% by A26.

All factor loadings were statistically significant and therefore, all items can be considered as indicators for Vocabulary Learning Strategies. The variances of the error terms were found to be statistically significant, as they fell within the range of 0.094 to 0.186. Table 5.0 (in Appendix A) details the results of analysis related to Vocabulary Learning Strategies.

Implications of findings on teaching and learning

The confirmatory factor analysis revealed that vocabulary learning strategy use is a 3-factor structure, with Dictionary Use, Memory Rehearsal and Activation strategies as the underlying constructs. In this study, the learners reported greater use of the dictionary when they were unsure of a word, as opposed to guessing from context. Students preferred to look for phrases or expressions that are often used with the word when they look it up, in order to fully understand the spectrum of usage for that particular word. This indicates that the students are aware of vocabulary depth and were invested in learning as much as they could about a new word when the opportunity arose. Should the target word contain a prefix or suffix, they reported that they will try the root word entry, and also reported that when they wanted to know more about a word that was already familiar, they would look it up as well.

One interesting feature of this particular study is that nearly all the students reportedly preferred to use online dictionaries using their mobile phones, as opposed to the print version. Previously, a few students carried portable digital dictionaries, but now online dictionaries were reportedly more user-friendly. Also, with the proliferation of the smartphone, students have access to the internet and thus a multitude of online dictionaries such as Oxfordonline.com at their fingertips was that students no longer saw the need to guess meanings of words from context anymore. With technology at their fingertips, the learners preferred to look up the word immediately, rather than endure the hassle of guessing for meaning from context, with the possibility that one might be wrong. While initial studies reported that guessing from context “showed positive correlation with vocabulary size and general language proficiency” (Gu and Johnson, 1996, p. 667), there is evidence that indicates that for some learners, “this kind of risk-taking can be counter-effective as there is evidence that when students rely on inferences based on word form associates rather than actual cues from the text, the outcome is incorrect word-meaning determination (Bensoussan & Laufer, 1984). Furthermore, guessing is effective for texts that contain mainly familiar words (Nation, 2015), and that for learners

with weak to average proficiency who are still developing their academic vocabulary guessing from context would not be productive.

These findings are consistent with current literature that underscore the use of dictionaries as a pedagogical tool in vocabulary or translation classes can be helpful for learning vocabulary incidentally (Prichard, 2008; Huang, & Eslami, 2013), as dictionaries “give detailed guidance on grammar, pronunciation, and usage; have definitions written in a controlled, simplified vocabulary; and even provide examples of words in context” (Oxford & Scarcella, 1994, p.10). While the reliance on a dictionary has not changed, it is the medium, from print to online form that has altered the practice of looking up word meanings (Chiu & Liu, 2013).

The use of memory strategies was also reported to play a role in their vocabulary learning. Learners were more likely to use memory strategies to help them remember the new words, such as repeating the sound of the word out loud. These learners reported greater use of their imagination when practicing the use of these new words by creating sentences and situations where these words would likely be used.

Memory activation strategies were also utilised by the learners, where they reportedly tried to read as much as possible to make use of the new words, as well as using the newly learned words as much as possible in speech and writing. This was consistent with earlier findings from Gu and Johnson (1996) who reported that good learners used more deliberate memorization strategies like oral repetition, association, imagery, visualizing the form of a word and breaking the word into parts. Schmitt (1997) also found that repetition of a word’s verbal or written form was a very popular and useful strategy, and in general strategies targeting vocabulary retention correlated more with vocabulary size, thus highlighting the significance of memory in regulating vocabulary development (Fan, 2003) In developing vocabulary knowledge it is essential for learners to be able to engage their memory very effectively. This is necessary because the more words they read, the more new words they will acquire and will need to remember (Nation, 2001, Ellis, 1996, van den Broek. et al., 2013).

The results from this study holds practical implications for language instructors who wish to engage learners in tasks that fully exercise the vocabulary learning strategies mentioned

herein. At tertiary level, there are many activities that can be implemented both in the classroom and beyond. We shall now look into activities that fully harness these strategies.

Classroom environments

For classroom environments, learners with weak proficiency in both vocabulary and grammar knowledge, one activity to start with is the use of industry specific dictionaries and glossaries that define major terms and concepts specific to their field of study as this would reinforce their exposure to the relevant academic vocabulary. Another practice could be in the form of having more ‘Speaking Circles’, where students can present a review of current issues, using newly learned lexical items, which would greatly assist both their memory rehearsal and activation practice. Learners could also brainstorm in groups about a concept, while engaging in critical debate. There are pros and cons to using debates and “Speaking Circles”, as students at advanced and intermediate levels tend to contribute more, while learners at less advanced levels tend to struggle, mostly with pronunciation and fluency; and are less comfortable being put on the spot - which can also be frustrating for the instructor. The following could perhaps prove more beneficial for these learners.

Mobile assisted language learning

Mobile assisted language learning refers to language learning that uses technological affordances provided by mobile technology via mobile phone or tablet device. Learners who wish to practice more but find the logistical constraints of formal classroom learning too restricting would benefit greatly from mobile assisted language learning (Mohd. Asraf & Supian, 2017). The learning can take place anywhere, anytime – during the commute to and from classes, or even during a gap between classes. As the mobile device is a personal one, it is also discreet, and for students with anxiety issues this kind of privacy and level of control is ideal.

The learning can support existing classroom activities, or be stand-alone and completely self-directed, such as through the use of [Rosetta Stone](#) or [Duolingo](#), both of which are available online. There are many free language learning applications available on both iOS and Android platforms, offering freemium rates (free for basic services, charges apply for additional features and services), and some platforms are available only as .com sites, not as

apps. One example is [Busuu](#), which supports learning by emphasising vocabulary memorisation, structure of sentences and conversational skills. Learners get to practice reading, listening (with sound demonstration and translation) as well as practice writing through exercises. Speaking practice, however, comes with the premium paid service. Busuu comes with its own community system, where learners can get in touch with each other and provide support with homework, or even just to chat with a native speaker.

Another popular language learning app is [Voxy](#), which offers lessons through thematic units, and learners can select their preferred content or language functions. Texts come with audio recording and vocabulary items have links that provide pronunciations and definitions. Listening comprehension activities comes with keyword captioning in a video, that pauses to ask multiple choice questions. Learners can memorise new words better with such visual support (Kurniawan & Tanone, 2017). It is not free, and thus may not be as attainable for students to access it on their own, but institutional support could be considered.

However, the inevitable question arises : Are these language learning apps sufficient? To wit, mobile apps for language learning have been assessed for their impact on the learning process, and in a review by Heil, Wu, Lee, & Schmidt, (2016) that looked into pedagogical focus, adaptability to learners' needs and proficiency levels as well as use of corrective feedback - it was reported that vocabulary units are often taught in "isolated chunks", which means that teaching for contextual knowledge is still lacking. Also, corrective feedback was minimal, and adaptability to learners' individual issues are still wanting in most apps. However, vocabulary learning activities on platforms like [Memrise](#) utilises machine learning technology that pursues the learner to answer questions on words yet to have been mastered, providing a challenge to the learner that *is* adaptive in nature. These limitations are relative to the current technology, and it is anticipated that the next generation of language learning apps would, hopefully, address some of these issues. Nevertheless, for learners who have very basic levels of proficiency, language learning apps would certainly be a good place to start. Meanwhile, for more intermediate learners, perhaps instructors could stretch their pedagogical horizons with a more exciting challenge, which we will look at briefly in the next section.

Game-based language learning

Recently, new directions in vocabulary learning have taken on more adventurous turns, as researchers are now exploring vocabulary learning through video games and massively multiplayer online role-playing games (Thorne, Black & Sykes, 2009, Peterson, 2012), with a view to utilize game-based learning for developing academic vocabulary. There are currently a host of COS (commercial off-the-shelf) games which combines role-playing (using ESP) in simulated real-life situations within a training framework, such as *Combat Medic* (Virtual Heroes, 2014) - where medical students “role-play as doctors in a simulated battlefield to save injured patients”, while simultaneously learning vocabulary and language structures for these situations (in Casañ-Pitarch, 2018). Similarly, in *Hilton Ultimate Team Play* (Virtual Heroes, 2007), hotel frontline staff engage in conversations with virtual customers to improve their customer service skills. These games not only serve to develop the language skills needed by students of ESP, but also heighten the learning experience by throwing them into a simulated work environment. These game environments provide more challenging experiences for the learners, and vocabulary learning is contextual and highly interactive. Furthermore, these simulated learning environments potentially develop key workplace competencies such as problem-solving, time management and interpersonal communication (Ermakova, Demyanenko, Kurovskii, Tsepilova & Kadochnikova, 2018). In conclusion, it is hoped that with increasing exposure to a variety of challenging vocabulary-building activities in different mediums, it is hoped that eventually learners will build both their confidence and also develop their vocabulary to become better learners in the future.

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APPENDIX A

Table 5.0: *Maximum Likelihood Parameter Estimates of the Standardized Factor Loadings, Standard*

Error, Critical Ratio and Squared Multiple Correlations for Vocabulary Learning Strategies

	Factor loadings	SE	CR	R2
<u>Dictionary Strategies</u>	0.59	.149	-	.347
D11: When I want to confirm my guess about a word, I look it up in the dictionary.				
D12: When I want to know more about a word that I already know, I look it up in the dictionary as well.	0.74	.186	6.29	.540
D13: If the new word I try to look up seems to have a prefix or suffix I will try the entry for the root word.	0.59	—	—	.353
<u>Memory Rehearsal Strategies</u>	0.67	—	—	.452

M17: I write the newly learned words
on a vocabulary list.

M18: Repeating the sound of a new word would be enough for me to remember the word.	0.72	.151	6.57	.515
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M21: When I try to remember the word, I repeat its pronunciation in my mind.	0.42	.124	4.74	.177
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<u>Activation Strategies</u>	0.77	—	—	.599
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A22: I try to read as much as possible
so that I can make use of the words I
tried to remember.

A23: I make up my own sentences using the words I just learned.	0.72	.105	9.84	.522
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A24: I try to use the newly learned words as much as possible in speech and writing.	0.78	.094	10.55	.603
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A26: I try to use newly learned words in real situations.	0.71	.103	9.66	.504
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Students' Perception on the Implementation of Islamic Science Integration in English Teaching Materials

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

Integration of Islamic science in English language learning for Muslim students is a necessity that should be realized by every teacher, especially in developing teaching materials that are applied in the classroom. This study aims at finding out the perception of STAIN Watampone students particularly Islamic Education program that have taught English by using integrated Islamic science material. Using interviews, it was revealed that the students give positive attitudes toward the implementation of Islamic science into teaching English material. The result shows that the use of integrated English and Islamic material can produce a lot of interest and makes learning activities more effective and efficient. This gives an indication that the teacher or the stake holder can formulate the integrated teaching materials to suit the needs and interests of students.

Keywords: Integration, Islamic science, Teaching material

Introduction

Integrated learning material has gained extensive notoriety in education program in recent years. The incorporation of Islamic content in teaching materials has embedded in the education system in Indonesia and not dumbfounded anymore. The standard issued from the Board of Indonesian National Standards of Education discharged new policy, giving opportunities for teachers to incorporate any specific contents in line with the schools' mission¹. The schools are given license to take control and manage their own curriculum. Hence, some Islamic institution such as Madrasah, Pesantren or Islamic Universities are freely to choose learning experience with integrated science concept and curriculum. In STAIN Watampone, the concept of science integration gradually implemented for several subjects and programs of study.

The implementation of English and Islamic science integration is actually not a new expectance of Muslim scholars. Integrated concept has been set in since the restlessness of science dichotomy. In the development of Islamic scholarly, there are groupings of disciplines between

¹Zuliati Rohmah," Incorporating Islamic Messages in the English Teaching in the Indonesian Context"(International J. Soc. Sci. & Education, 2012), 2.

religion and science. This implicitly shows the dichotomy of science and some assumptions comes up that Islamic science and general science as an independent subject, science is science and religion is religion. Hence, separating these two elements unconsciously lead to secularism which could have a ruinous effect on Islamic civilization.²

This precarious concept seems to be an obligation instead since disregarding the value of Islam and general science will adduce lots of dangerous impacts. For instance, lots of student have a big concern on intellectual whilst forget their emotional and spiritual, also the lack of religion's awareness of the essence of science itself. In consequence, it is urgent to bring back the comprehensive understanding about science—both general science and Islamic science have a correlation and complementing each other as a unity³.

Discerning the estrangement of Islamic and general studies lead to some question for the learners. English which is well-known as general science is no exception. The fact that English is the language of a large segment of the dominant West also contribute to the negative attitude, as the mere mention of it perhaps create a sense of correlation between the language and its speakers' culture and religion. It woefully induces the learners to have lack of motivation in comprehending English. Muslims also maintained a policy of distance and disengagement:

Being associated with conquest and colonialism, English is seen as inherently inhospitable to Islam and as syntactically and discursively different from any of the major Islami language such as Arabic, Persian, Malay, Wolof, or Husna⁴.

² Norazmi Anas, "The Integration of Knowledge in Islam: Concept and Challenge." *Global Journal of Human Social Science Research*, Vol. 13, No. 10-G, 2013, p.2. Available at <http://socialscienceresearch.org/index.php/GJHSS/article/view/734>. Retrieved May 27, 2016.

³ Mufidatunnisa. "Pesantren As An Ideal Place to Implement Science Integration (An Observation of English and Islamic Studies at Modern Islamic Boarding School Al-Junaidiyah Biru Bone)." *The 1st BUAF "Introducing A Growing Scholar Community on Islamic Studies"*. Pontianak: IAIN Pontianak Press, 2016. 186.

⁴ Md. Mahmudul Hasan, *Islam's Encounter with English and Islami Faruqi's Concept of Islamic English: A Postcolonial Reading*. n.p., n.d. 2.

There seems to be contradistinction between Islam and English. It assuredly become the entrenched-mindset of student in STAIN Watampone particularly who are from Islamic Education Program prior to the implementation of English and Islamic science integration. For some reasons, they keep arguing that learning English is unavailing due to the nothingness of relation with their career as Islamic educators in the future.

For those who learn Islamic Education, learning English means learning the language that belongs to *kafir* since it is the language of Bible and Christian. In fact, throughout history Muslims have used foreign languages to engage in intellectual pursuits. They dominate the world of knowledge for about a millennium and benefited from other civilizations' intellectual and literary output, much of which scholars translated into Arabic and other supposedly Islamic language. Actually, the rise of a multilingual culture began during the Prophet's lifetime and remains ongoing. For example, the great Islamic polymath and original thinker Abu Rayhan al-Biruni (d. 1048) was conversant with many languages⁵.

The facts above probably are not enough yet to transmit some assumption regarding to the intention of English and Islamic science integration. Integrating Islamic science in English teaching material is one of the researcher's concept to introduce the urgency of learning English. The student has just not realized the forthcoming evidence to get. Some update news and information regarding to Islamic religion nowadays are conducted by English. Hence, to dig a deep understanding and avoid misinterpretation, students need to accomplish English well though their major is not English.

Integrating Islamic science in English learning materials applied by giving a train to the learners based on Islamic values and the revelations (Al-Qur'an and Sunnah)⁶ The teaching materials aims to see the moral, spiritual development and personal achievement as reflected to cognitive, affective and psychomotor aspect of the learners. The appropriation of some Islamic

⁵ Md. Mahmudul Hasan *Islam's Encounter with English and Islami Faruqi's Concept of Islamic English: A Postcolonial Reading*. n.p., n.d. 5.

⁶ Maimun Aqsha Lubis, "Integrated Islamic Education in Brunei Darussalam: Philosophical Issues and Challenges." *the Journal of Islamic and Arabic Education*, (2009), 3.

terms and its explanation such as Halal, Sunnah, Mubah, Makruh, Haram in English and how to utilize it in discussion. Additionally, another Islamic matter such as *sirah nabi* or *sirah sahabat*, the replacement story from Cinderella into the history of Rasulullah and Khadeejah in reading section, delivering Islamic speech or story telling are about to see the cognitive aspect of the learners yet it unconsciously leads to encompass the affective and psychomotor aspect as well. It inculcates to create the well-balanced individual who have strong understanding and moral values based on Islamic principle.

Since the integrated of Islamic science in English learning materials is quite new for teaching method in STAIN Watampone, specifically in Islamic Education Program, students are assumed difficult to learn. For that reason, the researcher considered the impact of skipping the learners' perception as it would be the indicator of the integrated material itself. Therefore, this research want to analyze the learners' attention and interest during the learning process of integrated English and Islamic science. The effectiveness of how well student learnt is important for the continuity of this study or the possible gap the learners faced during the learning process in the integrated class. Further, this research also try to understand the learners' feeling whether the they like and comfortable with the way teacher transferred the knowledge or even dislike the concept of both materials and teacher. Overall, this paper therefore aim to investigate the students' perception on the implementation of integrating Islamic science into English learning material.

Literature Review

Integration term was from the English language, integrate. According to Oxford dictionary, integrate means combine (one thing) with another⁷. The integration synergy between religion and science or general knowledge consistently will create superb human resources in implying their knowledge even less with vigorous spirituality. Islam will not be perceived as a "left behind" religion yet a blessing to the world, when the world need, technology, religion, psychology, anthropology, linguistic, it will be easier to find in Islam. By knowing the importance

⁷ Oxford Dictionaries available at <http://www.oxforddictionaries.com/definition/english/integrate>. Retrieved January 18, 2017.

of integrating knowledge, unconsciously bring Muslim community back to the golden age of Islam. This hope continued, gradually increased by understanding the way to influence students to be a passionate learner in Islam.

An integrated education emphasizes on the unison of knowledge, not merely the installation of one's knowledge but somehow follows after or emulates the approach and method of implementation and techniques used in teaching and learning in a class room⁸. An integrated education focuses mainly on implementing Islam as a whole with some philosophies of promoting a strong belief and knowledge, the balance of the physical element and the soul, the world and the hereafter, the thought, the heart, the mind and the search and application of revealed knowledge. Through the integrated education, a person can be educated and trained to understand and uphold the Islamic faith, the laws and the morals in one's life.

According to al-Shaybaniy (1991), Islamic education emphasizes the following concepts⁹:

1. To produce a pious human being who are devoted to God
2. To carry out lifelong learning
3. To develop total potential of a person's soul, mind, and body in an integrated way
4. To develop a person's capability to carry out his or her duties as a servant of God and as "Calipdh" of God (representative or vicegerent of God on earth).

The aspects above are actually represent the vision and mission of Islamic Education Program in STAIN Watampone which is aim to create students who are professional in Islamic Education with *akhlaqul karimah*, useful and make a contribution to society. Thus, the way to get to the purpose of this program study, the mission reflected by improving the educational and

⁸Maimun Aqsha Lubis, "Integrated Islamic Education in Brunei Darussalam: Philosophical Issues and Challanges." *the Journal of Islamic and Arabic Education*, (2009), 3.

⁹ Maimun Aqsha Lubis, "Integrated Islamic Education in Brunei Darussalam: Philosophical Issues and Challanges." *the Journal of Islamic and Arabic Education*, (2009), 4.

teaching system, developing the teaching and education with science-technology, faith and believe aspect. Therefore, the integration of Islamic science into teaching materials is the way to carry out the mission of this study program.

Muhammad Muda emphasize the concept of integration with the corpus of knowledge today by highlighting that the integration of knowledge and religion refers to the combination of knowledge and Islam as a unit. It should be noted, that general science and Islamic science as a unity¹⁰. Unfortunately, it such a heartbreaking to get the statement from some students related to their view about the importance of learning English in Islamic subject and vice versa. Most of students are still being apathic in learning material which is not coherent with their focus of study. Moreover, integration could be an approach to be used for students to make them master in various forms of science, beginning with the Islamic traditional knowledge of faith (akidah), law (syariah) and morals (akhlak). Thus, the madani generation is not an expectation of muslim anymore.

Relying on the perspective of some students regarding to the hedonism of learning Islam by using integrated English materials, Mohd Asraf in his research carried out that in today's world, due to English's global reach, people from different parts of the world come to a level of comprehension with one another by using English as the medium of communication. Hence, Muslim can use global languages to engage in intercultural communication and produce both literary and scientific works.¹¹

The way to incorporate some general values in education has been mentioned by Ministry of Education and Culture.¹²

¹⁰ Norazmi Anas, "The Integration of Knowledge in Islam: Concept and Challenge." *Global Journal of Human Social Science Research*, Vol. 13, No. 10-G, 2013, p.2. Available at <http://socialscienceresearch.org/index.php/GJHSS/article/view/734>. Retrieved May 27, 2016.

¹¹ Mohd-Asraf, Ratnawati. "English and Islam: A Clash of Civilizations?" *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education* 4(2), 2005: 103-118, 104.

¹² Sunarto. *The Integration of Islamic Values in English Teaching and Learning at SD Islam Terpadu Al-Mumtaz Kota Pontianak*. Yogyakarta: n.p., 2014, 48.

- a. Education is integrated into all subjects. Integration may include loading the values into the substance on all subjects and the implementation of teaching and learning activities that facilitate practiced values in each learning activity inside and outside the classroom for all classes.
- b. Character education is also integrated into the activities of student coaching.
- c. In addition, rehabilitated and reconstructed implemented character education activities in school management of all affairs that involve all members of the school.

The statements from Ministry of Education and Culture and the standard issued from the Board of National Standards of Education (Badan Standar Nasional Pendidikan/BSNP) discharged new policy to opportunities for teachers to incorporate any specific contents in line with the schools' mission. Further, it helps the practitioner and educator in Islamic institution to freely integrate Islamic science in their teaching material. In this study, the main focus is the integrated Islamic science in English teaching material.

There are several aspects to observe in implementing the integrated material. Generally, according to Bambang Irfani's research, the integration of knowledge in the perspective of learning the English language can be grouped into three phases, namely: in designing the curriculum and syllabus development, in the selection and use of materials, teaching, and in the implementation of the course. Here is the exposure of the third phase¹³:

1. Integration of Scientific in Design Curriculum and syllabus
Integration of science in this phase is the basis for the implementation of the integration of science in subsequent phases because the curriculum will determine the direction, purpose and content of the learning activities. James Dean Brown says:

“The view that I wish to promote is that curriculum development is a series of activities that contribute to the growth of consensus among the staff, faculty, administration, and

¹³ Bambang Irfani, “Pengembangan Jurusan Pendidikan Bahasa Inggris Dalam Bingkai Integrasi Keilmuan”, n.p., n.d., 10.

students. This series of curriculum activities will provide a framework that helps the students to learn as efficiently and effectively as possible in the given situation. In a sense, the curriculum design process could be viewed as being made up of the people and the paper-moving operations that make the doing of teaching and learning possible.”

Furthermore, Brown said there are some basic components of the curriculum includes needs analysis, objectives, testing, materials, teaching and program evaluation. In connection with the integration of science in curriculum development, at least, can be started from the determination of learning objectives. The learning objectives should be explicitly mentioned aspects to the Islamization which should be achieved by students.

Additionally, the mixed type syllabus is mentioned as a problem solver in many cases such as reflecting the needs of both students and the department in the course objective and content, preparing students to work both in class and autonomously, and introducing student to the concept of formative assessment that serves more on a learning tool rather than a score that is to be reported to the university administration¹⁴.

2. Scientific integration in the Use of Instructional Materials

Based on the syllabus has been prepared, which was printed teaching materials are needed, then the next step is to find, sort, select and use teaching materials that suit their needs. According to Alan Cunningsworth, there are at least four elements that should be consider to determining the teaching materials, namely:

- a. Relate the teaching materials to your aims and objectives
- b. Be aware of what language is for
- c. Keep your students' needs in mind
- d. Consider the relationship between the language, the learning process and the learner. It means that the selection of teaching materials must consider the suitability of the learning objectives, the condition of students, and learning activities designed.

¹⁴ Olga Kopiatina, “Teaching English to Geologists: Developing a Good Syllabus”, The Asian EFP Journal Vol. 14 Issue 1, 2018, 295.

3.Integration of the Scientific Learning Activities

This is a phase standing that will determine whether the integration of science that is designed completely implemented or not. Here the teacher should be able to consistently and earnestly carry out the plan that had been developed to implement learning activities within the framework of scientific integration.

English becomes the accepted International language as in line with the rapid's development of today's world. Additionally, the appearance of ASEAN Economic community demands people to have English skill and for those who are not from English background are not exceptional. Whether they like or not, English transformed into such an obligation for students. Since most of students believe the nothingness of English with their career in the future, the reasons above cover the answers up. Islamic Education students indeed need English skill to bolster their future up in social, educational or professional context. Thus, the researcher attempt to design the suitable materials for the learners from Islamic Education Program.

The materials are given by considering ESP, which is refer to the specific purpose for learning English. Students approach the study of English through a field that is already known and relevant to them. This means that they are able to use what they learn in the Integrated Classroom right away in their work and studies.¹⁵

Teaching Materials form an important part of most English teaching programs. From textbooks, videotapes and pictures to the internet, teachers rely heavily on a diverse range of materials to support their teaching and their students' learning¹⁶. During the learning process in this study, the researcher used a self-developing-material.

In designing the material, the researcher acquired the principles of Hutchinson and Waters (1987:107) as follows¹⁷

¹⁵ M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes*. Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 36.

¹⁶ Jocelyn Howard, Jae Major. "Guidelines for Designing Effective English Language Teaching Materials." n.d.: 101-109.

¹⁷ M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes*. Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 40.

- a. Materials provide a stimulus to learning that is they encourage learners to learn. Good materials should contain interesting texts, enjoyable activities which engage the learners' thinking capacities and opportunities for learners to use their existing knowledge and skills.
- b. Materials help to organize the teaching and learning process and provide a clear and coherent unit structure which will guide the teacher in such a way to maximize the chances of learning;
- c. Material embodied a view of the nature of language and learning
- d. Material reflect the nature of learning task
- e. Materials can have a very useful function in broadening the basis of teacher training by introducing teachers new techniques.
- f. Materials provide models of correct and appropriate language use.

During the learning process, the researcher applied some authentic materials to the learners. Authentic material is a kind of material taken from the real world and not specifically create for the purpose of language teaching. The researcher used newspaper or magazine, pictures that reflect the needs of learners. Those authentic materials provide information about real-life situation or event of the students such as the *praying event on Id*, or some news related to Islamic science such as the picture which is more accurate and have high credibility. Hence, the learners are easily to express their idea due to the relevant of learners' interest as Islamic Education students.

Consideration of the types of real-world task specific groups of learners commonly need to perform will allow designer to generate materials where both the text and the things learners are required to do with them reflect the language and behaviors required of them in the world outside the classroom.¹⁸

The second way researcher did in creating a good progression for integrated materials are by using contextualization concept. Context refers to circumstance of setting in which a person

¹⁸ Jocelyn Howard, Jae Major. "Guidelines for Designing Effective English Language Teaching Materials." n.d.: 101-109, 2.

uses a language¹⁹. Materials linked explicitly to what the learners already know, to their first language and culture, and very importantly, alert learners to any areas of significant culture difference.

To gain effectiveness and efficiency in the classroom, the researcher applied some strategies. The integration of Islamic Science in English teaching materials were done through several ways. Those are explained as follows²⁰.

1. Role play and Stimulation

Role play and stimulation essentially involve the learners' looking on a different and even identify from their usual one. In simulation, the learner is given a task to perform a problem to solve. They are more realistic and credible to lead to more natural communication since they are related to specific language point.

In the role play, the students' are trained the way to make *musyawarah*, how to give a comment, suggestion or even interruption and conclude the result of the meeting. The teacher then gave them some topic to solve. It trained the student to act wisely like *ulama* as people source in resolving Islamic problem. As such, the task of being *ulama* to solve the problems of the society encountered. Several cases such as the misunderstanding of paying zakat, the misconception about something whether it's Halal or Haram, and some cases that happened in the daily life.

2. Project Work

A project work is typically task for several days or even weeks and involves students in some out of class activities. A project work can be done in a group, or in individual base depending on the target situation.

In the project work, the researcher gave the material of *sirah nabawi* and asked the students to make a poster about *sirah sahabat* then eventually present it in front of the class.

¹⁹ M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes*. Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 44.

²⁰ M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes*. Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 45-46.

Additionally, most of past teacher asked the students to do cooking tutorial or another tutorial which is not quite relate the learners' need. Hence, the researcher implement *wudhu* or ablution tutorial in English to help students comprehend Islamic terms. There are explained as follows²¹.

1. First make Niyyah (Intention) that you are making Wudu' for Salaah and begin saying "Bismillah" (in the name of Allah, the most merciful and the most kind). Wash both hands up to the wrist three times, making sure that water has reached between the fingers.
2. Put a handful of water into your mouth and rinse it thoroughly three times.
3. Sniff water gently into your nostril three times to clean them
4. Wash the tip of the nose
5. Wash your face three times from the lobe of your right ear to your left ear
6. Wash from your hairline (forehead) to your chin
7. Wash your right arms and then your left arm thoroughly from wrist up to (and including) your elbow three times.
8. Move the wet palms over the head from the top of forehead to the back of the head
9. Pass the wet tips of index fingers into the grooves and holes of both ears and also pass the wet thumbs behind the ears
10. Finally, was both feet to (and including) the ankles starting from the right, making sure that water has reached between the toes and all other parts of the feet.

At the end of the above steps recite:

"Asyhadu an la ilaha illallahu wa ash-hadu anna Muhammadan 'abduhu wa rasuuluh"

Meaning: I testify that there is no God but Allah and He is One and has no partner and I also testify that Muhammad is His servant and messenger.

²¹ Rina Sari *Pembelajaran Bahasa Inggris Pendekatan Qur'ani*. Malang: UIN-Malang Press, 2007, 101-104.

3. Case study

Case study involve studying the facts of a real-life case, discussing the issues involved and reaching some kind of decision or action plan. All language skills are potentially involved; reading input documents, listening and speaking (discussing), and possibly writing some sort of summary or a report. In dealing with Islamic Education Program students, the researcher gave a real-life problem that was booming in the period of teaching activity such as the case of Ahok which was accused debasing Islamic religion. One of its impact is the emersion of “AKSI 212” in Indonesia. The students are trained to discuss and reduced the problems out based on their point of view.

4. Oral Presentation

Oral presentation does not merely involve discussion, but it can also involve all the language skills: writing and reading the information required for the presentation will be surely performed beforehand. In this stage, the students are required to give some reading, the history of Muhammad or another Islamic history. They are obliged to translate those reading materials by using their own words and present it orally.

The oral presentation are done thorough several ways.

1. The teacher explained to them the *sirah nabawi* and *sirah sahabat*
2. The teacher then gave the student assignment to find 10 of Muhammad’s who are guaranteed to gain heaven. The students then are divided into several groups. Each group consisted of two person due to the consideration of the total amount of students in the class.
3. The explanation of those ten figures are designed by using poster. Thus, the class are magically transformed into such an Islamic Exhibition. Students stick the poster in every corner and they explained what they found orally by using English.

Generally, the fact that there are variables that may contribute success or failure to any education program lead to some questions. Philip stressed that the internal aspect could be motivation and attitudes while the external aspect might include course material, learners, teachers, and user-institution, time allocated for the course. Since this study focus on firmly deciding the implementation of integrated material, enhancing the quality of the materials,

designing the concept is not enough. Thereupon, it needs some indicators to determine the effectiveness of teaching materials. Much research has also been conducted to determine students' perceptions of effective teaching, create instruments to measure these perceptions, and establish criteria by which to judge an instructor's effectiveness.

As the quite same approach for ESP with integrated teaching material, some factors can contribute success or failure. Such factors can range from the needs (course contents and objectives), proficiency level (elementary, intermediate or advance), affective (attitude, motivation, anxiety) factors, aptitude (some people are more readily able to learn another language), personality (introvert and extrovert), learning styles or learning preferences (comfortable with spoken or written). A failure to justify the learners' factors and to accommodate them in the integrated course program will result in unsatisfactory or unsuccessful outcome²².

Thus, the researcher focus on how the students see the material that had been applied in their class. Clark (1995) identified cognitive and affective goal of effective teaching at the university level. He developed a questionnaire covering a wide range of teaching activities associated with effective instruction and the achievement of cognitive and affective objectives. It measures the following qualities that are useful for thinking about the quality of university teaching. Hence, in this study, the researcher will just concern on affective goals which is explained as follows²³

1. The first of the affective goals is to stimulate student interest.

Stimulation of interest is considered important for university teaching because it increase student attention to lectures and class discussion. Little learning occurs without such attention and interest motivates students to think about the course material and to work harder.

2. Student Participation and Openness to Ideas

Effective teachers try to foster active involvement, participation and interaction of students in classes, and to communicate their openness to and respect for alternative and challenging point of view. It actively involves students in their learning, provides instructors

²² M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes*. Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 98.

²³ Natasha Kenny, Serge Desmarais. "A Guide to Developing and Assessing Learning Outcomes at the University of Guelph." 9. n.p., n.d., 22.

with feedback about the progress and difficulties of students, and provides opportunities for instructors to model for students problem-solving behaviors and application of course materials to novel examples.

Openness to ideas is desirable because students should be encouraged to think for themselves in a flexible and creative manner and because commitment to one view should generally follow critical evaluation of alternative perspectives.

3. Interpersonal Relations

A third affective goal of effective teaching is to promote agreeable and friendly interpersonal relations between instructors and students and to convey concern and respect for individuals. The purpose of good rapport is to create a congenial atmosphere in which students who are having difficulty will seek help from the instructors and in which students feel welcome to offer alternative explanations in class and to get feedback on their ideas.

Method

This study is an attempt to uncover the students' perceptions on implementation of integrating Islamic science into English learning English Material. This study used qualitative research, qualitative research based on descriptive data²⁴ and the objective tends to understand rather than to generalize²⁵. A case study was conducted to find out the students' perception on integrating Islamic science into English learning materials. case studies tend to provide detailed descriptions of specific learners (or sometimes classes) within their learning setting²⁶ and presents a detailed account of the phenomenon under study. The third semester students serve as subjects in this study. They taught English courses by integrating material on Islamic science. The research conducted in one semester. The learning Activity is organized by a variety of learning strategy.

²⁴ Alison Mackey, Susan M. Gass. *Second Language Research: Methodology and Design*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates , 2005, 162.

²⁵ Jerome Delaney, Albert Johnson, Trudi Johnson, Dennis Treslan. "Students' Perceptions of Effective Teaching in Higher Education." *26th Annual Conference on Distance Teaching and Learning*. San Fransisco, California: Creative Commons, 2010, 17.

²⁶ Alison Mackey, Susan M. Gass. *Second Language Research: Methodology and Design*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates , 2005, 172.

And all learning materials used integrated with Islamic science that taken from many different sources.

Instrument

The type of instrument in this study using semi structure interview in the form of open-ended question that is applied to the six students in the Department of Islamic religious education in STAIN Watampone. All of these students have acquired basic knowledge of Islamic science and has been studying English with the materials are integrated with Islamic science

Face-to-face interviews were conducted, ranging from 10- to 20 minutes. The interview questions concentrated on three aspects of students' perception in terms of (1) the extent to which the materials are interested in subject matter and language content; (2) the students' participation and openness to ideas; (3) interpersonal relationship among the students and the teaching during the learning program.²⁷

The interview questions were asked in indonesian language to reduce the participants' anxiety and elicit more information. All of the interviews were audio-recorded, transcribed into Indonesian language and then translated into English. Excerpts are illustrated in the qualitative data analysis section.

The interviews were analyzed through content analysis. The interviews recorded was transcribed to make it easier in understanding the students' statements.

²⁷ Jerome Delaney, Albert Johnson, Trudi Johnson, Dennis Treslan. "Students' Perceptions of Effective Teaching in Higher Education." *26th Annual Conference on Distance Teaching and Learning*. San Fransisco, California: Creative Commons, 2010. 21-22.

The next is reading the interview transcripts and examined in depth, which may lead to formulate initial categories, themes and relationships. And the last is making interpretation based on the data presented.

Result and Discussion

Stimulating Student Interest

In the interview, it was reported that majority of students of Islamic Education Program in STAIN Watampone overwhelmed by interesting feeling. Regardless of another aspect, the students are so grateful to gain new insight and vocabularies of Islamic thought in English. The students stated that they are grateful to engage themselves into such amazing teaching atmosphere. The love of learning something can be seen by analyzing the students' curiosity, their energy and positive vibes during the learning process. Further, it could be seen by their expression when faced some troubles in their material. They would be whether stop or continue the gap they found. If so, it easier to see the perception of them. Once they stop, means they have slightly motivation in the integrated learning process. In contravention, if they keep trying and asking and vivaciously for the next task, the researcher then conclude that they have a good perception on this study.

One of interviewed students commented that:

“It is the first time I learned by using Integrated English and Islamic material. I was really excited during the class since I found new way to do translation in English. I was be able to know the Islamic glossaries, I found new vocabularies and the pronunciation of those words. The thing is the material did not bring me feeling awkward, and I was free to express my idea. It was really amazing learning activity because I can learn English and Islam at once. It also enhanced my ability to give questions to the teacher since the teacher is not judgmental. I found that this kind of material is well enough to be continued in the next phase cause it conforms our need as Islamic Education students. We learned English, we are not feeling left behind and stay up to date yet we still studying on our track as Muslim. “

It is explained that the relevance context of topics, and develop ways of linking them to ‘the real world’ can motivate students within a course. It can also provide a focus on career development.

The students probably realized that by learning Islamic English related to their study not only for their ongoing study yet for their upcoming study. The students might want to spread Islam in the future by using their writing skill. Henceforth, to make their writing well-spread, they need some skills in English language due to most of terms nowadays are conducted in English.

The students started to realize that the integration curriculum is a more efficient use of time. It should serve as a constant lesson that learning is not something we “finish” when the diploma is issued, but a lifelong pursuit. If learning and teaching are ways of glorifying God, then integrated learning reflects the unity of all creation, and the marvelous connections and patterns in Allah’s creation.²⁸

Student Participation and Openness to Ideas

As the second aspect to see the students’ participation and openness to ideas, most of them were in an agreement that integrated English and Islamic materials could sway the way of their mind thinking related to the current issue. They are more brave to bring their ideas out in English. This was probably the uplift of vocabulary items that help them to make a good communication toward others. Students experience difficulty in learning English in the class due to the slightly material include syllabi and vocabularies with has no relation to their major. Thus, integrating Islamic in English learning materials is the brighter one in improving their language skill.

“I got so many benefit from the integrated English and Islamic learning class. The explanation was really pleasant and easier to understand. It probably because the

²⁸ Susan Douglass, Ann El Moslimany, Sommieh Uddin. "Modelling Method for Integrated Curricula--Three Teaching Units." *ISNA Education Forum*, , 2005: 1-18,

materials appropriate with my major. I was more active since I realize about the material and I was get closer to my friend because we are not reluctant to remind each other when we faced troubles. I highly recommend this learning process “

Natasha Kenny has described the developing and assessment outcomes for students. She mentioned that to see the outcomes of students, it could be analyzed by looking at their aesthetic maturity. Aesthetic maturity described as a quality of the critical response to some object, natural or artificial, external to the self. It has a certain resemblance to both independences of thought and depth of understanding, in requiring an active creativity. Additionally, she mentioned about the understanding of forms in inquiry which is involves resolving an identified problem, collecting relevant information, evaluating the information and observing relationship in order to reach a conclusion.²⁹

The integrated materials indicate that the student demand the usage of Islamic culture in the teaching of reading and other materials. Deby Irawan³⁰ stated numbers of reasons: (1)Ease the students’ understanding, (2) maintain students’ reading interest, and (3) fulfill students’ expectations of enlisting in Islamic institution.

Throughout the learning activity, the researcher discovered that by using integrated materials, it did not just develop students’ critical thinking, yet it tends to make students focus more on context than the language itself. The students fathomed into the materials and unconsciously use English language during the activity.

Interpersonal Relations

Among the goals of affective aspect, the interpersonal is the important part to know the hit of integrated English and Islamic material. According to some students, factors that contributed

²⁹ Natasha Kenny, Serge Desmarais. "A Guide to Developing and Assessing Learning Outcomes at the University of Guelph." n.p., n.d., 9.

³⁰ Deby Irawan, “Developing Islamic English Reading Course Syllabus: Preserving Islamic Ideology and Strengthening Student’s Language Proficiency”, The Asian ESP Journal Volume 14 Issue 2, 2018, 54.

to the learning activities did not only come from the material itself yet the qualification of the teacher.

The teacher attitude can also be either encouraging or discouraging. Some teachers might consider English is difficult to learn or it is just like another subject which can be learned by anyone. Another essential aspect on the part of the teacher is the teaching strategies used by the teacher. That methodologies or techniques must suit the learning needs of the learners.³¹

One of interviewed students stated that:

“It is such an interesting material. In the past year, I just got general English learning material which is the same with I got when I was in junior and senior high school. The teacher’s explanation was really clear and easier to understand. The teacher was also extremely motivational and we felt like we are friend in the class. The aspects to improve then is the material of the teaching activities more comprehensive. “

Thus, Axelrod (2008) isolated seven qualities that he believes are, “common elements of good teaching” namely³²:

- a. Accessibility and approachability
- b. Fairness
- c. Open-mindedness
- d. Mastery and delivery
- e. Enthusiasm
- f. Humor

³¹ M. Basri Wello, Syarifuddin Dollah. *Fundamental Aspects of English for Specific Purposes*. Makassar: UNM Publisher, 2008, 98.

³² Jerome Delaney, Albert Johnson, Trudi Johnson, Dennis Treslan. "Students' Perceptions of Effective Teaching in Higher Education." *26th Annual Conference on Distance Teaching and Learning*. San Fransisco, California: Creative Commons, 2010. 21-22.

g. Knowledge and inspiration imparted

At a higher level, students become actively engaged in learning and thinking. At this level, they are given the opportunity to offer their own challenge such as asking the teacher. As students become more independent in thought, they are better able to combine ideas and to generate new ideas. At the highest level, independence of thought is a manifestation of love of learning and it may contribute to a sense of self-worth and of well-being. At this level, opportunities are provided for self-directing learning. One accomplishment may be the ability to ask the right kinds of questions³³. Therefore, as the objective of the study concern on Islamic Education Program students who will be muslim educators, Muslim educators are obliged to ensure new generation to receive genuine Islamic education that cultivate an ideal integrated Islamic personality, and then able them to represent and preserve Islamic identity.³⁴

Conclusion

Students perceive that learning English by using integrated Islamic science in the material do not make them confuse or frustrated yet they are overwhelmed by amusing feeling. The use of integrated English and Islamic material can produce lot of interest and make learning activities more effective and efficient. It is evidence that integrating Islamic science in English teaching material lead the students to be more comprehensive, depth and critical-thinking related to the Islamic issue. Astonishingly, the students tend to be more convenient to make a discourse with their peers. The students are motivated to learn such references regarding to their learning needs. Hence, they are not reluctantly asking some question to their teacher. The material and the learning process encourage the students to be bravely bring their idea up. The interest, the openness idea and interpersonal aspect are adduced in the integrated class approach. As indicated to the result, the students want the material to be continued for the sake of their major progress and their

³³ Natasha Kenny, Serge Desmarais. "A Guide to Developing and Assessing Learning Outcomes at the University of Guelph." n.p., n.d., 10.

³⁴ Sholehah Bt.Hj.Yacoob, Madame Rahimah Bt. Embong *The Concept of an Integrated Islamic Curriculum and Its Implications for Contemporary Islamic Schools*, on the International Conference in Islamic Republic of Iran on 20-22 Feb 2008 which organized by OIC, ISESCO and The Ministry Education of Islamic Republic Iran, 3.

educational program. The students' perception is actually intended to find the deficiency and redundancy of the materials. It eventually helps the teacher to elaborate the standard of evaluation for a better Islamic education result.

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Social Media as Communication System for Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation in the Philippines

Arvin Christian P. De Los Reyes, RN

Abstract

In the advent of modern technology, social media became part of modern culture as it weaves the daily communications means of all individuals in the community. This study described and examined the use of social media as communication system for disaster risk reduction and mitigation in selected barangays in Central Luzon, Philippines. The study utilized descriptive correlational research design which was participated by 68 respondents who were barangay officials, workers and employees. Thus, the study utilized a researcher-made survey questionnaire to measure the use of social media as communication system. Results of the study showed that Facebook and messenger accounts were being utilized to deliver and disseminate proper information in times of the occurrence of disaster and calamities. Consequently, social media became one of the effective mechanisms that helped the barangay administration to involve their constituents to become vigilant and responsible in time of disaster, responsible of sharing critical and vital information about disaster and calamity concerns, provide safe spaces of sharing insights and suggestions to mitigate the danger as the disaster or calamity occurred and served as spaces for various dialogue that help the community to actively respond during disaster and calamity.

Keywords: *social media, communication system, disaster risk reduction, mitigation, Facebook, messenger, barangay*

Introduction

At the dawn of modern technology, different technological applications, software systems, devices, gadgets among others are developed on the basis of convenience and speedy transactions from trade to normal interactions between individuals. The general public has recently show active engagement in using different medial platforms which are found to be a modern communication tool for every Filipino. In fact, around 89.5 percent of the total current population has been using different social media platforms as their primary avenue to communicate with their families, operate government offices for speedy transactions, run a business and simply, interacting with friends and love ones. Common social media platforms which utilize by Filipinos are Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and Snapchat. Pursuant to RA 10121 otherwise known as “Philippine Disaster Risk Reduction and Management Act of 2010” which provides safer, adaptive and disaster-resilient Filipino communities toward sustainable development. Accordingly, it is also created areas such as disaster prevention and mitigation, disaster preparedness, disaster response and disaster rehabilitation and recovery. Thus, central focus of this law pertains to the prevention, preparation and response to any possible danger which may be brought by disasters calamities.

While Filipinos are strongly attached with the use of social media as their communication platforms, it is observed that they still find social media less functional in responding to disasters and danger. In fact, based from the recent study conducted by Statista (2019), Filipinos utilized their social media accounts for an average of four (4) hours a day. This includes their private communication, online business, job applications and government transactions. It is comprehensively drawn that Filipino are active in using their social media accounts on their daily encounters.

This condition arises the interests of the researchers to describe and examine the use of social media among barangay personnel for disaster risk reduction and mitigation in the Philippines. The study aimed to examine the use of social media as a communication system for Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation in the Philippines. Specifically, it determined the profile of the respondents who were barangay personnel and who were working among selected barangays in Central Luzon regions in the Philippines, identified the current tool used for disaster risk reduction and mitigation, discussed the implications of the current social media tool used, described social media platforms used for disaster risk reduction and mitigation, and examined the relationship

between the profile of the respondents and their use of social media accounts for disaster risk reduction.

The study would be beneficial to the Filipino citizens in which the study may provide significant findings that would lead them to comprehensively understand the communication process through the use of social media for disaster risk reduction and mitigation. As an emergency situation unfolds, the Emergency Management System (EMS) is activated and goes through four phases: readiness, mitigation, response, and recovery. Preparedness refers to the amount of preparation to respond to an emergency that has been achieved via planning, training, and drills. When we talk about mitigation, we're talking about taking consistent steps to reduce and restrict the risk to people and infrastructure. The third phase, reaction, consists of efforts that satisfy human fundamental requirements, such as the distribution of relief commodities and the establishment of evacuation facilities. The last phase is concerned with the restoration of the economy and the restoration of livelihood.

Despite the fact that these four stages do not always occur sequentially, they do so more frequently than not in overlapping time frames in the aftermath of disasters (Col, 2017). When disasters strike, local governments play a critical role in the preparation, response, and recovery efforts. This is because they not only have direct control over their constituency, but they are also expected to understand the needs of their citizens. As stipulated by the Local Government Code of 1991, the local government units (LGUs) in the Philippines are at the forefront of disaster risk reduction and management. The LGU must have the authority to act decisively and issue proactive decisions that are appropriate for their constituents' circumstances, with the cooperation of the higher levels of government. Numerous studies have emphasized the need for decentralization of duties (eliminating top-down approaches), stakeholder engagement in all phases of disaster risk reduction and management (DRRM), and openness of crucial information flows (Col, 2017).

When it comes to assisting the community following a disaster, Solway (2004) outlines the fundamental tasks of the local government. The local government unit (LGU) must be able to (1) assess the vulnerabilities of the area and its constituents, (2) instill fundamental knowledge of natural disasters and their potential consequences, (3) conduct an information and education campaign (IEC) on disaster mitigation, (4) coordinate with officials in charge of planning, construction, health, and welfare, (5) conduct first-aid trainings, (6) partner with educational

institutions to broaden awareness and support existing knowledge, and (7) develop e-learning resources.

Institutions at the local level are critical in determining community responses to disasters and climate-related risks. They assist in determining the impact of the impacts, developing the ability of families to respond and modify activities, and mediating various external interventions, among other things. It was discovered that climate adaptation involves informal institutions in 118 cases across 46 countries, with five categories of local responses: mobility in response to risks and scarcities; storage of surpluses, including sturdy infrastructure for storing seeds and harvested crops; diversification of employment opportunities, assets, and consumption strategies; communal pooling of resources among families; and market exchange (Domingo and Manejar, 2018). The majority of them originated from rural communities controlled by indigenous people, which had been subjected to different calamities and had later evolved adaptive responses to environmental threats (Agrawal Singh, 2008). When considering adaptation tactics, it is essential to do a thorough analysis of distinct social groupings. There might be underlying causes for their higher risk and vulnerability, and these factors could have an impact on the interventions that are provided to them.

It would be necessary to carefully consider how social media applications can be incorporated into an integrated disaster risk reduction and mitigation management platform in order to ensure effective risk reduction and mitigation management in light of the increasing number of people using their mobile phones to go online around the world, which is surpassing time spent on traditional media such as television, radio, and print, as time spent on traditional media increases (Shtern et al. 2019). The use of social media technology for crisis management allows individuals to play a more active part in the preparation for and management of crises, which will aid in the development of more resilient communities. It is ultimately the best course of action to urge individuals to take the activities necessary to aid themselves and others during times of crisis by embracing resilience as a civic value and a social standard, as opposed to the alternative.

The word "*social media*" refers to Internet-based apps that allow individuals to connect with one another as well as exchange resources and information with one another. The introduction of these new communication channels gives a chance to extend emergency alerts to a broader proportion of the public in times of crisis (Robbins et al., 2019). These technologies have the ability to minimize communication breakdowns caused by reliance on a single platform and, as a result, to

increase the dissemination of warning signals; nevertheless, they also bring new obstacles to policymakers. It is possible to classify the use of social media for crises and catastrophes on an organizational level into two major groups. First and foremost, social media may be utilized rather passively to spread information and solicit user opinion through inbound messages, wall postings, and polls, among other methods. The systematic use of social media as an emergency management tool is a second option that has been proposed. Systematic use could include, among other things, the following: 1) using social media to conduct emergency communications and issue warnings; 2) using social media to receive victim requests for assistance; 3) monitoring user activities and postings to establish situational awareness; and 4) using uploaded images to create damage estimates.

Research Objectives

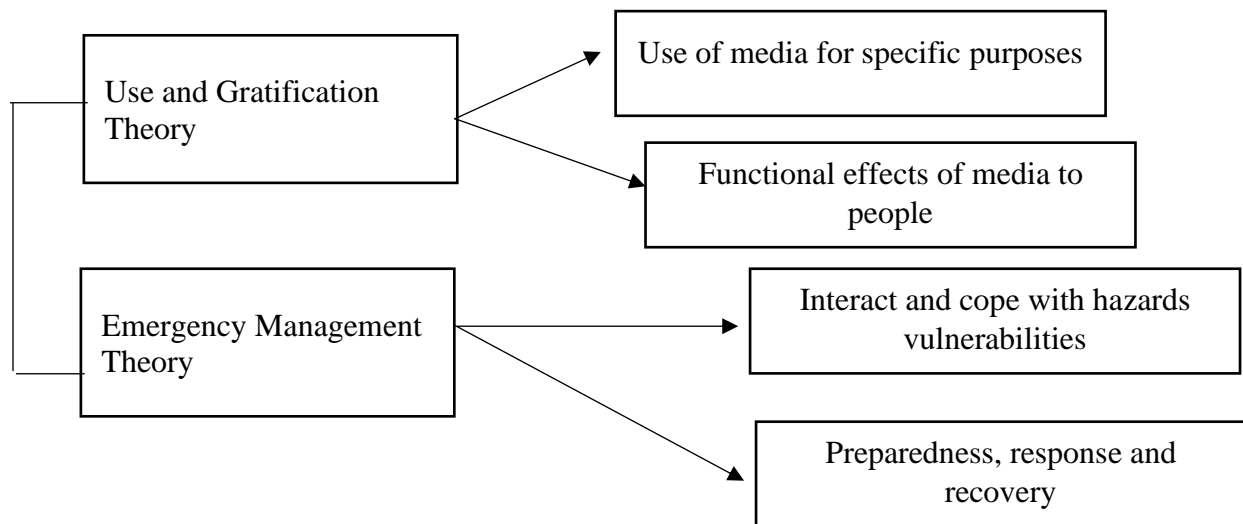
The study examined the use of social media as communication system for Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation among selected barangays in Central Luzon. It specifically aimed to identify the profile of the respondents in terms of age, sex, highest educational attainment, present position, years in government service, special trainings or short courses completed, years in living within the barangay and social media platform used. The study also identified the current tool used by the barangay for Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation. On the other hand, the study also described the administration of social media for Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation as to citizen engagement, share in critical information, use of useful insights and appreciation of public sentiment. Further, the study also aimed to examine if there would be significant relationship between the profile of the respondents and their use of social media accounts in the administration of Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

The study was anchored Use and Gratification Theory and Emergency Management Theory. As proposed by Katz, Blumber and Gurevitch (1974) as cited in the study of Ruggiero (2000) Use and Gratification Theory states that people actively seeks out specific media content for particular purposes and intentional goals. UTG enshrined the functional shift of communication in which

examination lies on the use of media by people as inversely associated with the implication of media to people. Further, this theory grounded the premises that it provided a framework of understanding and active participation of people as users of media as well as the implication of the same to the users. Meanwhile, Emergency Management Theory as proposed by Jenzen (2013) states how human and their institutions interact and cope with hazards vulnerabilities and resulting events. In particular, it focuses on activities related to preparedness, response, recovery and mitigation. Thus, it serves a managerial function charged with creating the framework within which communities reduce vulnerability. These theories cited and drawn within the premises of the study establish that use of social media for disaster risk reduction and mitigation come from different distinct effects and manner of utilization.

Figure 1. Theoretical Framework of the Study



Methodology

The study utilized a descriptive correlational research. As defined by Cameron and Bentahar (2015), descriptive correlational research involves collection, analysis and interpretation of quantifiable data gathered. Thus, the present study falls on the premises in the identification of the respondents' profile, description on the respondents' use of social media for disaster risk reduction and mitigation as well as the correlation of the profile of the respondents and determination of use of social media in terms of citizens engagement, share of critical information, use of useful insights and appreciation of public sentiments.

Meanwhile, survey-questionnaire was utilized as the primary tool. The questionnaire contained the profile information of the respondents as well as items relating to the administration of social media for disaster risk reduction and mitigation in terms of citizen engagement, share of critical information, use of useful insights and appreciation of public sentiment. Further, unstructured interview was utilized to substantiate the responses of the respondents in survey-questionnaire. Thus, the survey-questionnaire was tested among non-included respondents which obtained a Cronbach alpha reliability result of .903 which signified that the instrument was excellently crafted and highly reliable to measure the variables of the study. The questionnaire utilized a 5-Likert Scale with corresponding verbal description.

The respondents were purposively selected from twenty (20) selected barangays in Central Luzon. There were 68 barangay officials, workers and employees who participated in the study based on the inclusion criteria established by the research such as: (1) bona fide resident of the selected barangays, (2) those barangay residents who were 18 years old to 60 years old, (3) those who were concurrent employees and workers in barangay administration unit and (4) those who were willing to participate in the study.

The letter of request to administer the study was sent among the barangay captains in selected barangay within Central Luzon. Upon the receipt of the approval letter, the researcher floated his questionnaire and attached thereto was the informed consent. The respondents were requested to answer the survey-questionnaire based on their free and deliberate responses. Once all the respondents answered the survey-questionnaire, the researcher then collected the data and organized the same through a digital document facility. Thus, the data gathering phase of the study covered 3 weeks to 5 weeks of administration. After all the data have been encoded and organized,

appropriate statistical tools were employed. Use of frequency, percentage, mean, overall weighted mean and Pearson R were utilized to measure the quantitative aspect of the study while thematic analysis was used for the qualitative aspect of the study.

Results and Discussion

1. Profile of the Respondents

Table 1 presents the profile of the respondents in terms of age, sex, highest educational attainment, years in government service, present position, special trainings or courses completed, years in living within the barangay and the social media platforms used

Table 1. Profile of the Respondents

Profile of the Respondents	Frequency	Percentage
Age		
18-25 years old	8	11.76
26-30 years old	10	14.71
31-35 years old	6	8.82
36-40 years old	8	11.76
41-44 years old	19	27.94
above 45 years old	17	25.00
Total	68	100.00
Sex		
	Frequency	Percentage
Male	39	57.35
Female	29	42.65
Total	68	100.00
Highest Educational Attainment		
	Frequency	Percentage
BS Degree Holder	20	29.41
MA Academic Units Completed	41	60.29
MA Graduate	7	10.29
Doctorate Academic Units Completed	0	0.00

Doctorate Graduate	0	0.00
Post-Graduate Completed	0	0.00
Total	68	100.00
Years in Government Service	Frequency	Percentage
below 5 years	21	30.88
6-10 years	7	10.29
11-15 years	13	19.12
16-20 years	16	23.53
above 21 years	11	16.18
Total	68	100.00
Present Position	Frequency	Percentage
Assistant	2	2.94
Brgy. Kagawad	34	10.29
Tanod	7	50.00
Not Applicable	25	36.76
Total	68	100.00
Speacial Trainings or Courses Completed	Frequency	Percentage
Emergency Response	38	55.88
Emergengy Response and other Barangay Relevant Training	7	10.29
Not Applicable	23	33.82
Total	68	100.00
Years living within the Barangay	Frequency	Percentage
below 3 years	7	10.29
4-10 years	12	17.65

11-17 years	16	23.53
17-24 years	22	32.35
above 24 years	11	16.18
Total	68	100.00
Social Media Platforms Used	Frequency	Percentage
Facebook	68	100.00
Twitter	0	0.00
Instagram	0	0.00
Tik Tok	0	0.00
Pinterest	0	0.00
Snapchat	0	0.00
Total	68	100.00

Age. There were 19 or 27.94% of the respondents whose age range from 41-44 years old while 17 or 25% of the respondents' age were above 45 years old. Majority of the respondents' age are 41-44 years old.

Sex. Majority of the respondents are female with 39 or 57.35% while 29 or 42.65% are male.

Highest Educational Attainment. Majority of the respondents obtained their MA academic units with 41 or 60.29% as they act as administrators in their barangays while 20 or 29.41% of them obtained their college degree.

Years in Government Service. Majority of the respondents are serving their barangays for not less than 5 years with 21 or 30.88%.

Present Position. Majority of the participants are barangay Kagawad or Barangay councilors who are responsible for the creation and passage of local barangay ordinances with 34 or 50.00%.

Special Trainings or Courses Completed. Majority of the respondents attended trainings and seminars relative to emergency response with 38 or 55.88%.

Years Living within the Barangay. Majority of the respondents live in their respective barangays for 17-24 years already with 22 or 32.35%.

Social Media Platforms Used. Facebook was totally utilized by the respondents as the primary social media platform for disaster risk reduction and mitigation in their barangays.

2. Used of Social Media in the Administration of Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation

Table 2 presents the respondents' used of social media in the administration of disaster risk reduction and mitigation in terms of citizen engagement, share of critical information, use of useful insights and appreciation of public sentiment.

Table 2. Used of Social Media in the Administration of Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation

Used of Social Media in the Administration of Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation	Mean	Verbal Interpretation
Citizen Engagement		
1. Social media account is created for disaster risk reduction and response	3.01	Agree
2. Social media account of the barangay are disseminated among residents	2.96	Agree
3. Social media account of the barangay is responsive in times of risks, danger or potential calamities	3.07	Agree
4. Constituents are actively engaged in the use of barangay social media account	3.04	Agree
5. Constituents posed concerns relating to disaster response and readiness through the barangay social media account	3.05	Agree
Overall Mean	3.02	Agree

Share of Critical Information		
1. Barangay social media accounts share valid information on disaster risk reduction and mitigation	3.10	Agree
2. Barangay social media accounts share reliable program and project information relative to disaster risk reduction and mitigation	3.01	Agree
3. Competent barangay personnel were assigned to monitor, evaluate and share vital information using barangay social media account	3.03	Agree
4. Posted information on barangay social media account are understood by all age groups	3.02	Agree
5. Posted information on barangay social media account are directed with total accountability	3.00	Agree
Overall Mean	3.03	Agree
Use of Useful Insights		
1. Draw communication lines in the spaces of our barangay's social media accounts during risk reduction and mitigation	3.09	Agree
2. Maximize our social media accounts to facilitate meaningful inputs of our constituents	3.04	Agree
3. Allow constituents to share their comments and suggestions	3.03	Agree
4. Fill any similar concerns on risk reduction and mitigation when barangay social media has been mentioned	3.04	Agree

5. Apply methodical process in using all impressions and insights manifested by our constituents which found in the barangay's social media accounts	3.07	Agree
Overall Mean	3.05	Agree
Appreciation of Public Sentiment		
1. Acknowledge the power of good observation and expression on risk reduction and mitigation found in the barangay' social media accounts	3.07	Agree
2. Pinned down all insignificant information expressed in the barangay social media accounts	3.03	Agree
3. Acknowledge factual sentiments over hypothetical ones to prevent misleading contentions on risk reduction and mitigation	3.09	Agree
4. Firmly show that expression and appreciation to public sentiments among constituents	3.01	Agree
5. Understand and appreciate that use of barangay's social media accounts serve as collective mechanism to identify our constituents needs and demands in relation to risk reduction and mitigation	3.16	Agree
Overall Mean	3.07	Agree

Used of Social Media in the Administration of Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation. The findings showed that the respondents agreed on the active citizen engagement by means of using the official barangay social media account. The findings implied that through active engagement of residents using such social media account established a strong mean of communication as they consistently received proper information, updates and trends circulating the conditions faced by the barangay in relation to disaster risk reduction and mitigation. The result is supported by the study of Saroj and Pal (2014) which he concluded that the ethics and active use of social media in crisis situations balanced the potential negative developments such as disseminating rumors,

undermining authority and promoting negative impressions that led to improper emergency response. On the other hand, the findings also showed that the respondents agreed that through the use of social media specifically the official Facebook account of their barangays enabled them to share critical and vital information which contained sensitive facts and announcements about disaster risk reduction and mitigation. In addition, the result showed that social media account of the barangay helped them to carefully select vital information which filtered irrelevant updates and facts on disaster response especially when disaster or calamities were surfacing. Further, the result revealed that social media account drew a strong communication line which enabled the residents to comprehensively monitor the current conditions of their barangay and its people when disaster or calamity has occurred. It is also showed that through social media account, several concerns on risk reduction including preparedness and readiness were significantly emphasized by means of clear instructions posted on official social media account of the barangays. The findings are supported by the study of Lu and Martinez (2019) showed that use of social media for disaster management was helpful as it informed the disaster victims about the aid distribution and helped posted actionable information that aided the government and private sectors to respond immediately.

3. Significant Relationship Between the Profile of the Respondents and Their Use of Social Media Accounts in the Administration of Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation

Table 3 presents the significant relationship between the profile of the respondents and their use of social media accounts in the administration of Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation

Table 3. Significant Relationship Between the Profile of the Respondents and Their Use of Social Media Accounts in the Administration of Disaster Risk Reduction and Mitigation

		CitEngage	ShareofCrit	UseOfUse	AppPubSent
Age	Correlation	.305*	.338**	.240*	.248*
	Coefficient				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.012	0.005	0.049	0.042

	N	68	68	68	68
Sex	Correlation	0.143	0.107	0.132	0.126
	Coefficient				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.243	0.386	0.285	0.305
	N	68	68	68	68
Educational Attainment	Correlation	0.007	-0.07	-0.017	0.014
	Coefficient				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.958	0.57	0.889	0.91
	N	68	68	68	68
Years in Government	Correlation	.313**	.378**	.280*	.299*
	Coefficient				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.009	0.001	0.021	0.013
	N	68	68	68	68
Position	Correlation	.502**	.503**	.481**	.479**
	Coefficient				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.000
	N	68	68	68	68
Year in Living	Correlation	.215**	-0.12	.179*	0.037
	Coefficient				
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.006	0.129	0.023	0.642
	N	68	68	68	68
Special Training Attended	Correlation
	Coefficient				
	Sig. (2-tailed)
	N	68	68	68	68

Social Media Used	Correlation
	Coefficient				
	Sig. (2-tailed)
	N	68	68	68	68

***Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).*

**Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).*

Findings showed that profile of the respondents in terms of age, years in government, position are significantly correlated with the use of social media accounts in the administration of disaster risk reduction and mitigation (age; $r=.305$, $.338$, $.240$ and $.248$), (years in government; $r=.313$, $.378$, $.280$ and $.299$), (position; $r=.502$, $.503$, $.481$ and $.479$). As to age, it signifies that the older the residents, the more likely they are engaged in using and accessing barangay social media account for disaster risk reduction and mitigation updates and trends. This implies that barangay officials, workers and employees with older ages are more inclined to using the barangay social media account for active responses and immediate resolution of concerns with respect to disaster readiness and mitigation. Meanwhile, in terms of years in government, it signifies that the longer the years in government service which the barangay officials and workers rendered, the more likely they actively used their barangay social media primarily for disaster risk reduction and mitigation which also meant that they utilized social media to address the impending disaster or calamity concerns. On the other hand, the findings also revealed that the higher the position, the more accountable and responsible use of social media is seen. This meant that respondents who held higher positions in their barangay units are more accountable and responsible in the use of social media as they put premium emphasis on disaster response and crisis management. Also, years in living is significantly correlated with citizens engagement and use of useful insights ($r=.215$ and $r=.179$) which meant that the longer the years they live in their barangays the more likely they became active in participating, accessing and sharing information through the use of barangay social media with respect to disaster response and risk reduction concerns in times of potential danger, calamity and other unprecedented events which pose danger to the barangay as community.

Conclusion

In the advent of modern technology, social media became part of modern culture as it weaves the daily communications means of all individuals in the community. Social media is pure intention as communicative means also became a system for disaster risk reduction and mitigation as barangay officials, workers and employees created their official social media accounts most dominantly in creation Facebook and messenger accounts that being utilized to deliver and disseminate proper information in times of the occurrence of disaster and calamities. Consequently, social media became one of the effective mechanisms that helped the barangay administration to involve their constituents to become vigilant and responsible in time of disaster, responsible of sharing critical and vital information about disaster and calamity concerns, provide safe spaces of sharing insights and suggestions to mitigate the danger as the disaster or calamity occurred and served as spaces for various dialogue that help the community to actively respond during disaster and calamity.

Recommendation

Consistent use of social media and establishment of credible information center within the barangay as spearheaded by the barangay units are recommended in order to continually provide active and credible information to deliver accurate data and facts with respect to disaster risk reduction and mitigation. Also, formulation of intervention plans which contains the use of social media should also be prioritized.

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