

# **The Asian EFL Journal**

**March 2019**

**Volume 21, Issue 2.2**



**Senior Editor:**

**Paul Robertson**



Published by the English Language Education Publishing

Asian EFL Journal  
A Division of TESOL Asia Group  
Part of SITE Ltd Australia

<http://www.asian-efl-journal.com>

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Publisher: Dr. Paul Robertson

Chief Editor: Dr. Paul Robertson

Associate Production Editor: Ramon Medriano Jr.

Assistant Copy Editor: Eva Guzman

ISSN 1738-1460

## Table of Contents

<b>Foreword Ramon Medriano Jr.</b> .....	5
<b>Research Articles</b>	
<b>Akhmad Habibi, Rafiza Abdul Razak, Farrah Dina Yusop and Amirul Mukminin</b> .....	9
<i>Preparing Future EFL Teachers for Effective Technology Integration: What do Teacher Educators say?</i>	
<b>Iskandar Abdul Samad, Siti Sarah Fitriani, Andi Anto Patak and Sukardi Weda</b> .....	31
<i>Students' perspectives on genre approach in the 'Neglected Communicative Event': Script defense examination in English Department</i>	
<b>Padmadewi, N.N and Artini, L.P.</b> .....	49
<i>Assessment Instruments for Improving English Teaching Skills through Microteaching in Indonesia</i>	
<b>Ruperto D. Mendoza, Jr.</b> .....	78
<i>Verbal English Fluency, Workplace Stress, and Coping Mechanism of Secondary School Faculty in Sulu</i>	
<b>Ima Isnaini Taufiqur Rohmah, Mursid Saleh, Abdurrachman Faridi and Sri Wuli Fitriati</b> .....	101
<i>Language Assessment Pattern for Primary Education in the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classroom Context</i>	
<b>Nguyen Duy Linh</b> .....	124
<i>Language Students' Perceptions of Soft Skills</i>	
<b>Rizalinda Alih Salapuddin</b> .....	143
<i>Is Education a Right or a Privilege? A Direction to the 21<sup>st</sup> Century</i>	
<b>Princess Love Nario, Villa Grace Santos, Zarahnei Castro, and Jesse M. Balinas</b> .....	157
<i>The Effects of Video Subtitling on the Grammar Proficiency of Grade Seven Students</i>	
<b>Syukur Saud and Sukardi Weda</b> .....	176
<i>A comparative study of English and German syntactic variation by students at higher education: Evidence from Complex Predicates</i>	
<b>Abelynn T. Llarenas</b> .....	196
<i>Vignettes of Experiences in Portfolio Assessment</i>	
<b>Jehana A. Muallam - Darkis</b> .....	224
<i>Urban and Rural Early Childhood Teachers: Their Attitudes, Views, Belief and Challenges in Teaching English</i>	
<b>Cheng-hua Hsiao</b> .....	250
<i>Commenting on Results: Move Use in the Discussion Section</i>	
<b>Madehang and Sukirman</b> .....	277
<i>Developing a Proposed Syllabus of Morphology and Syntax Course for Undergraduate Students of English Education Department at Institut Agama Islam Negeri Palopo</i>	

<b>Filemon A. Pamittan</b> .....	293
<i>First Language Component – Bridging Program (FLC-BP): A Promising Approach Facilitating Students’ Performance in Reading and Writing Skills adopting Mother Tongue Based – Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) Curriculum</i>	
<b>Roderick Julian Robillos</b> .....	311
<i>Crossing Metacognitive Strategy Instruction in an EFL Classroom: Its Impact to Thai Learners’ Listening Comprehension Skill and Metacognitive Awareness</i>	
<b>Ruth N. Maguddayao and Ramon S. Medriano, Jr.</b> .....	337
<i>Sojourning of Foreign Students in the Philippines in their Level of Intercultural Communicative Competence as EFL Learners</i>	

## Foreword

The second issue of Asian EFL Journal's March Edition presents studies in language and skills assessment, linguistics, classroom teaching strategies and teacher attitude.

We can't deny the impact of integrating technology in the language classroom as we reap the benefits of it. Habibi, Razak, Yusop and Mukminin looked into the effects of teacher educators' support to future teachers in integrating ICT in the TEFL pedagogy. The study further investigated the expertise of these educators in ICT and how they use this in supporting the pre-service teacher training programs in Indonesia.

Script Defense Examination (SDE) is a dreaded activity in Indonesian universities as it assesses students' competence in English communication and how they understand the elements of SDE genre. Samad, Fitriani, Patak and Weda examined the extent to which the applications of genre analysis impacts students' performance in the SDE in English.

Padmadewi and Artini found that research on developing instruments for assessing mastery of basic teaching skills is still unpopulated therefore pushing forth a study on the development of an assessment instrument that eventually would look into how skilled are students in the teaching practice.

Mendoza, using Cummings and Cooper; Dollard; Cox Griffiths and Real- Gonzalez' models of work stress and coping mechanism investigated on the dominant factors affecting secondary school teachers and further investigated if language, language use and expertise also add up to faculty stress.

The implementation of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in primary education classrooms in Indonesia is rarely investigated. Rohmah, Saleh, Faridi and Fitriati studied the current practices of CLIL assessment applied by teachers in the primary classrooms.

There is a debate on which skill should be prioritized, hard skill or soft skill. Nguyen investigated university students' perceptions of soft skills and further examined what graduating language students know about soft skills, the importance of soft skills to their future job application, and which soft skills they need to improve on while they are at universities.

Salapuddin asked, "Is education, a right or a privilege?". She investigated this controversial issue regarding education noting language instruction as well and second language acquisition (English) whether they are also a right or a privilege of students.

Nario, Santos, Castro and Balinas investigated the effectiveness of video subtitling in improving students' grammar proficiency. The findings of their study imply that subtitled video can be an effective instructional material for improving grammar proficiency.

Second language acquisition is challenging for some people as the rules of their first language may affect their expertise in the second language. Saud and Weda examined the notion of syntactic variation of English and German as a great family of Indo-European languages exposing differences in complex predicates.

Llarenas' study on portfolio assessment presses on the promotion of lifelong skills such as critical thinking, communication, collaboration, and creativity among others. These skills address the needed skills targeted by an outcomes-based approach to education which encourages educators to produce graduates who are not only equipped with the right knowledge, but also the right skills and attitudes.

Teachers are the key factor in the development of students' attitudes towards the subject they teach. Muallam – Darkis identified the attitudes and beliefs as well as challenges of early childhood teachers in two school districts, the urban and rural, to determine if English reform efforts made a difference in teachers' attitudes and beliefs about English and its practice.

Hsiao investigated the differences of move uses in the discussion sections of master's theses and research articles written by student writers and expert writers in applied linguistics. The results of the study rendered insights for graduate students as well as thesis writing instructors on writing advice and pedagogy.

Madehang and Sukirman proposed a syllabus of morphology and syntax course for the undergraduate students of English Language Teaching at Institut Agama Islam Negeri in Indonesia as they found that the existing syllabus of *Morphology and Syntax* has a number of weaknesses which hampered the effectiveness of teaching-learning activity in this course in the university.

First Language Component-Bridging Program (FLC-BP) shows that students learn more effectively when they have developed proficiency in their first language. Pamittan investigated the effects of the First Language Component-Bridging Program on the performance of junior high school learners in their reading and writing skills.

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Robillos studied the impact of metacognitive strategy instruction on the listening comprehension performance of Thai EFL learners and their metacognitive awareness in listening. Further, the findings of the study have provided significant support for the metacognitive strategy instructions to be included as a beneficial pedagogical method to improve students' listening comprehension in the EFL classroom.

Magundayao and Medriano investigated the sojourning of foreign students in the Philippines in its quest for intercultural communicative competence. It was further suggested that faculty and administration need to advance its efforts that aim to mutually benefit the faculty members, domestic/ local students and international students such as the willpower to craft policy in pursuit of globalizing and institutionalizing Intercultural Communicative Competence as an innovation to the Philippine educational system.

Ramon S. Medriano, Jr.

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## **Preparing Future EFL Teachers for Effective Technology Integration: What do Teacher Educators say?**

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### **Abstract**

Nowadays, teachers are facing challenges teaching in digital age. Little has been published about the impact of teacher educators' support to prepare future teachers in integrating ICT into instruction, especially in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). This study aims to elaborate both the ICT characteristics of EFL teacher educators in line with their attitudes towards ICT and their ICT competencies as well as the support they have in pre-service teacher training programs (PTTPs). This sequential explanatory study involved 138 teacher educators as survey respondents and seven of them as interview informants from three higher institutions in Indonesia. Results indicate positive attitudes towards ICT and inform medium level ICT competency of the teacher educators. In addition, less effective in ICT integration into classroom teaching was also revealed. Qualitative findings inform seven themes; role models, attitudes on the roles in ICT integration, learning technology by design, peers' collaboration, feedbacks in learning, professional development, and accessibility to ICT.

**Key words:** EFL, teacher educators, ICT integration, PTTPs.

### **Introduction**

Many researchers across the world are well informed about the implementation process, benefits, as well as barriers in digital technology integration among language teachers. These barriers

include turn-taking in conversation (Kamhi-Stein, 2000); intercultural communication (Bauer, deBenedette, Furstenberg, Levet, & Waryn, 2006), reflectivity (Kim, 2011), and discourse awareness (de la Fuente, 2014) as well as access and independence (Walsh, Woodward, Solly, & Shrestha, 2015). Other studies, for instance, Ertmer & Ottenbreit-Leftwich (2010) and Liu (2013) have investigated the role of perceptions and beliefs of teachers, administrators, trainees, and other related parties in relation to the barriers of technology integration.

In addition, some seminal research has also provided information and analysis on technology integration implementation processes as well as instruments establishment to measure the level of competence and knowledge related to technology and its integration in teaching and learning processes (e.g. Habibi, Mukminin, Riyanto, Prasohjo, Sulistiyo, Sofwan & Saudagar, 2018; Vanderlinde, Aesaert, & Van-Braak, 2014). However, only few studies focused on teacher educator as object of the research in technology integration, their competences, knowledge, perception and technology characters (Hwang, 2014). Even less is recognized about the practice of technology in education used by teacher educators of teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL).

The situation is constituting or problematic for research for both TEFL and technology integration in education. The main reason for this is because of the development of digital technology for more advanced society, millennials who dominated the educational participation in the 21<sup>st</sup> century education (OECD, 2015). The availability of digital technologies for teacher training in some developing countries including Indonesia has triggered common expectation and hopes for the betterment of education (Jung, 2005). In addition, what more important is the roles of decision making becomes more complicated and complex.

The competitive situation for English language education has encouraged an expectation for future teachers who will work within K-12 schools (Bray, 2013) to integrate cutting edge technologies for the betterment of education (Almudibry, 2018; Jung, 2005) especially for the millennials who dominated the educational participation in the 21<sup>st</sup> century education (OECD, 2015). Teacher educators of TEFL, therefore, play an important role in modeling technology integration in their instructional activities (Collins & Jung, 2003) because the way teachers are educated directly and indirectly impact future teachers' technology integration (Habibi et al., 2018).

Therefore, teacher educators' use of technologies in their instruction may not only make difference to the learning of the future teachers, but also become the way for them to teach in the future

welcoming the more advance era of technology. The educators who sometimes have rules in designing TEFL curriculum as well as delivery options of teaching may depend on the places where they teach and their influences (Lunenberg, Korthagen, & Swennen, 2007) in line with the area of technology that should be integrated in their instruction.

Unfortunately, only few studies have investigated the impact of teacher educators' ICT characteristics and the support they have to prepare teacher candidates for ICT integration in line with the institution needs. Therefore, this study aimed at exploring both EFL teacher educators' ICT profile based on their attitudes towards ICT, their competencies of ICT and the support they have for the teacher candidates. As part of larger study in teacher education program ICT integration, this study was conducted to answer the guiding questions:

1. What are EFL teacher educators' attitudes towards technology?
2. How do the teacher educators perceive their competencies in technology integration in education?
3. What are the strategies the teacher educators have to prepare teacher candidate for technology integration?

## **Review of literature**

Technology in the 21<sup>st</sup> century has been impacting all aspects of life including education. Teachers nowadays are facing challenges on how to teach their millennial students who are accustomed to using digital technology such as smartphones, computers, smartwatches, and many other digital applications. Either in service teachers or pre-service teachers will largely be influenced by their ICT engagement and involvement when they are taught by teacher educators in teaching training programs (Agyei & Voogt, 2011; Drent & Meelissen, 2008). For pre-service teacher or student teachers, the roles of pre-service teachers training programs (PTTPs) will be very significant (Prasojo et al, 2017; Yusop, 2015). The program should provide the opportunities for student teachers to develop their training and field practice teaching by experiencing technology integration in their classroom which is referred to appropriate class observation, authentic leaning situation, and pedagogical standards (Enochson & Rizza, 2009; Yusop & Basar, 2017). This consideration for the betterment should be understood as the responsibility of all stakeholders including teacher educators (Agyei & Voogt, 2011; Sang, Valcke, van Braak & Tondeur, 2010).

## **Teacher educators and teaching models**

Shulman (1987) in his writing mentioned that decision making in teaching is the essential function of teachers. Therefore, teacher educators who can successfully help pre-service teachers' technology integration into teaching must have done the process of modelling, discussion, feedbacks delivery, and reflective steps in their teaching (Lunenberg & Hamilton, 2008; Zeichner, 2005). Teacher educators in PTTPs must model the integration of technology in their own classroom when teaching their pre-service teachers (Loughran & Berry, 2005). Their influence will directly affect the continuation of the pre-service teachers' technology integration in their future classrooms (Lunenberg et al., 2007).

Being considered as second-order practitioners, teacher educators should consider beyond the boundaries as they are dealing with people that will in the future teach other people and they are all millennials or generation Z who cannot be separated with development of digital technologies (Prasojo, Mukminin, Habibi, Marzulina, Sirozi & Kasinyo Harto 2018). Besides, teacher educators as independent regulators or self-restrictive professionals are allowed to established their own identities in their professional activities (Wood & Borg, 2010). In some previous studies, teacher educators have been informed to have limitation on the technology competencies and its integration into teaching (e.g. Karagiorgi & Nicolaidou, 2013; Roblyer, & Doering, 2013; Teo, 2011). Therefore, they frequently have to get involved with tensions about their professional identities that directly or indirectly will influence their professionalism (Williams, Ritter, & Bullock, 2012).

In higher education institutions setting, especially in PTTPs, teacher educators mostly are hired and paid for their capacity in content subject of their expertise or their pedagogy knowledge. However, only little attention from the PTTPs authorities is given to consider teacher educator' capacity of technology integration into teaching as not only a phenomenon in developing countries but also in some developed countries (Drent & Meelissen, 2008).

## **Digital technologies and Teacher Educators**

Most research in digital technology integration in higher education institution, especially PTTPs, focused on the implementation of the technology integration among pre-service teachers or pre-service teachers' perceptions and beliefs as well their knowledge of technology integration (Jung, 2005; Prasojo et al., 2018; Yusop, 2015). Few studies have their focus on the teacher educators or administrative parties of PTTPs as well as the authorities with some exceptions like studies done

by Becuwe, Pareja Roblin, Tondeur, Thys, Castelein & Voogt (2017), Burden and Kearney (2017), Drent and Meelissen (2008), Goktas, Yildirim and Yildirim, (2008), Jarvis (2015), Kalonde and Mousa (2016), Martinovic and Zhang (2012), Rubadeau (2018).

Yang (2012) in his study elaborated eight teacher educators' pedagogical ICT integration that had strong relation to the subject areas of the involved educators. Further, Jarvis (2015) informed the rigidity between some instructional roles with facilitating styles possessed by the teacher educators. Another study in Netherland (Drent & Meelissen, 2008) explained that the encouragement supported by authorities or government like technological hardware and software, teacher educators utilized ICT in few time in their teaching and learning processes in the classrooms they taught. They concluded that ICT competence was important; however, it was just an initial condition of appropriate technology integration in real process of teaching. Martinovic and Zhang (2012) found that a pre-service training program has been failing in the process of providing its teacher educators failed to integrate technology aiming to better instructional practices during teaching processes.

Goktas, Yildirim and Yildirim (2008) did a survey study and elaborated that teacher educators need to attend comprehensive ICT course to establish their foundation before they implement ICT into teaching practice. Kalonde and Mousa (2016) who surveyed ninety teacher educators found variation of barriers and affords in decision making in order to implement technology modelling which included content, use, availability, interest and experience. Similarly, a research conducted by Burden and Kearney (2017) examined how UK- and Australia-based teacher educators implemented mobile use their teaching. Unfortunately, they did not discuss factors influencing the integration decision (Burden & Kearney, 2017) A Delphi research on some teacher educator team was conducted (Becuwe et al., 2017) informed ten situations for successful implementation ICT; technological pedagogical content knowledge, mindedness of innovation, trust, feedback acceptance, ICT possession, flexibility, institutional involvement, time for informants, and time management. Research on teacher educators in Indonesia is still limited, even more limited in TEFL field. Therefore, this study was conducted to fill the gap on Indonesian context of teacher educators' ICT integration.

## **Methods**

This mix-method study used sequential explanatory design (Creswell, 2014) aiming to elaborate both the ICT characteristics of EFL teacher educators related to their attitudes towards ICT and

their ICT competencies as well as the support they have in pre-service teacher training programs (PTTPs). The PTTPs are programs run by three Indonesian higher education institutions located in the Southern part of Sumatra. The time length for this study was six months from November 2017 to April 2018. We conducted the study quantitatively and qualitatively through survey and semi structured interview (Creswell, 2014; Mukminin, Rohayati, Putra, Habibi & Aina, 2017; Patton & Appelbaum, 2003; Weng, 2018). We did this because the method for the collection of data relates to research approaches and the two data collection methods are very appropriate to deliver comprehensive and detail elaboration of a study.

### *Quantitative phase*

Quantitatively, this study involved 138 teacher educators from three Indonesia higher education institutions. The respondents, teacher educators consist of 42 males and 96 females who ages were from 25 to 56 years-old (see Table 1).

Table 1  
*Respondent demographic (n. 138)*

Variables	Sub-variable	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	42	30.43
	Female	96	69.57
Age (years)	25-35	41	29.71
	36-45	35	25.36
	46-55	44	31.88
	56-60	18	13.04
Educational background	Bachelor	1	0.72
	Master	117	84.78
	Doctoral	20	14.49
Teaching experience (years)	1-10	43	31.16
	11-20	38	27.54
	21-30	42	30.43
	+30	15	10.87

We developed the survey questionnaires adapted from some previous studies; attitudes towards ICT (Eickelmann & Vennemann, 2017) teachers' ICT competencies (Bostancıoğlu & Handley 2018), and the use of ICT in teaching and learning process (Sadaf et al., 2016)

The validity of the instruments was examined through content analysis involving two educational technology experts and two pedagogical experts in three discussion sessions to review the instruments. The survey was finally divided into four categories; demographic information (open-

ended questions), attitudes toward ICT, ICT competencies, and ICT use during teaching (5-point Likert scale from strongly disagree- strongly agree) as shown in Table 2. The statements were established or developed with more specific purposes aiming to answer research questions. For instance, “I believe in the educative factors that technology provide for student teachers in overcoming difficulties in learning”. The final survey was composed of 38 questions. The average reliability of the survey was .85 (good). Only printed survey questionnaires were utilized in this survey which the data were analyzed using SPSS and elaborated descriptively (Ross, 2010). The frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation of the data were examined.

Table 2  
*Survey categories*

Categories	Descriptions	n.	A
Q1–Q4 (Demographic information)	Demographic information (gender, age, and teaching experience)	4	-
Q5–Q19 (attitudes towards ICT)	Attitude towards ICTs and ICT integration in PPPTs	12	0.84
Q19-Q28 ( ICT competencies)	ICT competencies teacher educators should possess	10	0.89
Q29–Q38 (ICT during teaching)	Teacher using ICT in PPTPs	10	0.84

### *Qualitative phase*

In order to understand teacher educators’ perception about ICT and its integration into instruction, semi-structure interviews were conducted. Semi-structured interviews were utilized in order to explore how interventions work and how they are improved which ease interviewers to discuss topics that may not be achieved through survey (Patton, 2002; Creswell, 2014). The set of the interview questions were developed in accordance with the analysis of the survey data. This procedure was informed as one of sequential explanatory design’s characteristics where the analysis of quantitative data should be followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data (Brannen, 2005; Creswell, 2014).

When distributing the survey questionnaires, we asked the respondents their agreement to get involved in the qualitative data collection. Surprisingly, there were only ten respondents agreed. All respondents agreeing the invitation were contacted through email and instant massaging. However, only seven teacher educators finally attended the interview sessions; three did not attend the interview because of some reasons namely attending a long-term training in another city, moving his workplace, and pursuing doctoral degree. The interviews were conducted in Bahasa

Indonesia, informants' native language aiming to obtain more in-depth information if compared using. Using native language of the qualitative research object is the most appropriate because language influences what can be informed and expressed; even some linguists opined that social influence experienced by someone is unique through his/her own language (Chapman, 2006; Otis, 2008) in order to achieve native fluency and deliver comprehensive information.

Each interview was between 40 minutes to one hour. All informants in this qualitative data had more than five years experience. We masked their names, institutions and other sensitive personal information to protect their interests and rights as part of research ethics (Habibi et al, 2018). However, we elaborated their data; gender, age, and teaching experience in order to give readers little information of the informants' demographic information. We use codes, T.Ed 1 to T.Ed 7 to replace the informants' names (see table 3).

We interviewed all informants using a smartphone's recorder application. The recordings were transcribed automatically using an application called Google doc transcriber. After transcribing the recording, the data were coded and compared to quantitative data analysis. The process of data analysis was done from the first informant to the seventh informant. The presentation of the data was preceded by the process of coded statement translation from Bahasa Indonesia to English. This process, data collection and analysis happened not in parallel ways since both processes influence each other (Creswell, 2014). There were six salient themes presented in this study which support the findings of the quantitative data.

Table 3.  
*Informants in the interview and the location*

Codes	Gender	<u>Age</u> (years)	<u>TEFL teaching experience</u> (years)
T.Ed 1	M	26	6
T.Ed 2	F	40	15
T.Ed 4	F	55	35
T.Ed 5	M	46	19
T.Ed 6	F	32	7
T.Ed 7	F	51	23

In order to examine the trustworthiness of the qualitative data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985), member checking, triangulation, and reflective commentary were implemented in this study. Member checking relating to the data accuracy could take place when the interview is being conducted or at after the interview (Shenton, 2004). The transcribed data after the interview were returned to



all seven informants to read thoroughly so that they could give their feedback and confirmation as well as their agreement on the data transcription. As the member checking process, all informants confirmed their agreement on the given data to be used in this research (Pitts, 1994). Triangulation is the way to involve different methods of data collection and analysis such as survey, observation, focus groups and individual interviews as well as document review which in this research, it includes the collaboration of survey and interview findings (Brewer & Hunter, 1985). Together, all involved researchers discussed the findings in a meeting held after the interview and addressed reflective commentary. “The reflective commentary is used to record the researcher’s initial impressions of each data collection session, patterns appearing to emerge in the data collected and theories generated” (Shenton, p. 68)

## Findings

The findings of the study are divided into two phase; quantitative and qualitative. The quantitative includes Indonesian EFL teacher educators’ attitudes towards ICT, ICT competencies, ICT use during teaching. To support the quantitative findings, qualitative data are elaborated.

### Quantitative analysis

In general, this findings of the study show that Indonesian EFL teacher educators have medium ICT competencies (mean= 3.89; SD=.765). In addition, they also had medium-level score of ICT use during teaching (mean=3.17; SD= .681). However, this study indicates high level mean (4.03) of positive attitudes towards ICT.

Table 4.  
*Average mean and standard deviation (SD)*

Categories	Mean	SD
Attitudes towards ICT	3.89	.83
ICT competencies	3.41	.84
ICT during teaching	2.99	.94

Description of this study analysis has an indication that the respondents have high level positive attitudes toward ICT integration in pre-service teacher training programs. The scale was measured from professional and personal features. Professionally, the teacher educators positively strongly believe in the educative factors that technology provide for student teachers in overcoming difficulties in learning (mean=4.03; SD=.66). They also believed that the use of ICT could improve students’ learning motivation (mean=4.06; SD= .68) and increase their performance (mean=3.98;

SD=.77) as well as foster efficiency in learning process (mean=4.00; SD=.75) and ease the student teachers they teach to achieve better (mean= 4.05; SD=.72). In addition, the respondents also support the integration of ICT in educational curriculums (mean= 4.01; SD= .79) and feel positive when have encouragement from the authorities related to ICT training (mean=4.03; SD=.68). However, lower scores of mean are obtained from the respondents' attitudes towards ICT perceived from personal features of statements; "I like to work with ICT during teaching" (mean=3.64; SD=.99), "I am confident working with ICT during teaching" (mean =3.79; SD=.98), "I don't feel nervous using ICT during teaching" (mean=3.67; SD=1.00), I have a good level self-efficacy using ICT in my teaching (mean= 3.76; SD= .98), and "I feel comfortable using ICT during teaching" (mean=3.75; SD=.99)

The findings inform a medium level of EFL teacher educators' ICT competency in their instruction. The findings show a slightly above neutral score of TEFL teacher educators in learning to use new technology (mean= 3.03; SD= 1.02), understanding how to solve their ICT technical holdbacks (mean= 3.02; SD= .99), utilizing comprehensive function of online dictionaries (mean 3.02; SD= 1.00), and keeping up with the development of new technologies (mean= 3.07; SD= 1.03) as well as using appropriate ICT for language teaching (mean= 3.01; SD= 1.01). However, higher scores of ICT competency were obtained from the respondents for five statements; "I know how to operate computer with basic function e.g. Microsoft offices, music player, video player" (mean 3.81; SD= .67), "I frequently use mobile technologies" (mean= 3.83, SD=.65), "I understand how to use computer mediated communication tools e.g. email, chat, and video calls" (mean= 3.87; SD= .63), "I use social media e.g. Facebook, Twitter, and Instagram" (mean 3.98; SD=.57), and I know how to use wikis and blogs (mean= 3.54; SD= .86).

For the ICT use during teaching, EFL teacher educators are slightly below neutral in selecting ICT applications in their classroom (mean=2.98; SD=1.05), designing ICT-based learning environments (mean =2.83; SD=1.08), and designing ICT applications for TEFL ( $\bar{x}$  =1.97; SD=.67). Additionally, they do not feel particularly capable to help student teachers design ICT-based lesson (mean=2.75; SD=1.01) or to produce collaborative ICT-based learning environment (mean=2.82; SD=1.09), to support ICT-based activities outside the classroom (mean 2.91; SD= 1.02), and to become role models in ICT integration in TEFL (mean=2.91; SD=0.99). However, they encourage their teacher students to use ICT in their practicum (mean= 3.55; SD= .85) and gain field experience in ICT integration during teaching (mean= 3.65; SD= .84). EFL teacher

educators agree with the facilitation of ICT use experience from teaching practicum (mean= 3.53; SD= .83).

### **Qualitative Analysis**

The elaboration of qualitative data in order to support the main data, quantitative covers seven themes; role models, attitudes on the roles in ICT integration, learning technology by design, peers' collaboration, feedbacks in learning, professional development, and accessibility to ICT (see Table 2).

#### ***Role model***

When discussing ICT integration, all teacher educators delivered their opinions about the importance of ICT integration roles. In this context, most of them agreed that they have to be the ones who give examples for the PTPPs trainee integrating technology into teaching. "As millennials, student teachers are competent using technology in the classroom" said one of the teacher educators. However, limited knowledge of technology integration in education make the teacher educators do the integration ineffectively.

"We are the role models for student teachers to integrate technology into their instructional activities; however, our modelling is not really effective since our technology integration knowledge is not maximal, so many weaknesses from the integration and ICT competencies" (T.Ed 1)

#### ***Attitudes on the roles in ICT integration***

ICT integration in teaching or other educational setting was mostly considered natural process where technology innovation dynamism suits the process. It is not a forced process where an attitude of people should be pushed to agree that ICT integration is important in teaching and learning activities. Even though few informants perceived that ICT integration in education bothered them in relation to the updating process of new technology establishment and was not effective and efficient for classroom time management, most teacher educators in the interview agreed that ICT integration in education has many advantages to support the process of teaching and learning. One of the teacher educators, T.Ed 6 revealed that as a new teacher educator, she thought that ICT integration was very useful to be implemented in instruction. It helped her achieve better process and goal in educational activities. Student teachers as youngster were always enthusiastic leaning with technology facilitation, she continued.

Table 5

*Qualitative themes, explanation, and statement frequency and examples*

Theme	Explanation	Statement frequency	Statement example
Role model	Teacher educators are role models for effective ICT integration	14	“I believe teacher educators should be role models for their student teachers for a better teaching in the future” (T.Ed 7)
attitudes on the roles in ICT integration	Most teachers perceived the important roles of ICT integration in education but a few did not think so.	13	“ICT integration may be important for many teacher educators, even more important for young teachers. However, I still think that traditional or conventional method is better; we don’t spend too much in implementing ICT into our teaching” (T.Ed 4)
learning technology by design	To achieve learning objectives, ICT should be integrated with TEFL teaching characteristics or learning objectives	10	“It is important to enrich the ICT integration in our teaching which is based on the course we teach, TEFL because it will not be effective in not ” (T.Ed 5)
peers’ collaboration	Sharing with peers is important in ICT integration and discovering new technology for TEFL teaching	10	“By sharing with my coworkers, I always gain something new in ICT integration in TEFL. I just understood how to use Edmodo from one of my juniors in PTPPs” (T.Ed 6)
feedbacks in learning	ICT eases feedbacks in instruction	7	“When using ICT as a tool for learning feedbacks, I inform student teachers to use it due to its effectiveness and efficiency” (T.Ed 1)
Professional development	Professional development such as ICT workshop and seminars need to held to improve teacher educators knowledge and competencies	13	“we need sustainable programs like training and workshop to improve our achievement in ICT integration in educational setting” (T.Ed 2)
Accessibility to ICT	The access to ICT and its features such as projectors, computer, smartphones, and internet.	11	“I don’t have problem with that. In our campus everything is available; however, the internet access should be more improved” (T.Ed 3)

### ***Learning technology by design***

Most teacher educators have much concerns about instructional design because they think that technology use in classroom must be integrated to course design or TEFL mentoring or teaching to achieve the expected outcomes which is not artificially attached to content.

“I believe that if we are frequently provided with trainings and workshops in designing technological applications or ICT-based activities related to TEFL, the integration of ICT during teaching will be more meaningful,” (T.Ed 3)

Similar to the attitude on the role in ICT integration (theme 2) challenge, the teacher educators in the interview informed that limited knowledge in designing technology-enriched courses for their TEFL teaching prevent them to integrate meaningful ICT during their instruction. They then focused on its design significance due to the fact that they have responsibility as language teacher educators as role models to design lessons with ICT integration in the implementation. As a result, they hoped that the student teachers will use and implement their knowledge and experience in their future career as K-12 school teachers.

### ***Peers' collaboration***

Connection and informal sharing among peers were very influential in teacher educators' decision to use technology in their teaching. In addition, the activities also support the discovery of new technologies for educational purposes.

“I think by discussing with my close friend in TEFL is very important for my technology integration decision as well as new applications discovery. Learning from real experiences of my peers will encourage my awareness to use technology in my pre-service teacher training mentoring” (T.Ed 3)

One thing that they underlined as a challenge in this theme was that there were less cultures among teacher educators to share. In addition, no set of guiding policy advocated by the institution where they work to hold a regular discussion on the integration of ICT during TEFL mentoring in PTPs for student teachers.

### ***Feedbacks in learning***

Information and communication technology feedbacks in learning was also mentioned as an important part in ICT integration in PTPs even though it was not less frequent by the informants

of the interview. They informed that ICT integration in educational environment helped pre-service teachers to gain feedbacks delivery techniques which were more effective and efficient for teaching.

“I think it is important to have ICT-based feedbacks in teaching. Today’s pre-service teachers should have ability to establish it in their teaching activities” (T.Ed 2)

Need for process-based assessment was also informed which advocated the role of teacher educators in facilitating guidance and feedback to pre-service teachers in using ICT in their teaching practice.

### ***Professional development***

As mentioned before, the teacher educators in the interview informed about their complaint on the lack of knowledge and competencies for ICT integration modelling to pre-service teachers in the PTTs they teach. Therefore, they also focused in the importance of sustainable professional development training, workshop, seminar, and conference as well as other programs supporting improve their knowledge and competencies on ICT integration in educational setting.

“I believe that it is important for us teacher educators to have continue programs supporting our knowledge and competencies of ICT integration in educational settings, the development” (T.Ed 7)

The activities were stated to encourage teachers’ awareness using ICT for efficient classroom activities and upgrading teacher educators’ quality of ICT competencies and ICT integration in instruction.

### ***Accessibility to ICT***

About the accessibility to ICT, most participants stated that they had no problems to the access due to the fact that they have their own laptop and smartphones. However, most concern was focused on the Internet access provided by the training programs. They said that the internet was sometime not connected and should be improved in term of the speed and networking areas.

### **Conclusion**

Findings of this study is important in EFL related to teacher educator professionalism in technology integration for student teachers as well as can be applicable to global audience especially in terms of EFL and technology integration. The findings of the study revealed that

Indonesian EFL teacher educators have high mean of positive attitudes survey towards ICT and its use in education. They stated in the interview that digital technology would be very beneficial for the effectiveness and efficiencies of teaching and learning process because millennials or generation Z, today's students from K-12 to college degree, that cannot be separated with the use of technology on the daily basis; social media, blogs, wikis, smartphones, and computers to create a different sense of belonging, make acquaintances, and to remain connected with friends (Woodman, 2015). Similarly, many findings from previous research informed that most teacher educators have positive attitudes towards technology or ICT and its integration into educational setting (Becuwe et al., 2017; Burden & Kearney, 2017; Drent & Meelissen, 2008; Eickelmann & Vennemann, 2017; Goktas, Yildirim & Yildirim, 2008; Jarvis, 2015; Kalonde & Mousa, 2016; Martinovic & Zhang, 2012; Rubadeau, 2018)

Unlike other research (e.g. Houston & Pierson, 2008; Ottenbreit-Leftwich et al, 2010; Rubadeau, 2018; Sang et al., 2010; Tondeur et al., 2012) revealing high level competencies of the use of ICT in instruction, the finding of the study shows the medium level of competencies of ICT use in education. In addition, most teacher educators informed that they do not have skills and competencies to efficiently integrate ICT in their TEFL course. The latter finding encompasses the problem in the concept of technological pedagogical and content knowledge (TPACK) established by Kohler and Mishra (2006) meaning that teacher educators or teachers in general should have the ability to integrate the use of ICT with pedagogical aspect and content of courses (Tondeur et al., 2012).

This lack of TPAC knowledge certainly influenced teacher educators' perspective on their role as models for student teachers or pre-service teachers. This problem according to the teacher educators in the qualitative data analysis can be overcome by peers' collaboration, professional development program and appropriate vision from related parties. Peers' collaboration gives a real information of sharing authentic classrooms ICT integration experience on how to selectively opt appropriate technology to achieve certain outcomes or learning goals (Clift et al., 2001; Tondeur et al., 2012; Martinovic & Zhang, 2012; Rubadeau, 2018). In addition to peers' collaboration, technological seminar and workshops as well as other ICT-based integration development programs (Eickelmann & Vennemann, 2017; Habibi et al., 2018; Kalonde & Mousa, 2016) should also be used. Therefore, related authorities such as the Ministry of Education and Culture, provincial government, and district authority should encourage the activities by funding the

educational institutions or other organization in holding the collaboration, seminars and workshops as well as provide supporting infrastructures.

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Funding statement: The funding of this study is supported by Indonesia endowment fund for education (*Lembaga pengelola dana pendidikan, LPDP Indonesia*)

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**Students' perspectives on genre approach in the 'Neglected Communicative Event:'  
Script defense examination in English Department**

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## **Abstract**

Various levels of undergraduate students' competence in Script Defense Examination (SDE) is not a secret among lecturers at the English department of Syiah Kuala University and State Islamic University, Banda Aceh, Indonesia. The students are competent in English communication; however, in the SDE, the situation is varied requires preparation for the event. Based on a common assumption, to be competent in a specific communicative event, students are required to know the genre of the event. SDE is a communicative event which has its genre. Genre Approach (GA) is known to help introduce genre elements to students, including the elements of SDE genre. However, the use of GA to help students perform competently in SDE is still debatable. In this study, we focus our investigation on the extent to which the applications of GA impacts on students' performance in the SDE in English. The study therefore focused on the perspectives of six undergraduate students from Syiah Kuala University and State Islamic University. The primary



data for our study is students' perspectives which were audio recorded and transcribed into a written form. Data analysis conducted qualitatively in which the researchers employed data display, data description, and conclusion verification (Punch and Oancea (2014). The relation between GA and students' competence and confidence in the SDE, which is based on the students' perceptions, is presented in this paper.

**Keywords:** Script Defense Examination (SDE), Genre Approach, Generic Structure, EFL

## **Introduction**

The script defense examination (SDE) is an essential event that undergraduate students have to go through to complete their study. The students are required to show their knowledge related to their research as well as showing their communication and presentation skills to pass the event. The term SDE is defined differently around the world, for example, it is called the public defense and viva voce in European countries and UK, respectively (Hasan, 1994). In Indonesia, it is called dissertation examination for doctoral level, thesis examination for master's level and script examination for undergraduate level.

Some researchers have conducted studies related to oral examination of script/thesis/dissertation (eg., Burke, 1994; Grimshaw, Feld, & Jenness, 1994; Hasan, 1994; Swales, 2004). Their studies focus on the examination at a doctorate level. They have identified the generic structure (GS) of the oral examination of the Ph.D. dissertation and related information about it. The GS is one of the elements of SDE genre. The other elements of SDE genre include communicative, goal, community and terminology (Swales, 2004). At undergraduate level, the GS of script defence oral examination has been identified by Samad and Adnan (2018) from the English departments of two public universities in Banda Aceh, Indonesia. These previous studies are limited to the investigation of the generic structure of the oral examination. Our study finds out from the literature that studies focusing on the relation between the GS of an oral examination and students' achievement in this event are still insufficient; even less in undergraduate level.

In fact, understanding of the GS is assumed to help students perform competently in the oral examination like SDE. It seems that the issue related to GS and students' competence in the oral examination is neglected even in preparation units such as Research on English Language Teaching and Seminar Presentation. Moreover, the use of GA to introduce GS to help students in their performance in SDE is still debatable. Accordingly, our study does not only look at the GS of SDE at the undergraduate level but also looking at how GS is introduced using GA about students' performance in SDE. Hence, the research question posed is "To what extent SDE GS

introduced in the class?”, moreover, “To what extent the use of GA could improve students’ competence in SDE?”.

## **Literature Review**

### **Definition of Genre**

Many theorists have defined the genre. Initially, the term genre is used to differentiate among texts from one another (Freedman & Medway, 1994; Frow, 2014), for example, the text of heroic poems, tragedy, and comedy (Devitt, 1993). This definition is then developed for the advancement of knowledge.

The definition of genre seems to be influenced by the tradition of the new rhetoric genre (Hamilton, 2016; Luke, 2018; Miller, 1984, 2015; Russell, 2015). The genre is formed based on frequent or repeated practices within a given community that becomes a convention within the community. Moreover, the genre is also developed in the tradition of systemic functional linguistics (SFL) (Martin, 1984). According to SFL, the genre is a social activity that has a goal, developed within sequent stages, in which some people involved as the members of the activity. A genre is staged because it has several phases to reach the goal; it is goal-oriented because it aims to achieve something. Moving to the last tradition, we have English for specific purposes (ESP) genre which is proposed by Swales (2004) and further studied by Flowerdew (2015). According to ESP, the genre is “a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes (Basturkmen, 2014; Flowerdew, 2015; Swales, 2004). Genre persuades readers with the explanation of five criteria of the genre; these are a communicative event, goal, generic structure, community, and terminology.

SDE in our study is seen from the perspective of ESP genre by following the five criteria of this genre. SDE is considered as a communicative event because it uses language to achieve its goal. The goal of SDE is for students to graduate from a university. To pass SDE, students need to conduct this event sequentially based on its generic structure. SDE can only be conducted if this event is attended by its community members (examinee, examiners, audience, note taker, secretary, and vice dean/head of department); each has different roles in the event. Moreover, within this communicative event, there are some terms which are understood by its members, for example, ‘defense proper,’ ‘in camera,’ and ‘pass with major revision.’ Based on these five criteria, our study assumes that the introduction of SDE GS to students in a preparation class before undertaking the real examination will help them to perform competently by following the agreed

stages so that the goal of this event can be achieved as expected. In the process of introducing GS to students, a teaching approach needs to be implemented.

### **Genre Approach and the Implementation**

Researchers have given high attention to the use of genre approach (GA) in language teaching which more focus on written language. Bygate (2001) states that effective genre pedagogy focuses on students' selection of appropriate genres related to their educational needs. The GA is believed by many researchers to help students in understanding various types of genre, and how each type is developed to reach its purpose. For example, teachers use GA to help high school students to develop an explanation text sequentially based on its purpose, structure, and language features. Also, Paltridge (2004) says that GA has helped students to involve in community activities by using a certain genre that they already understood. When students already understand an explanation genre, for example, they can write the text such as about a production of milk when the community is doing activities on a dairy farm. Having a genre-based syllabus helps teachers/lecturers to focus on specific genres based on students' needs so that they can perform competently in these genres.

Other researchers also agree that the GA helps students to enter a particular community due to their understanding of the elements found in a particular genre. Kay and Dudley-Evans, (1998) say that GA helps students understand the structure and purpose of different text genres. By understanding these elements, students could perform competently in particular genres. Students can write, for example, how to cook apple pie when they need to show their understanding of a procedural text. Shi, Baker, and Chen (2017) investigated the potential of GA to enhance the communicative competence students in writing. Loan (2018) applied modified GA approach to teach four different types of texts to Thai EFL learners; these includes persuasive, explanation, comparison-contrast and problem-solution texts. The successful of her teaching writing using modified GA can be seen from the appropriate use of generic structures and language features in each type of texts that the learners developed. Moreover, Derewianka (2003) states that GA is goal-oriented and provides frameworks for students to communicate competently. Students understand how they develop different text genres with different purposes so that they can convey the meaning in the text appropriately and the readers understand the meaning well. Firkins, Forey, and Sengupta (2007) argue that GA can be the most efficient way to teach writing because it provides sequenced and well-designed teaching material. Therefore, this approach is useful in teaching English as Second Language (ESL) students. Christie (1999) states that at least four

reasons support the use of the GA: first, it has a principled way to identify and to focus on various texts. Secondly, it shows the generic models of different genres. Thirdly, it initiates students for meaning-making in communicating with communities in the English-speaking country. Fourth, it guides students to organize and construct English communication. These four reasons indicate that GA help students to achieve the goal in scholarly communication.

Not only for written language, but GA is also appropriate for oral language (Morton & O'Brien, 2005). In their study, they discovered that GA helps for the success of oral presentations. In the English department of Syiah Kuala University where our study was conducted, GA is commonly used to teach writing skill for its undergraduate students. Therefore, the success of using GA for speaking skill is still debatable among lecturers in this department; and even more for preparing students to perform in SDE. Most lecturers believe that students' knowledge in the topic of their research and the writing of their script must be strengthened in the preparation unit, without paying attention to the oral presentation that students also need to do in SDE. In fact, students' oral presentation in SDE is also scored. Consequently, the teaching of oral presentation skill was absent and at the same time, GA is never used. Reflecting on Morton and O'Brien (2005) study, therefore, this study investigates from students' perspective to what extent GA is helpful to prepare for students' oral presentation in SDE when this approach is implemented in the preparation unit.

### **Script Defense Examination**

In literature, Script Defense Examination (SDE) has been discussed by many researchers. Most of them discussing the purpose of the SDE. Kiley (2009) argues that the SDE aims to provide a chance for examinees to conduct their research presentation and respond to questions from examiners. Through this activity, the students' competence on their research topic can be assessed. Jack and Jack (2002) add that in SDE, the examinees have a chance to clarify any unclear information written in their script. Maingueneau (2002) points out that this examination is an opportunity for the examinees to show their competence regarding their cognitive capacity and skill.

In Indonesian universities, SDE is a must for students to pass before they can graduate. At Syiah Kuala University, the importance of this event could be seen from the weight of this event which is four credit points. The students' ability to perform successfully in this event could determine whether or not one can complete their study. Two types of evaluation are done by examiners: evaluation of students' written script, and evaluation of students' oral presentation.

This means that oral presentation is also an important skill to be prepared for the event. Understanding the GS of SDE might help students to perform competently.

### **Competence**

The term ‘competence’ has been defined in the literature for general English communication. Nunn (2007), for example, defines competence as what an individual needs to know in certain societies when he/she is regarded as a member of that society to share norms and values. Within SDE context, English students should have pursued skills in English to be successfully interacting with the members of society (SDE as the society). Dooley (2009) defines competence as ways of exchanging messages through conversation, which depends on how actively the speakers use the language in their daily life and their knowledge and experience. Speakers will be competent in speaking if their prior knowledge is connected to the subject of their discussion. The speakers’ skills in general communication also determine whether the speakers are competent. Communication competence is a dynamic concept; therefore, the communication between speakers depends on the negotiation of meaning and the cooperativeness between two or more persons who share to some degree the same symbolic system. Competence is a context-specific which is based on the situation. Therefore, the success of communication depends on both the speakers’ and listeners’ understanding of the context as well as their ability to communicate (D Nunan, 1991).

Theorists such as Chomsky (2006) defines competence as the ability of both speaker and his/her interlocutors to be familiar with sounds and meanings about the rules of the language. This means that a speaker may be considered competent if s/he knows how to use correct grammatical structures as well as the stages of the conversation. Savignon (1983) defines competence as identification of behaviors of the successful communicators of what they do, especially the identification of good communicators’ characteristics. It means that a speaker is considered competent if s/she can select an appropriate strategy to deliver the message to the interlocutors. Crucially, Chomsky sees competence as rule-based, whereas Savignon looks at competence as understanding communication strategy, and Nunn and Nunan focus on understanding the local contexts. Moreover, Richards and Rodgers (2014) revealed that communicative competence is viewed to encompass the mastery of diverse natures of texts, or genres. The text is used in a distinctive sense to the state designed structure of language in specific ways use.

Taguchi and Iwasaki (2008) add that competence in communication is not merely understanding the correct grammar and the function of the language; more importantly, being able

to engage in communication with other speakers by fully understanding the use of language forms as well as its functions efficiently. Also, Hughes and Harwood (2010) state that to become a competent speaker, he/she needs to have cultural and pragmatic skills, a wide range of vocabulary, an understanding of grammatical structures, proper pronunciation and fluency in using the second language. A communicative approach is required to respond the communication needs and interests of learners (Canale, 2014).

In SDE, students have to be competent in using English in general communication. The competence includes obtaining sufficient knowledge and experience (Dooley, 2009), speaking skills (Savignon, 1983), rules of the language and structure of the conversation (Chomsky, 2006), delivering and expressing ideas and argument (Burns & Joyce, 1997; Harvey, 2006) to be able to perform well in the event. These aspects may help students to perform sufficiently using English when they conduct a presentation and defend arguments and research results. However, the competence in general English communication cannot guarantee if the students could perform successfully in SDE. SDE has its genre, which has several stages or moves that students need to follow. Having said that being competent in general English may help students to use English appropriately, and the familiarity of SDE GS could help students to perform well in the event.

## **Methodology**

This study applied a descriptive qualitative study investigating the extent to which the application of Genre Approach (GA) can help students in preparation for their performance in Script Defense Examination (SDE). This study is the extension of Samad (2013) study. In his study, he conducted a quasi-experimental design to employ GA in the classroom where the students were prepared for their performance in SDE. Six students in the experimental group were taught by using GA, while the control group students (seven students) were not given GA. Our study, however, looked at the experimental students' perspectives on the application of GA about their preparation for SDE. These students are coded here as S1, S2, S3, S4, S5, and S6. S2, S4, and S5 are the students of State Islamic University, while S1, S3 and S6 are from Syiah Kuala University.

The six students in our study followed semi-structured interview after they followed the treatment in Samad (2013) study. The students in the experimental group were introduced to GA in the preparation classroom – at this moment called as Script Defense Preparation Unit (SDPU) — by giving a generic structure (GS) of SDE that is commonly conducted at the English department of their university. Since the students came from Syiah Kuala University and State

Islamic University, the generic structure of SDE of these two universities was explained to the students. Each student followed the generic structure of SDE of the English department where they enrolled as a student. After they finished the preparation class in Samad (2013) study, our study interviewed the students to inquire the effectiveness of GA for them to be more prepared for the SDE. Therefore, the primary data for our study is students' perspectives which were audio recorded and transcribed into a written form. The data provides an opportunity for us to gain a deep understanding of the research participants' experiences, thoughts, and perceptions (Burns, 2000).

There are some steps of analyzing audio recording. As Punch and Oancea (2014) suggest, some steps can be used to analyze interview data: data reduction, data display, data description and conclusion verification. Data from the interviews were transcribed and analyzed. Line-by-line transcription was carefully analyzed to obtain a satisfactory result. In making data reduction, the researchers tried to minimize unrelated information. The critical information classified from the data reduction process was then coded based on the topic of investigation. The findings of the interviews were concluded and verified.

## **Result and Discussion**

In the interview questions, this study asked about the implementation of GA for preparing the students for SDE. Also, this study also asked about the teaching of regular SDPU in the English department of Syiah Kuala University and State Islamic University where the students study. The results of the analysis indicated some essential points about GA about SDE, as well as the differences between the teaching of SDPU using GA and without using GA.

### **Students' Understanding on the GS of SDE from the Regular SDPU**

Students' understanding of the SDE genre could help them to develop ideas in a sequenced presentation. Therefore, it is important to investigate with the students how far they understand the GS of SDE from the preparation unit (SDPU). Before following the SDPU in Samad (2013) study, the six students argued that they not be familiar with the GS of SDE. Their lecturers at the two English departments had never introduced this GS in regular SDPU provided by their English departments. As quoted from S4 from State Islamic University:

[S4] *In the regular SDPU, the students were asked to conduct a presentation about their research topic and then it is assessed and commented by the lecturer, but the overall SDE*

*GS was never introduced. Therefore all the students could only find the information about the SDE GS outside the SDPU.*

Similar information provided by S2, who is also from State Islamic University. According to this student, the lecturer divided students into groups and then they were asked to present their research topics. The students were not given a proper guideline, such as the stages of presentation.

*[S2] In the regular SDPU at the department, students were divided into several groups to conduct mini research based on the topic given by the lecturer. This mini research should be presented in the classroom. The students were not given instruction, for example, the procedure for conducting a presentation in SDE. So, the students present their topic freely without following any presentation stage.*

Also, the other students from State Islamic University, S5, also shared the experience in the regular SDPU as in the following quote:

*[S5] In the SDPU, the students discussed a research topic in the class. One group was presenting the research paper, and other groups asked questions about the topic. During this activity, the lecturer only observes the activities without giving feedback or other scaffoldings.*

The quotations from S2, S4, and S5 show that the GS of SDE was not introduced in the regular SDPU of the State Islamic University. From this response, it can be seen that during the classroom activities, their lecturers encouraged the students to be more active through group works and presentation practices. During the teaching and learning process, the students were divided into several groups. In each group, the students were required to present a research project. However, from the response above, there is no indication that the lecturer introduced the SDE GS to the students in the SDPU. Thus, the students presented their mini-research findings freely in an oral presentation without following any stages of the SDE GS. This way of teaching is helping to build students' general fluency, but it may fail to build strong confidence for the students to make a proper research presentation, due to lack of knowledge about the right genre of the TDE. As a part of SDE genre, SDE GS is, in fact, an important element for the students to understand the conduct of the real SDE. If the presentation practices done in the classroom followed the stages of SDE GS, the students would have a description of how the real SDE is conducted. Nevertheless, the students were not able to imagine the real situation of the SDE because the SDE GS was never introduced in the SDPU correctly, even though lecturers are aware that the purpose of SDPUs is to prepare students to perform competently following the stages in the SDE GS. This situation is



in fact contrary to the examiners' expectation where they want students to conduct a proper presentation based on the SDE GS.

A similar experience also occurred at the English department of Syiah Kuala University. The students did not have information about the GS of SDE, which resulted in lacking a description of the SDE. As quoted from S3:

[S3] *The students were divided into groups and each group was responsible for explaining one section of the script, for example, the section of research methodology or result. Meanwhile, the stages of presentation were never given to the students.*

From S3, we know that during the presentation practice in the unit, the students were free to present any section from a script; for example, they could present the research background or problem only, or if they wanted, they could present all the sections of their proposal from the introduction to the conclusion. We use the term 'free presentation' here because according to the response, the lecturer did not inform the students the real stages of SDE to conduct the presentation, so the students do that based on their knowledge of how to present academic writing like a script or a proposal.

Another participant from Syiah Kuala University, S1, stated that the lecturer asked the students to conduct a presentation. The presentation stages that they practiced in TDPU were based on the information they collected from their seniors who had passed the SDE. There was no explanation of the presentation stages from the lecturer.

[S1] *We were not taught explicitly about the presentation stages. We only follow the information which had been given by our seniors, who have successfully presented their script in SDE and passed the examination. The lecturer never taught the students that we had to start the presentation from the introduction section and so on.*

The other student from Syiah Kuala University, S6, also shared her experience:

[S6] *The lecturer provided a group consultation service outside class time to support students for the script examination because the lecturer was absent for several times. This consultation meeting was also regarded as a class meeting. After the consultation time, the students were encouraged to do a group presentation to present their mini-research project. However, we do not know how to present appropriately because the lecturer does not teach us how to do it. The students were also given the opportunity to communicate with the lecturer through email regarding their mini-research project. The lecturer asked the students to submit their mini-research reports through email so that the lecturer could effectively and efficiently examine the issues that arose in their mini-research reports.*

The responses from S6 and S1 have pointed out that the GS of SDE is not taught in the classroom. Moreover, we got additional information from S6 which is also important to discuss. S6 indicates that the lecturer in regular SDPU provides consultation for students outside of classroom hours. This was done because the lecturer was absent from some classroom meetings. This means that the lecturer did not teach for more than one or two meetings. Due to this matter, the consultations were provided that can be regarded as the replacement for the classroom meetings. Even though lecturer absenteeism is out of the topic of this research, we assume that students' preparation for conducting the real SDE shortly is somehow influenced by the absenteeism, because the knowledge and information needed for the preparation of conducting SDE cannot be fully provided. Moreover, there is no indication from the response that the lecturer introduced the SDE GS even though face-to-face and online consultations were provided. The lecturer only helped students to increase their research knowledge based on the questions raised by the students. Since the face-to-face meetings with the lecturer is consultative in nature, the lecturer only provided information based on what the students want to consult about. Therefore, S6 responded that the consultations did not help her and her classmates much to perform in the SDE based on its generic structure.

As discussed previously in this paper, there are two aspects assessed in SDE: research knowledge and presentation skill. From the responses given by the participants from both universities, this study concluded that the lecturers only focus the teaching of SDPU on the research knowledge. Even though they asked students to do a presentation related to several research topics, the responses from the students of the two selected universities indicate that the lecturer asked the students to do so without informing them of the GS of SDE. In other words, the lecturers did not help students have a clear description of the generic structure in the real SDE which is included as one of essential elements of SDE genre to improve oral presentation important for undertaking SDE. In fact, information about the SDE GS is essential in helping students to present sequentially the information related to their research topic, as is expected by the examiners. With this following information, the examiners can see that the content is solid and convincing, which impacts on the score that the students will achieve after the examination.

Based on the discussions above, commonly the students of the English departments of these two universities lacked an understanding of the SDE GS. In other words, they were not given this information in regular SDPU. Also, the lecturers of the regular SDPU did not focus on providing clear structures or patterns to prepare and conduct the presentation. In fact, this understanding helps the students to be confident and perform to their maximum potential in the real SDE.

## **Students' Experience in the Treatment Groups Using the GA**

In the treatment group, the students shared their experience using the GA to prepare them for doing a presentation in an SDE. The students benefited from participating in the treatment because they were given opportunities to practice doing presentations as preparation for the SDE based on the generic structure of SDE conducted in their universities. From the responses. Also, the students benefited more from the understanding of the SDE GS. As stated by S1:

*[S1] This GA employed in the classroom helps us a lot because we are taught the steps of presentation, for example, we start with the introduction section, etc. In our regular SDPU, we were only asked to conduct a presentation using our senior's script without given any information about the SDE GS. We hope that GA can be implemented in the regular SDPU at our department.*

S5 gave a similar argument. According to this participant, the teaching using GA helped the students to understand the details of the SDE GS, which are the steps of presentation.

*[S5] The preparation for SDE using GA had informed us about the particular segments and activities in the SDE. This information helped us to perform competently in the SDE.*

The students' responses above clearly indicate that the use of GA in SDPU provides an opportunity for them to know more about SDE GS that is the stages of presentation that they have to conduct in SDE. In addition to the results of the interview, the students feel more confident because they become more prepared for the event. S3 said,

*[S3] The GA class helped me to be confident in presenting my research topic in front of the audience.*

Some other students also feel the same thing. For example, S6 and S2 said respectively,

*[S6] The treatment using GA helps to increase my self-confidence in the research presentation. Frequent practices with colleagues under the lecturer's supervision have helped me to perform sufficiently in the real SDE.*

*[S2] After following the treatment in this experimental group, my confidence is increasing. I have a clear understanding of my research such as how to write and how to defend it in front of the examiners.*

The responses above explained about their increased level of confidence to face real SDE shortly. They were confident because they were taught explicitly about the SDE GS, so they were not questioning themselves about what to do in the SDE. Also, the frequent practice of the SDE provided in the GA class also helped them to be more prepared.

As mentioned previously in this paper, two kinds of knowledge should be taught to students in TDPU; knowledge of research and knowledge of SDE GS. The teaching of TDPU using GA at the same time has included the teaching of SDE GS; therefore the knowledge students need to conduct the real SDE is entirely provided in the classroom.

Despite the success, they also had some difficulties during the treatment using GA. The most challenging thing for them was understanding the technical terms, such as the word genre, segments, generic structure and the definition of gaps in the literature because they had never heard these terms very often before. S3 said,

[S3] *I am still confused with the terms used in this SDPU using GA, for example, the terms genre, segment, generic structure, and gap.*

Another student, S1, stated:

[S1] *This is a very new lesson, which makes me unfamiliar with the stages of presentation and the terms used in the presentation.*

According to S3 and S1, most information provided in the SDPU using GA was new for them, and they needed more time to understand. However, with more practice in the classroom, students became more familiar with and could understand the terms.

## **Conclusion**

In regular SDPU, the lecturers have focused only on one of two crucial aspects assessed in SDE, which is the research knowledge of students. Consequently, the teaching process in the preparation unit is limited to increase this aspect. Meanwhile, the presentation skill aspect seems to be neglected to be increased in the teaching activities, even though presentation practices occurred in the classroom. Moreover, the lecturers do not become aware of the importance of introducing SDE GS that provides information about the stages of the event that students need to follow.

Based on students' perspectives, GA is effective to be implemented in the preparation unit to help them perform competently in SDE. Also, students could also improve their confidence for the event because, firstly, GA introduces them the elements of SDE genre, and secondly, the activities in GA classroom guide the step-by-step of SDE presentation. This study is open to suggestions and criticisms due to its limitation. For example, this study only looked at the students' perspective in finding the extent to which GA help them to prepare for SDE. Therefore, this study suggests that other researchers could also involve teachers' perspective on the use of GA in the SDE preparation unit.

## **Implications for language teaching and learning in intra/international contexts**

In general, the implementation of GA provided many opportunities for students to practice doing the presentation based on the SDE GS which helped students to perform well in the SDE. Students already knew the steps in the presentation and the information about the research that they had to deliver when presenting their script. Students could also predict possible questions the examiners would usually ask about their script because they knew the assessment criteria used by the examiners. Also, students also knew the number of segments and activities (generic structure) involved in the SDE. By knowing these pieces of information, students are well prepared to perform in the SDE. Moreover, the psychological factors of nervous and anxiety could be reduced because of the familiarity with the SDE GS. Giving precise information about the SDE GS through the implementation of GA in the class benefits the students in preparing for as well as to perform well in the SDE. Providing equal information of research knowledge, presentation skill with clear SDE GS to all students is essential to prepare the students to perform well in the SDE.

Also, all students involved in this study agreed that they benefited from this class because they understood the SDE GS, which helps them to understand the activities in each segment and the assessment criteria used by the examiners in the SDE.

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## **Assessment Instruments for Improving English Teaching Skills through Microteaching in Indonesia**

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### **Bio-Profile:**

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### **Abstract**

Assessment is a crucial part of teaching which is essentially needed in Microteaching. Most researchers are interested in investigating the importance of Microteaching, however research on developing instruments for assessing the students' mastery toward the basic teaching skills are very limited and remains untouched. This study therefore aimed at developing assessment instrument for each teaching skill and investigated their implementations. The study was designed in the form of Research and Development (R&D) using 4D model and conducted at English Education Department Ganesha University of Education Bali Indonesia. Mixed methods of data collection were utilized using questionnaire, interview, and observations, and tests on 25 students. The results of the study produced 3 categories of assessment instruments which include assessments during

planning, assessment during simulations, and assessment for summative purposes. The results of the implementations revealed clear improvement of students' teaching skills with average scores 3.08, out of maximum score 4. The instruments are perceived very useful, and function as assessments for learning from which the lecturers can record the teaching skill improvement of the student teachers and observed the progress of the student teachers' performances and attitude; while the assessments of learning are revealed through the results of summative assessments which resulted all students can reach good and excellent category. The finding of the study implied the importance of assessment for measuring the students' English teaching skills and the students' ability to do reflection for self-diagnosis and improvement.

**Keywords:** formative, summative assessment, microteaching, language teaching

## **Introduction**

Many studies confirm the importance of assessment in teaching, and viewed as an important part of teaching (Taras, 2005; Clements and Cord.2013) which serve the functions of collecting information and analyzing them for judging students' mastery on the competency pre-determined (Marshall, 2005). Assessment can also function as a way of measuring improvement along the process, evaluate strength and weaknesses and rank students on their competency level either for selection, or exclusion, or to motivate them. Assessment can also serve as a way of getting feedback as reflections on how learning is best structured and delivered, and used that information for improvement (Büyükkarci, 2014).

Referring to its aforementioned functions, assessment undoubtedly takes important roles in Microteaching to prepare student-teachers to become professional teachers. Microteaching is a method that has been used since 1960s in teaching learning environment (Allen, 1967 in Ralph, 2014; Saban and Çoklar, 2013). Microteaching is a teacher-training technique for learning teaching skills (Bello, 2015) which is considered as an effective teaching method utilized to develop professional competency of pre-service and in-service teachers (Fernandez, 2005; Kpanja, 2001), it assists the student teachers to master the teaching skills (Kumar, 2016; Anthonia, 2014). It is a teacher training technique of both pre-service and in-service teachers (Ghafoor, et.al. (2012).The training procedure is geared towards simplifications of the complexities of the regular teaching learning process (Ping, 2013). In Microteaching, using proper assessment along the process of teaching Microteaching makes lecturers able to assess the process for reflection, as well as for

judgment of students' achievement. Assessment in Microteaching must be able to serve the purposes of assessment such as assessments for learning, assessment as learning, and assessments of learning. Assessment for learning is a process oriented assessment which is intended to assess the process how learning happens, how students make progress, and how the results of on-going assessments can improve the students' achievement. Assessment as learning is a process where students make reflections and can learn about themselves as learners, and know how to learn. The assessment of learning, on the other hand, emphasizes on assessing the product which is the achievement at the end of the program from which the students' grade can be based on (Western and Northern Canadian Protocol for Collaboration in Education, [www.wncp.ca](http://www.wncp.ca)). These kinds of assessments are importantly utilized at microteaching class where lecturers can assess students along the process holistically, judge their achievement, and provide the chance for the students to conduct reflection, and learn how to learn.

Microteaching is also defined as a course which provides student-teachers with opportunities to bridge the theory and practice, and how to improve their skills of teaching (Fernandez, 2005; Gress-Newsome & Lederman, 1990). It is an instrument for teacher training which offers the student teachers the opportunities to practice teaching activities under controlled and stimulate circumstances such that the complexity of the teaching situation (Mahmud and Rawshon, 2013). Microteaching is very useful in many ways, and the microteaching method is proposed in all education lectures (Musa, 2014). The use of Microteaching also positively affects the teaching competence of pre-service teachers (Arsal, 2015). Improvement can be identified well, if enough information about students' progress and competencies can be gathered to indicate the improved competencies and skills achieved by the students over the time, and on basic skills of teaching. To serve the purpose, instruments of assessment for collecting information are required. Most studies focused on the microteaching itself (Astika, 2014; Shah and Masrur, 2011; Remesh, 2013; Ghafoor, Kiani, and Kayani, (2012); Saban and Çoklar, 2013), and the significance of the teaching practice (Grandall,1994; Johnson, 1996; Mahmud and Rawshon, 2013; Kumar,2016), but less attention was provided on the kinds of instruments used for gathering the information, and on the aspects to be assessed in each basic skill of teaching. Studies on instruments for assessing the process of learning as well as for assessing the effectiveness of teaching and learning English a foreign language in Microteaching have not been emphasized yet especially analyzing the aspects to be assessed in each basic skill of Microteaching. The aspects and scopes of assessments in each basic skill are highly important for lecturers of Microteaching, not only as a guidance of what to assess, but is also needed for the sake of diagnostic purposes.

Scarcity on how assessments can be utilized in Microteaching class, and what aspects to be included in the assessments lead the need for more research and investigation. For that reason, this paper aimed at describing the assessment instruments developed for improving the teaching and learning skills through microteaching, and the aspects to be assessed in each instrument for each basic skill. It is expected that the instruments can inspire lecturers on how the assessment can be carried out to function as assessment for learning as well as assessment of learning and assessment as learning.

## **Method**

### **1. Design**

In line with the purpose of the study to develop assessment instruments (as the product of the study), this study utilized Exploratory Mixed Methods Designs (Clark and Creswell, 2008) which was designed in the form of R&D Model. This design was utilized because the study was product oriented which mixed both the qualitative and quantitative analysis. The qualitative study was conducted at the beginning stage when the researchers explored and identify the needs which were used as basis for designing the product. The products were then developed, and tried out. The results of the implementation were then analyzed quantitatively.

The process of developing the product consisted of four steps namely 1) Define, that is to identify the needs (what kinds of assessment instruments which are needed for assessing the competency and skills of students in Microteaching; 2) Design, that is to prepare blue-prints of the instruments based on the needs identified, 3) Develop, that is to develop the blue prints until they are ready to be used. The instruments were also judged by senior lecturers of Microteaching using inter-rater judgments; and 4) Disseminate, that is to socialize the instruments to lecturers.

### **2. Setting**

The study was conducted in 2016-2017. It was conducted in English Education Department of six Education Universities in Bali Indonesia. Microteaching is one of the subject matters in the curriculum which was available at semester 6 out of 8 semesters of the study programs.

### **3. Subjects**

The subjects were the lecturers of Microteaching course, the head of Departments, and other lecturers of related pedagogy courses, as well as students taking Microteaching class. They

were all 18 lecturers and 25 students.

#### 4. The Technique of Data Collection

Several techniques of data collection were utilized in each stage of the research method. To guarantee the trustworthiness, the data were triangulated in many ways. During “Define Stage”, the needs were identified and explored through questionnaire, and by interviewing all the subjects involved. The results of the interview and questionnaire were then analyzed in order to identify the characteristics of the product/instruments needed. At Design Stage, the data were collected by reviewing literature, consulting experts/lecturers, as well as analyzing related documents. During Developing Stage, the products were reviewed by 2 experts and 12 lecturers using questionnaire, and followed by interviews. At Dissemination Stage, the products were socialized to all lecturers. The final products were then implemented at the Microteaching Class of 25 students.

#### 5. Data Analysis

The quantitative data were in the form of scores such as the score of students' achievement taken during implementation of the instruments (products), while qualitative data were comments provided by the students when they had to give feedback about the products used at Microteaching Class. All scores were analyzed quantitatively, and comments as well as feedback were analyzed qualitatively and presented descriptively.

The quality of the assessment instruments before to be used was guaranteed by measuring the content validity using two expert judgments. The results of the judgments were calculated using *Gregory Formula*. The results of the content validity using the formula were all 1.00 which indicates that the instruments were having very high content validity. While, the reliability of the instruments were measured by inter-rater judgments using two judges, and the results that instruments were highly correlated with the agreement 0.78.

#### 6. Ethical Procedure

Before the study started, the permit of research was firstly arranged. This study was conducted under the permission of the heads of English Education departments of all universities involved in this study, supported and funded through the grants from the Ministries of Research, Technology and Higher Education, Republic of Indonesia.

## Result

Based on the four steps of developments, there are three categories of assessment instruments were produced in this research. The first is the assessment instruments during planning and preparation, the second one is the assessment instruments during the process of practicing the basic skills, and the third one is the assessment instruments for assessing the final process.

Table 1: Assessments developed and used during planning and preparation

No	Type of Instrument	Aspects Assessed	Remarks
1	Self-assessment for assessing lesson planning	Relevancy to syllabus; Format; Clear indicators; Inclusion of character values, 21 <sup>st</sup> century skills, and high order thinking; Appropriate media; Systematic procedure of teaching; and Relevant assessment	Most students (92%) admitted that the instrument is not only very useful for them, but also direct them on what supposed to be done during planning the lesson. Help them to be self-directed. The rest (8%) did not give any response.
2	Self-assessment for assessing the process of lesson planning	Self-reflection on how the lesson plan made (considering the time spent, online resources, group work vs. individual, and problem faced)	20 students (80%) stated it was good, and 20% stated they need more time to prepare the lesson plan
3	Reading Log	Information read for lesson planning and the problems faced	88% give positive responses (very useful, stimulated them to read and search more information), 22% provide no comments.
4	Instrument to measure the quality of the lesson plan	Relevancy to syllabus; Format; Clarity of indicators; Inclusion of character values, 21 <sup>st</sup> century skills, and high order thinking; Appropriate use of media; Systematic procedure of teaching; and Relevancy of assessment	80% students got score 4 (excellent) and 20% got 3 (good category)

5	Instrument used to write all the scores of the students on lesson plan	The same aspects assessed as instrument no 4, but it contains columns for writing down the scores of all students.	The average score of all students in making lesson plans is 3.8 out maximum score 4.
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From the results of the assessment instruments during the planning stage, it can be stated that the student teachers performed good achievement in lesson planning because the average scores of their lesson plans was 3.8 and all of them got above 3 (category of good lesson plan).

The second types of assessment produced are the assessment instrument used during the practice and simulation of each basic skill of teaching. The assessment instruments and the aspects being assessed are presented in Table 2.

Table 2: The assessment instruments developed and used to assess each basic skill in  
Microteaching Course

No	Type of Instrument	Aspects Assessed	Results and Remarks
1	Instrument for assessing the skill of opening and closing the session	How routine started; Strategy of focusing; Strategy of motivating; Referencing; Strategy of making connections; Reviewing; Assessing; Follow up	Average score of the student teachers was 3.8 out of maximum score 4.
2	Instrument for explaining skill	Clarity of the instruction language; Strategy of explanation and its appropriateness; Procedure of explaining; Relevancy	Average score was 2.92 (more than sufficient), maximum score was 4.
3	Self-assessment on explaining skill	Reflection on how explanation is given to students (using mother tongue, gestures, avoidances, synonym, illustration/examples, paraphrasing, guiding questions)	60% student teachers prefer to paraphrase, 20% prefer to use national language and 20% prefer to use example to clarify the concept.
4	Peer	Topic understanding; description clarity;	More than 90% had to plan

	assessment on explaining skill	procedure; variation; gesture; time; motivating strategy	fun activities to motivate students, for them skill of motivating students is found as a challenging skill.
5	Self-assessment for improving the explaining skill	Reflections on the ways used for improvement (daily practice, reading books for vocabulary improvement, independent learning, watching foreign TV programs, daily communication)	60% stated they watched foreign movie, 15% said they like reading book to improve their proficiency in the target language so they can explain better using the target language.
6	Instrument for assessing classroom management	Classroom arrangement; attention; interaction and discipline; teacher's position; gesture; techniques of controlling classroom condition; managing learning condition; strategy for fun and creative classroom	They still found it difficult to manage fun activities, managing students to be on-task.
7	Instrument for assessing skill of leading group discussion	Techniques of giving orientation; strategy of giving chances for contribution; improving the quality of discussion; attentions to students; techniques of closing discussion.	80% of the student teachers got score 3, 20% got 2 (more than sufficient) but they still found difficult to manage all students on task, and few students still dominated the discussion.
8	Peer assessment on group discussion	Responsibility for task accomplishment; cooperation; assistance provision; willingness to help; initiative	All got 4 for task accomplishment cooperation, assistance provision, willingness to help, 90% got 3 and the rest 10% got maximum 4 for initiative.
9	Self-assessment for	Willingness to listen to others; summarizing; asking questions; giving	All assessed themselves as well participating. They



	group participation	information; giving opinion, agreeing and disagreeing; asking for clarification.	also stated that the instrument provided guidance about what to do during group discussion.
10	Instrument for assessing variation	Variations (in teaching style, media and materials, interactions and activities) and the quality of variations.	Generally all showed good variation but skill of utilizing pause and silence need to be improved.
11	Instrument for basic questioning skill	Clarity; reference; focus; shift; distribution; quality	80% got score 3 (good category), 20% got 2 (sufficient). Skill of distributing question needs to be improved.
12	Instrument for advanced questioning skill	Questions for stimulating critical thinking; questions for guidance; questions for exploring divergent and complex answer.	At the beginning, the skill did not appear, but with guidance from the lecturer, slowly they use the skill.
13	Instrument for assessing the skill of giving reinforcement	Verbal and non-verbal reinforcement; the power of strategy giving reinforcement.	100% used verbal reinforcement. Ways of rewarding non-academic achievement and character developments need to be increased.

At the second phase of the Microteaching course, during the practice of eight basic skills, 13 instruments were developed (Table 2), each instrument for each basic skill, and provided with peer and self-assessments for reflections by the students. The last phase was the opportunities of the students to utilize the basic skills in integration and practice the whole parts of teaching from opening up to closing the lesson. There were two instruments, as shown in Table 3, developed and utilized. These two instruments function as assessments of learning.

Table 3: Assessment instrument developed for assessing all basic skills in integration at the final stage

No	Type of Instrument	Aspects Assessed	Results
1	Holistic assessment of using all basic skills in integration.	All eight basic skills are assessed holistically using one single score.	Students' scores were around 3 and 4 out of maximum score 4. Average scores was 3.08 (good category)
2	Analytical assessment of using all basic skills	The eight basic skills are analytically scored	All students got at least 3 out 4 maximum score, and the average score was 3.5 (excellent category)

The results of the assessment show that students achieved good scores as all of them score above 3 as good category. It is in line with the analytical scoring where the average score was 3.5 out of maximum score 4. The students improved significantly as it was reflected when they were simulating their skills of teaching.

The improvement was also indicated in the quality of the lesson plans made at the final stage conducted at the end of the semester as compared with the quality of the lesson plans at the beginning stage. The quality of the lesson plan (Table 4) was also self-assessed by the students in order to perceive the strength and the weaknesses.

Table 4 The students' self-assessment in making lesson plan

No	Statement	Already	Not yet	doubtful
1.	I already referred to the syllabus before the lesson plan was made.	100%		

2.	I already used the newest format used in the school.	100%		
3	I develop indicators based on the statements of competency stated in the syllabus, which contain the following elements: A= Audience B= behavior C= condition D=degree	100%		
4.	Statement of objective is clear	100%		
5.	Material is relevant and in accordance with the development of the students.	100%		
6	The lesson plan accommodates character values, skills for 21 <sup>st</sup> century and skills of high order thinking.	80%		20%
7	The approach and method used is clear and relevant	100%		

8.	The media /audio visual aids utilized is meaningful	100%		
9.	Steps of teaching :			
	a. Clear and help students' understanding.	100%		
	b. Innovative	80%		20%
	c. Stimulating high order thinking skill	83.3%		16.7%
	d. Providing enough chances for the students to use the target language the students were learning	100%		
	e. Using effective classroom management.	93.3%		6.7%
	f. Providing opportunities for students to experience new things and guide them to construct new	100%		

	knowledge based on the experience			
	g. Interesting	100%		
10	Assessment			
	a. Assess what supposed to be assessed	100%		
	b. Relevant	100%		
	c. Authentic	100%		
	d. Based on the indicators	100%		
	e. Clear and not ambiguous	100%		
	f. Provided with rubric	100%		
10	Closure			
	a. Lead students to conclude the instruction	100%		
	b. Relevant and meaningful closure	100%		

The results of the self-assessment indicate that students were mostly confident with the quality of the lesson plans and almost all students followed the criteria of good lesson plans. However, there were some items identified as doubtful, such as the accommodation of character values, skills for 21<sup>st</sup> century and high order thinking in the lesson plan, whether or not it has been innovative, stimulating high order thinking skill, using effective classroom management. These parts were obligatory to be included in the lesson plan based on the new Curriculum Reform in Indonesia, and the students perceived those skills as challenging, and needs improvements.

The lesson plans were also assessed by the teacher, and the scores of the first lesson plans were compared with the last ones during the final stage of the simulation. In addition to that, the

simulation was also scored. In order to analyze the impacts and to judge the improvement, the scores were compared between the first simulation and the last one (Table 5).

Table 5 The Assessment Results of the Lesson Plans and the Simulations

No	1 <sup>st</sup> Class	Lesson Plan		Simulation	
		Score Before practice (maximum score 4)	Score After practice	First simulation	Last simulation
1	Student 1	2.7	3.4	2.5	3.8
2	Student 2	2.9	3.2	2.7	3.9
3	Student 3	3.0	3.8	2.8	3.9
4	Student 4	3.1	3.8	3.0	3.8
5	Student 5	3.0	3.8	2.8	3.8
6	Student 6	2.9	3.2	3.0	3.8
7	Student 7	3.0	3.8	2.9	3.9
8	Student 8	3.0	3.8	3.0	3.8
9	Student 9	2.9	3.2	2.8	3.6
10	Student 10	2.8	3.2	2.6	3.6

11	Student 11	3.0	3.6	3.0	3.8
12	Student 12	3.2	3.6	2.9	3.6
13	Student 13	3.0	3.6	2.8	3.6
14	Student 14	3.0	3.6	2.9	3.8
15	Student 15	3.0	3.8	3.1	3.8
16	Student 16	2.8	3.2	2.8	3.6
17	Student 17	3.0	3.6	2.8	3.8
18	Student 18	3.2	3.6	3.0	3.8
19	Student 19	2.9	3.2	3.0	3.8
20	Student 20	3.0	3.8	2.8	3.6
21	Student 21	2.8	3.6	2.7	3.6
22	Student 22	3.0	3.8	2.8	3.6
23	Student 23	2.8	3.2	2.8	3.6
24	Student 24	3.0	3.8	2.8	3.8
25	Student 25	3.0	3.8	2.7	3.6
	Total	74	89		
	Average Score	2.96	3.56	2.85	3.7 3

Remarks:

0 = not capable

1= need improvement

2= sufficient

3= good

4= excellent

In order to analyze the difference between the two groups of scores, the data were analyzed inferentially using t-test. The summary of the t-test result is presented in Table 6.

Table 6 The Result of t-Test Analysis for the Quality of Lesson Plans

	Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig.
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 Before - After	-.60000	.20207	.04041	-.68341	-.51659	14.846	24	.000

The result of the analysis (Table 6) reveals that the significance value is 0.000 which is less than the value of 0.05. In other words there was a significant difference between the scores of the lesson plan at the beginning phase and the scores of the lesson plan used at the end of the simulation phase.

The scores reflecting the quality of the simulation were also analyzed inferentially using t-test. The analysis in Table 7 reveals that the significance value is 0.000. Because the significant value result was less than the value of 0.05, it indicated that there was significant



different between the scores at first simulation and the last simulation at the final phase which reflected that the students improved significantly after Microteaching course.

Table 7 The Result of t-Test for Simulation

	Paired Differences					T	Df	Sig.
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pair 1 First Simulation – Last Simulation	-.88400	.15990	.03198	-.95000	-.81800	-27.643	24	.000

The scores from holistic assessment were supported by the scores of analytical assessment (Table 8) which also performs improvement.

Table 8 The results of analytical scoring of the students’ simulation

No	Skill	Aspects of assessment	Score (0-4)	
			Average (Pre)	Average (Final)
1	Opening the session	Reviewing the previous lesson, building links with the topic, preparing	2.6	3.5

		students psychologically and academically.		
2	Mastering and explaining the material	Mastering and explaining the material well, relevant to the design, purpose, background and ability of the students.	2.8	3.6
3	Presenting and organizing/structuring the material	Clear structure with appropriate examples, appropriate material, easy to be understood.	2.6	3.2
4	Using variations of method and strategies	Using appropriate methods, relevant strategies, meaningful, various reinforcement/rewards, and creating enjoyable	2.5	3.5

		academic atmosphere.		
5	The skill of selecting and using media	Relevant and interesting media, appropriate and meaningful use, clarifying understanding and easy to be implemented.	3.0	3.8
6	The skill of managing classroom	Creating active, creative, effective and fun classroom.	2.6	3.2
7	The skill of guiding students	Providing relevant scaffolding, sufficient attention and alert to students' problems/difficulties, systematic and motivating.	3.0	3.4
8	The skill of concluding and assessing students	Appropriate and meaningful conclusion, appropriate assessment, relevant to the	2.8	3.4

		competency assessed.		
9	The skill of closing the lesson	Brief review, meaningful summary and follow up	3.0	3.8
	Total		24.9	31.1
	Average :		2.76	3.45

The results of the analysis show that all students improved in their skills of teaching. At the beginning stage, the average score was 2.76, after one semester with several practices of simulation, the average score improved into 3.45. Two skills such as presenting and organizing/structuring the material and the skills of managing classroom are not as high as the scores of other skills even though it improved significantly from the beginning.

## **Discussion**

The use of the instrument assessments in assessing the process of teaching Microteaching indicates that the assessments were conducted thoroughly and comprehensively. The assessments were well functioned as the assessments for learning, the assessment as learning and the assessment for learning. The assessments for learning were conducted every time each basic skill was practiced and the results were then analyzed further for improvement. For that reason, all of the instruments developed besides being used along the process of simulations, also function as formative tools which are highly needed to monitor and judge the students' progress on each basic teaching skill. Formative assessment is a potentially powerful instructional process because the practice of sharing assessment information that supports learning is embedded into the instructional process by design (Clark, 2012). Formative assessment gives teachers information about how well the student is doing (MCKay, 2006). High quality formative assessment certainly has a powerful impact on the student learning (Büyükkarci, 2014).

The instruments also include peer and self-assessment in order to give the chance for the students to make reflection and rate their own strength and competency. On this perspective, assessments functions as learning. The student teachers learned from peer's feedback, from discussion and through reflection from which students can ask questions and develop their critical

thinking. This is in line with Karami, Pakmehr, and Aghili (2010) who stated that cooperative group activities are effective in increasing critical thinking disposition of the students. The use of peer and self-assessment are expected to be able to stimulate self-regulated learning behaviour. This behaviour is highly needed in a foreign language learning. It was confirmed by Choi, Zhang, Lin, and Zhang (2018) who describes that a foreign language learner need to be more self-regulated than learners in a second language context where sufficient input and opportunities for procedure use of the target language are present.

The inclusion of peer and self-assessments are purposely designed because it was rarely implemented in the classroom. It is in line with Tiknas and Sutton (2006) who found out that peer discussion were extremely rare (once or twice year). In this study, more chances were given and provided for sharing feedback and for peer assessments, so it is expected that students would be trained on how reflection for improvement would be carried out in their teaching learning process.

Assessments at the final stage of the microteaching course were utilized as assessments of learning in order to judge the achievement of the students. The results of the assessments showed consistent progress and significant improvements for all students. The improvements of the students' achievement reconfirmed the previous studies (Ralph, 2014; Fernandez and Robinson, 2006; Kilic, 2010; Ismail, 2011; Donnelly & Fitzmaurice, 2011, Anthonia, 2014, Astika, 2014).

The instruments developed not only assess the competency needed, but also the inclusion of character values and learning skills of collaboration, communication, creativity and critical thinking of the 21<sup>st</sup> century (Trilling and Fadel, 2009). The inclusion had to be planned, for that reason they must be included in the lesson plan. The student teachers had to follow the criteria as stated in the instruments for self-assessment. As it can be seen from the assessments during the planning sessions, those aspects had been included in the instruments. The aspects of assessment actually aimed at leading students to be self-directed. By following every points of assessment, the students are guided on how to learn and be self-directed. The instruments guide the student teachers about lesson planning, and how they search resources needed for developing materials for their teaching. In other words, the instruments can function as guidelines of what to do during the planning. With these instruments, Microteaching can provide the students not only with practical experiences but also the knowledge of lesson planning. This is in line with Bell (2007) who states that microteaching is 'to teach a lesson to the peers in order to gain experience with lesson planning and delivery. The results of the implementation indicate that the students find the instruments very useful because they are guided on what to do during the planning and preparation. The students also admitted that their skills of teaching and character improved. Not only students perceived the

instruments as very meaningful, the lecturers also declare that the instruments assist them to be able to carry out their job perfectly.

The second category of assessment instruments is the instruments needed for assessing the simulation/practice of using each individual basic skill in Microteaching. There are 8 classifications of basic skills to be practiced and assessed. For that reason, the assessment instruments designed and used in this study are the instruments used for assessing the eight basic skills. These basic skills of Microteaching are basically skills which are individually focused to be practiced in the form of simulation in the context of real teaching situation in a small group of 8-10 students. The basic skills practiced are in line with other studies conducted by other researchers. Shah & Masrur (2011) reveal 8 skills to be practiced in Microteaching. Other study by Remesh (2013) also applied 8 core skills in clinical teaching. However, the present study gave emphasis more on the aspects to be assessed and analyzed the improvements.

Among the eight basic skills of teaching, assessment instruments for explaining skills were more than the instruments of the other skills which include instrument for explaining skill, self-assessment, peer assessment and self-assessment for improving the explaining skills (see Table 2). This is underlined by the reason that the Microteaching class is for English Education Department students who use English as a foreign language, where the competency of explaining and giving information in the target language is crucially important and influence the clarity of the information expressed which determine students' understanding. This is in line with Hartono (2016) who reveals that English teachers are not only required to master the content of the subject, but they are also needed to have communicative competence in English to handle classroom discourse and interaction with students.

Besides functioning as judging the students' competency in explaining the lesson and giving information, the assessment was also provided with self-assessment on explaining skill which aimed at reflection on how explanation is given to students. Self-assessment for improving the explaining skill is required in order to identify how the student teachers improve the explaining skill using English as the target language, while peer assessment is needed in order peer can provide feedback for their classmates at the same time learn from peer. The use of self and peer assessment in addition to assessment of explaining skills make the process of Microteaching 'forced' student teachers to commit themselves in improving their English as the language of instruction in the practice of Microteaching, as a result not only improving the teaching skills but also their English competency.

Hascher, Conrad, and Maser (2004), state that teaching practice assists student teachers to acquire professional knowledge, and form their perceptions as classroom teachers. During the practice of each individual micro skill in simulation phase, the simulations were conducted in cycle which started from planning, teaching, giving feedback and re-planning or re-teaching. During the practice, sufficient information and feedback were collected on how improvements can be established. For that reason, instruments are importantly very useful and beneficial for assessing the progress along the process of practices needed for reflection.

The skill of opening the lesson was generally performed well by the student teachers. They frequently introduced the key concepts by providing students with videos or educational games to stimulate the curiosity of the students. The skill improved well because they were able to make the class atmosphere alive and arouse students' curiosity.

The explaining skill also improved. The skill of explaining the lesson can be used as a way of creating an atmosphere of speaking and learning the target language. Pitoy (2012) reveals that comprehending the detail of the information is the key to be able to share it. If the information provided is not understood, its contents will not also be easy to be shared to others, and consequently it is not easy to be understood. For that reason, this skill needs sufficient proficiency level of English. Proficiency in the language a person has to communicate is dependent on the level of information he has accumulated as a result of his level of exposure (Scarcella and Oxford, 1992). The skill on the language and their proficiency in using it is very crucial in the explaining skill.

One of challenging skills experienced by the student teachers was how to make students focused and on-task. It is supported by Chen (2016) who reveals that motivating students to learn English and to persist in learning remain a challenge for all teachers. If language learner engaged themselves in a task with concentrated, meaningful and purposeful effort, their continuous exposure to language in that task help them learned or acquire the language (Pitoy, 2012). The most serious problem for new teachers is classroom management which affects student learning (Clement (2010) as quoted by Mahmud and Rawshon (2013). This was also experienced by the student teachers during the simulation because there were several students who manage the classroom monotonously. The challenge was when they were required to direct students and stimulate them to develop their critical thinking. Most of them used basic questioning strategy and rarely exercising the advanced level type of questions. Questioning skill is another important skill to be practiced (Shah and Masrur, 2011; Remesh , 2013; Ghofar et.al, 2012; Soban and Çoklar, 2013). Despite the challenge they have, the student teachers show impressive strategy to use

rewards. They created innovative and fun stickers as rewards. Research suggests that the use of rewards can either encourage motivation or diminish motivation depending on the type of rewards and the context in which they are given (Lai, 2011).

The improving skills performed by the student teachers are because of the feedbacks, reflections and discussion conducted along the process. Reflection is very highly important for the improvement of the quality of teaching (Ratminingsih, Artini, and Padmadewi, 2017). Besides feedback from the supervisor, reflections also came from students themselves, peer or classmates. The self-reflection allows students to understand the areas of weaknesses and strength they have, also to explore self-knowledge and skills. Reflective skills have been related to self-knowledge and self-regulation (Zimmerman, 2002). Reflection can lead students to explore new experiences. Reflection has functioned as a key element for new understanding (Boud, Keogh & Walker, 1985). This experience can be a kind of scaffolding for students on how to learn, and how to improve their skills and understanding about teaching. With this kind of practices and experiences, the student teachers are not viewed as knowledge transmitters and skill models anymore, but as facilitators in the process of learning and creating a learning conducive environment. Microteaching experience was beneficial for pre-service teachers because they collaborated, discussed and shared experiences to each other (Fernandez and Robinson (2006). Not only that, this kind of exercise and experience also stimulates the students' characters like being critical, responsible, respecting others' opinions, and other character values to naturally grow and develop along the process and gain its improved maturity.

The comprehensiveness of the assessments, and the inclusion of more assessment instruments for explaining skill make the instruments resulted from this research can be of valuable assistance, has global relevance for lecturers of Microteaching in English Education Departments not only in Asian context, but also in other countries where English as the target language to be taught at school.

Despite its importance and valuable results, the practicality of the instrument usage is not taken into a focus in this research yet. For that reason further research is recommended to be conducted in order to analyze and investigate the practicality of the assessment instruments.

## **Conclusion**

The instruments developed in this study emphasizes the aspects to be assessed in each basic skill of teaching which lead the Microteaching lecturers put emphasis on the assessment towards the process as well as the products of learning, which both function as assessments of learning,



and also as assessment for learning. For students, the process of the assessments are emphasized on assessment as learning by leading the students to do regular reflections, peer and self-assessment, and to learn about themselves as teacher candidates. The purpose is to lead the students to do reflections about themselves and give them the chance to assess and learn from their peers. This trains students to understand the scope of expectation of the lecturers on the competency and skills established from the students, and lead them to understand the skills of how to learn. The inclusion of character values are by design which aims at leading students to form characters from which a qualified teacher candidates can be built. The implementations of the instrument assessments improve the teaching skills of the student teachers significantly and also build their characters.

### **Acknowledgement**

The authors of the study would like to express their gratitude to the English Education Departments of all universities in Bali for the support provided during the data collection. High appreciation is also forwarded to the Ministries of Research, Technology and Higher Education, Republic of Indonesia for grant given to carry out this research

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## **Verbal English Fluency, Workplace Stress, and Coping Mechanism of Secondary School Faculty in Sulu**

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### **Abstract**

Anchored on Cummings and Cooper's (1998) system's theory, Dollard (2001) Cox, Griffiths and Real-Gonzalez's (2000) models of work stress and coping mechanism, this study theorized the dominant factors: *job security, institution, supervisory, school work, personal, home, and community* affecting the 300 secondary school teachers of Sulu, Mindanao, Philippines significantly. Employing standard Verbal English fluency used in cognitive psychology to ensure equal language proficiency, ascertained that participants were comparable in their comprehension ability while they read and accomplish the survey instruments written in English. Out of the survey checklist administered, this study determined the said dominant factors affecting their work stress level and their coping mechanism. This study hypothesized a positive correlation between work stress level and coping mechanism components. Consistent with this hypothesis, the work stress level of secondary school teachers moderately correlate with a coping mechanism.

Keywords: Work stress, coping mechanism, English verbal fluency, secondary school teaching

### **Introduction**

Closer to home, in Sulu Province, it is a common knowledge that some of the factors that trigger stress in the workplace among the public and private secondary school faculty are elusive peace and order condition, delayed salary, distance of workplace to mention a few.

Moreover, their nature of work apart from doing the routinary classroom instruction are attending seminars—even during vacation, officiating elections—whether national or local, Parents Teachers Community Association (PTCA) meetings and making school annual reports, and recently the full implementation of K-12 curriculum. Secondary school faculty is a highly stressful occupation at all levels. Likewise, in the secondary sector, stress is widespread and

sometimes severe. The effects of stress are well-documented and include negative emotional, cognitive, physiological, and behavioral symptoms, which have a serious impact on the individual, their work, their personal lives, and even their families.

Every secondary faculty should be aware of his/her stress level in his/her every day dealing with students and those around him or her. If a school administrator is seeking only to improve productivity but fail to monitor the workplace stress that is destroying the entire system or institution, then he is driving the faculty-employees into depression and even to a severe nervous breakdown, which can be considered as a great miss in the managerial world.

Workplace stress refers to an event or to an environment that causes the person to be tensed, depressed and tired also viewed as the reaction of the body to demand or damaging instruction while coping mechanism is the process by which an individual attempts to alleviate, or remove stress or threat. This process may consist of large array of acts and commission as implemented.

Theoretically, when one actively works out to manage his own stress, the more skillful he becomes, the greater the sense of mastery he will acquire. Workplace stress is a serious health and safety hazard that can have devastating effects. Stress can lead to psychosocial illnesses, such as anxiety and depression. While it is true that there are sources of stress other than the workplace, this does not mean however that workplace stress is not a hazard or that it is the product of a worker's imagination. Faculty members know that the changing nature of work has increased workplace stress hazards. Reorganization, layoffs, job insecurity, accelerated paces of work, along with many physical work hazards can all contribute to stress. Virtually, these causes of stress are all firmly rooted in the workplace.

This current research is focused on workplace stress – stress that is caused by and comes from the workplace. The word stress is used with the phrase workplace stress almost interchangeably, but it is used mostly as a more general term. Stress is closely related to control. Workplaces have changed, resulting in less control for members to direct their work. Less or low control over job tasks is associated with high stress levels. This research outlines the scope of the stress problem as it affects faculty members, assessing the issue, the causes, who are affected, as well as the corresponding hazards. It points members towards actions that can be taken, specifically outlining how to identify stress hazards, where solutions lie, and what strategies can deliver real and authentic change.

### **Literature review**

According to Dollard (2001), a range of theoretical approaches which seek to explain workplace stress - in terms of stimulus-response combinations, sociological or psychological paradigms, or

emphasis on factors in the environment or in the individual as the source of stress. The most current theory is psychologically-based and conceptualizes workplace-related stress in terms of a negative psychological state, and the dynamic interaction between the faculty and their work environment Cox, Griffiths and Real-Gonzalez (2000).

Dollard (2001) pointed out two psychological theories of workplace stress: interactional and transactional approaches respectively. Interactional models emphasize the work environment and an individual's interactions with it as the source of stress: burnout, for example, a state of emotional, physical and attitudinal exhaustion. Kyriacou (2001) is a model frequently used to analyze stress in social service such as teaching occupations.

Whitehead, Ryba and O'Driscoll's (2000) job-person fit is another interactional model, which attributes stress to a mismatch between work and the individual's needs, goals, aspirations, and values. Another example is the demand control/support model, which suggests that stress, is caused by the demands of work, moderated by the level of control and support which the person has in their teaching job.

Kenny and Cooper's (2003) theories are not mutually exclusive; they differ in emphasis on whether the locus of stress lies primarily in the individual's perceptions (transactional), or in the work environment and the individual's interactions with it interactional. This key difference is highlighted referring to two competing: Conceptualizations of workplace stress – stress as personal trouble, in other words originating in the individual's attitudes, abilities, personality, and so on; or stress as public trouble, caused by the work environment and therefore a matter of public responsibility. The differences between them are crucial in the development of workplace interventions.

Wainwright and Calnan (2002) on the other hand, challenge the contemporary conceptualizations of workplace stress, and argue that the current discourse is based on selective interpretation of the empirical evidence, much of which is itself based on questionable presuppositions; and that it represents a reframing of the historical antagonism between worker and employer, in terms of the ability or inability of the individual to withstand the excessive demands of work. This, they argue, merely maintains the status quo and undermines the individual's sense of agency, rather than encouraging the development of more emancipatory modes of interpretation and opposition.

Most published research into faculty stress since the 1980s has consisted of large-scale surveys, using questionnaire inventories and employing quantitative analysis. A sustained criticism of the literature is made by Guglielmi and Tatrow (1998) regarding review of research



into faculty stress and burnout. They discuss a range of methodological issues, including the importance of moderating variables, which they believe to have been substantially overlooked; the problems inherent in the cross-sectional design used in almost all the empirical research in this field; and the lack of consensus about conceptualizations of stress and of uniform measures of stress.

Professional satisfaction, a sense of achievement and of one's work being of value, is distinguished here from job satisfaction, which is a wider concept encompassing all aspects of work. Professional satisfaction has not generally been identified as a moderating factor in the theoretical literature, which has tended to focus on job dissatisfaction as a correlate of occupational stress; but it has received some attention in the research on faculty stress at all levels, because of its unique relationship to teaching.

Farber (1999) also notes that it is the student-faculty relationship that offers the greatest opportunity for stress as well as the greatest opportunity for reward and gratification. Kinman (2001) suggested in the secondary sector that contact with students may protect faculty from stress; she notes that professionals can find some aspects of their work intrinsically satisfying, despite high levels of stress and dissatisfaction with other extrinsic aspects, for example, workload and pay. Thus, coping strategies adopted to deal with workplace stress are generally classified in the research literature as problem-focused or emotion-focused (Greenglass, 2002)—that is, aimed at managing the source of the stress, or the individual's response to it. Edwards (1992) describes four coping mechanisms: changing the situation, changing one's expectations, making the problem less important to one's well-being, and enhancing one's well-being.

Moreover, Walsh (1998) also mentions the importance of preventive coping – that is, taking steps to minimize the impact of anticipated stress. Hence, categories proposed by Kyriacou (1998-2001) for coping with faculty stress are what he refers to as direct-action and palliative techniques; he further classifies palliative techniques as either mental or physical. Direct-action techniques address the problem by means such as changing the situation, acquiring new skills, or consulting colleagues; mental palliative techniques aim to change how the individual appraises the situation and physical palliative techniques to help the individual relax.

Further, the study of Russel, Altmaier and Van Velzen (1987) showed that faculty characteristics such as age, sex, and secondary level taught were predictive of burnout. They also found that the number of stressful events experienced, social support and positive feedback were correlated to faculty burnout. Gamsjager and Buschmann (1999) demonstrated that married faculty was less vulnerable to burnout than divorced ones. Schmitz (1999) showed that unrealistic

aspirations were related to burnout while enthusiasm, involvement, commitment, identification with the job, career expectations and other variables had no significance for burnout. Neuenschwander (2003) found that variance in burnout could be explained by scholastic stress and attitude towards the school, but only minimally by extra-scholastic social resources and faculty age.

Moreover, Schmitz (2000) examined a total of 851 German faculty and they were divided into groups and were examined by age, gender, number of years in the profession, and whether native or foreign-born. Relationships between personal resources, faculty idealism, dimensions of subjective professional strain, and stress appraisals with the development of faculty burnout were investigated and categorized. The results support the expected protective function of self-efficacy beliefs within the burnout process.

Browsers, Evers & Tomic (2000, 2001, 2004, 2005) in their studies showed that: faculty perceived lack of support from colleagues and school administrator had a significant effect on their self-efficacy beliefs in eliciting support from them, while these self-efficacy beliefs were shown to predict their level of burnout. The hypothesized feedback loop was also confirmed: Faculty level of burnout predicted the extent to which they feel lack of support. Findings also demonstrate that equity sensitivity has a significant though small moderating effect on the relationship between perceived self-efficacy and two dimensions of burnout, i.e. emotional exhaustion and personal accomplishment. The role of self-efficacy for burnout is difficult to catch, as reduced personal accomplishment (i.e. self-efficacy) is part of the burnout definition. On the other hand, changes in self-efficacy might be early signs of burnout development.

Coping mechanism for employees for preventive purposes, many programs and strategies can be of great assistance to the workforce. Management can do a lot along this line. The assumption is that: the creation and maintenance of a healthy psychological climate are possible through objective, transparent and humane treatment of employees by their supervisors who are their front line managers. What the supervisors are, so is the organization. It is prevalent in the minds of the workers who do not have direct stressors for the rank and file and make the latter's work life miserable. Open door policy, effective communication and leadership, objective performance evaluation, and the like—all these can create and sustain a healthy psychological climate, Atkinson (1994).

Furthermore, sound financial management can provide funds for updated technology, better and more facilities. Effective job evaluation precludes low pay and pays inequity. If nobody in the staff can lift the organization from this quagmire, a qualified consultant on these areas can

be hired to assist management. He can also give tips on how to maintain a safe, clean, secure and healthy workplace. Short training programs can be put up to help the financial manager and administrative officer to ensure the maintenance of these important amenities.

Psychological stress is one of the most pervasive phenomena of the present time. It affects people from all walks of life as Rowshan (1994) pointed out that stress is not a modern problem, but life experience as old as human species. Stress can be a tool of life laid in a workshop with the mastery of the process that every individual is a master of his stresses.

The theory that is espoused in this study is the system's approach. According to Cummings and Cooper (1998) from the system's theory, we see the cyclical relationship between stress and job performance. In essence, they are directly proportional to each other. Consequently, when a faculty is under stress, his efficiency and effectiveness in teaching will diminish. However, if the faculty can handle stress or he possesses a very good coping mechanism, then the faculty can maintain his efficiency and effectiveness with his work amidst stressful conditions.

Greenglass and Burke (2003) illustrated the secondary school faculty of acceptance of authority, as the child accepts the authority of his parents, acceptance of authority in society in based in customs and traditions of the institution, nothing but a series of logical exercises in decision making, the only teaching occupations which is accurate, quantifiable, describable and controllable. To settle stressful situation secondary school faculty runs on the wheels of change and stand on the issue which is not a sign of weakness, but we are the person managing our behavior. That one must learn with mastery to flow with the stressors in his daily task and learn to detect the warnings of stress within his midst, and his personal limit. Use his energy only in productive way. It further contends that decision making, the only teaching occupations which is accurate, quantifiable describable and controllable.

Theories of work stress have been categorized by as either Interactional or Transactional. Interactional theories of stress focus on the structural features of the person's interaction with their work environment. Transactional theories of stress focus on the person's emotional reactions and cognitive processes related to their environment Cox, Griffiths, & Rial-Gonzalez (2000).

Given that there are relatively few local research studies that investigated work-stress level and coping mechanism, particularly in the context of secondary schools in Sulu, Mindanao Philippines, the present study aims to probe workplace stress and coping mechanism in the light of the following research variables: job security, institution, , supervisory, school work, personal, home, and community—being the essential factors in the workplace stress and coping

mechanism of secondary school faculty in Sulu. Previous local research may have employed small samples in the workplace. The present study involved a wide-scale survey of secondary schools. The parameter of this study centered on the learning institutions located in Sulu. 300 selected secondary school faculty members from both public and private schools served as respondents of this study. Of these three hundred, 150 faculty-respondents were drawn from public school, and 150 faculty-respondents were drawn from private schools.

### **Target English language**

One methodological contribution this study may have achieved was the inclusion of evaluating the English proficiency level of the participants before the administration of these psychological instruments. The English language has become indispensable in all professions including teaching (Casil-Batang & Temporal, 2018). Though the respondents were teachers, they were second, third or fourth language speakers of the English language. This varying regional linguistic constructs may result in varying comprehension levels when the participants were processing the textual survey instruments. Being monolingual, bilingual, and trilinguals are three different language representations that are considered distinct on how they process linguistic and non-linguistic tests (Madrazo & Bernardo, 2012, 2018). It was necessary to ensure that the participants had an equal level of English proficiency in order to ascertain they comprehend the textual instruments written in English.

The English language used in the study is based on American English that is of Germanic language family descent (ethnologue.com). English has long been used in the Philippine educational system since the 1900s. English was first implemented as the medium of instruction when US President William McKinley issued a letter of instruction to the Philippine Commission on April 1, 1900 (Bernardo, 2004). Since then, English has been used as a medium of instruction for all content learning areas. However, when the BPE was implemented in 1974, Pilipino and English became the media of instruction in elementary and high school. The subjects were divided into the English domain (English communication arts, mathematics, science) and Pilipino domain (Pilipino communication arts, social studies, history).

In 1987, BPE was recast under the Department of Education Culture and Sports. The role of Filipino was emphasized to be the language of literacy and scholarly discourse while English was narrowly defined as the international language and the non-exclusive language of science and technology. It also mandated higher education schools to spearhead in ‘intellectualizing’ Filipino (Bernardo, 2004). To date, however, English is still dominating the Philippine educational system,

being the medium of instruction for the major content learning areas from pre-school, primary, secondary and tertiary levels.

### **Problem statement**

This study attempted to determine the workplace stress and coping mechanism of selected public and private secondary school faculty in Sulu.

Specifically, this inquiry purported to answer the following sub-problems:

1. What is the English verbal fluency of the secondary teachers in Sulu?
2. What is the extent of occurrence of the workplace stress and coping mechanism of selected public and private secondary school faculty in Sulu, in terms of: job security, institution, supervisory, school work, personal, home; and community?
3. Is there a correlation between the workplace stress and coping mechanism as responded by the selected public and private secondary school faculty?

### **Hypothesis**

This study hypothesized that there is a correlation between the workplace stress and coping mechanism as responded by the selected public and private secondary school faculty.

### **Significance of the Study**

The findings of this study will help the secondary school faculty to cope with various supervisory stressful situations in global educational competitiveness. This research may help in one way or the other aid the governing board of each school in searching the modern teaching strategies to help secondary school faculty in the academe in the distressed areas with the coping technique models that will suit to the demand of time that this study aimed to produce. The secondary school faculty needs prodding and engages in modern tools of instruction, undergo further training and study for more modern teaching strategies that will suit to effective teaching in the millennium. Results of this study will make faculty of public and private secondary schools more progressive in handling stressful situations and eventually become effective and efficient in their work.

### **Methodology**

#### **Research design**

This study utilized the descriptive survey method. This method was preferred for this kind of study because it deals more of fact-finding with adequate interpretation. The descriptive survey method

was used in this study. This is an appropriate method because it aims to determine the present phenomena in the light of existing strategies that was used.

### **The research locale**

The research locale of the study is the entire Province of Sulu. From among the public and private secondary schools faculty in Sulu, only 300 faculty members are considered as the respondents of the study. There were a total of Twelve (12) Secondary Schools. Six (6) of these schools were located in the town of Jolo, while the other Six (6) were located in other municipalities.

### **Data gathering procedure**

The researcher of this study, prior to the distribution of the questionnaire-checklist sought the permission of the Graduate Studies Dean and the Superintendent of Department of Education and also different Secondary Principals both Public and Private Institution in Sulu respectively. After which the researcher administered the questionnaires to the faculty who were selected as the respondents. The researcher asked the assistance of the Secondary School Principals to facilitate in the distribution of the questionnaire to the faculty. The researcher made sure that all faculty-respondents have duly filled-in the questionnaire, leaving no item/s blank in the instrument. This was done during school days when they are around and retrieval of the researcher instrument was immediately done.

The Approval Sheet can be seen on Appendix G and X on pages 148 to 165.

### **Sampling design**

The research study had passed through a two stage-process. First, the selection of secondary schools by using purposive sampling. Then the respondents were selected from there selected school by using Total Enumeration.

The sampling design that was used in this study is purposive sampling. This is the most appropriate design for this study. The purposive sampling was used primarily because the target respondents are the secondary school in the province of Sulu.

### **Research Instruments**

*English verbal fluency tests*

*Picture naming task*

This task was an adaptation of the Boston naming test (Kaplan et al., 1983; Bialystok et al., 2008; Madraza & Bernardo, 2012; Xie, 2018). The original Boston naming task consisted of 60 line

drawings of objects that participants were asked to name. The maximum time spent was less than 1 min. Participants decided when they did not know an answer and the next Powerpoint slide was shown. Scores were the total number of correct answers out of 60 for each of the pictures. Thus, the total for the task is a score out of 60. Only accuracy scores were computed.

#### *Category naming task*

Participants were given a category (i.e., animal or parts of the body) in English. Different category was given for each language. Only one category was required for each language and they were given the option of what language came first. They were told to say as many words as they could for the given category within a minute for each language. The experimenter timed the task with a stopwatch and recorded all the words that were produced. Scores were the total number of unique items, excluding repetitions, produced within the 1 minute allowed for each condition (Milner, 1964; Bialystok et al., 2008; Madrazo & Bernardo, 2012; Xie, 2018). The highest score obtained was considered to be the possible total number of items. Percentage was computed by the score obtained divided by the highest possible score.

#### *Work stress survey checklist*

The questionnaire-checklist was patterned from the ideas of Winifred L. Rico, in her study (2006); the book of Maraya De Jesus Chevat (1985:123-126); from the internet survey periodicals, 1999; and Workplace Stress by Alan A. Mclean, M.D., (1992:67, 125-132); as modified by the researcher. The questionnaire-checklist was taken from the different authorities to enable the researcher in formulating justifiable workplace stress and its corresponding mechanism - - where the individual respondent responds to a series of statements by indicating the extent of agreement. This kind of research which consist typically a series of written questions classified according to the sub-problems raised in this study. Some of the items were improved, rephrase for its suitability and adaptability to the present study.

The questionnaire consists of four (4) Parts.

Part I – Consists of:

A. Demographic Profile of Respondent;

A.1. Name;

A.4. School;

A.2. Gender;

A.5. Name of School; and

A.3. Age;

A.6. Community.

Part II – Consists of:

B. Workplace Stress – It is expressed in terms of:

- B.1. Job Security;
- B.2. Institution;
- B.3. Supervisory;
- B.4. School Work;
- B.5. Personal;
- B.6. Home; and
- B.7. Community.

Part III – Consists of:

C. Coping Mechanism – It is expressed in terms of:

- C.1. Job Security;
- C.2. Institution;
- C.3. Supervisory;
- C.4. School Work;
- C.5. Personal;
- C.6. Home; and
- C.7. Community.

Part IV – Is on the job performance of secondary faculty, who are prone to stress in performing their daily task, consist of 10 items, these are:

1. Made a plan of action to provide organizational flexibility;
2. Assisted the students in making improvised learning devices;
3. Instituted appropriate adjustment to meet the needs of the students;
4. Solicited the participation of teachers relative to budget allocation in terms of classroom activities;
5. Established a working relationship full of cooperation;
6. Motivated students to accomplish the assigned tasks in achieving the Goals;
7. Resolved school problems without affecting emotions;
8. Prepared plans according to priorities for implementation;
9. Established decision-making procedure in an objective manner; and
10. Managed conflict by utilizing effective measures of resolving it.

#### Validation of the instrument

The research instrument was submitted to the three-man experts on the subject under study. They were professors of higher institution and supervisor on basic education.

To ensure the validity of the instruments, it was presented to the experts in the person of Dr. Abdurahim Tahil, Dr. Madeline A. Tan; and Dr. Nagder J. Abdurahman, for face validation. Their suggestions for revision or removal of the questionnaires were strictly followed. One hundred (110) questions turned to one hundred one (101) valid questions.



They were all requested to rate and pass judgment on all the items in the research questionnaire along with the following scale:

- |                    |                     |
|--------------------|---------------------|
| 1 – Undecided;     | 3 – Important; and  |
| 2 – Not important; | 4 – Very Important. |

There was only one questionnaire-checklist intended for the faculty of secondary schools. Rating was analyzed through Friedman ANOVA (SPSS version 14.0). The results showed no significant difference in the rating of raters who generally rated the items as “Very Important” and it was valid for use in the study.

To further determine the reliability of the instrument, a pilot test was conducted in Talipao National High School, one of the secondary schools in Sulu which was not included in the study. The purpose of which was to check the responses from the questionnaire.

Finally, it was reviewed and revised by the critics. Their suggestions for revision and removal of the items in the questionnaires were strictly followed.

### **Statistical Treatment**

In the process of contextualizing or manner of arranging and analyzing the primary empirical data generated in this study, the frequency count and simple percentage distribution were employed.

To gauge the respondents’ response the five (5) points Likert Scale was used to determine the trend and weighted mean to generalize the result of responses.

Scaling. This was done by means of measuring the degree of responses as it is indicated.

### **For the Workplace Stress the following is presented:**

Ranking of the different responses of the respondents was also indicated to determine the position of the responses for every item. For the validation of hypotheses, the Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used.

## **Results and discussion**

### **Verbal English fluency**

The participants’ verbal English fluency in picture naming (  $M=87.9\%$ ,  $SD 5.34$ ) and category naming tasks ( $M= 85.68$ ,  $SD= 7.45$ ) was *very proficient*. This means that the participants were highly comparable in their English proficiency. Since these standard tasks have been used in cognitive psychology as background measures to test comparability before the administration of psychological tests, data on their equal level of English proficiency proves that all 300

participants were qualified to be administered these psychological instruments that measure work stress level and coping mechanism.

### **The extent of occurrence of workplace stress and coping mechanism**

#### **Workplace stressors of secondary school faculty on job security**

The job is a problem that every secondary school faculty used to experience the line of teaching. The highest mean obtained in job security is 3.82, interpreted as frequently occurred, is posted in item 1 ( *tends to rely and confident on personal judgment*), and the lowest mean of 3.33, interpreted as moderately occurred is posted in item 2 ( *shows to be defensive on the comments and reactions on fiscal management*). The rest of two items which yielded a weighted mean of 3.39 and 3.34 respectively had occurred moderately among the faculty respondents. As regards group weighted mean, it yielded a mean value of 3.47. This means that from the viewpoints of the faculty respondents, the extent of occurrence on the workplace stress in terms of job security has moderately occurred.

In the level of theory, the findings validate the construct of Jex and Beehr (1991) which maintained that: every secondary school faculty has his responsibilities, but some people often disguised as losers. Therefore, secondary school faculty must not always rely on personal judgment and underestimate others, they must not be too judgmental and self-conceited. As illustrated further by McLean (1992), making explicit decisions the secondary school faculty should be able to bring the potential barriers to the organizational functions more fully into open dialogue. In due credit to Dale as Cited by Miranda and Miranda (1996), secondary school faculty must be realistic decision maker, who are rational, fair-minded and always imbued with a high sense of justice. They are receptive to ideas, who always give credits to the concerned, and who do not sacrifice human factors.

All ill-timed decision making is always unproductive of good results, it could boomerang against the decision maker and affect the entire system.

#### *Workplace stressors of secondary school faculty on institution*

An Institution serves as a tool for effective teaching. It is a basic human activity that allows an individual to cooperate and work cooperatively to achieve the mission and vision of public and private secondary schools. As regards institution, the highest mean obtained was 3.80, interpreted as frequently occurred, is posted in item 1 (*which is agrees privately among themselves that the school administrator should face to a distressing situation*), and the lowest mean garnered was 3.12, interpreted as moderately occurred is posted in item 3 (*employees 'involvement in decision*

*making which directly and indirectly affect them in their job*). The rest of the two items yielded a weighted mean of 3.15 and 3.14 respectively had occurred moderately among the faculty respondents.

By looking at the group weighted mean of the four items in Table 3, which fall within the scaling point of 3.30 indicates that from the viewpoints of the faculty respondents, the extent of occurrence on the workplace stress among faculty members of public and private secondary schools in terms of the institution, was moderately occurred.

In the words of Jex and Beehr (1991), within the institution, people usually assist others in reaching their full potential. This is known as the process of “mentorship” or “apprenticeship”. In this manner, secondary school faculty must be open for feedbacks that will make him pretty good teacher.

Moreover, school activities, it may either co-curricular or extra curricular are everybody’s concern. Macario Naval and Gaudencio V. Aquino, as cited by Leveriza (1993) proposed a conventional theory that it is a responsibility of management to recognize and develop the individual’s potential for the development, his capacity for assuming responsibility, his readiness to direct behavior toward organizational goals, delegation of power and giving freedom to secondary school faculty and employees, to manage and direct their own activities and assume responsibility in satisfying their respective egoistic needs.

The aforesaid point had been reinforced by Thomas D. Andres (1992) who suggested that : discipline should not rob the secondary school faculty and employees of their dignity.

As Benigno Aldana (1990) aptly puts it: school administrators must not be gunnysacks, storing all poor misbehavior resulting to the secondary school faculty yelling at each other which in turn, will snowball into leaving alone zap management.

Accordingly, the sole purpose of the school administrator is not to persecute the faculty and employees but to eliminate the unbecoming behavior, nevertheless, preserve the worth of the person. Never give reprimand that is all based on hearsays only.

Finally, the school administrator must encourage new ideas and initiative among the secondary school faculty and employees. In doing so, proper channel of communication, must be put in place to avoid the communication loop that is fruitless and very destructive to the system. A school administrator must learn to reframe as an anthropologist Gregory Baterson as cited by Chevat (1985) from engaging in unhelpful communication for the benefit of both parties.

### **Workplace stressors of secondary school faculty on supervisory**

Workplace stress of secondary school faculty on supervisory as of classroom management. In terms of the supervisory component, the highest mean obtained was 4.23, interpreted as frequently occurred, is posted in item 4 (*which is always aims for excellence*), and the lowest mean of 3.00, interpreted as moderately occurred is posted in item 2 (*checks tardiness of students in coming to class*). The rest of the two items garnered a weighted mean of 4.19, and 3.65 had occurred frequently among the faculty respondents. Further, the group weighted mean obtained in the four items fell within the scaling point of 3.77. This means that from the perception of the faculty respondents, the extent of occurrence on the workplace stress among the faculty members of public and private secondary schools in terms of supervisory was frequently occurred.

School Administrator manages and supervises institutional personnel and Faculty. According to supervisory experts, faculty must be supervised with respect and decency, always favor general supervision that always results in higher productivity. Secondary school faculty feels ill and as if in prison cell if closely watch, for it is innate for a man to be free.

Jose P. Leveriza (1993) suggested that school administrator adapt persuasive means, not the brute force; because secondary school faculty has different experiences and training experiences in the context of management. According to Greeglass and Burke (2003), secondary school faculty should always be considered as an individual within an institution, Winifield Dollar as cited by Greeglass and Burke, explained that secondary school faculty could only be effective when students are also effective, because there can be no faculty if there are no students.

Secondary school faculty must clarify first their feelings before getting into emotional. They must learn to practice the art of listening to oneself, to synchronize the ears, the eyes and the heart with the mind, endowed with empathy to achieve harmonious relationship in the institutional organization.

### **Workplace stressors of secondary school faculty on school work**

School Work Stressors happen in the job while performing school activities. Indeed, workplace stresses are common phenomena that we tend to accept as part and necessary frustration in our daily living. As regards school work component, the highest mean obtained was 4.19, interpreted as frequently occurred, is posted in item 4 (*which is spends almost all of the time thinking about work in school*), and the lowest mean obtained was 3.17, interpreted as moderately occurred is posted in item 6 (*feels difficulty in meeting with supervisory job*). The rest of three items which manifested a weighted mean of 4.01, 3.91, and 3.78 had occurred frequently among the faculty

respondents. On the other hand item number-1 which yielded a weighted mean of 3.19 respectively had occurred moderately among the respondents. Additionally, the group weighted mean of the six items fell under the scaling point of 3.71. This means that from the description of the faculty respondents the extent of occurrence on the workplace stress among the faculty members of public and private secondary schools in terms of school work, was frequently occurred.

Effective secondary school faculty must keep the educative function of discipline, which is consistency and fairness. Rules and regulations must be published in an understandable language. Gibson, cited by Andres (1992) illustrated that ignorance of the law excuses no one – but – ignorance of the rules and regulations could be a good excuse if the employer fails to publicize them. In disciplining employees personal issues must be set aside. Gregorio (1990) contended that inconsistent institutional policies and rules always lead to confusion and chaos in an institution.

#### **Workplace stressors of secondary school faculty on personal**

Personal stressors of public and private secondary school faculty are experienced on the day to day encounter of executives in doing their job. With regard to component personal, the highest mean obtained was 3.51, interpreted as frequently occurred, was posted in item 1 (*which is experiences burned out, stressed out, rundown and tiredness*), and the lowest mean obtained was 2.82, interpreted as moderately occurred was posted in item 3 (*does not get the right and deserving recognition in school*). The rest of the items manifested a weighted mean of 3.49, 3.10, 3.08, 2.89 and 2.82 which could be inferred as moderately occurred among the faculty respondents. The group weighted mean garnered in the six items fell within the bracket of 3.15 scaling point. This means the extent of occurrence in the workplace stress among the faculty members of public and private secondary schools in terms of personal was moderately occurred.

Living within personal means can help a lot in containing financial anxieties. Odiom (1982) theorized that: recognition reward with praise, opportunities for professional development, increase in remuneration, and advancement are the most powerful stimulant for faculty job well done and productivity. It is important to synchronize our feelings to the world around us, to be aware of stressful conditions and events using the general adaptation syndrome as demonstrated by Hans Selye (1993).

### **Workplace stressors of secondary school faculty on home**

Home stressors of public and private secondary school faculty applied the workplace that run out to the system. As regards home component, the highest mean obtained was 3.50, interpreted as frequently occurred, was posted in items 3 and 4 (*provides care for the sick and support for the elderly member of the family*), and (*which is faces serious financial concerns*). The lowest mean of 2.40, interpreted as occasionally occurred was posted in item 2 (*experiences conflict of interest with parents, brothers and sisters*). The two items garnered a weighted mean of 3.07, 2.98, 2.68 and 2.63 had occurred moderately among the faculty respondents. The group weighted mean garnered in the seven items fell under the scaling point of 2.97. It simply means that from the perception of the faculty respondents the extent of occurrence on the workplace stress among the faculty members of public and private secondary schools in terms of home was moderately occurred.

Family conflict is common especially if the concern cannot adjust and overcome workplace stress that always spilled out in the home. Secondary School Faculty must learn the art of coping in stressful situations. Parents must have quality time to their respective family relation that will serve as a binding legacy through generations. Andres (1992) posited that parents open up the two-way communication that will always channel harmony in the home. This can only be if an individual has achieved peace and harmony within himself, using stress as a tool to atone himself into his environment.

### **Workplace stressors of secondary school faculty on community**

Secondary school faculty has social functions in their respective community as a part of their job. In terms of component, community, the highest mean obtained was 4.09, interpreted as frequently occurred, was posted in item 6 (*acts morally and ethically in dealing with people in the community*), and the lowest mean of 3.19, interpreted as moderately occurred was posted in item 4 (*faces with problems on law and order in society*). A weighted mean of 3.66, 3.57, and 3.56 had occurred frequently among the faculty respondents, while the rest of item which yielded a weighted mean of 3.34 respectively had occurred moderately among the respondents. Moreover, a group weighted mean obtained in the six items fell within the scaling point of 3.57, it shows that from the perception of the faculty respondents the extent of occurrence on the workplace stress among the faculty members of public and private secondary schools in terms of community was frequently occurred.

According to Chemars (1995), a double standard is a common scene in the surroundings; what they preached is not what they practiced. The secondary school faculty must act as a raw model in the community. Accordingly, secondary school faculty must accept the uniqueness of each that no persons are born alike. It needs appropriate motivation in the workplace to boost productivity.

### **Coping Mechanism Applied by Secondary School Faculty**

The extent of occurrence of the workplace stress and coping mechanism

The above variables are examined in this section in terms of their occurrences while on the job as a teacher on a scale of 1 to 5 with the latter score indicating maximum occurrences.

#### **Job security**

School Administrator must give change to all employees the opportunities for professional growth, to be financially stable to uplift morale and self-esteem. According to Moehlman (1990), coping mechanism of public and private secondary school faculty on different stressors are encountered by them in performing their respective pedagogic job. As regards job security, the highest mean obtained was 4.12, interpreted as frequently applied occurred, was posted in item 5 (*which is students according to their level of ability, qualifications and skills*), and the lowest mean of 3.80, interpreted as frequently applied was posted in item 1 (*stands firm and poise to controversial and pressured issues*). All the four items specified on coping mechanism under job security yielded a weighted mean of 4.01, 4.00, 3.83 and 3.83 respectively which means that all these items had applied frequently among the respondents. The group weighted mean of 3.93 as can be glanced from the same table indicates that from the view points of the faculty respondents the extent of the application on the coping mechanism in terms of job security while on the job as a teacher was frequently applied.

Secondary school faculty must be kind-hearted but firm in implementing rules and regulation in school. Barr and Burton (1991) consider the human aspect of management.. Andres (1990) is mindful of saying that people can enjoy a good laugh even during pain and anguish. Filipino culture dictates that we can afford to share laughter even in a concentration camp.

Secondary school faculty is considered as primary behavioral specialists who always look into human consideration. Positive motivation is necessary to boost students' attitudes which encourage appraisal, good performance – means reward and praise.

In implementing institutional evaluation secondary school faculty must be rated based on facts and records not on personal bases of the rater.

Secondary School faculty must have the ability to classify students' according to the level and quality of performance in school.

Frankenhaeuser (1991) suggested that account in information is historical, but judgment must be made regarding of its usefulness in the decision making. Secondary school faculty should always device the art of management to suit the needs of his students so as the coping mechanism would have its real outcome.

### **Institution**

Coping on institution stressors of public and private secondary school faculty are tools used to combat teaching stressors by secondary school faculty. As regards the component, institution, the highest mean obtained was 4.16, interpreted as frequently applied occurred, was posted in item 5 (*which is extends recognition of students in school who are trustworthy*), and the lowest mean of 3.65, interpreted as frequently applied was posted in item 1 (*the school administrator on vital and delicate issues*). All the six items which yielded a weighted mean of 4.02, 3.99, 3.90, 3.88, 3.87 and 3.86 respectively had applied frequently among the respondents. The group weighted mean of 3.92 reveals that from the view points of the faculty as respondents of the study the extent of the application on the coping mechanism in terms of the institution was frequently applied while on the job as faculty.

Cooper (1996) expounded that there are times when stress is too heavy that a faculty need to share a few encouraging words to preserve his sanity, according also to U.S. Psychologist Irving L. Janis and Leon Mann as cited by Tomas D. Andres (1990) those who observe moderate level of stress in their work environment are effective decision maker and emotionally stable. Secondary school faculty must have awareness of how and what he is doing and have a sensible conclusion and solution of the problems. Secondary school faculty is there to assist students in their performance, giving them coaching and guidance in the most productive ways.

### **Supervisory**

Coping tools on supervisory stressors of public and private secondary school faculty manifest the presence of anxieties in classroom management. In terms of the component, supervisory, the highest mean garnered was 4.29, interpreted as frequently applied occurred, was posted in item 2 (*which is respects students for their loyalty in return*), and the lowest mean of 3.17, interpreted as



moderately applied is posted in item 8 (*criticizes faculty personal ideas, opinion and behavior constructively*). The seven items yielded a weighted mean of 4.18, 4.15, 4.05, 3.99, 3.95 and 3.95 respectively which had applied frequently among the respondents. The group weighted mean of 3.96 reveals that from the view points of the faculty as respondents of the study, the extent of the application on the coping mechanism in terms of supervisory was frequently applied while on the job as faculty.

Nothing is permanent in the institutional management, Duncan (1983) change is vital to affect growth and development of the institution and the workforce: proper and positive motivation is the core of effective and efficient teaching, and respect and humility are keys to effective and efficient teaching. Secondary School Faculty must welcome new ideas of students, giving them time to display their creativity and innovativeness in their field of expertise which is the essence of collaborative management in a democratic country.

### **School Work**

Coping on school work stressors of public and private secondary school faculty are tools used to combat teaching stressors by secondary school faculty. As regards the component, school work, the highest mean garnered was 4.20, interpreted as frequently applied occurred, was posted in item 2 (*knows how to deal and be happy with the problems after resolution,*), and the lowest mean obtained was of 3.92, interpreted as frequently applied is posted in item 3 (*seeks mutually acceptable compromise and proper dealing*). All the four items specified on coping mechanism under school work garnered a weighted mean of 4.13, 4.11, 4.07 and 4.02 respectively means that all these items had applied frequently among the respondents. An inspection of the group weighted mean of 4.08 that from the viewpoints of the faculty respondents the extent of the application on the coping mechanism in terms of school work was frequently applied while on the job as faculty.

Naval (1990) postulates that the most critical function of a secondary school faculty is to select, train, and evaluate students and those individuals who can help and attain the institutional goals. Santain (1990) noted that problems when resolved earlier, can mend and cement a good relationship between secondary school faculty and students, but if left unresolved for a long time it can stain and destroy the learning system in the institutional.

### **Personal**

Coping on personal stressors of public and private secondary school faculty are tools used to combat teaching stressors by secondary school faculty. As regards component, personal, the

highest mean obtained was 4.20, interpreted as frequently applied occurred, was posted in item 6 (*which is engages in meditation and prayer*), and the lowest mean obtained was of 3.70, interpreted as frequently applied was posted in item 5 (*reduces worries, guilt and tensions on financial matter*). All the four items specified above on coping mechanism under school work garnered a weighted mean of 4.17, 4.12, 4.01 and 3.72 respectively which means that all these items had applied frequently among the respondents. The group weighted mean of 3.99 indicates that from the viewpoints of the faculty respondents the extent of the application on the coping mechanism in terms of personal while on the job as faculty was frequently applied.

Haphazardly resolve problems are considered problems not solve at all. The challenges of secondary school faculty are institutional stresses, as an adage says the test of gold is fire. Secondary school faculty, must learn how to treat themselves in a most convenient and decent ways.

### **Home**

Coping on Home stressors of public and private secondary school faculty are tools used to combat teaching stressors by secondary school faculty. With regard component, home, the highest mean garnered was 4.22, interpreted as frequently applied occurred, was posted in item 4 (*which is faces financial stability by way of proper budgeting*) and the lowest mean of 3.80, interpreted as frequently applied was posted in item 5 (*eliminates feeling of burnout in the home by channeling communication*). All the four items specified above on coping mechanism under home gained a weighted mean of 4.19, 4.15, 3.99, and 3.92 respectively which means that all these items had applied frequently among the respondents.

It can be realized from the group weighted mean of 4.05 indicates that from the viewpoints of the faculty respondents the extent of the application on the coping mechanism in terms of the home was frequently applied.

Giving quality time to the family will help balance the stress in the workplace. Travers (2001) stated that life is too short, so secondary school faculty must spend quality time with their family to build relationship worthy for remembering, before its too late. Living within their means is one way of minimizing financial stresses. Monetary problems can be solved by proper budgeting and checking their lifestyle. Openness in sharing family aspirations and goals will help ease tensions in the home. Concern and care open up a harmonious relationship in the home.

### **Community**

Coping on community stressors of public and private secondary school faculty are tools used to combat teaching stressors by secondary school faculty. As regards community component, the highest mean of 4.16, interpreted as frequently applied occurred, was posted in item 7 (*which develops friendship with unfriendly neighbors*) and the lowest mean of 3.75, interpreted as frequently applied was posted in item 2 (*stay on the top of things in association with others*). All the five items specified on coping mechanism under community obtained a weighted mean of 4.00, 3.95, 3.90, 3.85 and 3.78 respectively which reveals that all these items had applied frequently among the respondents. An inspection of the group weighted mean of 3.91 indicates that from the view perception of the faculty respondents the extent of application on coping mechanism was frequently applied while on the job as faculty.

Secondary school faculty must live as raw model in society, not only by words but also by deeds. Duncan (1983) puts it as the scripture stated that good seeds will surely produce good fruits. Secondary school faculty who practice self-appeasement has also manifest good and effective stress management. Secondary school faculty must practice the essence of being number one in everything they do, and always bear in mind that no one is perfect, as an eraser was made to manifest man' imperfections.

### **Correlation between workplace stress and coping mechanism**

It is indicated that the computed average mean for the responses on the variables on the workplace stress is 3.420 while for the responses on the variables of coping mechanism, it has 3.976. Using the coefficient of correlation formula, the computation shows that the r-value of 0.35 is statistically significant. Hence, there is a correlation between workplace stress and coping mechanism among secondary school teachers.

In conclusion, the findings that there is a moderate correlation between workplace stress and coping mechanism would indicate that teachers despite their stress at work would still manifest that coping mechanism to go on with their day to day activities and find joy and fulfillment in dealing with their students just like their own children. The data here would have relevance to the present cases reported just recently on the increasing number of depression and suicide among Filipino teachers reported in online news and blog sites. As pointed out previously, high demands of K-12 curriculum could lead to teachers experiencing depression given the tons of reports, performance assessments, observations and very demanding innovative teaching. The findings in this current study can inform our teachers that coping mechanism is the solution to this dilemma. As proven in this study, while participants were experiencing work place stress, they also

manifested positive coping mechanism that helps them see life through no matter what the circumstances may be.

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## **Language Assessment Pattern for Primary Education in the Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) Classroom Context**

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### **Abstract**

The implementation of content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in primary education classrooms context in Indonesia is rarely investigated. This is due to only a few primary schools in Indonesia, especially those which adapt the international class program (ICP) implement CLIL in their teaching and learning process. Language assessment in CLIL is crucial because of its ‘wash-back’ effect on learning. In the Indonesian context, EFL assessment practices employed by CLIL teachers were varied one and another. This study aimed at investigating the current practices of CLIL assessment pattern applied by the teachers. This study, then, will lead to the new synthesis of language assessment pattern used in CLIL classroom context. This study employed a multiple case study design in order to get a comprehensive result dealing with the objective of the study since the research site was in three different places. This study involved CLIL teachers of Mathematics and Science in the international class program (ICP) of Islamic Primary Schools in three different regencies in East Java, Indonesia. The data were collected through observation, interview, questionnaire, and documents review, syllabus and lesson plan. The yielded data were analyzed descriptively following the steps of Creswell's (2012) qualitative data analysis. The findings show that the traditional methods of assessment such as oral exams following ‘IRF’ (initiation-response-follow-up) pattern (Dalton-Puffer, 2005), and questions (teacher-led instruction) were implemented during the implementation of CLIL. The components of the

assessment include in-class participation, oral exams, presentations, and written exams. However, those traditional methods of assessment do not do CLIL students' achievement justice. These findings might have implication to the development of alternative instruments that can be used to assess EFL in the CLIL classroom context of primary education more comprehensively.

**Keywords:** CLIL, ICP, multiple case study, language assessment, primary education

## **Introduction**

Content and language integrated learning (CLIL) refers to the integration of language learning and content knowledge simultaneously. It means that language learning does not only occur in language subjects but also occurs at every subject (Hönig, 2009). CLIL is an approach in the second or foreign language teaching established in the bilingual education program (Hapsari, 2012). Therefore, in the case of CLIL, every subject teacher is also a language teacher. CLIL is regarded as an innovative approach since it integrates both of linguistics skills and content knowledge. Further, Coyle, Hood, & Marsh (2010) elaborate that CLIL can promote both problem-solving skills and higher order thinking skills.

In Indonesia, the use of English in teaching other subjects was started since the English bilingual education project was launched by the government through the establishment of 2003 Act No 20 of the National Education System chapter XIV, article 50 (3) which states "The central government and or the local government establishes at least one unit in each educational level to be developed as an international standard class". This act is also supported by The Ministry of National Education's decree No 23/2006, which states that international standardized schools should be based on ICT assisted learning and English is used as the language of instruction for Mathematics and Science subjects. These laws were established based on the capital belief and the global market issues which urge people to increase their competitive values by mastering the subjects such as Science, Maths, and ICT in English. In order to promote the bilingual education program, the elements of CLIL are implemented into school curricula. Unfortunately, this program was only done in some government schools (state schools) with certain criteria.

Due to some problems in its implementation, based on Tempo.co (2013) at the beginning of 2013 the laws underlying the designated international standardized schools were withdrawn by the Constitutional Court (*Mahkamah Konstitusi*). Since then, the implementation of the designated

international standardized schools in Indonesia was stopped. Even though the implementation of the designated international standardized schools in the state schools was stopped, there are some private schools in Indonesia which still continuously implementing the program. Those schools usually adapt international curriculum in their teaching and learning process. Those schools are what the so-called 'International Class Program (ICP)'. In ICP, Mathematics and Science subjects are taught in English and CLIL is implemented during the teaching and learning process in those two subjects. Here, the priority of CLIL is given to satisfying the demands of the curriculum of the content subject. Yet language is needed to transmit the concepts of the content and to enable the exchange of thoughts and ideas between teachers and students and among students.

An assessment cannot be separated from the educational process, including in the implementation of CLIL. In CLIL, learning takes place using a medium other than the students' first language. Therefore, language also plays a pivotal role in the content knowledge acquisition. Besides, the teaching and learning process also depends on the methodology that is applied in the CLIL classroom. A creative and innovative learning technique should be implemented (Ghufron & Ermawati, 2018) when the teaching and learning take place, moreover when the teachers implement CLIL in their teaching. Consequently, CLIL teachers should be creative in learning and carefully choose or design the type and instrument of assessment in order to be able to assess the students' competence and skills comprehensively. The CLIL teachers should determine all aspects in their assessment, i.e. content knowledge, the language used as a medium of instruction, and higher order thinking skills (HOTS), if possible (Hassan, Yusof, & Abu, 2011; Pinner, 2013; Puspitasari, Anugerahwati, & Rachmajanti, 2016; Quartapelle, 2012).

There are many studies revealing the success of the CLIL implementation and its assessment across the world (Hapsari, 2012; Hönig, 2009; Ioannou-georgiou & Pavlou, 2011; Kiely, n.d.; Kyoko, Tetsuya, & Izumi, 2014; Marsh, Mehisto, Wolff, & Martin, n.d.; Pinner, 2013; Wahyuningsih, Widiati, & Anugerahwati, 2016; Xanthou, 2011). Wewer (2014) investigated the assessment practices of class teachers as well as the challenges and visions of language assessment in bilingual content instruction (CLIL) at primary level in Finnish basic education. Her findings revealed that language assessment in primary CLIL is not an established practice. It largely appears to be infrequent, incidental, implicit and based on impressions rather than evidence or the curriculum. The most used assessment methods were teacher observation, bilingual tests, and dialogic interaction, and the least used were portfolios, simulations, and peer assessment. Hönig

(2009) also investigated on assessment in CLIL. Her findings showed that teachers did assess language proficiency and even used it as a major criterion in grading students. Besides, Maggi (n.d.) conducted a study on assessment and evaluation in CLIL. The findings revealed that linguistic competences in CLIL are especially concerned, all the activities developed for learning may be adopted as formative assessment. Further, the findings also asserted that in order to assess CLIL-related competencies, it is more appropriate to employ integrated forms of authentic assessment. In Indonesia, there are also some studies dealing with CLIL (Agustrianti, n.d.; Hapsari, 2012; Mulyono & Salam, 2003; Puspitasari et al., 2016; Wahyuningsih et al., 2016). However, from those studies, there is still no study dealing with the implementation of CLIL in primary education context in Indonesia. Moreover, there is also no studies focusing on EFL assessment pattern used during CLIL practices in Indonesian primary education context.

To fulfill the gaps, this study is concerned with the investigation of the current practices of CLIL assessment applied by the teachers in Indonesian primary education context. This study, then, will lead to the new synthesis of language assessment pattern used in CLIL classroom context.

Based on the explanation above, the research question and research objective of this study are formulated as follows.

***Research Question:***

1. How were the current practices of CLIL assessment pattern applied by the CLIL teachers in a primary education context?

***Research objective:***

1. To investigate the current practices of CLIL assessment pattern applied by the CLIL teachers in a primary education context.

**Research Method**

***Research Design***

This study used the multiple case study design since it is the most appropriate research design in order to meet the objective of this study. Merriam (1998) states that a case study design is the appropriate design to provide a comprehensive description and analysis of phenomena or social unit. A case study is commonly used in the certain situation to contribute knowledge related to the phenomena (Yin, 2003). Meanwhile, the multiple case study here refers to the multiple sites that were studied. From those characteristics, the researchers decided to uses the multiple case study



design in order to provide a detail information dealing with the current practices of CLIL assessment pattern applied by the CLIL teachers in a primary education context.

***Participants of the Study***

This study was conducted in three Islamic Primary Schools which have International Class Program (ICP). Those primary schools are located in three different regencies of East Java. The first school is located in Bojonegoro regency. The second school is located in Lamongan regency. The third school is located in Nganjuk Regency. The followings are the detail explanation of the research sites.

Table 1. The Research Sites

<b>Features</b>	<b>MI ICP NU Bojonegoro</b>	<b>MI ICP NU Lamongan</b>	<b>MI ICP NU Nganjuk</b>
School type	International Class Program	International Class Program	International Class Program
Location	Town	City Suburban	Town
Students' number	Altogether 288, where there are two classes in each grade.	Altogether 192, there are two classes but only available until the fourth-grade just now	Altogether 260, where there are two classes in each grade.
Ethnography of the students and parents	Predominantly native Javanese-speaking	Predominantly native Javanese speaking with the multicultural background	native Javanese-speaking
CLIL curriculum	Specifies themes, language function, and structures	Specifies themes, language function, and structures	Specifies themes, language function, and structures
Formal EFL lesson	Four lessons (4x45min) in each week	Two lessons (2x45 min) each week	Two lessons (2x45 min) each week
Qualification of science CLIL teacher	3 year experienced, formal English background, got CLIL teacher training.	4 year experienced, formal English background, got CLIL teacher training.	2 year experienced, formal English background, do not get CLIL teacher training.
CLIL assessment and reports	Common practice	common practice	No common practice
Assessment scheme	Self – assessment form, middle and final term report	Middle and final term report	Middle and final term report

From each school, there were two CLIL teachers, one from Mathematics teacher and one from Science teacher, who were involved in this study. Therefore, there were six CLIL teachers

altogether. Those participants were selected purposively. This purposive sampling technique was applied by following the principle of criterion and intensity sampling. This was done in order to maximize the information from the participants. Patton (2002) asserts that criterion sampling involves the cases that meet some predetermined criterion of importance. The criterion sampling was used to select teachers that meet some criteria such as teachers' experience in implementing CLIL and the teachers have a commitment and willingness to participate in the study.

### ***Data Collection Technique***

#### ***Observation***

Before the observation was done, an observation checklist was also developed. It was developed by synchronizing some teaching procedures, including assessment technique, that had been written in the syllabus and lesson plan. This observation guideline was used to facilitate the researchers during the observation. Besides, the researchers also made some field notes during the observation.

#### ***Interview***

An interview was also done by the researchers. The teachers who had been chosen purposively to get involved in the study were interviewed. The open-ended question type was used in this interview in order to get deeper and more comprehensive data. The main focus of this interview was also to reveal their current practices of CLIL assessment in their teaching. The process of the interview was recorded and collected. Then, the results of the interview were transcribed for analysis.

#### ***Questionnaire***

A questionnaire was also distributed to the CLIL teachers who were involved in the study. This questionnaire was developed based on closed-ended question type. This type of questionnaire was used since it is easier to analyze. This questionnaire was analyzed qualitatively, using percentage formula, simultaneously with the results of the interview as well as the observation as the triangulation process. Patton (2002) states that the triangulation technique is usually done by comparing and integrating qualitative data and quantitative data (see also Creswell & Miller, 2000; Creswell, 2012).

#### ***Documents Review (Syllabus and Lesson Plan)***

Some documents related to teaching and learning were also reviewed and analyzed. Those documents were syllabus and lesson plan. Both of the documents were analyzed simultaneously during the observation process.

### ***Data Analysis***

The data yielded from this study were analyzed descriptively following the theory of Creswell (2012). researchers first collect data and then prepare it for data analysis. This analysis initially consists of developing a general sense of the data, and then coding description and themes about the central phenomenon (Creswell, 2012). The process is presented in the following figure.

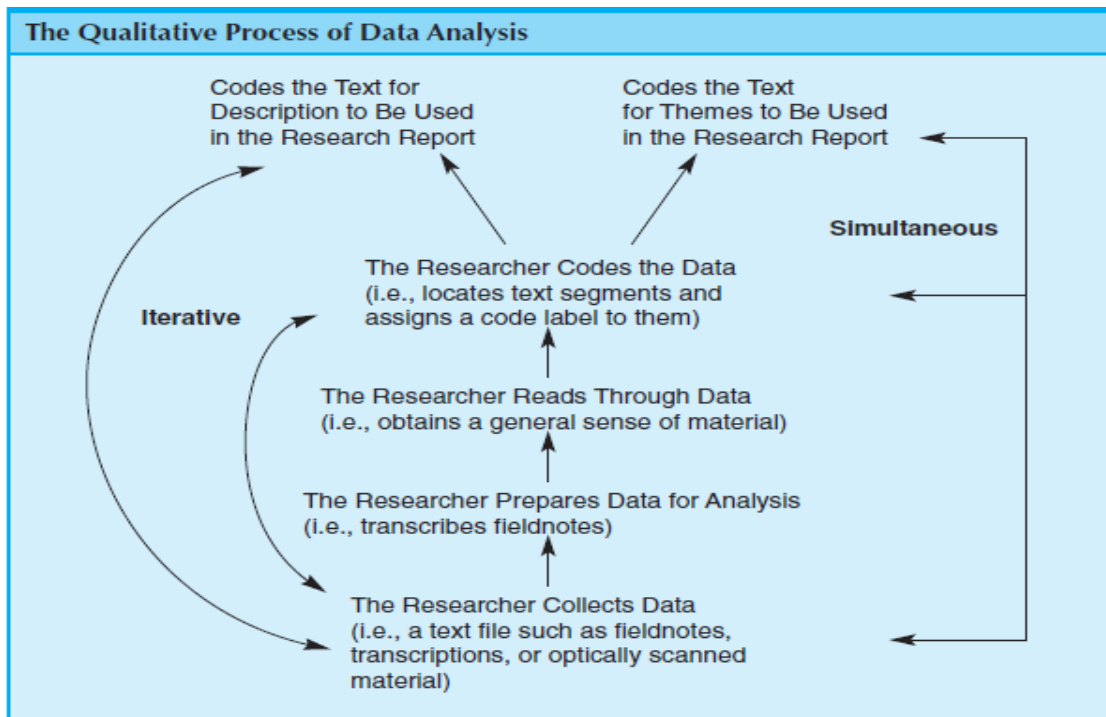


Figure 1. The qualitative process of data analysis (Creswell, 2012)

Throughout the process of data collection and analysis, it is needed to make sure that the findings and interpretations are accurate. To guarantee the accuracy of the findings, the findings must be validated by determining the accuracy or credibility of the findings through certain

strategies (Creswell, 2012). Here, the researchers used two strategies to describe the accuracy or credibility of the findings and to validate qualitative data, i.e. triangulation and member checking (Creswell & Miller, 2000).

## Findings and Discussion

It was mentioned earlier that the objective of this study was to investigate the current practices of CLIL assessment pattern applied by the CLIL teachers in the primary education context. To get the data and information dealing with the objective of the study, some techniques had been implemented, i.e. observation, interview, questionnaire, and documents review. The findings are elaborated below.

### *The Results of Observation*

The researchers conducted observation during the implementation of CLIL process in 3 different primary schools which have International Class Programm (ICP). In the first school, they observed 2 teachers, Mathematics teacher, and Science Teacher. Both of the teachers teach in the sixth-grade of primary schools. This observation captured the whole practice during the implementation of CLIL, including the assessment practice, in the sixth-grade. The following excerpt is the results of the observation in the first school. This excerpt is from the instructional phase of Mathematics lesson in which the topic is the integer. The teacher is working with a picture of number line on the whiteboard.

Table 2. The excerpt of CLIL instructional phase in Mathematics class of the first school

Line	Speaker	Talks	Comments
1.	Teacher	This is a number line. Please repeat, number line!	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the number line on the whiteboard <b>Pattern: Initiation</b>
2.	Students	Number line	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
3.	Teacher	Good, the number line is <i>garis bilangan</i> in Bahasa Indonesia. What is number line in Bahasa Indonesia?	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
4.	Students	<i>Garis bilangan</i>	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
5.	Teacher	Good. Now, see the numbers on the left side of 'zero'. What numbers are these, Zulfa?	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the mentioned numbers Quick nomination <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
6.	Zulfa	Four, three, two, one	Quick response

Line	Speaker	Talks	Comments
7.	Teacher	Well, don't you recognize this symbol?	<b>Pattern: Response</b> Pointing at the 'negative' symbols preceding the numbers <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
8.	Zulfa	Minus?	Questioning <b>Pattern: Response</b>
9.	Teacher	Ya, it's a negative symbol. Repeat, negative symbol.	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
10.	Students	Negative symbol	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
11.	Teacher	Good. Class, you must also read this symbol when you find such kinds of numbers preceding numbers. Ok, Daffa, read this numbers!	Clear explanation Quick nomination Pointing at the numbers on the left side of 'zero' <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
12.	Daffa	Negative four, negative three, negative two, negative one	Quick response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
13.	Teacher	Good. Everyone, say these numbers!	Clear explanation Pointing at the numbers on the left side of 'zero' <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
14.	Students	Negative four, negative three, negative two, negative one	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
15.	Teacher	Good, now, see the numbers on the right side of 'zero'. What number are these?	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the mentioned numbers <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
16.	Students	One, two, three, four	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
17.	Teacher	Good, now, I'm going to explain about 'integer'. What?	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
18.	Students	Integer	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>

In line 1, 2, 3, 4, the teacher established the meaning number line. She started introducing the concept of integer through number line. In line 5, the teacher tried to introduce the negative integers to the students by questioning. She asked one of the students to mention the numbers on the left side of zero. However, the student still did not recognize that there was a negative symbol preceding the numbers. The student just easily said that the numbers are the same as the positive

integers located on the right side of zero. Then, the teacher started explaining and remembering that numbers on the left side of zero are negative integers by placing a negative symbol preceding those numbers. That is the way how the teacher teaches the content knowledge to the students. Dealing with the language, the teacher uses what the so-called *drilling technique* (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Paulston & Bruder, 1976) by asking the students to repeat some terms or notion in English to make the students learn new vocabularies. It is a technique in which the purpose is to help students memorize something easily (Paulston & Bruder, 1976). To assess the students' understanding of content knowledge and language terms, the teacher uses 'IRF' (Initiation, Response, Follow-up) pattern (Dalton-Puffer, 2005).

The similar procedures were found during the observation in Science class in the first school. The teacher tends to use a drilling technique in introducing new words to students. Further, the Science teacher not only uses the drilling for introducing new words but also to assess the students' understanding. The pattern of assessment is similar to the Mathematics teacher, it is an IRF pattern. The following is the excerpt of the instructional phase in Science class in the first school. The topic was about photosynthesis. The students have introduced what photosynthesis is and also the process of photosynthesis.

Table 3. The excerpt of CLIL instructional phase in Science class of the first school

<b>Line</b>	<b>Speaker</b>	<b>Talks</b>	<b>Comments</b>
1.	Teacher	Well, class. Today we will learn about photosynthesis. What is our learning topic?	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the picture of the photosynthesis process of a plant on the board. <b>Pattern: Initiation</b>
2.	Students	Photosynthesis	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
3.	Teacher	Good, do you know what photosynthesis is?	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
4.	Students	No	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
5.	Teacher	Well, it is the process by which plants use the energy from sunlight to produce glucose from carbon dioxide and water. This glucose can be converted into <i>pyruvate</i> which releases <i>adenosine triphosphate</i> (ATP) by cellular respiration. Oxygen is also formed. Ok, class, <b>what energy is needed to do</b>	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>

Line	Speaker	Talks	Comments
		<b>photosynthesis process?</b>	
6.	Students	Sunlight	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
7.	Teacher	Yes, good. Now, let's start learning the photosynthesis process	

The same results of observation were yielded from the second school. The second school is located in Lamongan regency East Java, Indonesia. From the observation in that school, the researchers found the similar results in the pattern of assessment, it is drilling (in the form of oral) and IRF pattern.

Table 4. The excerpt of CLIL instructional phase in Mathematics class of the second school

Line	Speaker	Talks	Comments
1.	Teacher	What picture is this?	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the picture on the whiteboard. <b>Pattern: Initiation</b>
2.	Students	Triangle	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
3.	Teacher	Good, what about this?	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the next picture on the whiteboard <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
4.	Students	Rectangle	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
5.	Teacher	Yes, very good. Andi, what is a rectangle in <i>Bahasa Indonesia</i> ?	Clear pronunciation Quick nomination <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
6.	Andi	<i>Persegi Panjang</i>	Quick response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
7.	Teacher	Very good	<b>Pattern: Follow-up</b>

Table 5. The excerpt of CLIL instructional phase in Science class of the second school

Line	Speaker	Talks	Comments
1.	Teacher	Class, do you know what is this?	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the picture on the whiteboard. <b>Pattern: Initiation</b>
2.	Students	<i>Akar</i>	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
3.	Teacher	Yes, <i>akar</i> . What is it in English?	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>

Line	Speaker	Talks	Comments
4.	Students	(Silence)	Keep silence <b>Pattern: No Response</b>
5.	Teacher	It is root. What is it?	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the picture on the whiteboard. <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
6.	Students	Root	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
7.	Teacher	Very good. What picture is this?	Pointing at the next picture on the whiteboard. <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
8.	Students	<i>Batang</i>	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
9.	Teacher	Yes, it is the stem. What is it?	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the picture on the whiteboard. <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
10.	Students	Stem	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
11.	Teacher	Farid, How do you spell 'stem'?	Quick nomination <b>Pattern: Initiation</b>
12.	Farid	S-T-A-M-P	Quick response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
13.	Teacher	Hmm? You mean this 'Stamp'?	Writing the student's answer and pointing it <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
14.	Farid	Yes	Quick response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
15.	Teacher	No, Farid. This is Perangko in <i>Bahasa Indonesia</i> . Farhan, Do you know the spelling of stem for <i>batang</i> ?	Clear pronunciation Quick nomination <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
16.	Farhan	S-T-E-M	Quick response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
17.	Teacher	Ya, good. It's correct	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up</b>

From table 4 and 5 above, it is clearly seen that 'IRF' pattern is also used in CLIL assessment process. The similar results are also yielded from the observation in the third school which is located in Nganjuk regency, East Java, Indonesia. The following tables show the excerpt of instructional phases of Mathematics and Science class there.

Table 6. The excerpt of CLIL instructional phase in Mathematics class of the third school



Line	Speaker	Talks	Comments
1.	Teacher	This is a circle. What is this?	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the picture on the whiteboard. <b>Pattern: Initiation</b>
2.	Students	Circle	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
3.	Teacher	Good, this is the circumference. What is this?	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
4.	Students	Circumference	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
5.	Teacher	Yes, very good. This line is the diameter. It divides the circle into two same area. What is this?	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
6.	Students	Diameter	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
7.	Teacher	Very good	<b>Pattern: Follow-up</b>

Table 7. The excerpt of CLIL instructional phase in Science class of the third school

Line	Speaker	Talks	Comments
1.	Teacher	This is the stem. In <i>Bahasa Indonesia</i> , we usually call it <i>batang</i> . Repeat after me, stem.	Clear pronunciation Pointing at the picture on the whiteboard. <b>Pattern: Initiation</b>
2.	Students	Stem	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
3.	Teacher	Good, how does a stem work?	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
4.	Alfian	It <i>membawa</i> water to leaf.	Responding to the question <b>Pattern: No Response</b>
5.	Teacher	Good. What is <i>membawa</i> in English? Anybody knows?	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
6.	Rahma	Bring	Quick response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
7.	Teacher	Very good. So, it brings water to leaf. How does the stem work?	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up + Initiation</b>
8.	Students	It brings water to leaf.	Choral response <b>Pattern: Response</b>
9.	Teacher	Very good.	Clear pronunciation <b>Pattern: Follow-up</b>

From the table 6 and 7, it can be seen that in the third school, the assessment pattern used in CLIL classroom is ‘IRF’ pattern. An Initiation is usually a question which introduces a new topic or

revises old material. A response is the student's contribution, which is then evaluated as fitting or not (Dalton-Puffer, 2005; Hönig, 2009). In this CLIL lesson, teacher-led instruction dominates the teaching and learning process. The development of content knowledge is promoted using a strategic questioning by the teacher. Learning matter is formulated by the teacher in the target language and presented to the students.

### ***The Results of Interview***

The second instrument used in this study was an interview. This interview was conducted to six CLIL teachers from three different schools who have agreed to participate in this study. The interview used open-ended questions. It was to get more comprehensive data dealing with the purpose of the study. From the interview with Mathematics teacher in the second school, it was revealed that the teacher mostly uses IRF pattern to assess the students' understanding in Maths. Besides, he also uses drilling technique to make the students memorize the topic. The following is the excerpt of the interview.

*Researcher* : Would you please to tell me the way you teach Maths in your class using CLIL?

*Teacher* : emm.. ya, sure. Of course, I use English as a medium of instruction in teaching Mathematics in my class. I always started my class by introducing and explaining the topic for that day. I tell them and explain to them carefully. I also gave them questions dealing with the topic in the middle of my explanation. Sometimes, the question is addressed to all students in the class, and sometimes it is also addressed to certain students. I do that way to know their seriousness in listening to my material and checking their understanding of the material.

*Researcher* : Would you please to describe it?

*Teacher* : Sure, like this.. mmmm...

Me: Class, this is a rectangle. **What is this?**

Class: **Rectangle**

Me: **good. What is a rectangle in Bahasa Indonesia?**

Class: (they will answer) **Persegi Panjang.**

Me: **Yes, very good. Do you know the formula to search the large of a rectangle?**

And so on...

Yaa.. like that. That's the way I teach Maths in my class.

*Researcher* : Hmm... I see. Is there any certain technique that you apply to make the students more easily to learn English and also the content of Mathematics?

*Teacher* : Mmm.. certain technique... No, I just ask them to repeat the new words that I introduce to them several times. And, That's also what I do to check my students understanding in Maths. By giving questions and then they answer the questions, and I reinforce their answer directly. No matter whether they answer is correct or not.

*Researcher* : Do you use English all the time during your lesson?  
*Teacher* : of course not. We know that all students here are native Javanese. And their first language is *Bahasa Indonesia*. Sometimes I have to switch my English to *Bahasa Indonesia* and even *Bahasa Jawa* to make them understand.

From the interview with Mathematics teacher in the second school, it is also revealed that during teaching and learning process the teacher does not use English all the time. Code-switching and code-mixing from English to Indonesian and even Javanese language are applied by the teacher. This is because the students are native Javanese and Indonesian is their first language. Therefore, to make the students more easily understand the materials, code switching and code mixing (Butzkamm, 1998) are applied. Hönig (2009); Ioannou-georgiou & Pavlou (2011); and Kiely, (n.d.) also state that teachers need to know whether the students have understood and whether they are ready to move on in the lesson. The use of L1 is sometimes necessary in order to obtain this information (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short., 2004).

Further, the CLIL teacher of Science subject from the second school also asserted that the 'IRF' pattern becomes the major way of teaching in CLIL classroom. The use of *Bahasa Indonesia* and even Javanese language is frequently used simultaneously with the use of English as the medium of instruction. The teacher explained that it is almost impossible to use English all the time during teaching and learning process due to the students have the different level of English mastery. The following is the excerpt of the interview.

*Researcher* : How do you teach Science in your CLIL classroom?  
*Teacher* : Well, I usually introduce some vocabularies related to the topic first. Then, I start explaining the topic to the students. I always give questions to my students during the topic explanation. The questions are sometimes related to vocabulary, spelling, and of course, the content of the subject or materials. I always appreciate their answer by giving them reinforcement. It doesn't matter if their answer is wrong. The thing is they are brave enough to express their ideas. That's the point.

*Researcher* : Do you use English all the time?  
*Teacher* : of course not. It will be confusing for my students if I use English all the time. They have the different level of English mastery. I often use *Bahasa Indonesia* or Javanese language simultaneously with the use of English my explanation. This really helps them a lot in understanding the materials and building their English.

*Researcher* : well, I see. What about the way to check the students' understanding of the lesson?

*Teacher* : Oral questions. As I mentioned previously, I always give them questions during my explanation. Sometimes, the questions are in *Bahasa Indonesia* or Javanese language.

*Researcher* : Do the students always respond to your questions in English?

*Teacher* : Not always. If they know its English, they will use English. But, if they don't know, they will use *Bahasa Indonesia* or Javanese language. Even, they often mix their language in three languages at all. English, *Bahasa Indonesia*, and Javanese language.

From the interview, it is also revealed that the students also do not use English all the time. They will use English once they know its English. However, they will use *Bahasa Indonesia* or Javanese language when they do not know its English. And mostly, they mix their language from three languages at all, English, *Bahasa Indonesia*, and Javanese language.

From another interview, it was revealed that language errors did not matter in assessment, nor did code-switching and code-mixing. The teachers asserted that they took no notice of the language the students used in their performances, they did not measure and assess the students' language skills but took solely their content knowledge as the basis for their assessment.

*Researcher* : How if your students make an error in some of linguistics aspects or pronunciation?

*Teacher* : Well, to me, it doesn't matter. I don't need to correct their errors directly. As far as their language is acceptable, and they understand the materials well, it's Ok, I think.

*Researcher* : So, it does not influence your scoring?

*Teacher* : yea, it doesn't affect the scoring system

*Researcher* : How if they use code-switching and code-mixing?

*Teacher* : Ha, it's the same case with the linguistics errors and pronunciation errors. It doesn't affect my scoring too. I believe that they will learn their mistakes later.

However, another interview also revealed that the teacher always corrects the students' linguistics or pronunciation errors directly. They asserted that if the students were not corrected, their mistakes will be fossilized and will be difficult to correct later. However, the similarity was they also think that linguistics errors, pronunciation errors, code-switching, and code-mixing have no effect on their scoring system.

*Researcher* : How if your students make an error in some of linguistics aspects or pronunciation?

*Teacher* : of course, I will directly correct them. I will not let my students make errors. This is important to me since if the mistakes are not corrected directly, they will be fossilized. And uhm, you know, the fossilization is difficult to correct.

*Researcher* : Does it influence your scoring?

*Teacher* : No, it doesn't affect the scoring system. The scoring system is mainly based on the content knowledge mastery.

*Researcher* : How if they use code-switching and code-mixing?

*Teacher* : I don't mind if they use it. It's natural I think. And it also doesn't affect the scoring system.

### *The Results of the Questionnaire*

The questionnaire consisted of 12 statements in which the optional answer is only ‘yes’ or ‘no’. This questionnaire was also used to triangulate or crosscheck the validity of the data yielded from observation and interview. The following are the results of questionnaire distribution.

Table 8. The results of questionnaire distribution

No.	Statement	Answer	
		Yes	No
1	I always use English all the time during teaching and learning process		100%
2	I always give questions to my students during the teaching and learning process to check my students' understanding of the lesson	100%	
3	I always ask my students during teaching and learning process to check their English mastery	100%	
4	I always ask my students to repeat the new words or vocabularies to make them easier to remember	100%	
5	I never use <i>Bahasa Indonesia</i> or Javanese language in my classroom		100%
6	I do not permit my students to use other languages except English in the classroom		100%
7	I, sometimes, use Bahasa Indonesia or Javanese language in my classroom to make my students more understand the lesson	100%	
8	I lead my students through learning instruction in the classroom	100%	
9	I always reinforce my students' answer no matter it is correct or not	100%	
10	I always use oral questions and written questions to check students' English mastery and content knowledge mastery	100%	
11	I always assess my students from their in-class participation	100%	
12	I, sometimes, also ask my students to perform in front of the class	100%	

From the table 8 above, it can be inferred that (1) the teachers do not use English all the time during the teaching and learning process. They sometimes use *Bahasa Indonesia* or Javanese language to help the students more understand in lesson; (2) the teachers apply ‘IRF’ pattern to assess students English mastery and content knowledge mastery; (3) the teachers use ‘drilling technique’ to make the students easier to memorize the new vocabularies and lesson; (4) the components of assessment include: in-class participation, oral exams, written exams, and presentation; and (5) the teachers allow the students to use *Bahasa Indonesia* or Javanese language when they cannot express their ideas in English. Those results were in line with the data yielded from observation and interview.

### ***The Results of Documents Review***

There were two supplementary documents that were reviewed and analyzed during this study. The two documents were syllabus and lesson plan. The results of documents review and analysis are as follows.

#### ***Syllabus Review and Analysis***

A syllabus consists of several elements, such as subject identity, description, competence standard, basic competencies, the topic of materials, teaching and learning method, and teaching references. After reviewing and analyzing the syllabus of Mathematics and Science subjects used by the teachers, it was found that in the part of teaching and learning method teacher uses several methods. The teaching and learning methods that were mentioned in the syllabus are the lecture method, discussion method, question-answer method, practicum, and presentation method.

#### ***Lesson Plan Review and Analysis***

A lesson plan is commonly known as teaching scenario. It contains a series of steps of teaching and learning process. It consists of subject identity, competence standard, basic competencies, learning materials, teaching and learning method, and teaching references, teachers and students' activities, assessment technique, and also quizzes. Based on the results of the lesson plan review analysis, it was also confirmed that the teacher applies the question-answer method, lecture method, practicum, and presentation. The assessment was made through oral exams, written exams, presentation or practicum, and in-class participation. From the teaching steps written in the lesson plan (teacher and students' activity), it is also clearly seen that the teacher implement 'IRF' pattern in their teaching and learning process and assessment process.

### **Discussion**

#### ***The current practices of CLIL assessment pattern applied by the CLIL teachers in the primary education context***

The findings show that assessment in CLIL is commonly given in the form of oral exams following the IRF pattern. The teachers give oral exams which are openly answered all the questions asked. The assessment activities observed in this study were in the form of the traditional way by setting oral and written exams. The teachers advocated both formats; they thought that oral, as well as written exams, prepare their students adequately for their future academic education.

Dealing with the language, the teacher uses what the so-called *drilling technique* (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Paulston & Bruder, 1976) by asking the students to repeat some terms or notion in English to make the students learn new vocabularies. It is a technique in which the purpose is to help students memorize something easily (Paulston & Bruder, 1976). During teaching and learning process the teacher does not use English all the time. Code-switching and code-mixing from English to Indonesian and even Javanese language are applied by the teacher. This is because the students are native Javanese and Indonesian is their first language. Therefore, to make the students more easily understand the materials, code switching and code mixing (Butzkamm, 1998) are applied. Hönig (2009); Ioannou-georgiou & Pavlou (2011); and Kiely, (n.d.) also state that teachers need to know whether the students have understood and whether they are ready to move on in the lesson. The use of L1 is sometimes necessary in order to obtain this information (Echevarria, Vogt, & Short., 2004).

Dealing with the linguistics errors during CLIL practices, some teachers directly correct them and some others ignore them. Those who corrected the linguistics error directly argued that they have to correct the students' errors since if it is not done as soon as possible, it will make the students fossilized. This fossilization will be a difficult thing to correct later. Some others who ignore the students' error assert that it does not matter as far as the students' language is still understandable. The main point is the students could understand the content knowledge. The teachers asserted that they took no notice of the language the students used in their performances, they did not measure and assess the students' language skills but took solely their content knowledge as the basis for their assessment.

## **Conclusion**

To sum up, this study was aimed at investigating the current practices of CLIL assessment pattern applied by the CLIL teachers in the primary education context. The findings show that the traditional methods of assessment such as oral exams following 'IRF' (initiation-response-follow-up) pattern and questions (teacher-led instruction) were implemented during the implementation of CLIL. The components of the assessment include in-class participation, oral exams, presentations, and written exams. However, those traditional methods of assessment do not do CLIL students' achievement justice. In this study, language errors did not matter in assessment, nor did code-switching and code-mixing. The teachers asserted that they took no notice of the

language the students used in their performances, they did not measure and assess the students' language skills but took solely their content knowledge as the basis for their assessment.

CLIL approach can be implemented with any students at any level of the curriculum (Mehisto, 2012, pp. 51-52). Besides, CLIL is not off-limits to non-English majors or lower proficiency learners; it can also benefit to lower proficiency learners as well. CLIL has been successfully implemented in primary school level educational contexts and with lower-proficiency learners, (see Yamano, 2013). However, the use of CLIL in Primary education urges the CLIL teachers to always have balance knowledge both in content and language itself (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). Depending on the existing students' language proficiency and depending on the content learning outcomes, CLIL needs to be adapted and assessment methods should be developed in order to meet goals. Thus, the learning outcomes and the development of alternative instruments of assessment methods need to be made clearly in order to successfully implement a CLIL approach. The thing that might also be affected by the use CLIL is the time allotment. The implementation of CLIL needs more time and energy for teaching and learning process. Therefore, the CLIL teachers must be creative and innovative in order to be able to conduct an effective teaching and learning process. However, the implementation of CLIL gives the rich opportunities and positive effects to the students, so that they can have on the classroom and on the learner's experience of learning the target language. Finally, this study provides an outlook into the future of CLIL in diverse contexts and suggests research possibilities in this field.

### **Acknowledgment**

This study was supported by LPDP (Endowment Fund for Education) through BUDI-DN (*Beasiswa Unggulan Dosen Indonesia Dalam Negeri*) scheme.

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## Language Students' Perceptions of Soft Skills

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### **Abstract**

Undergraduate students have been expected to be trained with hard (academic and technical) skills and soft (personality traits and habit) skills to be ready for entering the job market. Most employers prefer to hire graduates with both hard and soft skills but some employers concentrate more on soft skills in selecting their applicants. In fact, the emergent concern from employers is that new graduates do not possess crucial soft skills to prepare themselves for employability. Furthermore, previous university students have been taught with more focus on hard skills than soft skills, which somehow has made students pay less attention to the importance of soft skills on their job applications.

Due to the need for more university training of soft skills, this study is aimed to investigate university students' perceptions of soft skills which are needed by job applicants. Specifically, the purposes of the study were to examine what language students in their final years at universities know about soft skills, the importance of soft skills to them and to their future job application, and which soft skills they need to improve while they are at universities. Questionnaires and interviews were employed with the participants, who were majors in language and communication at Ubon Ratchathani University, in Thailand. The results of the study are presented in detail and compared to previous studies. Pedagogical implications are also suggested according to the findings.

Key words: *soft skills, language students, employability*

## **Introduction**

Employability is becoming a critical issue in many countries since there is an increasing demand for new graduates who are ready for work when they step into the job market. It is also a challenge for higher education institutions to prepare students for future employment. With globalization and diversity of the economy, educators should rethink what skills are essential to provide their students with or how to prepare their students to meet the requirements in this challenging work market. Undergraduate students who would like to be ready for work should prepare to develop both hard and soft skills (Schultz, 2008). At universities, educators have been preparing students with hard skills while soft skills are left behind as they are related to personality traits and habits. But research from the Society for Human Resource Management found that employers focus more on soft skills than hard skills or technical abilities (Bortz, 2018). Hence, students should prepare themselves with soft skills as they prepare for their future work. Thus, this paper may shed light on what soft skills are, the importance of soft skills to employment, how students rank the importance of soft skills, and how students gain soft skills or improve soft skills to be ready for employability. Accordingly, these topics are presented as follows.

### **What Are Soft Skills?**

Soft skills are one of the two types of skills included as employability skills (the other ones are technical/ hard skills) (Omar, Bakar & Rashid, 2012). Soft skills are also called by many different terms such as applied skills, transferable skills, 21<sup>st</sup> century skills (Abbot, 2014), non-technical skills (Williams, 2015), or people skills (Ibarra, 2017). Soft skills are stated as intangible, nontechnical and difficult to quantify, not as hard skills that can be proven and measured (Bortz, 2018). In the Collin English Dictionary, soft skills are defined as “desirable qualities for certain forms of employment that do not depend on acquired knowledge; they include common sense, the ability to deal with people, and a positive flexible attitude” (O’Neill & Summers, 2015). Moreover, Schultz (2008) defines personality traits and habits including interpersonal and intrapersonal communication, engagement with others consisting of teamwork, analytical skills such as the ability to develop solutions to problems and take initiative. Furthermore, according to the Partnership for 21<sup>st</sup> Century Skills P21 framework definition, soft skills include life and career skills, learning and innovation skills, information, media and technology skills, critical thinking, problem solving, communication, and collaboration (Bishop, 2014). One of the most important characteristics of soft skills is that they are not strictly applied to one profession. Unlike hard skills, soft skills are about people’s skills and ability to perform a certain type of task or activity; therefore, they are interpersonal and applied in a broad range of professions (Parson, 2008, cited

in Robles, 2012). For example, among the most important qualities of successful employees at Google, the first seven characteristics of success are soft skills such as being a good coach, communicating and listening well, possessing insights into others, having empathy toward and being supportive of one's colleagues, being a good critical thinker and problem solver, and being able to make connection across complex ideas while STEM skills are at the end of the skills-of-successful-employee list (Glazer, 2018). In addition, Ibarra (2017) noted that research by LinkedIn indicated that the top 10 soft skills which organizations are looking for include communication, organizations, teamwork, punctuality, critical thinking, social skills, creativity, interpersonal communication, adaptability, and friendliness. In short, knowledge or professional skills can assist new graduates to kick off their profession, but soft skills will help them maintain their career status and its growth. Soft skills are also one of the factors that can help a successful employee to be different from an ordinary employee (Bhanot, 2009).

In the definitions and descriptions of soft skills in the studies mentioned above, the two main participants: the employers and employees, college students, or new graduates preparing to be employees. There were two research studies that were conducted with mixed participants from employers, community college faculty, and students or graduates. In a collaborative study of the Conference Board, Corporate Voices for Working Families, the Partnership for 21<sup>st</sup> Century Skills, and the Society for Human Resource Management, Casner-Lotto and Barrington (2006) investigated more than 400 employers throughout the United States, who evaluated the skills necessary for success in the workplace for new entrants who were recently employed graduates from high school, two-year colleges or technical schools, and four-year colleges. The soft or applied skills emphasized by employers were critical thinking/problem solving, oral communication, written communication, teamwork/collaboration, diversity, information technology application, leadership, creativity/ innovation, lifelong learning/self-direction, professionalism/ work ethic, and ethics/social responsibility. Among them, the most important soft skills were professionalism/work ethic, oral and written communication, teamwork/collaboration, and critical thinking/problem solving.

Pritchard (2013) collected the perspectives from employers and community college administrators on the importance of soft skills in entry-level employment and post-secondary success. The study indicated that soft skills are better predictors of employees' success than hard (technical) skills. The results from the study showed that employers from different fields have different perspectives on defining essential soft skills to their employees. She also reviewed previous research on soft skills and summarized the top soft skills reported by employers, which

included communication, critical thinking/problem solving, teamwork/interpersonal, professionalism/work ethic, adaptability, decision-making, self-management/self-direction, attitude/enthusiasm, lifelong learning, creativity/innovation, coordination, and leadership. Pritchard described seven categories of soft skills, which are communication, problem solving/adaptability, teamwork/interpersonal, professionalism/Integrity, reliability, self-direction, and creativity/innovation. The findings showed that soft skills are as essential as other technical skills, but not all the soft skills are equal to employers; employers reported that many crucial soft skills were lacking in job applicants. Further, there were some similarities between employers and college administrators on the importance of soft skills; top soft skills were prioritized as professionalism/integrity, and reliability while communication was the soft skill most often lacking. Nonetheless, there were some differences in the perspectives of community college administrators and employers; employers had the opinion that community colleges put more emphasis on written skills and less on verbal skills, teamwork/interpersonal skills while community college administrators perceived more deficits of reliability and professionalism, and fewer issues with problem solving skills in job applicants than employers saw. Crawford, Lang, Fink, Dalton, and Fielitz (2011) stated that employers and alumni paid more attention to soft skills than to hard or professional skills that were concentrated on by faculty and undergraduate students.

#### *Employers' Perspectives*

Previous studies on employers' perceptions of soft skills needed by new graduates, new entrants, or employees have studied employers ranging from CEOs/Presidents to HR specialists, including senior vice presidents, vice presidents, directors, managers, supervisors, HR specialists (Casner-Lotto & Barrington, 2006), or human resource managers, training managers, line managers, supervisors, and other managers (Williams, 2015).

In another study looking at post-graduation success, Islam, Hamid, Shukri, and Manaf (2013) identified Malaysian graduates' employability skills, the importance of each skill, and concentrated on the gap between the importance of graduates' employability skills to employers and their satisfaction on those skills. The study focused on the identification and evaluation of the perception of employers towards graduates from business majors such as Business, Economics, Accounting, Finance, Banking, etc. The skills evaluated were computational, management, critical thinking, enterprise and entrepreneurial, interpersonal, communication, and thinking. The results of the study revealed that the performance of graduates' employability skills was lower than the importance of those skills.

The importance employers put on soft skills has been researched by others. In a study entitled “Executive perceptions of the top 10 soft skills needed in today’s workplace,” Robles (2012) categorized 10 top soft skills that were reviewed as the most important attributes in job applicants by business executives including integrity, communication, courtesy, responsibility, social skills, positive attitude, professionalism, flexibility, teamwork, and work ethic. In this study, business executives evaluated the soft skills that employers needed from their employees. The findings indicated that educators might apply the list of soft skills in their classes to promote these skills to improve the employability for new graduates. However, students themselves must recognize how crucial these skills are in order to succeed in their future workplace.

#### *Students’ Perspectives*

Crawford, et al (2011) in “Comparative analysis of soft skills: What is important for new graduates?” collected multiple perspectives from students, faculty, alumni, and employers regarding the importance of soft skills for new graduates. The study employed seven soft skill clusters: experiences, team skills, communication, leadership, decision making/problem solving, self-management, and professionalism. A similar study “Evaluating employability skills: Employer and Student perceptions” by Saunders and Zuzel (2010), explored the correlation between employers with students or graduates on their perceptions towards employability skills, preparedness of students and graduates for future employment. An employability skills inventory that was compiled according to employers’ needs from their employees was used by students or graduates to self-assess their own strengths and weaknesses.

Some studies regarding importance of soft skills have used interviews. Williams (2015) explored the perceptions of employers and community college students using semi-structured interviews of business and computer students and employers. The results of the study were organized into the following areas: the most essential soft skills students perceived as relevant employability skills, the most essential skills employers perceive as relevant in the selection and recruitment processes, the relevant soft skills for employment from students’ and employers’ perceptions that community college students acquire, the assistance that community college can



do to offer students to develop or improve relevant soft skills needed for successful future employment.

Figure 1. List of soft skills were summarized by Williams (2015, p.39)

Key Soft Skills Identified in Literature	Clarification of Soft Skills	Author(s)
Communication	Oral, written, and nonverbal means of processing and sharing information.	Evers, Rush, and Berdrow, (as cited in Arensdorf (2009), and Klein (2009)
Critical thinking	Ability to evaluate ideas–self-criticism, constructive critique of others’ ideas.	Brungardt (2009) and Heimler (2010)
Decision-making	Using accurate information to determine action.	Kar (2011)
Interpersonal	Working and/or interacting well with others.	Adams (2007), Heimler (2010), and Kar (2011)
Negotiation	Using power tactics to arrive at agreement or compromise; cooperating with others.	Bates and Phelan (2002)
Problem solving	Generating and implementing solutions to problems.	Arensdorf (2009) and Kar (2011)
Self-confidence	Belief in one’s competencies and/or abilities; lack of self-doubt.	Fernández-Santander, García-García, Sáez-Pizarro, and Terrón-López (2012)
Self-management	Ability to plan, execute, and monitor one’s activities and goals.	Bates and Phelan (2002) and Brown, Hillier, and Warren (2010)
Teamwork	Ability to work well in groups or teams; collaborating with others.	Mitchell (2008) and Raftopoulos et al. (2009)
Work ethic	Modeling professionalism and business etiquette.	Raftopoulos et al. (2009) and Heimler (2010)

The study showed that the most important and most lacking skills was communication; training program could help students improve their soft skills and the quality of soft skills before they applied for their employment. Therefore, the study suggested that universities or colleges

should assist their students to enhance the relevant and essential soft skills that employers require in job application procedure.

Another by Ralman and Ngah (2015) on “Student perception on the importance of soft skills for education and employment” developed a list of twelve soft skills based on previous studies: communication, leadership, teamwork capability, creativity, problem solving, critical thinking, common knowledge, negotiating skills, responsibility, business management, conflict management, time management. The results interestingly revealed that communication was selected at the top of the list of soft skills while leadership and teamwork were chosen as the most important skills; communication was ranked at the 3<sup>rd</sup> position. However, this study recommended that problem-based learning was needed to integrate in technical subject for their engineering students.

Basing on the results and suggestions from these two studies, two lists of soft skills were considered and synthesized for the current student participants in the study who were language majored students, not business or engineering majors in these two previous studies. The current participants had to choose what skills were considered as soft skills, which soft skills were important to them, which soft skills were important for future employment, and which soft skills they had already acquired and those which still needed to be improved. The list of 12 soft skills were applied in this study were communication, leadership, teamwork capability, creativity, problem solving, critical thinking, common knowledge, negotiating skills, responsibility, business management, conflict management, time management.

### **The Importance of Soft Skills to University Students**

According to many articles and research reports, soft skills are not only more important than or as important as hard skills (Rider & Klaeyen, 2015) but also are preferred by employers in the recruitment procedure. For example, Ralman and Ngah (2015) reported in their study that soft skills and attitude were more valued by employers than technical knowledge or competencies. Schulz (2008) mentioned that soft skills can play a crucial role in shaping an individual's personality by complementing their hard skills to fulfill employability ability. In one study by Stanford Research Institute International, it was reported that 75% of employability success depends on soft (people) skills, while only 25% is dependent on hard (technical) skills (Klaus, 2010; Ibarra, 2017). Soft skills are regarded as the extremely important skills in the job requirements; therefore, employers emphasize the role of educators to teach their students soft skills (Sutton, 2002, cited in Robles, 2012) in preparing them to be secure in future employment.

### *Contributions of language learning to soft skill development*

McGonigal-Kenney (2018) stated that STEM (science, technology, engineering, and math) are not the only valuable 21<sup>st</sup> century skills, but also foreign language skills, which are of added value in American education. Still, she confirmed that soft skills are valued by employers as byproducts of foreign language acquisition since, in the process of learning a foreign language, soft skills are being built up. Among the soft skills are communicating and listening well, possessing different values and points of view, having empathy toward others, being a good critical thinker, and making connections across complex ideas (McGonigal-Kenney, 2018). Also, even learning a language at lower proficiency levels can benefit not only soft skill development but also cognitive function since language learning supports academic achievement, improves native language competence and other subjects, and helps prevent dementia (McGonigal-Kenney, 2018). She stated that languages can be learned as early as possible to build up skills that are expected by employers such as Google; likewise, social sciences can also contribute to developing soft skills but in a less direct way.

### *Contributions of social sciences to soft skill development*

According to McGonigal-Kenney (2018), the attributes related to social sciences and humanities are valued and new graduates with academic majors have most significant influence on hiring decision made by employers. However, several authors have claimed that it is time that degrees in the humanities, such as languages, philosophy, history, the arts, and beyond should be valued by employers. As Mark Cuban, a billionaire investor said, in 10 years' time, foreign languages and other social sciences will still be relevant and even critical in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Steve Jobs likewise argued that STEM is not enough; experts in "the human, cultural, and social as well as the computational" will be more necessary in the future (as cited in McGonigal-Kenney, 2018).

From the literature review and the aims of this study, more research is needed on the perspectives of students in the humanities regarding soft skills. Thus, this study specifically targeted final-year language majors. The list of soft skills employed was adapted from the two studies that are most closely related as their focus was on students' perspectives and the participants were also university students: Williams (2015) and Ramlan and Ngah (2015). The review of related literature indicated that perceptions vary among employers, employees, graduates, and students who are going to complete their university or college. This study focused on the last group by investigating fourth-year students at the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Ubon Ratchathani University. As participants were asked about the soft skills needed for their future employment, their understanding about soft skills, how they perceive the importance of soft skills

themselves and in job employment, and how they acquire and develop soft skills to secure their future employability.

To fulfill these aims, the study included the following questions

1. What are soft skills according to students' understanding?
2. What are the most important soft skills to students?
3. What are the most important soft skills for job employment?
4. What are soft skills that students possess and lack?

## **Research Methodology**

### *Research design*

In the study, the participants were students who majored in Vietnamese Language and Communication in the Faculty of Liberal Arts. They were in their final year at university. The study would collect data from a questionnaire on fourth year students' perspectives towards their understanding of soft skills, the importance of soft skills to themselves and to new graduates, and how students acquired and developed their soft skills while they were in the university. Data were also collected from a semi-structured interview and a follow-up questionnaire in order to obtain further information. The following sections are organized by the areas mentioned in the questionnaire.

*Part I: Students' understanding of soft skills.* After selecting the list of soft skills, they were put in a questionnaire, and students were asked to select which ones they considered soft skills.

*Part II: Perceptions on the importance of soft skills.* Another list of items asking about the importance of soft skills based on Ramlan and Ngah (2015) was put into a questionnaire format to which students were asked to agree or disagree about the contribution of those soft skills to themselves.

*Part III: Soft skills that students perceived as important for job employment.* Since students' perceptions of skills needed may differ by major, a list of soft skills adapted from Williams (2015) and Ramlan and Ngah (2015) was given out to students to determine how they perceived soft skills that were important to employment and which soft skills were more and less important to get the job. In this part, students ranked the skills from the most important to least important in supporting their employability.

*Part IV: Students' acquisition and improvement on soft skills.* As Robles (2012) mentioned, university graduates do not have the set of soft skills they need to be successful at university or at work. Moreover, Mangan (2007, cited in Robles, 2012) indicated that interpersonal skills that were

valued by employers were not taught. The last part of the study was to ask students to self-assess which soft skills they had already acquired and which soft skills they did not possess yet.

#### *Data collection and analysis*

The questionnaire was administered in the second semester of academic year 2017 with one group of 30 majors of Vietnamese Language and Communication at Ubon Ratchathani University. As previously stated, the participants were in their final year at the university and they were supposed to be ready to apply for employment after their graduation, so they should have known about what skills or knowledge would be required for their employability. In addition to the questionnaire, interviews were conducted with five students who were selected randomly to answer follow-up questions related to the questionnaire. The questionnaire and interviews were conducted in Thai for students' better understanding of the questionnaire items and interview questions. The interview questions clustered four main aspects from the questionnaire, but they were asked follow-up questions to give further explanations for their answers. Each participant was given about ten minutes to answer five questions.

The data collected from the questionnaire were calculated with frequency, percentage, mean, and standard deviation. The qualitative data collected from the interviews were translated, transcribed and descriptively explained to more deeply explore the quantitative results to the four research questions.

### **Results and Discussion**

This section presents and describes the results from the questionnaire and open-ended interviews according to four research questions

#### *Part I Understanding of soft skills*

In this part, the results to answer for research question 1 "What are soft skills through students' understanding?" are presented. The participants were asked to check which skills they consider soft skills. Table 1 presents the top ten soft skills which were selected by at least 15 out of 30 (i.e. 50%) of the participants. Among these ten, interpersonal, passion and optimism were selected most often (28 out of 30 or 93%), followed by communication, negotiation and self-confidence with 22 out of 30 (73%). As stated previously, all of the other soft skills listed in Table 1 were selected by at least 50% of the participants.

**Table 1. Participants' Understanding of Soft Skills**

<b>No.</b>	<b>Skills</b>	<b>Frequency</b>	<b>Percentage (%)</b>
1	Interpersonal	28	93
2	Passion and Optimism	28	93
3	Communication	22	73
4	Negotiation	22	73
5	Self-confidence	22	73
6	Decision making	21	70
7	Willing to learn	19	63
8	Creativity	18	60
9	Conflict management	18	60
10	Making presentations	17	57

Three of the above soft skills, namely communication, negotiation, and conflict management skills, were also selected by engineering students in Malaysia in the study by Ramlan and Ngah (2015). Two soft skills (communication and decision-making skills) in Table 1 also appeared in the final list of soft skills in the project by Crawford, et al. (2011). Interpersonal, and passion and optimism seem to indicate that language majors are more concerned about personal characteristics than learnable skills. Moreover, these concerns were further strengthened by the participants' answers in the interview with three out of the five mentioning that soft skills were related to personal skills or personalities and based on each person and not about their professional skills. Some other soft skills that arose in the interviews were listening and speaking skills, life skills, work skills, language use skills, communication skills, friendliness, management, and problem-solving.

*Part II Perceptions on the importance of soft skills*

In Part II, the participants were asked to evaluate the importance of soft skills to themselves through a 5-point Likert scale (Strongly disagree, Agree, Neutral, Agree, Strongly Agree). Table 2 shows that they mostly agree or strongly agree as they believe soft skills are important for career development and "must have" skills ( $\bar{x}=4.47$ ). Moreover, the participants also considered soft skills would help them get a better job and have more value-added. However, the participants disagreed that soft skills were difficult to acquire, that soft skills were more important than hard skills, and that they can get highly-paid jobs even if they do not have soft skills as indicated with the low mean scores of 2.67, 2.43, and 2.63 respectively.

**Table 2. Participants' Perceptions on the Importance of Soft Skills**

<b>No.</b>	<b>Items</b>	<b>Mean</b>	<b>SD</b>
1	I also believe that soft skills are important for career development	4.47	0.63
2	I think soft skills are “must have” skills, not only “good to have” skills	4.47	0.63
3	I can get better job if I equipped myself with soft skills	4.27	0.78
4	I consider myself as having more value-added if I have some soft skills	4.07	0.64
5	I believe that nowadays soft skills are really required by employers	3.63	0.96
6	I feel it difficult to acquire soft skills compared to my technical/ core/ major skills	2.67	1.18
7	I still can get a job with high pay even though I did not have soft skills	2.63	1.07
8	I think soft skills are less important than technical skills	2.43	1.25
	<b>Total</b>	<b>3.58</b>	<b>0.89</b>

The results from the questionnaire for Part II showed that the participants agreed that soft skills were important for them to apply for jobs, to prepare for their employment. The participants also knew that employers would hire more employees with soft skills. Therefore, they recognized that they would gain more value if they gained more soft skills, or they might get higher pay with soft skills. These results were consistent with Ramlan and Ngah (2015)'s study. However, the engineering majors from Ramlan and Ngah (2015)'s study confided that it was harder for them to acquire soft skills than hard skills since they were trained with hard skills during their university study. In contrast, VLC majors in this study reported that it was not difficult for them to gain soft skills. A possible explanation is that language students are trained more with soft skills or they might train themselves with these skills.

Additionally, in the interviews four out of five students viewed soft skills as important or very important since these skills could help them to be successful or to gain achievement in life. However, one of them said soft skills were not important because she had the opinion that hard skills were more important to have a better life, and companies needed them more than soft skills.

### *Part III Importance of soft skills to employment*

This part of the study examined participants' perceptions of how important the different soft skills were to employment according to the list of 12 soft skills adapted from Williams (2015)

and Ramlan and Ngah (2015). The lowest score indicates the most important skills since number 1 was listed as the most important skill and number 12 as the least important skill. Among these 12 soft skills, more personal skills were generally ranked higher than other skills. Self-confidence and communication were the among the skills that the participants ordered at the top of the list (see Table 3). Communication is proved to be among the top soft skills that students thought all working people need; both employers and employees need this skill (Schwantes, 2017). In contrast, work-related skills, such as self-management and work ethic were ranked as the least important skills (i.e. those with the highest scores). While Leadership and Teamwork were among the top skills in Ramlan and Ngah (2015)'s study, they were in the middle as sixth and seventh, respectively in the present study. Moreover, critical thinking and negotiation were in opposite positions in these two studies; critical thinking was in the fourth position in Ramlan and Ngah (2015)'s study but in 10<sup>th</sup> position in the current study, and negotiation was in the fourth position

**Table 3. Importance of Soft Skills to Employment**

<b>No.</b>	<b>Skills</b>	<b>Scores</b>
1	Self-confidence	160
2	Communication	164
3	Decision making/ Problem solving	165
4	Negotiation	172
5	Experiences	173
6	Leadership	179
7	Teamwork	180
8	Interpersonal	181
9	Flexibility	195
10	Critical thinking	199
11	Self-management	213
12	Work ethic	217

in the present study but in the eighth position in Ramlan and Ngah (2015)'s study. The difference in the participants' perception on the importance of soft skills between Ramlan and Ngah (2015) and this study might be explained from their difference between their majors or between Malaysian and Thai cultures.

Added details from the interviews revealed that most of the participants knew soft skills helped them solve problems at work, work in groups, or collaborate with others more successfully. The importance of soft skills to their job application was also touched on in the interviews. Four out of five interviewees agreed that soft skills helped them be more confident in themselves and made it easier for them to get a job while the last one said these skills were not important since the



employer wanted their employees to be smart and have good skills to apply at work. This person was possibly attached to hard skills only, but she also somehow mentioned that “smart” included their tactful skills outside of their profession or hard skills.

*Part IV Improvement on soft skills*

The final section of this study concerned participants’ acquisition and improvement of soft skills. In this part, the participants were asked to select five soft skills that they thought they needed to improve. Among the list of 12 soft skills, six were named by at least 13 out of the 30 participants and are shown in Table 4. The participants tended to select soft skills on personality or interpersonal skills, such as communication, self-confidence, self-management, interpersonal. These skills were different from those found in Ramlan and Ngah (2015)’s study since *negotiation* and *critical thinking* skills were among the top skills that engineering students felt they needed to improve.

**Table 4. Participants’ Improvement on Soft Skills**

<b>No.</b>	<b>Skills</b>	<b>Scores</b>
1	Communication	17
1	Self-confidence	17
3	Self-management	16
4	Interpersonal skills	15
5	Leadership	14
6	Flexibility	13

As follow-up questions to Part IV, “Which soft skills among the list of twelve soft skills mentioned did you learn in your university time? Which ones didn’t you learn?” were asked of the interviewees, and the students indicated that soft skills they did not achieve in their student life were critical thinking and work ethic. Of the five interviewees, only one stated that she did have leadership, negotiation, flexibility and self-management. She further mentioned that she joined many activities organized by the university of faculty, and these could help her gain more of these skills. In addition, all of them thought that they could train themselves in these soft skills, but three argued that some skills such as teamwork, leadership should be taught at schools or universities. According to Moro (2018), all these soft skills in the humanities fields are highly transferable, valuable, and necessary skills. Therefore, time and effort are worth being invested more to develop for new graduates to achieve more soft skills for their employment. This part also helped to notice students know they should prepare themselves to acquire more soft skills that they lacked to prepare themselves well for employment after their graduation.

**Conclusion**

Essential soft skills for employability from students' perceptions were the focus of this research. More specifically, a questionnaire asked language students who were going to graduate and apply for jobs about the crucial soft skills they needed to be ready for work, the importance of soft skills for employment, their current competence in soft skills, and their need to develop others to be successful. The results from this study indicated that the student focused more on personal skills such as interpersonal, passion, optimism, communication, negotiation, self-confidence as soft skills. They agreed that soft skills were important for career development and could help them get better jobs. They did not think that soft skills were difficult to acquire and were more important than hard skills. Moreover, students listed self-confidence and communication skills more often as important than other work-related skills such as decision making/problem solving or negotiation skills. In their answers, the participants were generally consistent with their selection of the importance of soft skills and which soft skills were necessary to improve for themselves as they also ranked communication, self-confidence, self-management, interpersonal skills in the top list of skills they needed to improve. Based on the findings, several pedagogical implications are suggested to higher education institutions where soft skills should be implemented into teaching curricula to prepare students' employability skills after graduation.

### **Pedagogical Implications**

Scholars such as McGonigal-Kenney (2018) have pointed out that soft skills have not been taught in formal education to the extent that hard (technical or professional) skills have been. In other cases, graduates are employed, but they would not get a better position because they do not possess good soft skills as required. Therefore, students or graduates should be well prepared for the challenging job market and soft skills contribute essential value to the job seeking process for them. Those soft skills that are crucial or that students lack, such as communication, self-confidence, self-management, and interpersonal skills should be integrated into educational curricula through university life or activities despite the challenges or issues of teaching soft skills to students (Williams, 2015). Saunders & Zuzel (2010) also emphasized the importance of aligning employability with academic values since they should embrace employability skills in the teaching curriculum, in the plan for students' personal development.

Several types of experiential learning such as "internship, service learning project, job shadowing, field visits" give students direct exposure to working environment where students could reinforce their soft skills (Nunn, 2013). These learning types should be included or integrated in academic programs (Ngang, Chan, & Vetriveilmany, 2015). Besides, Nunn (2013) reviewed from a research project by Chandigarh, India and suggested that "experiential learning, role-playing

and demonstration, team working methods, case studies and problem-solving, and extra-curricular activities” were among the top five methods that might develop soft skills for students in both general and professional education courses. In addition, embedded and stand-alone subject models were implemented into academic curriculum at higher education institutions (Ngang et al, 2015).

In integrating soft skill training into curricula, several ways of learning such as authentic learning, simulation, other language learning activities should be considered as their effectiveness has been demonstrated in many studies. Firstly, Stenger (2018) stated that authentic learning prepares learners for the real world and 21<sup>st</sup> century skills, helps learners become informed about their career choice, and promote their soft skills such as creativity, critical thinking, engagement and motivation, collaboration and teamwork, and problem-solving. In addition, Buphate & Esteban (2018) also concluded that critical thinking is necessary not only for students to prepare themselves in the challenging job market but also for teachers to apply critical thinking approaches in their classroom activities. Integrating critical thinking skills into language learning should be revolutionized in Thai education (Buphate & Esteban, 2018). Furthermore, simulation is regarded as an effective EFL classroom activity since Tipmontree (2015) found that it promoted students’ communicative competences in oral business English. Communication activities in simulation enhanced not only students’ language knowledge, skills, and strategies, but also their motivation and self-confidence in using English (Tipmontree, 2015). Moreover, Collins-Dunbar (2017) noted that successful people are those who possess more soft skills that help them in their life and their language learning as well.

### **Limitations**

This study was limited to one group of 30 participants at a university in Thailand; therefore, the results cannot be generalized beyond this context. Further studies should be conducted with a greater number of participants studying different disciplines to have a greater range of students’ perspectives on soft skills and to investigate whether the importance of various soft skills differs according to disciplines or according to culture. Moreover, perspectives from faculty staff, newly-hired employees, and employers should also be studied to have a more comprehensive view of the issues investigated in this study.

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**IS EDUCATION A RIGHT OR A PRIVILEGE?  
A DIRECTION TO THE 21<sup>ST</sup> CENTURY**

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**Abstract**

It is very interesting to discuss how relevant and important education is, not only in the Philippines but in the whole worldwide. It seems to appear that people are empowered and given a high privilege with educational attainment as seen on them but had never realized if this would be a right or a privilege.

Everyone has to be educated, gaining knowledge and deemed to everyone's right to combat illiteracy. On the contrary, some perceive education as a privilege and had given more attention especially when one attains higher education and has a greater priority in the society where he is empowered than others.

The differentiation between these two delivers its view on how it is analyzed and perceived. This has something to do with how we get involved in the government, participate as a public servant in whatever sector it belongs to attain our objectives in developing society, community and other institutions. This provides everyone a space to deliver, to participate with no hesitation, to empower rather than to show powerlessness in achieving harmony and development for all constituents.

This investigation tried to find out the status, problems and adaptations of every educator to a public servant, other recipient in analysing whether education is a right or privilege.

Keywords: education, citizen empowerment, academe

**Introduction**

In democratic state like the Philippines it is essential that the citizens are literate, socially responsible, useful and law abiding. Due to this fact, the government through the Constitution has

established a comprehensive educational system to make the vision realistic in producing literate citizens.

Article XIV of the 1987 Constitution states that the state shall establish and/or provide as such: 1- quality education accessible to all (sec.1), 2- complete, adequate, integrated and relevant education. It has a very tangible evidence or even understood that education is a right. But in some notions, when one has acquired education, he makes himself a privileged individual. To some explanations on the other hand, these two are complementary, however, this depends on how it is used, applied and understood.

The Philippine Education recognizes the natural right and duties of parents to rear their children. The right and duties have been granted by the Constitution (1987 Const. Art. 2, sec 12 ).

The provision of general education program is one of the objectives which will assist each individual to develop his potential as human being, enhance the quality of citizen participation in the basic function of society and promote in each student a sense of national identity, cultural consciousness, moral integrity and spiritual vigor.

People understand the various meanings of education, although not all understand how education is carried about. Viewing the real scenario, this may probably be considered a right and later a privilege. Humme (2012) strongly expressed that access to education is a right and never will it be a privilege. With this idea of putting forward education as a right, Roolvink (2012) quoted Pov, a primary school teacher in Cambodia that “education is an integral part of a nation’s future therefore the country needs to invest in the commitment to fulfil the right to education of the citizens”.

Understanding social realism, which was an aristocrat movement in the 16<sup>th</sup> and the 17<sup>th</sup> centuries yet, Michael Montaigne (1533-1592), stressed one agency of education which was the Ritter Akademie, a school that was established for the sons of the nobility. This may probably be concluded that education is a privileged when it is categorized to be of such. On the contrary, if this had to be practiced, many would be criticizing negatively as a strong evidence of partiality. A clear proof of privilege is present, but it only applies to those whose names appear in the community. Educational reforms should be implemented to include not only providing access to education but also providing access to curriculum reforms like the inclusion of English as a Second Language subject in the primary school like the case of Indonesia (Yuwono and Harbon, 2010).

Directing to the 21<sup>st</sup> century, the government should be a front-liner in the nation’s development. Regardless of status in life, if one can contribute to the harmony of the society in



progressing, through opening the door to all concerns with no hesitations of acceptance and involvement, then it shall therefore be heard and accepted.

### **Significance of the study**

Importantly, this study determines the value of education either to individual's right or privilege. How it is carried and valued by anyone who had achieved its role in the society, or how privileged a person is when he is educated. Today's application is a preparation towards a greater essence in the 21<sup>st</sup> century and onwards. The government has a greater role in showing empowerment that anyone could have without biases when an interest is for the welfare of all.

### **Objectives:**

- To determine the essence of being literate in education as a right or having an education that could serve or make someone privileged in whatever situations.
- To determine how education is perceived by the different regions of different perspective on the value of education.
- To analyze its aspect on both terms as to the perception of anyone, deliver an information drive the value of existing issue and a case to case basis that maybe used.
- To determine the participation of people to the government where empowerment to everyone is seen. Whether one has only achieved basic education as his right or being more privileged thru when he has taken specifically higher learning in education.
- To determine how right is perceived in the community or how privilege is perceived by the people. To determine the perception and acceptance considering their culture, beliefs and social status.
- The researcher utilized a descriptive method that attempts to find out the differences and complementary between a right and a privilege what education is. It also designed to apply concept to new front-lines for an analysis where it valued most.

### **Problems:**

- Overeducated – when more privileges are given like in the case of a multi-profession, sometimes it resulted to unemployment in such a case, jobs may only be accepted if the offer commensurate to what they have earned and expecting for high salary. And if none, they automatically reject the offer.
- Social status – (below average level) not courageous in dealing with responsible people having the knowledge of the possible benefits where they can have an access.

- Overpowered – too much empowerment without exceptions and exemptions.
- Powerlessness – education is an absolute right, but human right is sometimes forgotten that made someone powerlessness.
- Unawareness – whether perceived as a right or as a privilege.
- Less education – insecurity in obtaining right.

**Causes:**

- Obtaining multi-professions when there is available time without foreseeing the effect, advantages and disadvantages. (depriving other's chances)
- Natural applications observed when one is known to be powerful. (lobbying in government agencies – inequality is sometimes practiced)
- Education is sometimes given less importance. Unsustainable.
- Status quo. – (pretend/unaware)

**Effects:**

- Inefficiency / ineffective role
- Biases
- Human rights violation
- Undesirable attitude
- Poverty is anticipated
- Ignorance

**Issue:**

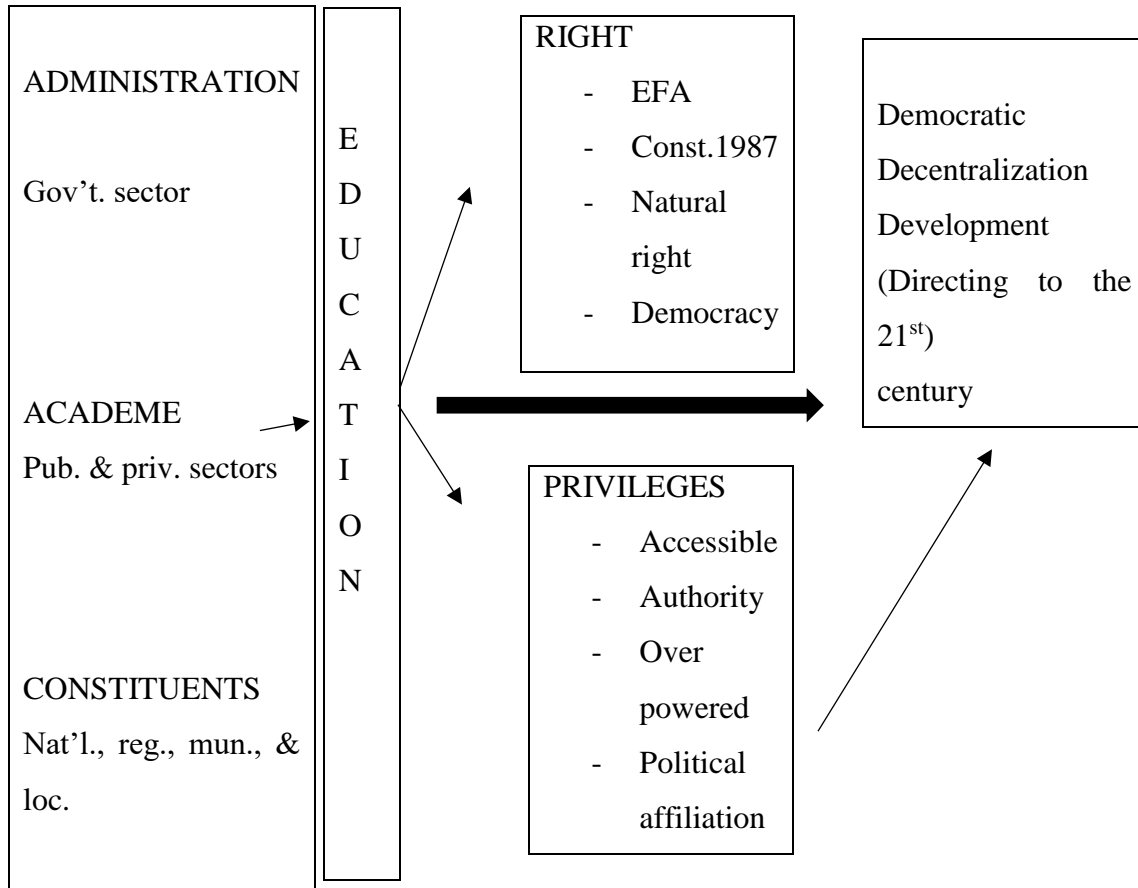
**Education: Is it a right or a privilege? Gathering some point of views in determining its essence and importance.**

**CONCEPT:**

Guidelines on education and the importance it could bring. Directing to the 21<sup>st</sup> century in obtaining development and will not create conflict in either public or private sectors and among individuals.

Participations are to be introduced regularly by means of an open forum with no biases and true to all constituents.

Make a view point on the rights and the privileges.



Art. XIV, Sec 1 stressed that the state shall protect and promote the right of all citizens to quality education at all levels and shall take appropriate steps to make such education accessible to all.

Further, Art. XIV, stressed that the state shall establish, maintain and support a complete, adequate and integrated system of education relevance to the need of the people and society.

There are attributes that are easy to determine. These attributes are those characterized persons with such attitudes on how one values education or shows a great role in perceiving education. Many things are to consider whether it proves that education is a right or a privilege. Others, it has something to do or done by himself/ herself but also in collaboration with the outside factors that he could determine and that education either or neither a right nor a privilege and vice versa.

The government is one entity that can attribute to this effect, by means of providing what is due to the people for them to be heard and be given an ample time for conversation, an open forum and other necessities. Privilege is a complementary act provided this is used in a righteous way

that does not create a conflict with others and passed other rights. Both are useful if we deeply analyze, it is only a matter on how it is used.

The government has a huge role in education. Directing to the 21<sup>st</sup> century, plans must be orderly made. Programs and projects need a proper direction that show no biases to all. If changes are needed, then change for the good when development is the most crucial thought of interest.

The government must bear in mind that the desire for education has tremendously increased. This may be due to the fact that the parents have an intense desire not to allow their children to go through the hardships they have gone through. Since parents have no material wealth to bequeath to their children, they thought that education is the best inheritance they can give to their children because it cannot be stolen or taken away from them.

What government could be served to the people if democratization is not a practice? Sustainance has to be given to the people since it is a right for them to be educated, a right as a citizen of the nation. It is the government’s responsibility to provide information to the public of the right of those who are powerless.

It was once instructed by the former President Ferdinand E. Marcos in his letter of instructions towards the improvement of the system, that, democratization of access to educational opportunities must be a concern.

Although, privilege may also be undertaken but in a case to be considered if a greater chance is seen and provided equally as well. As it is mentioned earlier, both have its own relevance and significance but must be used in a right and proper way. To some extent, interference of politics that could be a menace shall be avoided if possible.

Historically, people have had many different ideas of education. Some have thought that its main purpose is to preserve the great things from the past such as literature, some thought just teaching of manners and ruling classes while others have cared most about teaching religious beliefs to the next generations.

Table I (IS EDUCATION A RIGHT OR A PRIVILEGE?)

Content	Issues	Indications
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On the other hand, education is a right and is entitled to all citizens. A right that everyone must be educated, moving forward to development. Uphold and enhance literacy. Education is a precious gift anyone could attain.

Education has always been explained that it is consistent with facts and general beliefs. Anyone would always have the right saying when education is done and achieved, it would mean proper. Furthermore, the advantages and disadvantages shall also be known, to mention a few:

#### ADVANTAGES

- Right of the citizen
- Special honor/ recognition
- Knowledge awareness
- Selected/ elite
- Educated/ cultured

#### DISADVANTAGES

- Enjoyed only by the elite
- Restricted benefits
- Over-power
- Exaggerating
- Chosen few

What development are we going to push if people's attitudes are the main problem? The government program must prioritize in information drive, counselling, monitoring and other activities that will establish and create harmony among people living in a community.

Basically, national problems are those of individuals and families that are multiplied several times. The same attributes that spell out success for individuals are equally potent in determining the future of the nation.

The tasked agency should plan activities of the above programs to function effectively, a fair delivery of chance is prorated to individuals with just and capability. Though it is said, it has to be given consideration of the rights, but sometimes people ignore to give value to what have been provided to them. An avoidance of if necessary, wasted time and effort should also be taken into consideration.

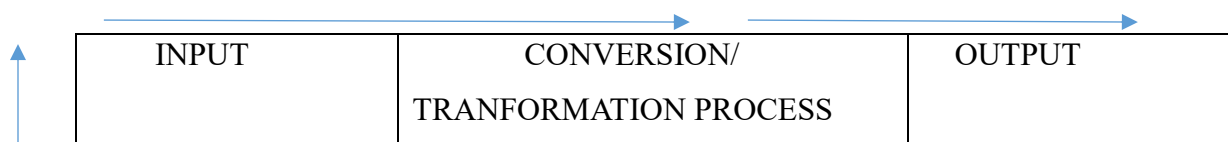
The researcher made a quick survey to a few constituents in different barangays in a small groups.

Table II Barangay's survey on education right and privilege analysis.

<b>BARANGAY Constituents</b>	<b>TOPIC</b>	<b>RIGHT</b>	<b>PRIVILEGE</b>	<b>OUTCOME</b>
1	Education	Less enthusiasm	Negative perception	Not participative
2	Education	Positive	Positive	Awareness Participative
3	Education	Positive when done properly	Almost all positive	Active/passive participation
4	Education	It serves ,morally good	Positive	Awareness
5	Education	Part of human rights	When only acknowledged	Not participative

The researcher surveys few respondents in 5 different barangays (illustration showed in table II) there is an indication that the government officials have something to do with the community as it shows that none participation has a greater effect. Education had not been fully given and advised. It shows a less consultation and a vague reciprocal approach between the authority and the people in the community. There should have an emphasis on education, it is democratic and universal education. In fact, it is an obligation for one to acquire an education.

Table III Overview of System Management



<p>EDUCATION</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-manpower</li> <li>-money</li> <li>-methods</li> <li>-materials</li> <li>-motion</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>- Free education</li> <li>- Open forum</li> <li>- A notice of grants</li> <li>- Programs/activities</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-education</li> <li>-benefits</li> <li>-rights</li> <li>-empowerment</li> <li>-openness</li> <li>-development</li> <li>-democracy</li> </ul>
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Feedback + -



The table shows an overview of a system that serves the guidelines. The citizens as the manpower and other Ms are inputs serving tangible proofs for the system to run. Any project aiming for a development is not possible if the said Ms are not recognized and prioritized. When inputs are all given, these have to go through on the process of giving notices of grants, an open forum to all qualified individuals for free education and implementation of programs and projects. When these are all processed, probable outcomes are to be expected and monitored. If the feedback turns positive, the government must continue and maintain in providing what is due to the people, but if not, still should not cease in doing so but investigate causes of negative outcomes. The provision of education shall continue as this is said to be the right. According to George Washington of United States of America, in order for democracy to work, it needed an educated people and that education should be available to all, there shall be no discrimination in providing education considering the human rights. If the people are strongly imbued with the ideals of democracy, they may adapt universal education as their educational philosophy.

Education is a responsibility of any society that wants to survive. The full realization of the right to education is dependent upon the effective enforcement of the state obligation.

Education is the fundamental human right and essential for the exercise of human rights, it promotes individual freedom and empowerment and yields important development benefits. Yet, millions of children and adults remain deprived of education opportunities, many as a result of poverty.



On the contrary, though this may be a right, but not all are given a privilege. Education is a privilege, because in some places where poverty exist, people cannot afford to go to school and without education, children from the area of poverty will live bad lives, lack of income and education. Without it, life would be ruined and would be tough to live through. It is only a privilege because parents can afford to bring their children to school.

Human culture only advances through the transfer of knowledge and people can only make decisions based on their education, (whether it is a formal or self-education). In this light, democracy can only be successful if those who are well educated can evaluate the issues objectively.



The above picture shows children who are deprived of education. Classrooms are forgotten where playgrounds are their best resting place.

The educational effort should be exerted and be given a direction: for instance, the government should;

- 1- establish elementary schools all over the country that are accessible to all children of school age
- 2- make elementary education free to enable all children to go to school
- 3- admit all children of school age regardless of religion, creed, race or ethnic origin.

The government should also provide schooling for the handicapped such as the physically deformed deaf mutes, blind and mentally retarded. In some cases, these people are neglected of

rights and privileges. They lost their involvement in the society which the government should therefore give a space and time for a kind like them. The inferiority seems to be increasing when disabilities are manifested by themselves. The school must be provided as a SPED maybe.

## **FINDINGS**

The findings of the study showed that the respondents had given their opinions in analyzing whether it is a right or a privilege directing to the 21<sup>st</sup> century. This explains more on situational applications. In as much as education is concerned considering the human rights, this must be an absolute right basing from the education Magna Carta of 2000 that EFA (education for all) must be applied. A right for all citizens to be educated and that literacy must be enhanced otherwise. Everyone will be given the chance to participate in education empowering them to such right. Every individual must be allowed to have a full participation not only in the school campuses but in public governance and other sectors to help develop the community and the society if the local officials give way as a democratic government to those in the academe to participate in any program due in the locality where it can contribute to the development directing to the 21<sup>st</sup> century. This must not only be confined and be directed by those in authority but somehow be addressed in the lower levels where empowerment is seen and given. This has something to do in delivering authority to those involved for a positive constructions and criticisms as there will be an open consultation to all concerned if development is the common interest and objective. The differences had been seen that privilege is valued most particularly in the provinces that is noted to be advantageous when one has attained education, compared in the city that education is really a full right that, showing the fact everyone must be sent to school with the support of the government by bringing them out to participate and be a part of the society, to empower them to practice their rights. Although there has been a tendency among others to dismiss the political approach interest in participation as idealistic. It should be noted with emphasis that there are those outstanding examples of long-term citizen participation in public administration.

## **CONCLUSION**

The issues of right and privilege are separable, however there are times that both are used importantly together. Today's world need someone to push it up to reach a success. Let anyone be perseverant and resourceful. Right and privilege are static and it needs to move.

Government should analyze with realization the value of education for all mankind. It could express one's right in carrying what he has achieved in case. It could give honor to anyone who

deserves not only those elite personalities and small groups that have names in the community because of political affiliation. Empowerment should be known and true to public with no biases. If government aims for the development, then he has to study all consequences that could be of great help or a contributory factor for a progressive institution or a well-sustained nation.

To be of such, a question of either a right or a privilege depends on how it is carried and deserved. Both are used and have meaningful thoughts. None from the two issues shall be disregarded but rather be given an importance otherwise.

Aside from the inherent rights from the parents to rear their children, it is for the government to fulfill the obligation both legal and political as regards to providing quality education to all and to implement and monitor more effectively the education strategies.

Today, society sets high demands and importance to education. People are motivated to pursue education because of the economic and social importance attached to it. Hence, education is a motivating factor. Realizing this importance, the objective of education should also be clearly defined. The discovery of the needs of people will lead to the understanding of the role and objectives of education.

The importance and meaning of education to the people comes out as an outgrowth of existing condition which are relevant to present problems in the social and cultural milieu.

## **SUGGESTIONS/ RECOMMENDATIONS**

- The government has to take into account what is due to the people
- The institution should prove a thorough explanation of the value and challenges of education
- Citizens must always be aware of the limitation and gap when a right time is used
- Information drive or notices must be given occasionally to the public
- There should be an open forum, which may start at the barangay level
- Distinction of a privilege to an extent must be emphasized
- Counselling must be provided where public officials can get along with
- Problems must be addressed to the governing body who shall monitor, survey and observe
- The duties and responsibilities tackled by them in implementing what is due to the people
- Other concerned agencies must also be aware of the task bound on them especially on financial matters in the provision of education
- There shall be no practice of biases among the constituents in the community

- The governing body responsible for the task shall be screened by the higher authority for them not to be involved in anomalies in the provision of education
- When aiming for development, there should be a democratic practice of governance, delegate authority to those who are considered potentials, give task to those who deserve
- Protect human rights, avoid dispute, conflict and violation
- Transparency must be observed at all times
- Right and privilege must be both present in education

Would it be a right or a privilege? What counts most is the importance of valuing education. This is a life, a growth, social process and a continuous reconstruction of experience, while the child is the important factor in education. (Rousseau)

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## **The Effects of Video Subtitling on the Grammar Proficiency of Grade Seven Students**

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### **Abstract**

This study investigated the effectiveness of video subtitling in improving the grade seven students' grammar proficiency. The one-group pretest-posttest design was employed in which the grammar proficiency of the participants was measured before and after the implementation of video subtitling. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and paired sample *t*-test. Findings revealed that there was a significant difference on the pretest and posttest grammar proficiency mean scores of the participants after the lessons with video with subtitling. Findings imply that subtitled video can be an effective instructional material for improving grammar proficiency.

**Keywords:** video subtitling, grammar proficiency,

## **Introduction**

According to Celce-Murcia and Freeman (2008), “some readers approach the task of learning grammar with some trepidation.” That is, the very word grammar evokes fear among students. “Grammar is the study of the classification of words, their inflections, their relations and functions in a sentence.” (Merriam-Webster, 2017). It also refers to the set of arbitrary rules that explain how words are used in a language. Countless words without the conventions for how they can be ordered would be chaotic, thus, language and grammar are indispensable (Batsone, 1994). Batsone added that grammar (syntax and morphology) allows people to speak the ‘language system’ for it provides the structure and regularity which lies at the basis of language.

In the traditional point of view, learning grammatical structures was viewed unnecessary due to the assumption that they were presented in isolated meaningless forms and in a decontextualized manner. Grammar was even more swayed away from the language learning scene due to the emergence of Communicative Language Teaching approaches. However, recent studies (Zhang, 2009; Wang, 2010; Saaristo, 2015) provided justifications for viewing grammar

as an essential component in second language acquisition. Zhang's (2009) brief analysis on the necessity of grammar teaching concluded that teaching grammar is important and necessary in English language teaching for it helps students achieve accuracy and fluency. Wang (2010) also noted that grammar cannot be moved out from the language learning scene due to its perceived role in improving students' communicative competence in the English language. On a similar note, Saaristo's (2015) study viewed grammar as the heart of language and has been considered to have an important role in language learning and teaching.

While grammar may be considered vital in language learning, knowledge of grammatical rules and structures may not necessarily guarantee its successful use. According to Celce-Murica and Freeman (2008), one needs to recognise that grammar is not merely a collection of forms but rather involves the three dimensions of what linguists refer to as syntax, semantics, and pragmatics. Nunan, (1997) suggests that exercises and tasks can be provided for learners so they may explore grammatical structures in context, providing them the opportunity to use the language for communication. In line with this view, Halliday (1985) (as cited by Nunan, 1997), points out the need in creating a genuine communication beyond the classroom. He notes that students must be given tasks that will mimic the relationship between grammatical items and the discursual contexts in which they occur to achieve formal appropriacy and functional interpretation. Hence, in order to achieve success in helping students learn grammar, contextualization and use of authentic tasks are recommended. One of the best ways to contextualize the teaching of grammar is the integration of technology in language teaching.

This is in line with the emphasis placed by educational institutions on 21<sup>st</sup> century skills. As such, teachers are encouraged to use multimedia in language teaching and learning.

The term "multimedia" in its current definition emerged at the end of the 1980s. The *Oxford Dictionary Online* defines multimedia as the incorporation of audio and video through computer applications to make a material interactive and using more than one medium of expression or communication in art, education etc. In today's world, there is an inextricable link between multimedia and education. Multimedia is one of the technological innovations in the world of learning. Kohnke (2012) noted that "technology is transforming the way we work and provides new opportunities for learning." According to Niegemann and Heidig (as cited by Seel, 2012), Multimedia learning is defined as exclusively learning with texts and pictures wherein texts are the materials presented in verbal form such as printed and spoken works, and pictures which

include photos, graphics, illustrations, diagrams, maps and dynamic pictures such as animations, videos or films.

Multimedia learning theory rests on the premise that learners can learn deeply, meaningfully and can comprehend a statement better when it is shown in words and pictures than in words alone (Mayer, 2009). Zhang (2016) identified the use of multimedia in the classroom as something that makes the learners have a positive attitude towards learning English. The use of multimedia helps stimulate students' interest in learning, develop students' own habits of self-learning and improve students' ability to imagine and create something new. Also, according to the study of Irshad, and Liu (2018), multimedia offer learners the opportunity to learn at their own pace in an individualized anxiety-free private language learning environment, and this in turn will facilitate learner attainment of course goals. Moreover, it is through multimedia that real-life scenes can be brought to the classroom; therefore, giving the students the chance to cultivate their communication skills.

One of the most widely used types of multimedia in education is the video. Like other components of multimedia, video offers vivid information (Vanghan as cited by Zhang, 2016). In the study conducted by Kaur, Yong, Mohd Zin and DeWitt (2014), the use of videos in an ESL classroom was proven to cognitively stimulate learning. At the same time the use of videos was viewed as be an effective instructional tool. On a similar note, Shelley, Gunter and Gunter (2010) suggest that the integration of video in the classroom has greatly influenced the way the students learn across disciplines. Videos have the ability to give students a variety of learning experiences — lectures, readings and other forms of knowledge that they would not otherwise experience without it. According to Norton and Wilburg (2003), video helps facilitate better comprehension because of its ability to present dynamic and moving patterns of events. A video can also be a source of motivation, entertainment and meaningful input. Also, because of the visual and emotional impact that a video caters, information becomes more meaningful (Alessi & Trollip, 2001). Meunier-Cinko (as cited in Eckman et al., 2010) reported that the use of video can increase cultural understanding because it has context-embedded interactions that provide necessary nonverbal information revealing how language is used in a certain culture. Therefore, videos are necessary to achieve comprehensible input.

As videos are increasingly becoming popular inside the classroom because of their authenticity, subtitling becomes an indispensable tool to aid learners in comprehension. A subtitle is a printed translation of foreign-language dialogue at the bottom of the screen, as in a television broadcast or film. Video subtitling is the process of adding text to a video material. The present study made use of the video material as a meaningful input and used input



enhancement and input flooding in the utilization of subtitles. Input enhancement is providing enhanced and modified input to learners in order to maximize the benefit of the input itself (Mohammed, 2013). Nassaji and Fotos (2011) suggests that textual enhancement is a form of input enhancement that can be done in a variety of ways through modifying the text such as underlining, boldfacing, italicizing, capitalizing, color coding or by combining any of the following mentioned. Through textual enhancement, the embedded target grammatical structure can be easily noticed because the attention of the learners will be drawn into it. According to Atkinson (2011), the study conducted in Brazil by Richard Schimdt concluded that the items which were once noticed were actually learned. The development of the noticing hypothesis views the conscious noticing of grammar structures as a prerequisite in Second Language Acquisition (Atkinson, 2011). Schmidt (as cited by Zhang, 2015), also argues that for learning to take place, there must be constant noticing of input. He suggests that the more one notices something, the more learning there is. Another significant aspect used in the present study is input flooding. Input flood is another form of input enhancement by bombarding and exposing learners to an ample sample of the target linguistic structure orally or in the written form. The assumption of input frequency is that the more frequent a target form is, the more significant it is, thus, making the learners notice and attend to it (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

Another aspect that is also of great significance in the present study is Long's (1997) idea on focus on forms, which states that solely focusing on meaning in language acquisition is not enough to achieve native-like competence. Using a variety of strategies and procedures in a meaning-focused lesson will make the attention of the learner shift to linguistic code features, in context, where they can experience problems as they work on communicative tasks. This presents an idea that there should be a balance between explicit and implicit instruction where communicative interaction is the main focus of instruction while not removing the discussion of the grammar structure in the scene. The need for explicit instruction was tested in a pilot study with findings that when grammar instruction was not incorporated with explicit instruction on rule formation, learning is most unlikely to happen. The present study attempted to provide a balance between implicit and explicit instruction. There was an explicit instruction of the target grammatical structure through PowerPoint presentation while implicit instruction of form was provided through the use of subtitled video.

Ontoy (2012) investigated the use of videos in teaching science to improve the academic performance of 5th grade students. One group of students were taught using the traditional method and one group were taught with the integration of video clips and the results of the study showed

that the group with the integration of videos performed better in the posttest than the group who just received explicit instruction. It was therefore concluded that integrating videos in teaching lessons in science could improve students' academic achievement.

The study of Aldera (2015) has proven that when spoken message is assisted with video clips, graphics and visual cues through multimedia application, improvement of listening comprehension in ESL/EFL could be achieved more. The scores of the experimental group (with multimedia listening tasks) in the study revealed more significance on English language proficiency than the control group (with audio listening tasks). It was shown in the study's findings that the use of multimedia facilitated the improvement of listening skills than merely using audio.

A study by Purnomo (2017) showed that the use of animation video improved the reading comprehension of students and the condition of learning in the classroom. The results of the study showed the improvement of students' reading comprehension using animation video. Findings suggest that the use of animation video has a positive effect in the teaching and learning process because the students became motivated and engaged.

Harji, Woods and Alavi's (2010) study explored the effectiveness of using English subtitles on the EFL learner's vocabulary learning wherein control and treatment groups were given two different instructions - one group utilized instructional video episodes with subtitles and the other group watched the video without subtitles. The results showed that participants who viewed the videos with subtitles got a significantly higher mean score on the CST vocabulary test than those who just watched the videos without subtitles. Similar findings were obtained by Yildiz's (2017) who investigated the effect of the use of L2 English subtitled videos on the development of the acquisition of vocabulary on EFL intermediate students at Turkey. After watching a TV series with English subtitles by the experimental group and a TV series without subtitles by the control group, it was revealed that the group that watched the TV series with subtitles performed better in the vocabulary test.

The present study aimed to determine whether input enhancement and input flooding through the use of subtitled video help learners notice and learn the grammatical structures - verbal phrases and clauses. The input was presented in researcher-made videos with subtitles to encourage the noticing of the target grammatical forms. These were presented through bolding, increasing of font size and changing the color of all the target grammatical forms. In addition,

modification of input changed the input mode from its oral form in the video into textual form of subtitles.

To this end, the following research questions were formulated:

1. What are the phrases and clauses noticed by the learners in the subtitled video?
2. How may the grammar proficiency of the participants be described before and after a lesson with video with subtitling?
3. Is there a significant difference in the participants' grammar proficiency before and after the intervention?

## **Methods**

### ***Study design and participants***

This study employed the one-group pretest-posttest design where the grammar proficiency of the participants was measured before and after the implementation of video subtitling. The study was conducted with Grade seven Filipino students. Initially there were twenty participants in the study. However, two students were excluded due to inconsistency in their participation for unidentified reasons. Sampling is based on the results of the survey from the English teachers who accomplished a survey instrument identifying the students needing intervention. A diagnostic test consisting of grammar structures covered in the first three grading periods of the Curriculum Guide was administered to determine their grammar proficiency. A teacher-participant who utilizes video in teaching grammar was also included to facilitate the conduct of the study. The teacher-participant who conducted the explicit instruction and administered the pre-tests and post-tests during the course of the study was identified through the survey given to the participants.

### ***Instruments***

The researchers utilized a diagnostic test to determine the target grammatical structure of the intervention as well as the topic in the subtitled video. The twenty five-item diagnostic test covers the following grammar structures: subject-verb agreement, past and past perfect tense, phrases and clauses, direct and indirect/reported speech, and connectors.

The researchers prepared two videos with subtitles reflecting the target grammar structures which are verbal phrases and clauses. These subtitled videos were used as the main instructional

material for the instruction. Subtitles were enhanced by bolding, increasing the font size and changing the colors of the grammar structures included in the videos. Lesson plans focusing on verbal phrases and clauses were prepared by the researchers. These plans were reviewed by the adviser and the teacher participant. An observation checklist was also prepared for use during the observation during the instruction. The teacher-participant conducted both pretest and posttest to determine effects of the intervention. Noticing handouts were also given to the group after the videos were shown to them. In the noticing handouts, the participants were asked to write down all the grammatical structures “noticed” in the videos.

### ***Procedure***

The study compared the grammar proficiency of one group receiving instruction with video subtitling with a noticing activity. During the first day of instruction about verbal phrases, the researchers observed the class using an observation checklist. A ten-minute pretest was conducted before the instruction. It was used to further determine how much students understand about the chosen grammar structure before instruction and it was used to determine whether there was an increase in the participants’ grammar proficiency after the use of video subtitling. Directly after the pretest, a lesson on the chosen grammar structure was discussed by the teacher. The teacher used direct instruction using PowerPoint presentation for the discussion. The explicit instruction on the grammar structure took 15 minutes of the class period. After having the explicit instruction, 15 minutes of the class period was focused on watching the subtitled video, answering the noticing handout and discussion of the grammar structures noticed. Noticing handout was given to the students after the playing of the subtitled video. After answering the noticing handout, the teacher let the students state the grammar structures they noticed. Afterwards, a ten-minute posttest relevant to the grammar structure was administered. The same procedures were done for the instruction on clauses during the second day.

### ***Data Analysis***

To analyze data, the researchers used Microsoft Excel to tally the different phrases and clauses used in the videos and to determine which and how many were noticed by the students. Furthermore, mean and standard deviation were computed to tell average scores in the pretest and the posttest. In addition, paired sample *t*-test was used to compare the pretest and posttest scores, wherein the researchers needed a p-value of equal or less than the 0.05 alpha level of significance to prove statistically significant. Any value higher than the 0.05 alpha level of significance was determined as not significant. The data was processed using SPSS 17.

## Results

### *Results of the Noticing Activity*

Table 1 shows the top 3 highest scores which range from 3 to 5 in the grammar structure (verbal phrases) noticed by the students for the first day of the study.

Table 1. Noticed Grammar Structure of the Participants for Day One (Verbal phrases)

Grammar Structure	F
Gerund Phrase	
playing computer	5
Answering assignment	4
Reading books	4
Infinitive Phrase	F
to go to school	5
to wash and clean me	4
to do his homework	3
to read books	3
Participle Phrase	F
doing his assignment	3
Looking for another child	3
calling out the names of his things	3

Table 2 shows the top 3 highest scores which range from 5 to 8 in the grammar structure (clauses) noticed by the students for the second day of the study.

Table 2. Noticed Grammar Structure of the Participants for Day Two (Clauses)

Grammar Structure F

Independent Clauses

I want to say sorry for my actions. 8

You can do it!! 6

let's give her a chance. 5

Dependent Clauses

Since this bird is injured 7

even if you bully me 6

Though I always bully you 6

Whenever I see you 5

*Pretest and Posttest Scores of the Participants*

Based on table 3 below, the mean score in pretest of the participants on day 1 was 5.90 which increased to 7.80 in the posttest. During day 2, their mean score in pretest was 6.56 which increased to 9.11 in posttest.

Table 3. Descriptive Statistics of the Scores in the Pretest and Posttest

	Pretestt	Posttes
Day	Mean	Mean
1	5.90	7.80
2	6.56	9.11

*Paired t-test results*

Based on table 4 below, the difference in grammar proficiency test scores of the experimental group on day 1 ( $p=0.003$ ) and day 2 ( $p=0.050$ ) show significance.

Table 4. Test of Difference between Students' Score before and after the Intervention Mean Std. Deviation Sig. (2-tailed) Interpretation

Day 1				
Exp Pretest	1.900	1.524	0.003	Significant
Exp Post test				
Day 2				
Exp Pretest	2.556	3.321	0.050	Significant
Exp Post test				

Note: Decision Rule for assessing if the test is statistically significant

If  $p \leq 0.05$ , the test is significant (there is significant difference between pretest and posttest)

If  $p > 0.05$ , the test is not significant (there is no significant difference between pretest and posttest)

**IV. Discussion**

The study focused on the integration of subtitled videos in teaching the grammar structures phrases and clauses which the students found the most difficult in the diagnostic test. This is in accordance with the multimedia learning theory which states that learners acquire more knowledge through involving words with graphics rather than words alone. The chosen participants, who were identified as those with difficulties in the said grammar structures, were all able to participate in the two-day conduct of the study. There were also some factors that affect students' attention on watching the subtitled videos which are reflected in the observation checklist. Thus, not all grammar structures embedded in the subtitled videos were noticed.

The first discussion reveals the verbal phrases and clauses that were noticed by the students. Noticing handouts were provided for the participants to write down the grammatical structures that they noticed in the videos. The noticing activity was conducted to justify Batstone's (as cited by Noonan III, 2004) idea on noticing which states that focusing to the form and meaning of the input by the students will contribute to the internalization of the rule of certain language structures. This means that the grammar structures that the students wrote in the noticing handouts were the things they learned. Therefore, the results of the noticing activity could be a basis on the gain of knowledge of the students during the posttest.

In terms of verbal phrases, the gerund phrases like "playing computer", "answering assignment" and "reading books" which students noticed got the highest scores from four to five. Likewise, the infinitive phrases like "to go to school", "to wash and clean me", "to do his assignment" and "to read books" were easily identified by the students with a highest scores from three to five. In addition, students also found the participle phrases like "doing his assignment", "looking for another child", "calling out names of his things" easy to be identified which all got a highest scores of three. It means that these phrases were easily noticed by the students since they encounter them in their everyday lives. This assumption is supported by Pearce (2016) which suggests that learning becomes meaningful if there is engagement and enthusiasm to learning. To make this happen, relevance of what is learned must be established through authenticity.

On the second day of the instruction about clauses, the three most noticed dependent clauses noticed by five to seven students were "since this bird is injured", "even if you bully me", "though I always bully you". The independent clause that has the highest score is "I want to say sorry for my actions" which was noticed by eight students, followed by the independent clauses "you can do it", "let's give her a chance" that were noticed by five to six students. However, there were still phrases and clauses which were not noticed by the students. This is related to what Li and Swanson (2014) suggested on the saliency of target forms. They noted that learners fail to notice and acquire target forms because of their low saliency.



The second discussion is based on Table three which proves that there was an improvement between the pretest and posttest of the participants for both day one and day two of the study. On the first day, the average of students' pretest score is 5.90 while the post test average is 7.80. This shows an increase in the score of the students after watching the subtitled video. On the second day, the average score of the students' pretest is 6.57 while the post test average is 9.11. This indicates that there is also an increase in their scores. However, students found the lesson on clauses easier than verbal phrases. This can be supported by the pretest, posttest scores and noticing activity results wherein students were able to write more clauses than phrases. This shows that clauses were easily internalized by the students than phrases.

The last discussion point is about the significant difference in the participants' grammar proficiency before and after the intervention. Based on Table four, there is an improvement of participants' grammar proficiency for both day 1 and day 2. The results imply that the test scores of the experimental group both for day 1 ( $p=0.003$ ) and day 2 ( $p=0.050$ ) also show significance since they are also less than and equal to 0.05 alpha level of significance.

According to Creative Research Systems (2016), significance in statistics means valid and not incidental. To prove something to be true, it must have at least 95% of being valid. The p value 0.05 is equal to 95% that is why all values equal to 0.05 and lower is significant and is considered valid. Therefore, results indicated that there is a difference between their pretest and posttest scores which means that the subtitling activity improved their grammar proficiency.

## **V. Conclusions**

The study aimed to determine the effect of input enhancement and input flood on grammar instruction involving the use of subtitled video. The grammatical structures identified are phrases and clauses. As regards verbal phrases, the gerund phrases like "playing computer", "answering assignment" and "reading books" which students noticed obtained high frequency. Likewise, the infinitive phrases like "to go to school", "to wash and clean me", "to do his assignment" and "to read books" were easily identified by the students and obtained high frequency. In addition, students also found the participle phrases like "doing his assignment", "looking for another child", "calling out names of his things" easy to identify. These phrases were easily noticed by the students. This may be attributed to the fact that students encounter these words regularly.

With regard to clauses, the three most noticed dependent clauses were "since this bird is injured", "even if you bully me", and "though I always bully you". The independent clause that

obtained the highest frequency as noticed by the students is “I want to say sorry for my actions”, followed by “you can do it”, and “let’s give her a chance”. However, there were still phrases and clauses which were not noticed by the students.

The pretest and posttest mean scores shows the grammar proficiency of the participants had increased after lesson with video with subtitling. Data further revealed that there was a significant difference in the participants’ grammar proficiency before and after the intervention.

## **VI. Pedagogical Implications, Limitations of the Present Study, and Further Research**

Based on the positive effect of subtitling, language teachers can integrate subtitled videos in language teaching, particularly in teaching grammar structures which learners have difficulties with. Thus, subtitled video can be a viable mode for improving grammar proficiency. For further research, exposure of the highlighted target grammar structures in the video must be longer to allow longer time of input processing for the students. The teacher must also consider the consistency in the condition of the environment where instruction is conducted.

The present study was conducted with a modest number of respondents and made use of one group pre-test, post-test design thus results may have low generalizability and minimal internal validity. That is, another data collection technique that includes a control group should have been used. Therefore, further research is recommended to verify and confirm the results of the study.

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**A comparative study of English and German syntactic variation by students at higher education: Evidence from Complex Predicates**

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**Abstract**

In this paper we examine the notion of syntactic variation of English and German as a great family of Indo-European languages or as a West Germanic languages. The paper (a) compares and contrasts the complex predicates of English and German; (b) gives detail explanation of the word order in English and German. This study focuses its investigation on syntactic variation in English



and German, specifically complex predicates. The method of contrastive queries based on the constituent order in a sentence and its features. The corpus and constructions from the two languages were analyzed based on a comparative study paradigm (CSP) which focuses its investigation on constituent structure of the sentences in English and German. The research concludes that even the sentence construction of English and German is different in a clause, but almost all complex predicates (resultative, make-causative, perceptual report, verb locative, to dative, and double dative construction) appear in English also appear in German, except verb-particle. Verb-particle appears in English but it does not appear in German.

**Keywords:** comparative study, syntactic variation, complex predicates, English, German

## **Introduction**

One of the most important issues in the realm of second language acquisition (SLA) and second language (L2) learning is the comparative study. In this regard, Crystal (1987, p. 58) points out that a comparative study is a term used to characterize a major branch of linguistics, in which the primary concern is to make statements comparing the characteristics of a different languages (dialects, varieties, etc.).

Researches on comparative study have become trend in linguistics and language studies. German English, Slovak, Romans, Spanish, Russia, Czech, Kazakh, French, Italian, Uralic languages: Hungarian, Estonian, and Finnish), etc. are modern Indo-European languages have been studied by many scholars and researchers to investigate the similarities and the differences in terms of the language sentence patterns and other syntactic variations (Janikova, 2015; Stur & Kopecky, 2018; Murzinova, et. al, 2018; Dobrik, 2017; Spisiakova, 2016; Fenclova, 2015; Bizhkenova, 2017; Kenetova, 2017; Domokos, 2016; Ivanic, 2016; & Polyakov, 2018; Hawkins, 1986, and Adger & Trousdale, 2007).

As one of the interesting topics in SLA and language teaching, a number of studies have been conducted to show similarities and differences of the languages in terms of their syntactic and morphological variation form the same language origin and the different language origin. Dimmendaal (2011, p. 3) argues that there are a number of reasons why languages may manifest similarities in their lexical and grammatical structures.

Since the comparative study is interesting in SLA and language teaching, a large number of language teachers and practitioners have focused their studies on this discipline (Ivanovic, 2017; Kenetova, et. al.; Yong-Ju Rue & Grace Qiao Zhang, 2008; Mifsud, 1995; Gorla, 2004; Michelson, 1988; Zhang, 2011; Zhang & Koda, 2016).

There are some authors have written textbooks on the topic of comparative studies around the globe. Dimmendaal (2011) focuses his study on Historical Linguistics and the Comparative Study of African Languages. The objective of Dimmendaal's study is to investigate a critical assessment of some current views in historical linguistics and to formulate a kind of research agenda which spells out the specific needs, as seen by the present author, concerning the future investigation of (African) languages. Ding (2016) wrote on the Southern Min (Hokkien) as a Migrating Language: A Comparative Study of Language Shift and Maintenance Across National Borders. Ding focuses her study on some characteristics of Southern Min are pointed out, with special reference to lexical borrowing in the variety spoken in Southeast Asia. Ding therefore provides description of Hokkien, A five-level scale for language functionality is then proposed, distinguishing vernacular language, lingua franca, ethnic language, inner language, and private language.

Los, et. al. (2012) in their textbook entitled "Morphosyntactic Change: A comparative study of particles and prefixes," they focuses their study on analytical challenges on the morphosyntax of Dutch and English.

Mouton (2012) in the textbook entitled "The Grammaticalization of 'Give' Infinitive: A Comparative Study of Russian, Polish, and Czech," Mouton's study deals with the grammaticalization of give in conjunction with an infinitive in a subset of the Slavic languages, namely in Polish, Czech and Russian which involves the discussion on broad construction types in the causative, modal and imperative domain.

In the context of syntactic variations, this study explores the sentence construction in English and German which focuses on the complex predicates. According to Los, et. al (2012, p. 1) complex predicates in general, and the morphosyntactic and semantic behaviour of West Germanic particle verbs in particular, present a number of intriguing analytical challenges which touch on the relation between morphology and syntax and more generally on the architecture of grammar.

This present study will first summarize research done over the years on the comparative study in a variety of languages and perspectives. The study therefore aims to (a) compares and contrasts the sentence construction of English and German, specifically complex predicates; (b) gives detail explanation of the constituent order in English and German, and (c) provides the information about students' translation products in English and in German.

## Purpose of the Study

The main objective of this study is to investigate sentence construction, specifically a variety of complex predicates produced by Indonesian students learn English as a foreign language (EFL) and German as a foreign language (GFL) through translation practices in the classroom. In this present study, the participants in the survey who learn English and German as a foreign language in Indonesia are the students of English Department and students of German Study Program Faculty of Languages and Literature State University of Makassar (Universitas Negeri Makassar).

As a step of the study, the researchers give 14 sentences with complex predicates in Indonesian language and the students of English department and German Department are asked to write down the equivalents of those Indonesian sentences in English by English students and in German by German students. The students' translation results in English and German produced by students of English Department and German study program are therefore analyzed to investigate the comparison and contrast of the sentence constructions, specifically the sentences that use complex predicates in English and German made by students. For example, students of English and students of German at State University of Makassar may produce a variety of different translations or sentences in the study and the following examples are obtained from the research data in this present study:

- (1) English: Umar painted the building white.

Umar **painted** [NP the building] [Adj. white].

- (2) German: Umar strich das Gebäude weiß.

Umar **strich** [NP das Gebäude] [Adj. weiß].

These two sentences, both English and Indonesian have the same constituent order in resultative construction in which English and German have Subject + Verb + Object (SVO).

## Related Literature Review

During the past 1.000 years the English language has undergone numerous morphological, syntactic and semantic changes that now distinguish it from its more conservative West Germanic relatives, such as German which cause the varieties in the two languages (Hakwins, 2018: 1). Word order variation arises in this model as a side-effect of the interplay between parameterized morphological properties of lexical items (triggers), and invariant economy principles which govern syntactic derivations and representations (Wilder & Cavar, 1994, p. 46).

Varieties other than the standard language have become the main concern in dialectology and variationist sociolinguistics have been built. However, within theoretical linguistics, the

analysis of nonstandard varieties of English – particularly the analysis of morphosyntactic and syntactic variation in English – has, until fairly recently, been less conspicuous. Yet the modelling of (syntactic) variation in and across dialects is a critical issue in any theoretical framework, as variation is ubiquitous in language, and the fact that language can vary raises important questions regarding what the theory is actually modeling (Adger & Trousdale, 2007, p. 261).

As an international language and lingua franca in some countries, English being widely taught and learned as a mandatory subject at schools in the world gave rise to English varieties in divergent contexts other than just “native” English speaking countries. Those varieties of English were generated through adaptation, modification, destabilization, and transformation from the assumed monolithic English language (Ricento in Weng, 20186, p. 9). These varieties show that English is a rich language. In some countries in the world, German is also a vital language and it is taught as elective subject at some senior high school in Indonesia. English and German as an Indo-European language have the same constituent order.

As Indo-European language, English and German has the same sentence patterns, the sentence pattern of these languages is Subject + Verb + Object (SVO).

(1) ENGLISH

- a. I write a letter.
- b. She goes to the market.

(2) GERMAN

- a. Ich schreibe einen Brief.
- c. Er ging zum Markt.

If the sentence has auxiliary verbs and modal auxiliaries, the sentence patterns of English and German are different. The order of auxiliary and verb is not the same: in English, auxiliaries directly precede verbs; in German, they indirectly precede them and the following is the two order patterns (Moravcsik, 2006, p. 4).

(3) ENGLISH

Noun & **Auxiliary & Verb** & Article & Noun  
I have read the book.

(4) GERMAN

Noun & **Auxiliary** & Article & Noun & **Verb**  
Ich werde einen Brief schreiben.

The contrast may occur on the clause in which German has Subject Object Verb (SOV) construction and English has Subject Verb Object (SVO). The examples below (Roberts, 1993: 1) show clear contrast between construction in English and German using syntactic variation.

... *daß* das Kind ein Pferd sah ... (SOV)

... that the child a horse saw ...

‘The child saw a horse.’ (SVO)

English and all the Romance languages are SVO and German and all Continental West Germanic dialects are SOV (Roberts, 1993, p. 1).

A clause-final finite verb is possible in 2-verb clusters in StG (Schönenberger, 1995 as cited in Schmid, Tanja & Vogel, Ralf, 2004, p. 260):

- (5)
- a. *daß* die Katze den Fisch essen muss  
that the cat fish eat must  
that the cat must eat fish
  - b. *das* Katze fisch muss ässe  
that the cat fish must eat
  - c. *das* ich einen Brief schreiben werde  
that I a letter write will  
that I will write a letter

German dialects vary as to which permutations of the verb order in clause final 3-verb clusters they allow. In an empirical investigation we have found that five of the six logically possible permutations of the 3-verb cluster in (7) are clearly acceptable in at least some German dialects (Schmid, Tanja & Vogel, Ralf, 2004, p. 235 - 236).

(6) Maria glaubt, dass . . .

Maria thinks that . . .

- a. sie das Lied singen müssen wird  
she the song sing must will  
she will have to sing the song
- b. sie das Lied müssen singen wird  
she the song must sing will  
she will have to sing the song
- c. sie das Lied wird müssen singen  
she the song will must song

- she will have to sing the song
- d. sie das Lied wird singen müssen  
 she the song will song must  
 she will have to sing the song
- e. sie das Lied singen wird müssen  
 she the song sing will must  
 she will have to sing the song
- f. sie das Lied müssen wird singen  
 she the song must will sing  
 she will have to sing the song

(From Schmid, Tanja & Vogel, Ralf, 2004, p. 235 – 236)

### *Complex Predicates*

English permits a main verb to combine with a secondary predicate and form a new expression that semantically resembles a simple verb, examples are revealed in 7 and the paradigm cases are the resultative (8a), in which the main verb combine with an adjective phrase (AP) (*paint red*), and the verb-particle construction (7b), in which the main verb combines with a postverbal particle (*pick up*) (Snyder, 2001).

- |   |                           |
|---|---------------------------|
| (7) a. John painted the house red.            | (resultative)             |
| b. Mary picked the book up/picked up the book | (verb-particle)           |
| c. Fred made Jeff leave.                      | ( <i>make</i> -causative) |
| d. Bob saw Jeff leave.                        | (perceptual report)       |
| e. Bob put the book on the table.             | ( <i>put</i> -locative)   |
| f. Alice sent the letter to Sue.              | ( <i>do</i> -dative)      |
| g. Alice sent Sue the letter.                 | (double-object dative)    |

Snyder (2001, p. 2001) mentions that the availability of the complex predicate construction in (7) varies across languages, Romance, for example, appears to be a strong candidate for a language group in which complex predicate of the English type are systematically excluded. Snyder adds that the Romance languages have long been noted to contrast with English and other Germanic languages is that they exclude resultative constructions of the type in (7) a.

## *Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Language Learning*

It is well known that the successful second-language (L2) acquisition is a function of diverse factors across linguistic, cognitive, and affective domains (Tae-II Pae, 2017, p. 1). In second language (L2) acquisition, knowledge about the language, either implicit or explicit language knowledge is intriguing issue. Zhang (2015) mentions that implicit and explicit second language (L2) knowledge are two central constructs in the field of SLA. Implicit knowledge focuses on knowledge about language, which can be broken down into analyzed knowledge and metalanguage (Ellis 1997 as cited in Zhang, 2015, p. 3). Accordingly, Bialystok, 1981 as cited in Zhang, 2015, p. 3) argues that implicit linguistic knowledge refers to knowledge of language; it is “an intuitive feeling for what is correct and acceptable.” On the other hand, Ellis, 2004 as cited in Zhang, 2015, p. 3) states that explicit L2 knowledge is the declarative and often anomalous knowledge of the phonological, lexical, grammatical, pragmatic, and sociocritical features of an L2 together with the metalanguage for labeling this knowledge. One of the most interesting explicit knowledge topics of discussion in the second language (L2) acquisition is syntactic variation under the syntax and morphosyntax, and one of the specific topics is complex predicates. Complex predicates cover the predicate with a variety of forms, resultative, verb with particle, causative, perceptual report, locative, dative, and double object dative. Crystal (1987, p. 265) mentions that resultative is a term used in grammar and semantics to refer to a clause or element whose meaning expresses the notion of consequence or effect. Resultative indicates the state of a [noun resulting](#) from the [completion](#) of the action expressed by a [verb](#), as with "blue" in "Mary painted the fence blue (<https://www.yourdictionary.com/resultative>) and in “John painted the house red” (Snyder, 2001, p. 325). A particle is a word that has a grammatical function but does not fit into the main parts of speech (i.e. noun, verb, adverb) (<https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/article/particle>). Accordingly, Crystal (1987, 222) mentions that particle is a term used to refer to an invariable item with grammatical function, especially one which does not readily fit into a standard classification of parts of speech, as in English, for example, the marker of the infinitive, *to*, is often called a particle because, despite its surface similarity to a preposition. Causative verbs are verbs that show the reason that something happened. They do not indicate something the subject did for themselves, but something the subject got someone or something else to do for them. The causative verbs are: let (allow, permit), make (force, require), have, get, and help. Let's take a closer look at the causative verbs (<https://study.com/academy/lesson/what-are-causative-verbs-in-english-definition-examples.html>). Causative is a term used in grammatical description to refer to the causal relationship between alternative versions of a sentence, for example, the pair of sentences

*The cat killed the mouse* and *The mouse died* are related in that the transitive verb kill can be seen as a ‘causative’ version of the intransitive die. Perceptual reports are utterances of sentences that contain a perceptual verb, such as ‘look’, ‘sound’, ‘feel’, ‘see’, and ‘perceive’. It is natural to suppose that at least in many cases, these types of reports reflect aspects of the phenomenal character and representational content of a subject’s perceptual experiences. For example, an utterance of ‘my chair looks red but it’s really white’ appears to reflect phenomenal properties of the speaker’s experience of a chair (<http://www.oxfordhandbooks.com/view/10.1093/oxfordhb>). Locative is a term refers to the form taken by a word, usually a noun or pronoun, when it typically expresses the idea of location of an action, for example “*The man was standing at a bus stop,*” at a bus stop could be called a ‘locative’ (Crystal, 1987, p. 183). Dative is one of the forms taken by a word, usually a noun or pronoun which typically expresses an indirect object relationship, or a range of meaning similar to that covered by to or for in English, but there is a great deal of variation between languages in the way this case is used (Crystal, 1987, p. 84). Double-Object Construction is a construction containing two objects, direct object (DO) and indirect object (IO) (Glottopedia, Discovering Linguistics).

## **Method**

### *Approach*

This current study employs one of the old methods in the L2 or FL acquisition, Grammar Translation Method (GTM). Grammar Translation Method (GTM hereafter) is an empirical approach to the study of foreign and second language (Natsir & Sanjaya, 2014; Chang, 2011; Aqel, 2013) that examines all utterances in actual talk or in written test. The central goal of GTM is to discover a system of talk or written language by offering an explanation of the structure of L2 or FL. Natsir & Sanjaya (2014) mention that GTM is applied for helping students to read and appreciate foreign language literature objectives. Natsir & Sanjaya (2014) therefore add that in GTM, the teacher gets the students to analyze the language rather than to use it. GTM is concerned with accuracy (Chang, 2011, p. 13). GTM was used by teachers to focus students’ attention on grammar and vocabulary by having them read and translate target language texts; it was assumed that this process would allow students to gain an understanding of the grammar of their own native language (Larsen-Freeman 2000 as cited in Sapargul & Sartor, 2010, p. 27).



### *Participant*

To find out data for the study, a convenience sample was selected consisting of 20 participants (2 males, 18 females) who were enrolled in the English Department Faculty of Languages and Literature State University of Makassar and 18 participants (1 males, 17 females) who were enrolled in the German Department of Languages and Literature State University of Makassar in 2018/2019 academic year.

Table 1. Demographic of Participant

<i>Demographic Information</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
Gender		
1. Female	35	92.10
2. Male	3	7.9
Major		
1. English Department (Undergraduate)	20	100
2. German Department (Undergraduate)	18	100
Age		
1. 19	6	15.79
2. 20	21	55.26
3. 21	9	23.68
4. 22	2	5.26
Semester	6	100

### *Material and Procedure*

After the participants of the study agreed to give data of the study, the researchers distributed test to students of English Literature Study Program and students of German Study Program by translating Indonesian sentences to English and German equivalents under the paradigm Grammar Translation Method (GTM) which took approximately 10 - 15 minutes.

### *Data Analysis*

After the data were collected, the students' translations were classified and coded to identify syntactic variations, specifically the complex predicates (resultative, verb-particle, *make-causative*, perceptual report, *put-locative*, *do-dative*, and double-object construction) in the target language (English and German).

## Result and Discussion

### *Complex Predicate*

Syntactically, English for example, permits a main verb to combine with a secondary predicate and form a new expression that semantically resembles a simple verb and the examples are revealed in 7. Detail complex predicates in English and German can be seen in the following examples.

### *Resultative*

(1) English: (a) Umar painted the building white.

Umar **painted** [<sub>NP</sub> the building] white.

(b) The little girl broke the vase to pieces.

The little girl **broke** [<sub>NP</sub> the vase] to pieces.

(2) German: (a) Umar strich das Gebäude weiß.

Umar **strich** [<sub>NP</sub> das Gebäude] weiß.

(b) Das kleine Mädchen brach den Topf in Stücke.

Das kleine Mädchen **brach** [<sub>NP</sub> den Topf] in Stücke.

In complex predicate, resultative construction appears, either in English and German.

### *Verb Particle*

(3) English: (a) Can you switch off the lights?

(b) Mary picked the book up/picked up the book.

(4) German: (a) Können Sie das Licht ausmachen?

(b) Mary nahm das Buch.

Verb particle (e.g. off, up, etc.) appears in English but it does not appear in German. In English, the sentence construction is SVO and in German, if there is a modal in the beginning of the sentence (e.g. können, wollen, müssen, etc.) the sentence construction is SOV. This makes English and German contrast in verb particle.

### *Make-Causative*

(5) English: (a) Hasan made Vicky leave.

Hasan **made** [<sub>NP</sub> Vicky] **leave**.

(b) Tom made him eat.

Tom **makes** [<sub>NP</sub> him] **eat**.

(6) German: (a) Hasan ließ Vicky gehen.

Hasan **ließ** [NP Vicky] **gehen**.

(b) Tom lässt ihn essen.

Tom **lässt** [NP ihn] **essen**.

In complex predicate, make-causative construction appears in English, and also appears in German. This construction does not make contrast between English and German.

### *Perceptual Report*

(7) English: (a) Dedi saw Dilon leave.

Dedi **saw** [NP Dilon] **leave**.

(b) Ita saw Wawan go.

Ita **saw** [NP Wawan] **go**.

(8) German: (a) Dedi sah Dilon gehen.

Dedi **sah** [NP Dilon] **gehen**.

(b) Ita sah Smith gehen.

Ita **sah** [NP Smith] **gehen**.

In complex predicate, perceptual report appears in English and German.

### *Verb-Locative*

(9) English: (a) Iwan put the pen on the table.

Iwan **put** [NP the pen] [PP on the table].

(b) The man was waiting his friend at a bus stop.

The man **was waiting** [NP his friend] [PP at a bus stop].

(10) German: (a) Iwan legte den Füller auf den Tisch.

Iwan **legte**[NP den Füller] [PP auf den Tisch].

(b) Der mann wartete auf seinen freund an einer Bushaltestelle.

Der Mann **wartete** [NP seinen freud] [PP einer Bushaltestelle].

In *Verb-Locative*, it has been assumed that those syntactic similarities found between verb-locative and the prepositional paraphrase (PC) in English (8) can also be found in German (9). Thus, both in English and German, have the same constituent order in verb-locative.

### *To-Dative*

(11) English: (a) Lisa sent the letter to Novi. (PC, DO asymmetrically c-commands IO)

Lisa **sent** [<sub>NP</sub> the letter] [<sub>PP</sub> to Novi].

(b) He sent a book to Mary.

He **sent** [<sub>NP</sub> a book] [<sub>PP</sub> to Mary].

(12) German: (a) Lisa schickte den Brief an Novi. (PC, DO asymmetrically c-commands IO)

Lisa **schickte** [<sub>NP</sub> den Brief] [<sub>PP</sub> an Novi].

(b) Er schickte ein Buch an Mary.

Er **schickte** [<sub>NP</sub> ein Buch] [<sub>PP</sub> an Mary].

Specifically, it has been identified that those syntactic similarities and differences found between to-dative and the prepositional paraphrase (PC) in English (11) can also be found in German (12). Thus, both in English and German, the alternation is reflected at the surface level by constituent order and the presence of *to* in English and *an* in German as in (12).

#### *Double-Object Construction (DOC)*

Barss and Lasnik as cited in Al-Tamari (2000, p. 41) observed that in double-object constructions, such as the one in (13) below, the direct object (DO), (the letter) is always in the domain of the indirect object (IO) (Novi). That is, IO c-commands DO but not vice versa (Since *a* is the domain of *b*, then *a* is c-commanded by *b*). The same condition exists in German as in (14).

(13) English: (a) Lisa sent Novi the letter. (DOC, IO asymmetrically c-commands DO)  
Lisa **sent** [<sub>NP</sub> Novi] [<sub>NP</sub> the letter].

\*(a) Lisa sent the letter Novi.

(b) John gave Smith a book. (DOC, IO asymmetrically c-commands DO)

John **gave** [<sub>NP</sub> Smith] [<sub>NP</sub> a book].

\*(b) John gave a book Smith.

(14) German: (a) Lisa schickte Novi den Brief. (DOC, IO asymmetrically c-commands DO)

Lisa **schickte** [<sub>NP</sub> Novi] [<sub>NP</sub> den Brief].

\*(a) Lisa schickte den Brief Novi.

(b) John gab Smith ein Buch. (DOC, IO asymmetrically c-commands DO)

John **gab** [<sub>NP</sub> Smith] [<sub>NP</sub> ein Buch].

\*(b) John gab Smith Buch.

This asymmetric relationship is clear in double object construction with anaphors, where anaphors must be c-commanded by their antecedents in both German and English. Specifically, it

has been identified that those syntactic similarities and differences found between Double-Object Dative (DOD) and the prepositional paraphrase (PC) in English (13) can also be found in German (14). Both English and German show the same constituent order in double-object dative construction.

### *Students' Translation Products*

Table 1 and Table 2 below show the information about the correct translation in English and German made by students of English Literature Study Program of Faculty of Languages and Literature State University of Makassar and the students of German Study Program of Faculty of Languages and Literature State University of Makassar.

Table 1. English Translation

Indonesian Sentences	English Equivalents	Correct Translation (%)	Incorrect Translation (%)
<i>Umar mengecat gedung itu warna putih.</i>	Umar painted the building white.	95	5
<i>Gadis kecil itu memecahkan pot bunga bekeping-keping.</i>	The little girl broke the vase to pieces.	85	15
<i>Bisa matikan lampu?</i>	Can you switch off the lights?	100	0
<i>Mary mengambil buku itu.</i>	Mary picked the book up/picked up the book.	95	5
<i>Hasan membuat Vicky pergi.</i>	Hasan made Vicky leave.	90	10
<i>Dia membuat dia makan.</i>	Tom made him eat.	80	20
<i>Dedi melihat Dilon berangkat.</i>	Dedi saw Dilon leave.	95	5
<i>Ita melihat Wawan pergi.</i>	Ita saw Wawan go.	90	10
<i>Iwan meletakkan polpen itu di atas meja.</i>	Iwan put the pen on the table.	100	0
<i>Orang itu menunggu temannya di pemberhentian bis.</i>	The man was waiting his friend at a bus stop.	95	5
<i>Lisa mengirim surat itu kepada Novi.</i>	Lisa sent the letter to Novi.	100	0
<i>Dia mengirim buku itu kepada Mary.</i>	He sent a book to Mary.	100	0
<i>Lisa mengirimkan Novi surat itu.</i>	Lisa sent Novi the letter.	95	5

<i>John memberikan Smith buku.</i>	John gave Smith a book.	100	0
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Table 1 above indicates that there are 95% correct English translation and there are 5% incorrect English translation of the sentence “*Umar mengecet gedung itu warna putih,*” made by English department student of Faculty of Languages and Literature State University of Makassar. There are 85% correct English translation and there are 15% incorrect English translation of the sentence “*Gadis kecil itu memecahkan pot bunga bekeping-keping,*” made by the participants. All participants (100%) gave correct English translation of the sentence “*Bisa matikan lampu?*” There are 95% correct English translation and there are 5% incorrect translation of the sentence “*Mary mengambil buku itu,*” made by participants. There are 80% correct English translation and there are 20% incorrect translation of the sentence “*Hasan membuat Vicky pergi,*” made by participants. The correct and incorrect English equivalents for sentence number 6 to 14 are clearly revealed on Table 1. As revealed in Table 1 that the participants translated Indonesian sentences into English easily. This is because the correct English equivalents are above 80%.

Table 2. German Translation

Indonesian Sentences	German Equivalents	Correct Translation (%)	Incorrect Translation (%)
<i>Umar mengecet gedung itu warna putih.</i>	Umar strich das Gebäude weiß.	100	0
<i>Gadis kecil itu memecahkan pot bunga bekeping-keping.</i>	Das kleine Mädchen brach den Topf in Stücke.	77.78	22.22
<i>Bisa matikan lampu?</i>	Können Sie das Licht ausmachen.	100	0
<i>Mary mengambil buku itu.</i>	Mary nahm das Buch.	100	0
<i>Dedi membuat Vicky pergi.</i>	Hasan ließ Vicky gehen.	77.78	22.22
<i>Dia membuat dia makan.</i>	Tom lässt ihn essen.	100	0
<i>Dedi melihat Dilon berangkat.</i>	Dedi sah Dilon gehen.	83.33	16.66
<i>Ita melihat Wawan pergi.</i>	Ita sah Smith gehen.	100	0
<i>Iwan meletakkan polpen itu di atas meja.</i>	Iwan legte den Stift auf den Tisch.	100	0
<i>Orang itu menunggu temannya di pemberhentian bis.</i>	Der mann wartete auf seinen freund an einer Bushaltestelle.	61.11	38.88

<i>Lisa mengirim surat itu kepada Novi.</i>	Lisa schickte den Brief an Novi.	100	0
<i>Dia mengirim buku itu kepada Mary.</i>	Er schickte ein Buch an Mary.	83.33	16.66
<i>Lisa mengirimkan Novi surat itu.</i>	Lisa schickte Novi den Brief.	88.88	11.11
<i>John memberikan Smith buku.</i>	John gab Smith ein Buch.	94.44	5.55

Table 2 above reveals that all participants gave correct German translation (100%) of the sentence “*Umar mengecet gedung itu warna putih.*” There are 77.78% correct German translation and there are 22.22% incorrect German translation of the sentence “*Gadis kecil itu memecahkan pot bunga bekeping-keping,*” made by German department student of Faculty of Languages and Literature State University of Makassar. All participants gave correct German translation (100%) of the sentence “*Bisa matikan lampu?*” and “*Mary mengambil buku itu*” respectively. There are 77.78% correct German translation and there are 22.22% incorrect German translation of the sentence “*Dedi membuat Vicky pergi.*” The correct and incorrect German equivalents for sentence number 6 to 14 are clearly revealed on Table 2. As indicated in Table 2 that the participants found difficulties in translating sentence number 10 (*Orang itu menunggu temannya di pemberhentian bis.*). Other thirteen sentences were easy to be translation into German by the students from German department of Faculty of Languages and Literature, State University of Makassar, Indonesia.

Ich schreibe einen Brief.

## Conclusion

Although some academics and language researchers have conducted comparative study on English and German, but only a few of them focusing on complex predicates. This present study therefore concludes that almost all complex predicates appear in English also appear in German, except verb-particle in English where verb-particle does not appear in German. Therefore, the resultative construction as one of the complex predicates in English also appears in German. Make-causative construction appears in English and German. In complex predicate, perceptual report appears in English and German. Both in English and German have the same constituent order in verb-locative. To-dative and double-object dative construction in English agree with the constituent order in German. The sentence construction in English and German is the same, SVO, e.g. I write a letter (English) and Ich schreibe einen Brief (German) but the sentence construction is different

in a clause, e.g. ... *daß* das Kind ein Pferd sah ... (... that the child a horse saw ...) (The child saw a horse) and in a sentence with modals, SOV, e.g. **Können** Sie das Licht *ausmachen*? (**Can** you *switch off* the lights?) and Ich **werde** einen Brief *schreiben*.

The result of the study also indicates that the students of English department and German study program at the Faculty of Languages and Literature State University of Makassar has very good translation products, both in English and in German. Further studies in a wide variety of issues in comparative study in languages from the same origin and the languages from the different families are recommended.

### **Educational Implication of the Study**

The benefit of the research findings is that even English and German are from Indo-European language family background but not all grammatical features in the two languages are the same, especially verb particle complex predicate, the clause and the use of modals in the sentence and these syntactic variations make English and German are contrast.

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## Vignettes of Experiences in Portfolio Assessment

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### ABSTRACT

Portfolio assessment fosters reflective learning that aids learners in achieving academic success. This paper described the views, emotional experiences and significant learning of 12 participants in a phenomenological study about self, peer and teacher assessments as parts of portfolio assessment. Cool and warm analyses were employed in analyzing 12 reflective journals. Member checking procedure and a survey questionnaire for teachers were used to provide data triangulation. The findings show that the participants had three views of portfolio assessment: progress, principle, and partiality. Emotions of anxiety, joy, pride, trust, sadness, annoyance, guilt and uncertainty were experienced by the participants. Among the significant learning experienced by the participants include honesty to self, trust in the teacher, positive attitude to feedback, improvement of performance and support for portfolio assessment.

**Keywords:** *emotions, reflective journal, views*

### INTRODUCTION

Assessment as a form of learning is an important means of knowing how much a student has learned. It is a key instructional activity where teachers engage in every day in a variety of formal and informal ways. It is also an important means for students to get involved in conscious learning by being active participants in the assessment process.

With the many educational reforms or innovations happening around the world, it is also essential to provide students with alternative forms of assessment.

The term alternative assessment as defined by Schurr (1999) refers to any and all forms of assessment that differ from traditional assessments such as multiple-choice test, timed test, one-shot approaches, and others that may characterize most standardized assessments. In relation, authentic assessment, performance assessment, and alternative assessment are all used in the discussions of this reform (Mitchell, 1992 in Silva-Lopes, 2015).

It appeared that while there are many names in the literature for alternative assessments, the actual method of assessing learning could be broken down into four major groups: portfolios, self-assessment, peer assessment, and perception (Streff, 2016).

Portfolio is often the first form of assessment that comes to mind when people think about alternative assessments. Portfolios, as an assessment, have several subgroups: showcase, assessment over time, and multiple artifacts which are assessed individually and perhaps using different assessment methods (Baturay & Daloğlu, 2010). Portfolios can be a collection of artifacts, or it can be the changes of an artifact over time.

Portfolio pedagogy, which grew out of the process writing movement, advocates systematic documentation of students' learning evidence such as interim drafts and reflective pieces through cycles of collection, selection, and reflection to showcase growth and achievements in writing development (Genesee & Upshur, 1996 in Lam, 2015).

If well used, portfolios bring some advantages for both teacher and students. It encourages students to reflect on what they have produced, developing their self-assessment skills (Lopes, 2015).

In the writing portfolio literature, Lam (2014) attempts to connect self-regulation and portfolio assessment scholarship and develops a theoretical framework which promulgates how the portfolio assessment could be utilized to promote self-regulated learning in writing. In his comprehensive review, Burner (2014) also identifies a range of benefits of portfolio assessment, one of which is to enhance student performance via self-reflection in the recursive portfolio process.

Moreover, Hassaskhah and Sharifi (2011) also found out through their study that portfolio assessment aided students in improving their reflective skills and took responsibility for their own development.

Portfolios reflect the kinds of instruction valued in composition and therefore judgments made based on portfolios are claimed to be inherently more meaningful. Due to the validity promises offered by a portfolio assessment practice that allows evaluators to read multiple samples of student writing submitted under varying conditions, portfolio assessment methods have received conceptual support in the educational and psychological testing (Jalili, 2015).

Nadeem and Nadeem (2011) suggested that portfolios assist in determining strengths and weaknesses in student learning. The result also indicated that group work should be included in portfolios. Based on the design of the study, the authors inferred that portfolios might be a possible assessment tool combined with Adult Learning Theory teaching strategies.

Studying portfolios as a reflective learning methodology, Çimer (2011) found through student perceptions that students studied more regularly, and reflective writing helped students discover strengths and weaknesses, increased retention of material, and had a positive effect in the affective domain. The students indicated that feedback on the tests contributed to their learning. It appears from the students' remarks that the increase in learning was due to increases in studying the material and feedback indicating strengths and weaknesses.

As suggested by Peregoy and Boyle (2013), teachers can assist students with becoming more aware of their best work. Teachers should also place all student tests, running records, and other materials in the portfolio to show students their progress throughout the year or semester. They believe that students should have models of excellent, good, and fair work so that they have a notion of what a teacher is expecting, and why she/he gave an assigned grade for a particular student.

In the Philippines, Lucas (2008) found out that through portfolio assessment as an alternative self-evaluation scheme, students were able to identify various linguistic problems in their essays and became more aware of the macro-skills involved in language learning. The study also showed that the students were able to address these linguistic problems through self-autonomy and independent learning.

Moreover, Valdez (2010) found out that even in digital portfolios, students' writing skills can be enhanced. He added that the authentic feedback the students had through a virtual

environment can maximize interaction, improve writing skills, and develop the academic growth of students.

All these studies provide relevant information about the use of portfolio assessment as an alternative to traditional forms. However, most of these studies do not provide enough data about the learners as they actually get involved in the process of portfolio assessment. It is, therefore, important to know what kind of experiences the learners have in the process of portfolio assessment. Knowing and understanding what learners think and feel about portfolio assessment can provide the teacher with essential information so that he/she will be able to improve the conduct of portfolio assessment more meaningful for the learners.

Additionally, based on the researcher's observations in the local university, the assessment tools used in measuring student learning are a mixture of teacher-made paper-and-pen tests and performance-based tests. However, the curriculum does not reflect whether the students are given a chance to become part of the decision-making process regarding which assessment tools should be used to measure their learning. Moreover, there is also no assessment policy that requires students to provide reports or reflections on the kinds of assessments they undergo. Individual teachers might already be practicing these as part of their teaching strategies but there is no campus or university-wide policy that calls for this. These matters could be essential in making the curriculum and instruction better for the students.

As such, this gap showing that little information is fed back to the teacher regarding the students' thoughts and feelings about being assessed motivated the researcher to identify the experiences of college-level students who undergo portfolio assessment. Specifically, the researcher wanted to identify their views and emotional experiences in the conduct of the different assessments done in their portfolio entries which are self-assessment, peer assessment, and teacher assessment.

### **Framework of the Study**

This study is supported by Constructivism, Social Cognitive Theory, Humanistic Theory, Self-worth Theory, Core Affect Theory of Emotion and the concepts surrounding the study of portfolio assessment which became the platform of the conduct of portfolio assessment. This portfolio assessment included self, peer and teacher assessments of the portfolio entries which provided the experiences that the students had in doing the portfolio assessment. The evaluation and reflection about these classroom tasks were done through the reflective journals. The responses

in the reflective journals would provide significant feedback to the teacher to improve instruction and curriculum.

### **Constructivist Theory**

The theory on constructivism highlights the interaction of persons and situations in the acquisition and refinement of skills and knowledge (Cobb & Bowers, 1999). A key assumption of constructivism is that people are active learners and develop knowledge for themselves (Geary, 2002). Constructivists differ in the extent to which they ascribe this function entirely to learners. Some believe that mental structures come to reflect reality, whereas others (radical constructivists) believe that the individual's mental world is the only reality. Constructivists also differ in how much they ascribe the construction of knowledge to social interactions with teachers, peers, parents, and others (Bredo, 1997).

In this study, portfolio assessment was employed as an alternative assessment, where the students did classroom tasks that encouraged the development of learning skills that traditional forms of assessment cannot address. The classroom activities also involved collaborations and social interactions between and among the students, one of which is the use of peer assessments. These were all based on the Constructivist Theory.

### **Social Cognitive Theory**

Social Cognitive Theory is closely related to the theory of constructivism which also has the assumption that persons, behaviors, and environments interact in a reciprocal fashion (Bandura, 1997). These assumptions also address enactive and vicarious learning; the distinction between learning and performance; and the role of self-regulation (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2003).

Furthermore, Social Cognitive Theory stresses the idea that much human learning occurs in a social environment. By observing others, people acquire knowledge, rules, skills, strategies, beliefs, and attitudes. Individuals also learn from models the usefulness and appropriateness of behaviors and the consequences of modeled behaviors, and they act by their beliefs about their capabilities and the expected outcomes of their actions.



Zimmerman (2000) also proposed self-regulation which encompasses three phases: forethought, performance control, and self-reflection. The forethought phase precedes actual performance and comprises processes that set the stage for action. The performance control phase involves processes that occur during learning and affect attention and action. During the self-reflection phase, which occurs after performance, people respond behaviorally and mentally to their efforts.

Due to the self-assessments in the portfolios, and their weekly reflective journals used in this study, the students were able to show self-regulation, self-evaluation and self-reflection of their learning, as promoted by the Social Cognitive Theory.

### **Humanistic Theory**

Humanistic Theory also emphasizes cognitive and affective processes in the same way that Social Cognitive Theory and self-regulation are inclined to describe a person's affective aspects. It addresses people's capabilities and potentialities as they make choices and seek control over their lives. One of the assumptions in this theory is that the study of persons is holistic, which means, to understand people, we must study their behaviors, thoughts, and feelings (Weiner, 1992). Humanists emphasize individuals' self-awareness.

Also, the Humanistic Theory also was manifested in the performances of the students and the assessments that follow them. In this study, the students were able to show their potentials and capabilities through their portfolio entries and performances. Giving the students the chance to reflect on their portfolio entries and performances provided them a chance to write about themselves, their peers and their teacher, which also shows their self-worth and self-efficacy.

### **Core Affect Theory**

The Core Affect Theory addresses the assumption that mental representation of emotion is a contentful state of pleasure or displeasure (Barrett, 2006). The word core signifies an affective aspect that functions as a kind of core knowledge about whether events are helpful or harmful, rewarding or threatening, calling for acceptance or rejection (Barrett, 2006).

In addition to the theory of self-worth, the assumptions made about emotions also play a central role in the learning of students. Emotions can help to direct attention, which is necessary for learning (Phelps, 2006). Information from the environment goes to the thalamus, where it is relayed to the amygdala and the frontal cortex. The amygdala determines the emotional

significance of the stimulus (Wolfe, 2001). This determination is facilitative because it tells us whether to run, seek shelter, attack, or remain neutral.

In contrast with the traditional materialist views of the mind, a philosophical framework called biological naturalism was proposed (Searle, 2004) which offers three tenets for the study of emotional experience. One of these states that the conscious states of emotions exist only from the first-person point of view. Therefore, to know what emotion feels like, it is necessary to ask the people about what they experience (Barrett, Mesquita, Ochsner, & Gross, 2007).

Furthermore, to know about a person's emotional experience, one can study his conscious mental states which are mental representations of these emotions. A person's mental representations of his emotions are his conscious experiences of these emotions which can be reported (Frith, 1999 in Barrett, Mesquita, Ochsner, & Gross, 2007). These researchers also suggest that the most direct way to know the contents of a mental representation of emotion is to examine a person's verbal behaviors regarding their own mental state in the form of self-reports such as narratives or simple ratings of emotion words.

In this study, the Core Affect Theory provided insights as to the different emotions elicited from the students as they did their portfolios and performances. The self, peer and teacher assessments could also provide instances where the students can have emotional experiences that can be helpful, harmful, rewarding, threatening, calling for acceptance, or calling for rejection.

### **Statement of the Problem**

This study focused on describing the experiences of the Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSE) students who took the subject Speech Communication and used portfolio assessment in that subject. The following specific questions were addressed:

1. How do the participants view the self-, peer and teacher assessment of their portfolio entries?
2. What are the participants' emotional experiences on the following assessments of their portfolio entries as described in their reflective journal?
3. What significant learning about the participants' experiences in portfolio assessment can be shared to teachers who use portfolio assessment in their class?

### **Methodology**

## Research Design

This study utilized a descriptive phenomenology approach. Hence, qualitative data analysis techniques were used to analyze the participants' experiences in portfolio assessment.

## Sources of Data

The student participants who were enrolled in the subject Speech Communication (Eng 103) for the second semester, S.Y. 2017-2018 were from the BSE 2 class in DMMMSU SLUC Agoo, La Union College of Education.

For this study, twelve (12) participants who met the inclusion criteria were selected. The inclusion criteria set required that the participants were first willing to be in the study. The reflective journal was part of their classroom requirement but participating in the study was not required. Hence, only the participants who expressed willingness to participate were selected. The second part of the inclusion criteria was that the participants have completed and submitted their final reflective journal.

To get a brief background on the participants, the researcher also used a *robotfoto* (de Guzman & Tan, 2007) or a questionnaire that is used to get baseline information about the participants in a study. In this study, a *robotfoto* was used to get their demographic profile that included their age, gender, course and major, civil status and number of children if married.

The table on the next page shows the demographic profile of the participants.

Table 1. Demographic Profile of the Participants

Profile	f (N=12)	%
Age		
15-19	3	25
20-24	5	42
25-29	2	17
30 and above	2	17
Gender		
Male	2	17
Female	10	83
Course and Major		

BSE English	1	8
BSE Filipino	10	83
BSE TLE	1	8
Civil Status		
Single	9	75
Married	3	25
Number of Children (if married)		
0	0	0
1	0	0
2	3	100

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### **Instrumentation and Data Collection**

The portfolios of the BSE 2 Speech Communication students in their subject Speech Communication included written speeches and speech performances that were assessed using self-, peer and teacher assessments guided by rubrics. At the end of each week, the students were asked to write a reflective journal.

The main data used in this study came from their final reflective journal. The participants' entries in their reflective journal were used to determine the participants' experiences in self-, peer and teacher assessment as well as their overall experience in the conduct of portfolio assessment.

The reflective journal guide questions were presented to five English teachers from DMMMSU-SLUC Agoo, La Union for the evaluation of content and face validity. Each validator was given a questionnaire to answer. Their responses were tallied and computed. Their comments and suggestions were also considered in revising the guide questions.

The content and face validity of the reflective journal guide questions was high with a numerical rating of 4.90. After the validation test, the questions were revised based on the comments of the validators. Then, the reflective journal guide questions were given to all the BSE 2 Speech Communication students and were collected after three days.

For the purpose of this study, the reflective journal included the following questions:

- 1) What are your views or opinions of self-, peer and teacher assessments of your portfolio entries?
- 2) What did you feel when you were assessing your own portfolio entries?
- 3) What did you feel when other people (peer and teacher) assessed your portfolio entries?

4) Did the various assessments help you improve your portfolio and your performances?  
In what ways?

5) Overall, describe your experience in the conduct of portfolio assessment. Among the three types (self, peer and teacher) with which one did you have the best experience? Or did you like all? Would you support the use of portfolio assessment in other subjects or learning areas? Why ? Why not?

6) What comment or suggestion can you offer to make the portfolio experience better next time?

Prior to analyzing the data, the researcher first provided the participants an informed consent form. The following contents of the informed consent form were discussed to them: the purpose of the study, procedures to be implemented, risks and benefits of participation, voluntary participation and withdrawal, confidentiality and agreement. Only the participants who signed the informed consent were selected for this study.

For purposes of data triangulation, a survey questionnaire similar to the reflective journal questions were administered to four teachers in DMMMSU-SLUC Agoo, La Union who have used or are using portfolio assessment in their language classes. The survey questionnaire included questions similar to those asked from the participants.

The purpose of this survey questionnaire for teachers was to serve as a verification tool for the findings of the study.

After coding, categorizing and generating the themes, the findings were taken back to the participants for member-checking procedure. After reviewing the findings, the participants agreed with the codes, categories and themes used. They were also asked to answer a few follow-up questions through written responses.

All the data gleaned from these instruments were the bases for the significant learning that can be shared to the teachers who are also utilizing portfolio assessments in their classes.

### **Analysis of Data**

The following steps were followed for the cool and warm analyses of the data:

Initially, for the cool analysis, the participants' reflective journals were culled for significant statements and coded using emotion and values coding techniques.

The coding method used in this study was the affective method that included Emotion Coding and Values Coding as techniques (Saldana, 2009). These techniques are used to investigate the subjective qualities of human experience (Saldana, 2009).

Emotion coding labels the feelings of participants (Goleman, 1995). These emotion codes may refer to either the emotions recalled or experienced by the participants or those inferred by the researcher (Saldana, 2009). Since emotional responses are “intricately woven with our value, attitude and belief systems” (Saldana, 2009, p.88). Values coding was also used as a concurrent method. Values codes refer to a participant’s integrated value, attitude, and belief system.

Moreover, the researcher did the manual coding thrice to ensure that the journals were carefully read and re-read, coded and re-coded. While coding, the researcher also wrote analytic memos. These memos served as representations of the researcher’s thoughts while coding which became useful in assigning the appropriate codes. The memos also contained follow-up questions which were asked from the participants for the member checking procedure. The participants’ responses in the follow-up questions were used to cross-check the categories and themes yielded in this study. As it turned out, their responses in the follow-up questions further clarified and confirmed the findings in this study.

Next, the refined codes were grouped into clusters or categories. These categories yielded themes.

Lastly, the warm analysis involved describing the phenomenon of experiencing self, peer and teacher assessments as components of portfolio assessment. This description provided the vignettes of experiences in portfolio assessment of the participants.

## **Results**

This study yielded the research simulacrum called the PPP Lenses, Emotion Snapshots and the Big Picture of Portfolio Experiences (Figure 1). This representation of lenses and snapshots depicts positive and negative experiences in portfolio assessment.

In this study, it was found out that there were positive and negative experiences in the conduct of portfolio assessment. The positive and negative experiences of the participants started with how they viewed self, peer and teacher assessments as components of portfolio assessment. These views, in turn, caused them to have emotional experiences with the three assessments.

Consequently, their views and emotional experiences provided overall significant learning about the conduct of portfolio assessment.

As shown in the figure, the innermost part (of the camera figure) contains the lenses that direct how the participants view portfolio assessment. It is divided into three because there were three overarching themes that emerged from the participants' responses which refer to how the participants view self, peer and teacher assessments as components of portfolio assessment. These are the lens of progress, the lens of principle, and the lens of partiality.

The lens of progress refers to how the participants viewed portfolio assessment as a motivation for improvement, which is of two kinds: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation was associated with self-assessment, while extrinsic motivation was associated with peer and teacher assessments.

The lens of principle refers to how they view it as a way to manifest their sense of honesty. In this study, honesty is of three kinds: honesty to oneself, honesty to peers, and honesty by teachers.

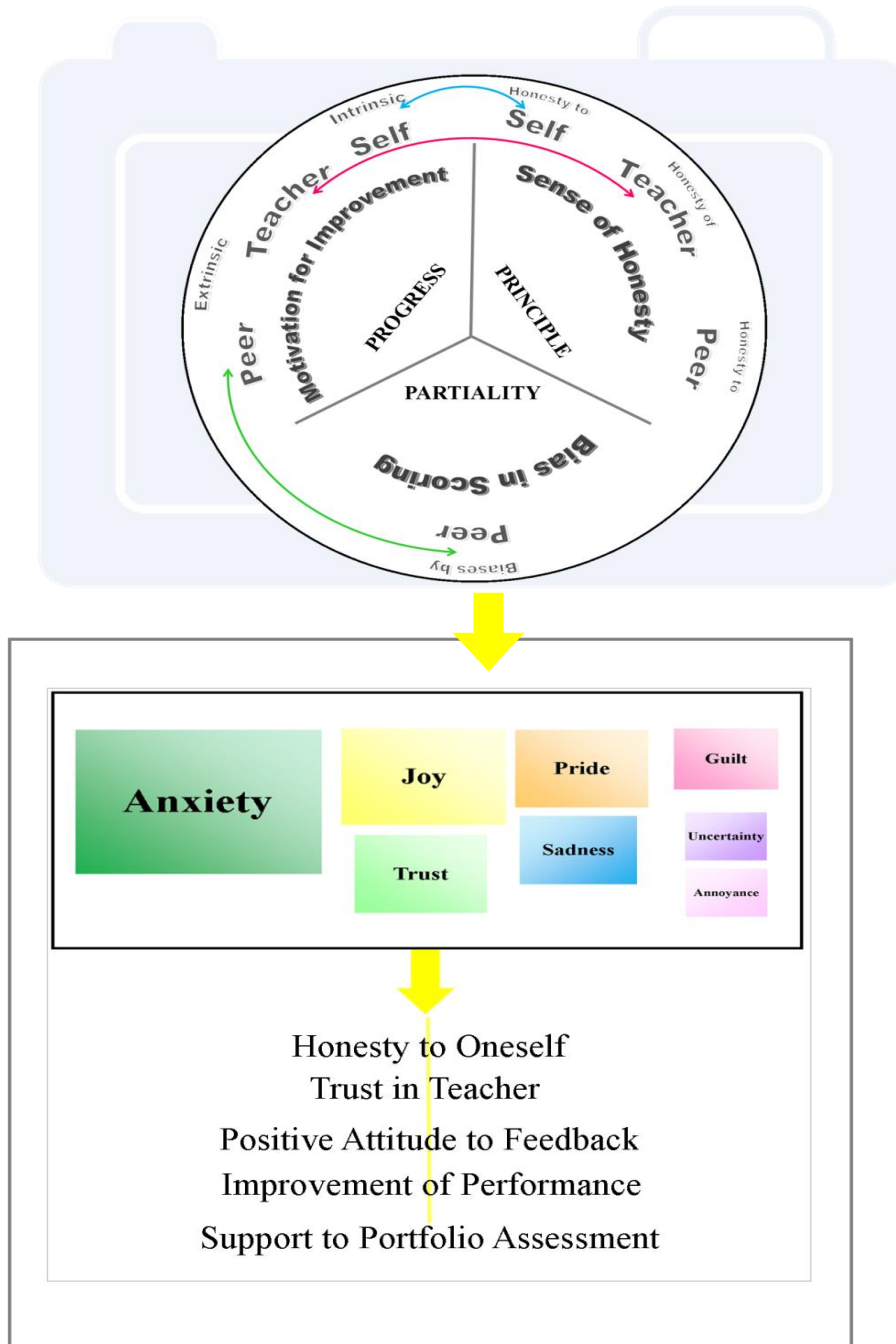


Fig.1 PPP Lenses, Emotion Snapshots and the Big Picture of Portfolio Assessment

Additionally, both the lens of progress and the lens of principle prompted positive experiences for the participants. As seen in the figure, an arrow is drawn from honesty to oneself toward intrinsic motivation (self) because they share similar findings. In some instances, the participants stated that when they honestly identified their own strengths and weaknesses, they became more motivated to improve their performances. In the same way, an arrow is also drawn from honesty by teacher toward extrinsic motivation (teacher). This means that they, too, share similar findings where a



teacher's honest comments became a motivation for the participants to improve their performances.

On the other hand, the participants had negative experiences with the lens of partiality, which refers to how they view portfolio assessment as having biases in scoring by peers. An arrow also connects bias in scoring by peers and extrinsic motivation (peer), which means that they also share similar ideas in the findings.

Moreover, these lenses or views provided eight snapshots of different emotional experiences, namely: anxiety, joy, pride, trust, sadness, guilt, annoyance and uncertainty. These emotions are not specific to only one act of assessing. Rather, these emotions can be present in the overall conduct of portfolio assessment.

Furthermore, the lenses or views and the snapshots of emotional experiences yielded five significant learning. All of these five significant learning provided the big picture about the overall conduct of portfolio assessment. First, it started with honesty to oneself, having trust in teacher, and having positive attitude to feedback. These in turn resulted in improvement of performance. Finally, there was support of portfolio assessment.

### **Participants' Views on Self, Peer and Teacher Assessments**

The PPP lenses describe the participants' views about self, peer and teacher assessments. Their views yielded the following lenses: lens of progress, lens of principle and lens of partiality. The positive and negative experiences of the participants regarding portfolio assessment originated from how they viewed self, peer and teacher assessments.

#### **Lens of Progress**

In this study, a majority of the participants' responses in their reflective journals spoke about looking at portfolio assessment as a mode to attain progress. Their views about self, peer, and teacher assessment as well as their overall view of portfolio assessment described how they see this assessment system as one that provided them the motivation for improvement. Moreover, this lens of progress let them have positive experiences in portfolio assessments.

**Motivation for Improvement: Intrinsic.** Intrinsic motivation for improvement is mainly associated with self-assessment. This kind of motivation refers to personal stimuli that the participants had while doing their self-assessment. The typical responses of the participants related to their intrinsic motivation were proving one's capabilities, discovering skills/abilities, knowing one's strengths and weaknesses, and striving for improvement.

These findings reflect the findings of Burner (2014) in his comprehensive review of the benefits of portfolio assessment. One of which is that it enhanced student performance when the students did self-reflection on their own products or performances. In turn, this also allowed them to perform better after knowing about how others assess them.

**Motivation for Improvement: Extrinsic.** While intrinsic motivation is mainly associated with doing self-assessments, extrinsic motivation, on the other hand, is mostly associated with doing the peer and teacher assessments. This kind of motivation refers to the different forms of rewards that they received mostly through the peer and teacher assessments, and a few from self-assessment. The most common responses that showed this motivation were expecting best comments, getting recognized for hard work, getting inspiration, having guidance for improvement, and getting high scores.

These findings on being motivated by high scores was also true in a study by De Grez, Valcke and Roozen (2012) where they found that self-assessment scores were higher than those given by the teacher. They also aimed for high scores which their peers and teacher gave after their performances. This relates to how participants generally aim for academic success, as was evident in the study of Vinas and Perez (2015) where they found out that alternative assessments such as portfolios have a positive impact on achieving academic success.

In addition to the findings of Vinas and Perez (2015), portfolios not only encourage academic success but also increase student motivation in the language classroom.

These were also reflected in the study of Jalili (2015) in which it was found out that portfolio raised students' awareness of learning strategies and enhanced their self-directed learning. In this study, the intrinsic and extrinsic motivations of the participants pushed them to become more aware of their skills or capabilities that aided in improving their learning strategies. Moreover, they also became more conscious about their learning progress and were able to show more effort in improving their performances.

## **Lens of Principle**

The lens of principle shares some similarities with the lens of progress in that some significant statements of the participants in the lens of progress are similar with some of their statements in this lens of principle. The participants' progress is in a way connected to how they place value on principles that aid in attaining progress. Thus, this lens of principle also provided them positive experiences in portfolio assessment.

**Sense of Honesty: Oneself.** Sense of honesty to oneself refers to how the participants showed honesty while doing their self-assessments. In addition, this sense of honesty to oneself also relates to the participants' intrinsic motivation for improvement as seen on similar responses about knowing oneself better and the act of giving a score to oneself.

This honesty to oneself was manifested in the following: listening to one's conscience, self-reflection, giving oneself deserved scores, knowing oneself better, and being motivated to do more.

This sense of honesty of the participants is connected to the assumption of Boud (2013) about self-assessment as a necessary skill for lifelong learning.

It is important for learners to be "realistic judges of their own performance" (Boud, 2013, p.13). The learners should also develop their ability to monitor their own learning.

The foregoing statements also agree with the assumption made by Zimmerman (2000) which stated that during the self-reflection phase, which occurs after performance, people respond behaviorally and mentally to their efforts.

On a similar note, Bandura (1986) also explained that a person's behavior is motivated and regulated by internal standards of self-evaluative reactions to their own actions. In this case, when the participants wrote scores in their self-assessments which they think they deserved, they were in fact exhibiting evaluative self-reactions which influenced their choice of being true to themselves and writing honest assessments of their performances.

In addition, the humanistic theorists also emphasize a person's self-awareness and they believe that a person has the capability to make choices for themselves and seek control over their lives.

This sense of honesty to oneself provided a glimpse into the personal beliefs and values of the participants. While it might be common and might sound harmless to give oneself a perfect score, most of these participants chose to be honest to themselves and even to others by giving

themselves scores that they think they deserved. One participant even wrote “giving a high score without doing my best is unsatisfying in my part as a student”, which meant that the participants valued the act of doing their best to deserve a high score more than simply writing a high score on their self-assessments.

**Sense of Honesty: Teacher.** Sense of honesty of teacher refers to the participants’ views about the teacher assessment being the honest form of assessment. This was based on how the participants received honest, real and fair comments. Moreover, this sense of honesty of the teacher also reflects some statements about the extrinsic motivation that the participants received from their teacher. The honest comments they received from their teacher also served as their motivation for improvement. Hence, the lens of progress is also connected with the lens of principle.

This sense of honesty of the teacher was shown in the following: giving honest comments, real comments/judgment, objective assessment, reliable assessment, trust, and unbiased scoring.

**Sense of Honesty: Peer.** Sense of honesty to peer refers to how the participants view the portfolio assessment as a way to be honest not only to themselves but also to their peers. This was shown in the following acts: assessing like a teacher and being fair in assessing.

The sense of honesty provided some descriptions of the participants’ views about doing what is right and just. It is clear that most of the participants want what is honest and what is fair both for themselves and from their teachers.

Furthermore, the lens of principle is also connected to the lens of progress as participants who received honest, real or fair assessments were motivated to strive more.

### **Lens of Partiality**

While the lens of progress and the lens of principle share connections with regard to the positive experiences attached to them, the lens of partiality seems to be at a conflict with the lens of principle. The lens of partiality is mostly connected with peer assessment and the participants hinted seemingly negative experiences about it.

Moreover, their views about peer assessment were mostly anchored on the idea of getting high scores. This idea of getting high scores was in a way related to the extrinsic motivation in the lens of progress as some participants mentioned being motivated by the high scores given by their peers. This is why the lens of partiality is also slightly connected to the lens of progress.

In the reflections of the participants about peer assessment, the word *friend* appeared multiple times. Generally, the idea of a friend has positive connotations. However, in this case, the participants linked the idea of friendship to peer assessment and gave varied responses that could either be interpreted as an obscure positive idea or a clear negative one. Put simply, this refers to peer assessment being governed by friendship.

This partiality by peers was also evident in the study conducted by Chang, Cheng and Lou (2012). In their study, they found out that in peer assessments, peers tended to be negligent of the standards, as opposed to teachers who strictly followed the standards in the assessments. Moreover, there was no consistency between the peer and teacher assessments (Chang, Cheng & Lou, 2012). This also supports the findings in the study of Kilic (2016) where it was found out that peer assessment scores were significantly higher than teacher and self-assessment scores.

In another study, students showed a certain amount of distrust with peer assessment, citing their peers' inability to assess objectively (Planas Lladó, Soley, Fraguell Sansbelló, Pujolras, Planella, Roura-Pascual, & Moreno, 2014).

This was also highlighted in Kaufman and Schunn's study (2011) where they found out that students sometimes regarded peer assessment as unfair and that peers were unqualified to assess students' work.

Furthermore, Panadero, Romero, and Strijbos (2013) also found in their study that, although peer assessment ratings were reliable to a teacher's perspective, there was some level of "systematic bias" (p.6). Also, irrespective of friendship levels, all students over-scored their peers' outputs.

This lens of partiality may be viewed as beneficial in some way on the part of the students due to the fact that their peers, or in this case, their friends, are obligated to help their friends to gain higher scores, thereby helping them increase their chances of achieving a high final grade at the end of their course.

This view also reflects an assumption in self-worth theory where it states that people want to be viewed as able, but failure creates feelings of unworthiness. In this case, the participants allowed their peers to give them high, if not perfect, scores to somehow preserve a basic sense of self-worth (Covington & Beery, 1976; Covington & Dray, 2002).

However, it was the participants themselves who used the term *biased* to refer to peer assessment. This reflects their awareness of dishonesty and also contradicts their responses in the lens of principle, where they strongly expressed their views about valuing honesty and objectivity in assessment.

This shows that the participants would rather receive unbiased assessment even from their peers than have negative reactions toward peer assessment. It also shows that the participants would appreciate it more if their peers also practice honesty in peer assessment.

### **Participants' Emotional Experiences related to Self, Peer and Teacher Assessments**

The study of the participants' views or lenses of portfolio assessment also yielded themes that provided snapshots of their emotional experiences in having their portfolio assessment. Each emotion was neither bound to a singular activity or type of assessment, nor was it a mere free-standing feeling. These snapshots of emotions were in fact by-products of the varied views and activities that constituted the whole portfolio experience.

The portfolio assessment experience of the participants also reflected Atkinson's theory on self-worth which predicted that achievement behavior results from an emotional conflict between hope for success and fear of failure. Hence, the self, peer and teacher assessments also trigger emotional experiences among the participants (Covington & Beery, 1976; Covington & Dray, 2002).

There are eight snapshots of emotions identified in the reflective journals of the participants. These are anxiety, joy, pride, trust, sadness, guilt, annoyance and uncertainty.

#### **Anxiety**

Anxiety was the most dominant emotional experience in this study. Virtually all of the participants expressed an emotion that can be related to anxiety. Anxiety refers to an emotion where there is a fear and nervousness about something that would happen (Merriam-Webster). The dominant codes related to anxiety were worry, tension, nervousness, pressure, and being on the "hot seat".

## **Joy**

Joy was the second most dominant emotion. This refers to the participants' state of happiness with other people assessing their portfolio, with doing their self-assessments, with their good performances, and with the act of assessing portfolio entries and performances.

## **Pride**

Pride or feelings of pride was usually related to joy. In this study, some participants stated that they felt proud about themselves for what they have accomplished in their portfolio and in their performances.

## **Trust**

The dominant codes related to this category were trust in teacher and trust in objective assessment.

This emotion stemmed from the belief of the participants that the teacher was the authority inside the classroom. To them, the teacher was the best source of knowledge.

This level of trust in teacher assessment was also evident in one study conducted by Kaufman and Schunn (2011) where students had the most positive perceptions and experiences in the courses where a teacher graded their work in addition to peers, as opposed to only having peers assess their work.

## **Sadness**

Sadness is an emotion associated with feelings of unhappiness. In this study it refers to an instance when a participant was not satisfied with the performance he or she showed to the class.

## **Guilt**

Related to sadness is the emotion guilt. In this study, a few of the participants expressed a feeling of guilt because of the high score they gave themselves in the self-assessment.

## **Annoyance**

In this study, annoyance is related to irritation, which was what few participants felt while assessing themselves. They also thought that in self-assessment, it seemed like they needed to find faults in their own portfolio entries.

## **Uncertainty**

The experience of being uncertain was present in the act of assigning oneself a score. In this case, the participants were clueless as to what score they should give themselves.

While most of the participants were clear about writing a high score or a score they deserved, a few of the participants did not know what score to write on their self-assessments.

### **Significant Learning from Participants' Portfolio Assessment Experience**

The foregoing views and emotional experiences, or the progress-principle-partiality lenses and snapshots of emotions, yielded a big picture that sums up the significant learning from the participants' experiences in portfolio assessment.

The following ideas emerged as significant learning in the overall conduct of portfolio assessment: honesty to self, trust in teacher, positive attitude to feedback, improvement of performance and support for portfolio assessment.

#### **Honesty to Oneself**

This significant learning is based on the participants' sense of honesty. Not only did most of them believe and practice honesty in their self-assessment, but they also practiced this value toward their peers in the conduct of the peer assessment.

#### **Trust in Teacher**

Trust in teacher can also be connected to the participants' sense of honesty due to the fact that they put their trust in the authority of their teacher as the one who is more capable of assessing their portfolio objectively and fairly. Moreover, this trust they had toward their teacher enabled them to be more receptive of the feedback they received. They were also more motivated to strive more and improve their portfolio entries and performances.

#### **Positive Attitude to Feedback**

Although most of the participants were verbal about wanting high scores for their portfolio, most of them also welcomed not only positive feedback but also feedback meant to improve their performances.

#### **Improvement of Performance**

As they expressed in their reflective journals, the participants indeed improved their performances and even gained more confidence in the classroom activities they did.



## **Support to Portfolio Assessment**

Despite some shortcomings in the conduct of portfolio assessment, whether in the part of the teacher or the student, all participants expressed their support to portfolio assessment due to its merits as they have experienced.

The study of Lucas (2008) also yielded similar findings about portfolio assessment. In her study, she found out that through this assessment, students were able to identify the various linguistic problems in their English course and were able to address these deficiencies through the learned independence and self-autonomy in learning that they have developed.

## **Discussion**

All of these findings create vignettes of experiences in portfolio assessment. Like a camera lens, the lenses of progress, principle and partiality aided in how the participants viewed self, peer and teacher assessments as components of portfolio assessment. These lenses influenced their perception or understanding of the conduct of portfolio assessment. Moreover, these lenses provided a clearer picture of the kinds of experiences the students have with portfolio assessment.

Furthermore, these three lenses provided positive and negative experiences. The positive and negative experiences originated from how the participants view portfolio assessment.

The positive experiences stemmed from the lens of progress and principle which showed that the participants viewed the assessments as a motivation for improvement and a way to show their sense of honesty. Furthermore, their motivation for improvement and sense of honesty share connections with each other. The participants' honesty in their self-assessments gave them motivation to improvement. In the same way, they also found motivation in their teacher's honesty in the teacher assessment.

On the other hand, the lens of partiality provided negative experiences due to the biases made by the peers in the peer assessment. However, in some instances, the high scores given by peers also became a motivation for the participants.

These three lenses captured snapshots of emotions. In this study, there were eight emotions that transpired based on how the participants described their portfolio assessment. These were anxiety, joy, trust, pride, sadness, guilt, annoyance and uncertainty. All of these emotions were part of their positive and negative experiences.

In turn, these lenses and the snapshots of emotions created a big picture of the significant learning in portfolio assessment. This big picture shows that their experiences included honesty to oneself, trust in teacher, positive attitude to feedback, improvement of performance and support to portfolio assessment.

### **Implications to Second Language Pedagogy**

The results that this study yielded provide significant learning for language teachers who utilize portfolio assessment in their classes. As shown in the results, the students had both negative and positive experiences in the conduct of portfolio assessment.

To prevent negative experiences, an orientation on the proper conduct of portfolio assessment should be given first to the students before its implementation to ensure that the students understand what are expected of them and what they can expect from this kind of assessment.

In this orientation, the students should first be made aware of the purpose of portfolio assessment. As an alternative form of assessment, portfolios can address what traditional forms cannot measure. Moreover, portfolios have benefits that can aid the students in attaining academic success.

Furthermore, the students should understand that in portfolio assessment, they take control over their learning, which means that they should be active participants in the related tasks of the assessment such as creating rubrics, giving feedback, portfolio keeping, and others.

On the other hand, the use of portfolio assessment generates positive effects to students when done properly. Explaining how it is done and what students as self or peer evaluator is expected to do will lessen the negative experiences related to it. Both the students and the teacher must plan well how it should be implemented and they should follow the rules and regulations properly to make its conduct successful.

In addition, scoring rubrics that are formulated by the teacher and the students can elicit better performances and portfolio entries because the students are given the authority to decide on how they will be assessed.

Moreover, the teacher and students should create clear and measurable scoring criteria to promote objective assessment and eliminate chances of biases that may influence the assessment.

Furthermore, the students should understand that assessing their own portfolio and others' portfolio objectively will provide the best results and will give them the right information they need to know in order to improve their portfolios and performances.

Consequently, promoting portfolio assessment as an objective form of assessment may evoke more positive emotions, thereby creating more positive learning experiences for the students.

The teacher should also utilize appropriate classroom management techniques and instruction strategies to help the students overcome the negative emotions they may associate with the act of assessing themselves or their peers. For instance, the teacher can make use of blind assessments so that the students will not be led to give biased assessments to peers.

Educators or school administrators can adopt a policy on the use of alternative assessments, such as the portfolio assessment, as this is parallel with the student-centered view of learning.

Moreover, portfolio assessment promotes lifelong skills such as critical thinking, communication, collaboration, and creativity among others. These skills address the needed skills targeted by an outcomes-based approach to education which encourages educators to produce graduates who are not only equipped with the right knowledge, but also the right skills and attitudes.

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## **URBAN AND RURAL EARLY CHILDHOOD TEACHERS: THEIR ATTITUDES, VIEWS, BELIEF AND CHALLENGES IN TEACHING ENGLISH**

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### **ABSTRACT**

The teachers are the key factor in the development of the student's attitudes towards the subject they teach.

In the current study, one hundred eighty-five urban and rural early childhood teachers were given a survey that examined their attitudes, beliefs and challenges in English and English teaching, their views of English, views of teaching English, and views of children learning English.

The purpose of this study was to identify the attitudes and beliefs as well as challenges of early childhood teachers in two school districts the urban and rural, to determine if English reform efforts made a difference in teachers' attitudes and beliefs about English and its teaching.

Questionnaires were distributed directly to teachers in one school district and principals distributed questionnaires in the other. Summary scores were calculated for parts of the instrument. The researcher performed descriptive statistics, comparative analysis, and conducted frequency distributions, t-tests and ANOVA.

The findings of this study are presented in two parts. The analysis is given separately by school districts. Results of urban school districts followed and by the results of rural school districts.

There are eighty-four teachers who responded to the survey in urban school districts. There were 64.29 percent age range from 41 and above it falls here those teachers who are about to retire from service and still teaching. 4.76 percent age 40 and 30.95 percent age range 39 and below. 11.90 percent male respondents and 88.09 percent were female.



Findings revealed in urban school districts eighty-six percent of the sample population had a positive attitude in English and Teachers who held a minor or major in English had more positive attitudes toward English and its teaching than teachers without a minor or major in English.

The number of teachers who returned their questionnaires in rural school districts is one hundred one grades one through six grade teachers responded to the survey.

The results by Demographics Categories in rural school districts as to Age were 50.59% percent age range from 41 and above, 4.95 percent age and 44.55 percent respondent's age range from 39 and below. There were 16.83 percent are male and 83.17 percent female respondents.

The weighted mean summed score of teacher's respondents in rural school Districts agreeable was 41.32 and 5.47 disagreeable, indicating that overall they had a positive attitude in English. Both school districts' teachers favored the instrumentalist view of English and both school districts; Constructivism appears to be the most favored view when it comes to views of children learning English.

Teachers in urban school districts favored many methods view in teaching English while teachers in rural favored Text Driven Curriculum when it came to the dominate views of teaching English.

## **INTRODUCTION**

The vital role of teachers is to guide the students learning, assists them, give them direction and opportunities to explore and enhance whatever their existing knowledge, develop student's ability to solve a wide variety of simple and complex problem as well as to use student's ingenuity, creativity and to thinks right. This could only be possible if teachers have important foundation for early childhood educators, positive thinker, right attitudes, beliefs and views towards teaching English.

Morrison (1997) as cited by McGriff (1999) states that Teaching efficacy stems from teachers' beliefs, views attitudes, as well as from influences from the community, school, and classroom's conditions.

A person understands of the nature of English teaching accordingly predicates that person's view of how teaching should take place in the classroom. It is not, as some may believe, one's opinion of the best way to teach.

When learning English in early years, students begin to acquire the language unconsciously motivated by necessities such as to exchange information with the teachers and that will lead to develop self-efficacy power. It defines self-efficacy as the ability to conjecture, explore, and reason

logically; to communicate about and through English language; to connect ideas within and between English and other intellectual entities. Self-efficacy power also involves the development of personal self-confidence and a disposition to seek, evaluate in making decisions.

The researcher believes the best way for all students to develop self-efficacy power is through the creation of a curriculum and an environment, in which teaching and learning is to occur, that are very different from much of current and usual practice.

Researcher also believes English language should be taught base on the conception of English teaching of which students should engage in purposeful activities, requiring reasoning and creative thinking, gathering and applying information, discovering, inventing, and communicating ideas, and testing those ideas through critical reflection and argumentation. This view is in contrast to the view of mastering concepts and procedures as the end result of instruction.

Teachers should always know the capabilities, strengths and weaknesses of their students in terms of English language. With this in mind, this study examines early childhood teachers' attitudes, beliefs and views as well as challenges about English teaching and learning in urban and rural school districts. It seeks to answer the following questions:

- 1) What are urban and rural early childhood teachers' general attitudes in English?
- 2) What are the urban and rural early childhood teachers' attitudes in teaching English?
- 3) What are the urban and rural early childhood teachers' beliefs in teaching English?
- 4) What are urban and rural early childhood teachers' views of English? Do urban and rural teachers' views of English lean more toward the:
  - a. Platonist view
  - b. Instrumentalist view
- 5) What are the urban and rural early childhood teachers' views of teaching English when categorize according to the following:
  - a. Basic Skills Practice
  - b. Discovery (Active) View
  - c. Teacher Designed Curriculum
  - d. Text Driven Curriculum
  - e. Many Methods Encouraged
  - f. Cooperative Learning View
- 6) What are the urban and rural early childhood teachers' views of children learning English?

a. Rote Learning

b. Constructivist View (Previous Knowledge Respected)

- 7) What are the challenges encountered by these teachers in teaching early childhood English?
- 8) Are teachers among the catalyst for transferring a dislike for English and English anxiety down to future generations of students?
- 9) Is English reform efforts have impacted the way early childhood teachers present English in the classroom
- 10) Has reform changed or altered early childhood teacher's beliefs, attitude and views regarding the teaching of English?

This study was show a need to include teachers' attitudes, beliefs, views, challenges and knowledge of English into teacher educational programs with hopes of improving student achievement in English. This study may also serve as a gauge (tool) for measuring a rural and urban school district's attempt to change their teachers' way of thinking about English and it's teaching.

Further, this study may help identify high concentrations of teachers who do not care for English teaching, or who have a fear of English who are teaching in our lower grade levels. Passing this fear or dislike on to our students at an early age could cause students not to do well and not like English. In the long run, this could weaken our nation's welfare and existence.

This study will also show a need for more English staff developments in school districts for Early Childhood teachers that advocate discovery type activities as the most beneficial ways for students to learn and better understand English language.

Last, this study creates an instrument that can be used at all grade levels to determine teachers' attitudes, views and beliefs about English and how it should be taught and learned.

Results of this study may indicate a need for a change in teacher education programs and district staff developments; or a survey of this type may validate that teacher-training programs are doing a fine job in preparing teachers for the classroom.

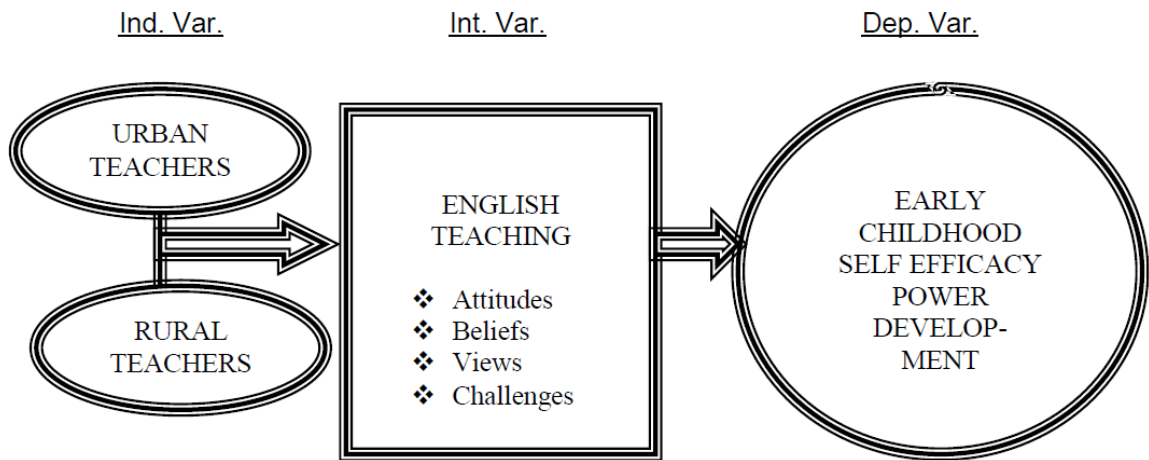
## **CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK**

Students enter school with a large amount of natural curiosity, but that curiosity can be overtaken by skepticism if teachers fail to show them how their studies are relevant. This presents a challenge particularly for those who teach early English.

This current studies of rural and urban early childhood teachers in English show that teacher’s attitudes, beliefs and views towards English play a significant role in influencing young children thinking and performance in studying English and provide a strong foundation for our students.

There are three (3) variables in this study. These are the independent, intervening and dependent variables. The Urban and the Rural Teachers are the independent variables; the Attitudes, Views, Beliefs and Challenges is the intervening variable; and the development of early childhood self-efficacy power is the dependent variable.

Figure 1 served as a conceptual framework of the study. The Attitudes, Beliefs, Views and Challenges of Urban and the Rural Teachers are the key figures in changing the ways in which English is taught and learned in school. Figure below shows the Conceptual Framework of the study showing the Relationship of the Key Concepts



## METHODOLOGY AND SAMPLING OF THE STUDY

The respondents of this study were teachers who are teaching elementary and primary grade students in urban and rural school districts.

Out of approximately 3000 teachers who teach elementary and primary grade in both urban and rural school districts, a sample size of 184 teachers was participate in the study. The participants were new and veteran age teachers, female and male, and from a diversity of tribe. The teachers who was receive the questionnaires is grade one to six.

## SAMPLING PROCEDURES

The researcher used Purposive sampling in the selection of schools for both Urban and Rural district base on the following criteria;

- 1) The schools chosen in this study are located in either Urban and Rural district
- 2) The school are chosen in this study is accessible for the researcher to gather data.
- 3) The teacher respondents handle English subjects

## **DATA GATHERED AND PROCEDURES IN GATHERING**

The descriptive – survey research were used in gathering the necessary data concerning Urban and Rural Early Childhood Teachers: Their Attitudes, Views, Beliefs and Challenges in Teaching English;

Data collection procedures was similar in both urban and rural school district, once granted permission to perform study in the selected campuses by the authority like the division superintendent, the researcher herself personally distributed the survey packet containing the questionnaire to the elementary grade teachers at each selected campuses.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

This chapter presents two sets of data obtained by the researcher from the two groups of respondents representing urban and rural teachers. The first set of data was derived from the responses of 84 urban teachers. In like manner, the second set of data was drawn from the responses of the 101 rural teachers. Both sets of data were derived through the questionnaire that contains 20 statements for each attitude, beliefs, views and challenges.

To attain a richer analysis and interpretation of data, the researcher utilized the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences or (SPSS). It is both a statistical language and a system that performs sophisticated data management and statistical analysis. And the formula of statistics given at the method section was followed to analyze the data collected.

Teacher's information obtained from the survey study was analyzed with descriptive statistics. Characteristics of teachers were analyzed (disaggregated) by age, gender, seminar or workshop in English attended and is English their major or minor.

Summary scores were calculated for attitudes, beliefs, views and challenges in teaching English and attitude to teaching sections of the questionnaire. Sums indicated a specific type of response preference for each teacher in these sections of the survey. The teacher's score is the sum of the weighted sections. High scores reflect positive attitudes in English and/or to teaching. Low scores reflect negative attitudes. Descriptive statistics, frequency distributions, and t-tests (for paired samples) were calculated for the remaining three sections of the instrument: beliefs of English, views of English, and challenges in teaching English.

Comparative analyses were also used to compare and delineate the responses of teachers. Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) tests in the case of significant between group differences.

The Urban and the Rural Teachers are the independent variables; the Attitudes, Views, Beliefs and Challenges is the intervening variable; and the development of early childhood efficacy power is the dependent variable.

The findings of this study are presented in two parts. The analysis is given separately by school districts. Results of urban school districts followed and by the results of rural school districts.

### **Urban School Districts Results**

Descriptive statistics were used to examine early childhood teachers' general attitudes in English.

The attitudes in English section of the questionnaire contained twenty items; each item has five choice Likert alternatives and has given equivalent description. For positive attitudes participants' response four to five points meaning agree to strongly agreeable to the statement and for negative attitudes participants' response one to two meaning strongly disagree to disagreeable to each statement. The middle response is three meaning undecided. (See "scoring" in the Method section.) The weighted mean summed score of teacher's respondents in Urban School Districts agreeable was 45.73 and 7.33 disagreeable, indicating that overall they had a positive attitude in English. See appendices for details of computation in getting the weighted mean.

The sample was given equivalent description on the basis of their response on their attitude in English. Participants scoring above the median were characterized as having positive attitudes; those scoring below the median were characterized as having negative attitudes. By this criterion, eighty-six percent of the sample population had a positive attitude in English.

Second Questioned was what are the urban and rural early childhood teachers' attitudes in teaching English?

For this problem the same procedure was made with question number one the general attitude to teaching English sections is the sum of the weighted alternatives for that particular participant.

Of the twenty statements of the attitudes section of the questionnaire, there are fifteen items contained the attitudes to teaching English each item has five choice Likert alternatives and has given equivalent description. For positive attitudes participants' response four to five points meaning agree to strongly agreeable to the statement and for negative attitudes participants' response one to two meaning strongly disagree to disagreeable to each statement. The middle

response is three meaning undecided. (See scoring in the Method section.) The weighted mean summed score of teacher's respondents in Urban School Districts agreeable was 24.86 and 7.33 disagreeable, indicating that overall they had a positive attitude in English. See appendices for details of computation in getting the weighted mean.

As with teachers' attitudes in teaching English, the sample was divided on the basis of their response on their attitude in teaching English. Participants scoring above the median were characterized as having positive attitudes; those scoring below the median were characterized as having negative attitudes. With this criterion, almost seventy-seven percent of the sample population had a positive attitude in teaching English.

The ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) indicated that attitudes in English were significant at ( $\alpha=0.05$ ) as to age of the participants. F critical value is 3.17 and the computed value was 3.441 was much larger than the tabular value therefore null hypothesis was rejected and alternate hypothesis was accepted.

T test revealed that gender was not significant in attitudes in teaching English. At  $\alpha = 0.05$  the tabular value is 2.000 and the computed value is 0.048. It indicates to accept the null hypothesis.

As can be seen in Table 8 having majored or minored in English was significant as well T – Test Revealed these findings and Those with English majors/minors had a better attitude toward English. The tabular value at 0.005 is 2.00, the computed value was 20 was much larger than the tabular value it indicates to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis.

As to extent of difference in seminar attended reflected in Table 9. There is highly significant difference T – Test revealed to accept the alternate hypothesis and reject the null, it indicates the participants have attended seminar in English have better attitude in English than those who doesn't have.

Number three questioned was what are the urban and rural early childhood teachers' beliefs in teaching English?

As for the beliefs in teaching English there were twenty statements constitute to their beliefs. The corresponding answers to these items were tabulated and computed using the Weighted Arithmetic Mean and given equivalent descriptions as to whether they are strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree strongly disagree.

Rank first is the item "Teachers should teach knowledge, skills and understanding in ways that challenge their student's ability in solving problem" with a computed mean of 4.4047619,

based on the given description of computed mean respondents agree on this statement. This fact implies that in instruction, teachers tailor their teaching strategies to student responses and encourage or challenges student's ability in solving problem in such way students will be able to improve their critical thinking.

Second in Rank is the item "English is interesting subject to teach" with a computed mean of 4.2738095 and agreeable to this statement. Results show that teachers are found English as an interesting subject to teach among other subject. If teachers are very much interested with the subject, they taught success have become more apparent in the field of English education. What a teacher knows is one of the most important influences on what is done in classrooms and ultimately on what students learn.

Next in rank was "Teachers should give emphasis to the importance of technology as a tool for English teaching" respondents agree on these items they believe that technology can be a very important tool for English teaching and that the importance of it should be given emphasis. According to Niess, M. L. (2006) if technology is used to improve the learning of English at all levels, students will be better prepared to use technology appropriately, fluently, and efficiently to do English in technology rich environments in which they will study and work in the future.

Fourth in Rank was the item "What is learned in school English is relevant to life and work" respondents agree on this statement that indeed English is relevant to real world. In school English is one where teachers provide students with numerous opportunities to solve complex and interesting problems; to read, write, and discuss English; and to formulate and test the validity of personally constructed ideas so that they draw their own conclusions. Students make use of demonstrations, drawings, and real-world objects—as well as formal and logical arguments—to convince themselves and others of the validity of their solutions. Instead of students imitating what they have seen and heard, students understand what they are doing.

Rank number five is the statement "In teaching English, it should be students – centered learning approach" respondents agree on this statement. This fact implies that it should be students centered in teaching English because the success and failure of students in English depends on the teacher's ways of teaching and The teacher must create a context where English language is relevant to the learner.

There are three items rank number six these are the statement "Teachers are key figures in changing the ways in w/c English is taught and learned in school", "English is useful and beautiful", "Correct English Language need to be taught to students "this three items obtained equal computed mean of 4.202381 with a given description as agree to the said statement. For the



first statement stated herein, teachers are the content experts in the school, they are the key figures of imposes ways of doing English and ways of thinking about English that may or may not make sense to learners. Second statement, data revealed participants found English is beautiful it implies teachers know the beauty in English consists in order, regularity and inner harmony and useful teachers are able to point out the relation of English to other fields of study and its implication to fields of work. Third statement herein Correct English Language need to be taught to students, finding reveals English teaching should not only be about explaining its content, but also about engaging students in the processes and proof of talking English Language.

There are two items Rank Number seven the statement “Being an English teacher is an exciting profession” and “English disciplines the mind” respondents agree on this statement. For first statement reveals participants found English is an exciting profession, they consider English as profession in which they are enjoyed it. Second statement implies there is disciplinary value in the study of English – in the development of sound work habits, the capacity to work independently.

Next in rank is the statement “Teachers must select English task to engage student’s interest and intellect”, respondents agree on this statement. The teacher must create and select an English context where English is relevant to the learner in that way it engages the student’s interest and intellect.

Rank Number nine is the statement “English can be effectively learned if the subject matter is presented in simplified and integrated manner” with a computed mean of 4.1071429 and given description as agree to this statement. It shows here that the learners can effectively learn the simplest way or approach of subject matter in English.

Eleventh in rank is the item “As a teacher, I believe that student’s group work is essential in their English learning experience” Respondents agreeable to this statement. It reveals as Students talk to one another, make conjectures and reason with others about English; ideas and knowledge are developed collaboratively their English learning.

Rank 12 is the item “Students get frustrated with output they don’t understand” respondents agree on this statement. It reveals that if students not contented with the knowledge they acquire the will get frustrated.

Rank 13 is the item “The existence of English is self – explanatory” with a computed mean of 3.9761905 meaning undecided” data shows in this statement that respondents cannot say as to whether the existence of English is self-explanatory.

As to age of the participant's ANOVA Test shows not significantly difference between the age which results to not accept the alternate hypothesis at  $\alpha=0.05$  the tabular value of  $F_{(2,10)}=2.436$  is smaller than the F critical value.

T – test revealed significant difference as to beliefs of gender, at  $\alpha=0.05$  the computed value reflected in Table 12 is larger than the tabular value of 2.000, therefore null hypothesis was rejected and alternate hypothesis was accepted.

Having those minor / major and have attended seminar both shows highly significance difference refer to Table 13 and 14 respectively. T – test indicates that null hypothesis was rejected and accept alternate hypothesis.

Fourth questioned that was ask in this is study is what are urban and rural early childhood teachers' views of English? Do urban teachers' views of English lean more toward the: Platonist view—English is exact and certain truth; Instrumentalist view— English is facts and rules, not creative; or Problem solving view—English is a problem solving approach, providing many answers and exploring patterns versus employment of routine tasks (Ernest, 1988; Ernest 1996).

For this particular problem descriptive statistics were also used. Twenty statements correspond to the views of respondents and it includes the Platonist, Instrumental and problem solving view. Each item in the views section of the questionnaire has given five Likert alternatives and has equivalent description. The most favored view gets a high score and low score for not in favor. The weighted mean was computed and the percentage for each views.

Teachers demonstrated that the Instrumental view was the most favored view of English with a percent score of 36.50 %. The teachers were classified in terms of the view of English they endorsed most strongly.

Question number five was the rural and urban early childhood teachers' views of teaching English when categorize according to the following a) Basic Skills Practice— basic skills vs. calculator, other emphasis; b) Discovery (Active) View— need to be told vs. can/should discover; c) Teacher Designed Curriculum—children's needs, differences and preferences are accommodated; one text is not followed for all abilities, the English curriculum is differentiated for individual needs and differences; c)Text Driven Curriculum-- English is taught by following the text or syllabus exactly; d) Many Methods Encouraged—teacher's unique method vs. many methods; or, e) Cooperative Learning View—isolated vs. cooperative learning.

There were twenty items in the views sections of the questionnaire that are categorized into corresponding views in teaching English. Each item in the views section of the questionnaire has given five Likert alternatives and has equivalent description. The most favored view gets a high

score and low score for not in favor. The weighted mean was computed and the percentage for each views.

Revealed data shows that teachers from urban school districts favored the many methods view when it came to them dominate views of teaching English. Discovery (Active) View, cooperative learning, basic skills views and text driven curriculum fell in the middle. They had least favorable views towards teachers designed approaches to teaching English.

These results are indication that the many methods approach to teaching English has been communicated effectively to most teachers. However, continued work in convincing, persuading, and training all teachers is yet needed.

The many methods view, cooperative learning, teacher designed curriculum, and the discovery view go hand-in-hand with the problem solving approach. Teachers with a problem solving type classroom will at one time or another employ all of these views. Cooperative learning type activities have been credited with promoting higher achievement over competitive classes. Cooperative learning may increase the group identity of children and help them to feel a part of the class.

The discovery approach is used to discover concepts that already exist Lerman (1983).

In problem solving, students are encouraged to try different methods/strategies to help them understand a situational problem. Because evidence suggests that children construct some ideas slowly, it is crucial that teachers use physical materials, diagrams, and real world situations in conjunction with ongoing efforts to relate their learning experiences to oral language and symbols (NCTM, 1989: 57).

Teacher designed curricula affords the teacher to meet the individual needs of the students, consequently the English curriculum is modified for individual needs and differences (Ernest, 1996).

Problem numbers six are the rural and urban early childhood teachers' views of children learning English? As to the following: a) Rote Learning—English is remembering facts, rules, learning by rote; b) Constructivist View (Previous Knowledge Respected) —transmission (transference) vs. building on existing knowledge.

As with view of children learning English descriptive statistics were used. Of the Twenty statements correspond to the views of respondents includes here the rote learning and constructivist view. Each item in the views section of the questionnaire has given five Likert alternatives and has

given equivalent verbal description. The most favored view gets a high score and low score for less in favor. The weighted mean was computed and the percentage for each views.

In regard to the teachers' views of children learning English, the most favored view is toward constructivism. Rote learning came in last as a favorable view of learning English.

Isaacs (1999: 509) says, the rote approach encourages students to believe that English is more memorizing than thinking. He states that the essence of current reforms in primary –grade English is to recognize and build on the abundance of informal English knowledge that children bring with them to the classroom, which in the past has been ignored or suppressed.

Lerman (1983: 65) points out that there is a strong analogy between the growth of new knowledge and conceptual development in a person, and the work of Piaget— his theories of development. Piaget's idea is that the child is responsible for the construction of his own knowledge. This knowledge is neither exclusively preexistent, not solely environmentally determined but rather results from the interaction between these factors.

In a constructivist classroom, by careful choice of problems, the teacher stimulates the student to examine his own knowledge. "If it is found inadequate to solve the problem, the students are guided to extend their knowledge by hypothesis, or by taking a solution from another problem and then testing this hypothesis. (Lerman, 1983: 65).

Constructivism is based on the premise that we all construct our own viewpoint of the world, based on our individual experiences and schema. It focuses on preparing the learner for solving problem in ambiguous situations (CSCL, 1998).

Litman, Anderson, Andrican, Buria, Christy, Koski, and Renton (1999: 5) had this to say about constructivism: Children begin life learning about themselves and the world immediately around them, learning through experiences that are sensory and concrete. Gradually each child's world expands as his experiences and activities reach out beyond himself. We are responsible for grounding the child's play in experiences that flow from his own family, neighborhood, community, and local culture.

Teachers in urban school districts made evident that the instrumentalist view was the most favored view of English. Teachers demonstrated significantly more favorable attitudes toward Instrumentalist and Platonist views. Teachers also demonstrated more favorable attitudes toward Platonist view over problem solving view. However, the difference between the means of each was fairly small as compared to rural school districts.

The researcher also questioned the challenges encountered by these teachers in teaching early childhood English.

For the challenges in teaching English there were twenty statements constitute to their challenges. The corresponding answers to these items were tabulated and computed using the Weighted Arithmetic Mean and given equivalent verbal descriptions as to whether very low extent, low extent, moderate extent, high extent and very high extent. The same procedures were made as to the tabulation of data with questioned number four of the study on the beliefs of the respondents.

Of the twenty statements constitute to the challenges of early childhood teachers in English 100 % (percent) of the respondents says they are moderate extent. It follows that participant slightly encounter the stated statement of the challenges in teaching English.

Teachers demonstrated not significantly difference between the means of age. However, the difference between the means of each was fairly small as compared to rural school districts. T test showed highly significant difference between the genders, have attended seminar and those having a major and minor. The computed value was larger than the tabular value of 2.00 at  $\alpha = 0.005$  therefore the null hypothesis was rejected and alternate hypothesis was accepted.

## **RURAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS RESULTS**

Rural surveys result for questioned number one what are rural and urban early childhood teachers' general attitudes in English?

The same treatment was used with the urban school districts. Descriptive statistics were used to examine early childhood teachers' general attitudes in English.

The weighted mean summed score of teacher's respondents in rural school Districts agreeable was 41.32 and 5.47 disagreeable, indicating that overall they had a positive attitude in English. The sample was given equivalent description on the basis of their response on their attitude in English. Participants scoring above the median were characterized as having positive attitudes; those scoring below the median were characterized as having negative attitudes. By this criterion, eighty eight percent of the sample population had a positive attitude in English.

For number two question in this study results survey on rural school districts. For this problem the same procedure was made with question number one the general attitude to teaching English sections is the sum of the weighted alternatives for that particular participant.

The weighted mean summed score of teacher's respondents in rural school Districts agreeable was 20.78 and 5.465 disagreeable, indicating that overall they had a positive attitude in English.

The teacher's response on attitudes in teaching English in rural, the sample was divided on the basis of their response on their attitude in teaching English. Participants scoring above the median were characterized as having positive attitudes; those scoring below the median were characterized as having negative attitudes. With this criterion, seventy-nine percent of the sample population had a positive attitude in teaching English.

T-test also revealed those had attended seminar have better attitude in teaching English than those who did not. There is highly significance difference between those who have not attended any seminar and have attended at  $\alpha = 0.005$  the computed value as indicated in table 35 is not with in the boundary of T crit. Therefore, null hypothesis was rejected and alternate hypothesis was rejected.

For number three question results surveys in rural, as to what are the urban and rural early childhood teachers' beliefs in teaching English?

For the twenty statements constitute to their beliefs, the corresponding answers to these items were tabulated and computed using the Weighted Arithmetic Mean and given equivalent verbal descriptions as to whether they are strongly disagree, disagree, undecided, agree strongly disagree.

Similarly, with response in urban school districts Rank one is the item "Teachers should teach knowledge, skills and understanding in ways that challenge their student's ability in solving English problem" participant in rural school districts agree on this statement. This fact implies that in instruction, teachers tailor their teaching strategies to student responses and encourage or challenges student's ability in solving critical problem in such way students will be able to improve their English thinking.

Second in rank is the item "Teachers should give emphasis to the importance of technology as a tool for English teaching" while in urban survey this statement rank number three. Participants both agree with this statement as stated herein. However,

data revealed that teachers in rural based from rank given a little bit more giving emphasis to the importance of technology as a tool for English critical problem than that of urban teachers.

Rank number four is the Item “In teaching English, it should be students – centered learning approach” respondents agree on the fact that it should be students centered in teaching English, rural survey is most agreeable to this statement compared to urban, this statement rank five in urban surveys.

Fifth in rank is the statement “As a teacher; I believe that student’s group work is essential in their English learning experience” with a computed mean of 4.237, participants agree on this statement. Though verbal description of both rural and urban survey agrees on this statement however rural is more agreeable to the statement stated compared to that of urban it rank number 11.

Sixth in rank is the item “English is interesting subject to teach”. While in urban surveys this statement rank number two, Participants in rural and urban agree on this statement it shows that for them they found English is an interesting subject. If teachers are very much interested with the subject, they taught success have become more apparent in the field of English education.

Followed by the statement “What is learned in school English is relevant to life and work.” Participants from rural agree on this statement while in urban these statements rank number 4; findings explanation can be seen in urban presentation of these statements.

Eight in rank is the statement “. English is useful and beautiful.” Given description as agree. In urban results this statement rank number six implies participants more favorable beliefs on this statement compared to that of rural surveys.

Statement “English disciplines the mind and English can be effectively learned if the subject matter is presented in simplified and integrated manner” ranks numbers nine, participants also both agree with this statement. However, in urban first statement

rank seven shows that in urban is more favorable regarding these beliefs compared to rural and second got the same rank.

Rank number ten is the statement “English proofs need to be taught to students” participants agree with the statement stated. Whereas in urban as to this statement rank six, it shows that in urban has more favored on the needs of English proofs to be taught to students.

Beliefs on “Being an English teacher is an exciting profession” are rank 14, participant’s reveals undecided. It contradicts to urban survey results where participants agree that being an English teacher is an exciting profession.

Statement “The existence of English is self – explanatory” rank 15, participant reveals undecided likewise in urban survey results participant could not say as to the existence of English.

Last in rank is the statement “Students get frustrated with output they don’t understand” participants’ reveals undecided with the statement. Unlike in urban results participants agree on this statement.

ANOVA revealed as to beliefs according to age differ significantly. Indicated in Table 37, the computed value of 18.994 is larger than the tabular value of F Crit. of 3.17 at  $\alpha = 0.005$ . Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected and alternate hypothesis is accepted. As to Gender, those have with major or minor and have attended seminar t – test revealed significantly different shown in table 38 through 40, reflected in Table the tabular value of 2.000 is smaller than the computed value as indicated herein. The computed value is not exceeding with in the t crit region therefore null hypothesis is rejected and accept the alternate hypothesis.

As to the results of participant’s survey for fourth questioned that was ask in this is study in rural school districts, the urban and rural early childhood teachers’ views of English? Do rural and urban and rural teachers’ views of English lean more toward the: Platonist view—English is exact and certain truth; Instrumentalist view—English is facts



and rules, not creative; or Problem solving view—English is a problem solving approach, providing many answers and exploring patterns versus employment of routine tasks (Ernest, 1988; Ernest 1996).

For this particular problem descriptive statistics were also used. Twenty statements correspond to the views of respondents and it includes the Platonist, Instrumental and problem solving view. Each item in the views section of the questionnaire has given five Likert alternatives and has equivalent description. The most favored view gets a high score and low score for not in favor. The weighted mean was computed and the percentage for each views.

Like Urban School Districts Teachers Respondents also demonstrated that the Instrumental view was the most favored view of English with a percent score of 35.02%. The less favored vies is the problem solving view with a percent score of 31.13% while Platonist view fell at the middle with a percent score of 33.84%. The teachers were classified in terms of the view of English they endorsed most strongly. For number five questioned on the urban and rural early childhood teachers' views of teaching

English when categorize according to the following a) Basic Skills Practice—basic skills, other emphasis; b) Discovery (Active) View— need to be told vs. can/should discover; c) Teacher Designed Curriculum—children's needs, differences and preferences are accommodated; one text is not followed for all abilities, the English curriculum is differentiated for individual needs and differences; c)Text Driven Curriculum-- English is taught by following the text or syllabus exactly; d) Many Methods Encouraged— teacher's unique method vs. many methods; or, e) Cooperative Learning View—isolated vs. cooperative learning.

In rural school districts the most favored view is the Text Driven Curriculum when it came to their dominate views of teaching English. Discovery (Active) View, cooperative

learning, basic skills views and many methods feel in the middle. They had least favorable views towards teachers designed approaches to teaching English.

Teachers demonstrated that the Instrumentalist view was the most favored view of English. Teachers demonstrated significantly more favorable attitudes toward Instrumentalist than for Platonist and problem solving view. Indicated in Table 44 the results of computation, the computed value are larger than the tabular value of 2.00 at  $\alpha = 0.005$  therefore null hypotheses are rejected and accept the alternate hypothesis.

Teachers also demonstrated more favorable attitudes towards the Platonist view over the problem solving view reflected in Table 45. The computed value was larger than the tabular value therefore null hypothesis was rejected and alternate hypothesis was accepted. However, the difference in means between the instrumentalist and Platonist views was so small, that it renders little practical significance. Furthermore, the teachers were classified in terms of the view of English they endorsed most strongly.

In the view of learning English, each comparison differed significantly. Teachers demonstrated that Constructivism plays an integral part in the learning of English. Participants had favorable views toward constructivism than Rote learning. The Tabular value at  $\alpha = 0.05$  is 2.00 which is smaller than the computed value stated in Table 47, which indicates to reject the null hypothesis and accept the alternate hypothesis.

On Question number seven as to rural on challenges or obstacles met and perceived by early childhood teachers with computed arithmetic mean and its equivalent verbal description.

For the challenges in teaching English 100 % of respondents revealed moderate extent as to the challenges of early childhood teachers in English in urban school districts. It is clear evident those participants are slightly encountering the challenges stated in the statement. The results of surveys in challenges encounter by early childhood teacher is almost the same both

school district slightly encounter the challenges as states in the statement however it differs in the ranking of the statement.

An ANOVA shows highly significant difference according to age. Compared to urban results means of age is smaller than the means of rural. The F – Value is 20.18, which are not with in the boundary of F Critical value 3.17. Therefore, null hypothesis is rejected and alternate hypothesis was accepted.

T Test revealed there is highly significant difference as to challenges encounter by the participant when categorized according to gender, those having a major/ minor and those have seminar attended. Reflected in Table 50 through 52, the computed value is not with in the boundary of t critical value therefore the null hypothesis is rejected and alternate hypothesis was accepted.

The researcher also questioned if teachers are among the catalyst for transferring a dislike for English and English anxiety down to future generations of students?

English anxiety is defined as a feeling of intense frustration or helplessness about one's ability to do English Smith & Smith (1998). It is also described as a learned emotional response to one or more of the following: participating in an English class, listening to a lecture, working through problems, and discussing English (Le Moyne College, 1999)

In most English classes that the researcher was visited in both rural and urban school districts, the sequence of activities inside the classroom of early childhood teachers was the same. Encouraging students to participate in the class and difficult problems were worked on by the teacher or the student at the chalkboard, and the most noticeable things about English classes was a student tends to be English language anxious if the word is so difficult. Therefore, preventing English anxiety must begin with the elementary school teacher.

Martinez and Martinez (1996: 10) proclaims that most English anxiety is learned at a very early age—often in elementary school and even sometimes in kindergarten. Unfortunately, many English teachers are English anxious themselves. Whatever the cause for this anxiety, if left untreated; teachers' anxieties may not only grow, but also infect another generation of students.

English-anxious teachers produce English-anxious students, and helping teachers confront and control their own fears and feelings of insecurity when faced with numbers is essential if we are to stop the spread of the disease.

One must create conditions that allow for discovery, where children see what they are learning is real--then English becomes fun.

Is English reform efforts have impacted the way early childhood teacher's present English in the classroom? For this particular questioned, researchers personally interview the early childhood teachers in both urban and rural school districts, the most noticeable answers by the participants of reform in English call for significant change from current practice, English reform has augmented the scope of pencil-and-paper.

In the reform of English, contrary to popular beliefs by laypersons, basic computation is not ignored. Children must still have a mastery of the basic. However, learning basic facts is not a prerequisite for solving problems. Learning the facts becomes a necessity to solve problems that are relevant, meaningful, and interesting to the student learners. Basic facts are learned effortlessly by meaningful repetition in the context of games and activities rather than by meaningless rote memorization. By encountering a variety of contexts and tasks, learners have opportunities to develop and apply thinking strategies that support and complement learning the basic facts (Curcio, 1999:282).

As to the last questioned in this study; has reform changed or altered early childhood teacher's beliefs, attitude and views regarding the teaching of English?

The most noticeable elements answers by the participants from both urban and rural for this questioned, beliefs, attitudes and views of early childhood teachers the way they teach English has altered of the reformed in English. Both School districts are making progress in the reform of English.

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMENDATIONS**

The focus of this manuscript has been with the Urban and Rural early childhood teachers: their attitudes, views, beliefs and challenges in teaching English.

Data are generated through the administration of the questionnaire and the researcher personally visited the chosen English class in both rural and urban school districts. The evolved questionnaire consisted of statements categorized into attitudes, beliefs, views and challenges in teaching English.

Following is a brief summary of the findings of this research study. The summary findings will be presented separately by school districts—Urban School Districts first, followed by Rural School Districts.

#### **Urban School Districts**

Participants from the urban school districts were mostly female age range 39 and below and most of them have attended seminars in English. Over half of the teachers in urban had a positive attitude in teaching English.

Attitudes toward English were significant in relation to the age of participants; younger teachers had more positive attitudes than those older teachers.

Gender were not significant with regard to attitude in English. However, teachers with a major or minor in English had a better attitude toward English than those who did not. And also teachers who have attended seminar in English were significant, finding reveals that teachers who have attended seminar have better attitudes than who did not.

The instrumentalist view was the most favored view of English by teachers in Urban. Teachers also demonstrated more favorable attitudes towards the Platonist view over problem solving view.

Most teachers favored the many methods view as well as the problem solving view when it came to their views of teaching English. Discovery (Active) View, cooperative learning, basic skills views and text driven curriculum fell in the middle. They had least favorable views towards teachers designed approaches to teaching English

In regard to the teachers' views of children learning English, they had a most favorable view towards constructivism. Rote learning came in last as a favorable view of learning English.

Beliefs and Challenges findings were explained descriptively as to the rank of the item stated in the beliefs and challenges section of the questionnaire.

As to the extent of differences with the view of learning English for urban school districts, with one exception each comparison was significantly different than the other. The exception was that constructivism was preferred to rote learning. Teachers had the most favorable view toward the Constructivism than rote learning. Teachers demonstrated significantly more favorable attitudes toward Instrumentalist and Platonist views. Teachers also demonstrated more favorable attitudes toward Platonist view over problem solving view. However, the difference between the means of each was fairly small as compared to rural school districts.

### **Rural School Districts**

In Rural School districts most of the respondent's teachers who teach English was female age range 40 and above. Sixty-two percent of the teachers in rural school districts have attended

seminar in English and had a positive attitude in teaching English. They were not significantly different for age and gender but significantly different for those having a major/minor, teachers with major or minor have better attitudes in teaching English than those who do not have.

As with urban school districts, the instrumentalist view was the most favored view of English. Teachers as well favored the Platonist view of English over problem solving view.

Text Driven Curriculum when it came to them dominates views of teaching English. They also had high regard for Discovery (Active) View, cooperative learning, basic skills views and many methods feel in the middle. They had least favorable views towards teachers designed approaches to teaching English

Regarding rural teacher's views to children learning English, as with urban school districts, teachers had less favorable views towards rote learning. Constructivism appears to be the most favored view when it comes to views of children learning English.

Teachers demonstrated that the Instrumentalist view was the most favored view of English. Teachers demonstrated significantly more favorable attitudes toward Instrumentalist than for Platonist and problem solving view. Teachers also demonstrated more favorable attitudes towards the Platonist view over the problem solving view. However, the difference in means between the instrumentalist and Platonist views was so small, that it renders little practical significance. Furthermore, the teachers were classified in terms of the view of English they endorsed most strongly.

## **Conclusions**

English knowledge is the capacity of children, as well as others, to use thinking skills necessary to solve problems. Problem solving involves understanding the problem, which is defining the

unknown and deciding what information is relevant, then devising a plan of appropriate strategies, carrying out the plan, and then checking the solution.

Teachers exercise immense power over their students' academic success, especially in the early or primary grades. This power affects one's beliefs, views and attitudes toward particular subject areas in school. Getting children to be positive about English boils down to attitude. The teacher must convey that English is exciting and fun.

Teachers need to reflect on their beliefs about teaching and learning and then ask themselves what can they do to help their students develop and keep positive attitudes towards English. They need to plan challenging instructional activities as well.

In English reform, teaching and learning can seem overwhelming to a school district because it requires a complete redesign of the content of English and the way it is taught.

Research such as the present study represents a start at getting at the root of teachers' attitudes, beliefs and views of English and how they perceive it should be taught and learned.

Knowledgeable educators and other English educators should assume responsibility for leading the reform efforts in English

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## **Commenting on Results: Move Use in the Discussion Section**

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### **Abstract**

This study investigated the differences of move uses in the discussion sections of master's theses and research articles written by student writers and expert writers in applied linguistics. This genre has not been thoroughly researched across genre and needs to be further studied in the lens of EFL (English as a foreign language) context because it is particularly thorny for EFL graduate students. Drawing on a genre-based theory (Swales, 1990), Basturkmen's (2009) move structure of discussion sections was adopted and revised in the current study, in which "reporting a result" and "commenting on results" are particularly noted as features of discussion sections. Data were collected from ten research articles chosen from high-rated journals and ten master's theses were obtained from National Central Library in Taiwan. The results revealed the frequency of the obligatory moves and how the arguments were constructed through cycles in the discussion sections between the two groups of writers. The results also rendered insights for graduate students as well as thesis writing instructors on writing advice and pedagogy.

**Keywords:** Genre analysis, discussion section, move structure, academic writing

## **Introduction**

The discussion section plays a critical role in a research article in which writers present significant findings, compare results with previous literature, interpret the results, and evaluate the study in a broader context (Basturkmen, 2009, 2012; Peacock, 2002; Yang & Allison, 2003). In the discussion section, the function of the research progresses “inside-out,” meaning that the focus shifts to a broader generalization in a particular field (Baker & Weissburg, 1990). Basturkmen (2009) further stated that claiming knowledge is the ultimate aim of a research article. Andrews (2005) referred to discussion as an argumentation or a proposition. The connected series of statements in the discussion aim to establish a position or proof by providing evidence to support or question it. These arguments in the discussion sections of research articles are the focus of the present study.

In the past few decades, emphasis on the discussion section has been particularly scarce because genre analysis has focused more on the introduction section (Gustilo, Capacete, Alonzo, Camba, Navarrete, 2018; Holmes, 1997). Little research by applied linguists has investigated the various patterns of discourse within or across disciplines. Academic discourse is characterized as having a substantial variety, rivalry, and controversy. To date, most of the research on particular sections of a research article or on its overall structure has been conducted in the fields of natural sciences (Brett, 1994; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Hunston, 1993; Kanoksilapathan, 2005; Parkinson, 2011). Therefore, one research objective is to determine whether the discourse patterns observed in the natural sciences can be applied to the academic discourse in applied linguistics. In addition, an increasing number of students around the world who are not native English speakers are studying applied linguistics through the medium of English. Therefore, a pedagogical reason exists for expanding the genre analysis of research articles to applied linguistics.

Student writers often fail to master the genre knowledge of a research article (Basturkmen & Bitchener, 2005; Bitchener & Basturkmen, 2005; Paltridge, 2002; Swales, 2004). Although research handbooks and articles are normally accessible for students, it is still a challenging undertaking for them to comprehend the genre knowledge of each subgenre of a study (Hsiao & Yu, 2012, 2015). In addition, writing the discussion section can be a particularly perplexing task for students because this section extends from the surface to the deeper level, requiring the writer to bring everything in the previous subgenres into a whole—in other words, to bring the literature review, methodology, and results together. Student writers face the same challenges in convincing the discourse community members of the soundness of their research claims (Basturkmen, 2009; Koutsantoni, 2006).

The current study aims to provide and differentiate genre-based descriptions of the schematic structures of the discussion sections from both student and expert writers. The aims of the study are two-fold. First, the study aims to contribute to the schematic structures of discussion sections. Second, it aims to identify differences in how student writers choose moves in thesis writing compared with experienced writers of journal articles. Therefore, two research questions were raised:

1. What moves did the expert writers and student writers use in the discussion section?
2. How did the writers of the two groups construct arguments in the discussion section?

## **Literature Review**

### **Move structures of the discussion section**

Several discussion move frameworks are evident in the literature from 1984 to 2009 (Basturkmen, 2009; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Holmes, 1997; Peacock, 2002; Smith, 1984; Swales, 1990; Yang & Allison, 2003). Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988) adopted 11 moves. Peacock (2002) reduced the exhaustive moves into seven

moves. Swales and Feak (1994) noted that while discussion sections differ substantially, they generally contain three moves: consolidate research space, discuss limitations, and provide implications for further research. Basturkmen's (2009) framework adopted Yang and Allison's (2003) model in which "commenting on the result" was realized using three substeps: explaining the result, comparing it with results in the literature, and evaluating the result. Basturkmen's (2009) framework was adopted and modified for the present study because it provides a concise description of moves in the essential parts of the discussion section instead of listing all the moves in the framework without classification.

### **Move use in the discussion section**

#### *Obligatory moves and optional moves*

An obligatory move is defined as a must-appear move in the desired part genre. However, no consistent results can be observed the obligatory move(s) in the discussion section, which reveals that no consistent pattern is evident for the writing of discussions (Baskturkmen, 2009; Dudley-Evans, 1994; Hopkins & Dudley-Evans, 1988; Holmes, 1997; Kanoksilapatham, 2005; Nwogu, 1997; Nodoushan and Khakbaz, 2011; Peng, 1987; Peacock, 2002; Rasmeenin, 2006; Tsai, 2011; Yang and Allison, 2003; Zekrati, 2015).

### **Move use in discussion sections in expert writing and student writing**

Thus far, the results have revealed that flaws exist when student writers compose discussion sections. For global errors, the report summary was often lengthier and involved more details of results (Basturkmen, 2009). In some cases, reporting a result was positioned in the middle of commenting on results instead of in the initial position. In addition, students provided more details by using literature to offer an explanation for a result. It seems that such writers were still tackling the results rather than moving into generalization, which shows their

lack of genre knowledge. Some researchers have reported local errors with citation (Mansourizadeh and Ahmad, 2011; Parkinson, 2011) and limited lexico-grammatical resources in students' discussions. Petric (2007) found that some students exhibited a less refined and intricate use of citations. Parkinson (2011) indicated that students have restricted lexico-grammatical resources.

Several researchers have found that expert writers use sophisticated ways to make intertextual links (Basturkmen, 2009; Mansourizadeh & Ahmad, 2011; Samraj, 2013). Samraj (2013) indicated that expert writers are able to interpret previous findings, which requires a deep understanding of the discipline and more disciplinary authority from the author. In addition, expert writers normally provide an explanation themselves and refer to literature to support it. They use this rhetorical function of using source texts to move beyond a superficial link, weaving source texts into discussion rather than making a straightforward comparison of results (Mansourizadeh and Ahmad, 2011). Experts are also more cautious when making claims in the discussion section. Similarly, Basturkmen (2009) stated that expert writers often establish an elaborate argumentation, provide alternative explanations, refer to the literature to support the explanations, and evaluate the explanations.

## **Method**

### **Data collection**

The study examined ten published research articles by expert writers and ten theses by student writers. The criteria for the selection were as follows: (1) The authors of journal articles were not restricted to native English speakers because the selected journals were highly rated. (2) The student writers' theses were selected from the Theses and Dissertation database from the National Central Library in Taiwan. (3) Only empirical data-driven research was selected for comparison of communicative moves.

Ten leading refereed journals were chosen from the field of applied linguistics in the language teaching and learning field. Ten research articles from 2014 to 2018 were randomly selected from each journal to reflect the rapid change of discourse structure of discussion sections. As for the student writings, permission was obtained from the authors to download their electronic files from the Theses and Dissertation database from the National Central Library. The theses selection ranges from 2012 to 2018.

As the discussion sections appeared in many forms, such as “Results and Discussion,” “Discussion,” and “Discussion and Conclusion,” the researcher considered that the move structure of discussion sections would be different if this section was combined with the results section. Therefore, “Results and Discussion” sections were excluded from the collection.

### **Development of the coding system**

This study used a data-driven approach to frame the move structure of the discussion sections in this study because these writers may develop their own discursual plans in their LR writings compared with those found in other studies.

#### *Pilot study*

The initial coding scheme was based on Basturkmen’s framework. Although the major moves of Basturkmen’s framework were adopted for the pilot study, the submoves were determined using an open coding procedure to accurately reflect the discussion moves of the data. Open coding refers to a process of exploring the shape and scope of emerging categories in the initial coding system (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Data for open coding were ten discussion sections. Five were selected from the student corpus and the other five from the expert corpus. The texts were marked and coded according to their functions.

*Modification of move structure*

The modification of the move structure was based on the results from the described procedure. As the move structure of discussions (Table 1) was a conceptual guidance, coding ensued with a temporary set of codes applied to the dataset while remaining open to unexpected codes from the real data. The researcher first used Basturkmen’s (2009) framework to conduct the pilot study. Some of the master’s theses incorporated the chapter “Conclusion” into the discussion section; therefore, the researcher decided to count these two chapters together if some of the theses had an independent discussion chapter. Therefore, the coding scheme was revised as follows:

Table 1.

Revised Coding Scheme

Move 1	Background Information: review of research purposes, theory, methodology	
Move 2	Summarizing results: integration of number of specific results	
Move 3	Reporting a result	Move 3 and Move 4 are repeated.
Move 4	Commenting on results Step A: Explain the result Step B: Comparing with result in literature Step C: Evaluating the result	The following codes are used: A1: Providing alternative explanations for the same result ( A1, A2, A3 etc.) A2: Referring to an explanation provided in the literature A3: Evaluating an explanation/result
Move 5	Claim (contribution to research)	
Move 6	Limitation	
Move 7	Recommendation for pedagogy	
Move 8	Recommendation for future research	



### **Definition of a move and move cycle**

A move is a primary unit in analyzing genre, and many scholars (Lopes, 2004; Nwogu, 1997; Santo, 1996; Swales, 1990; Swales & Feak, 2000) have their own definitions of this functional term. First, moves are generally considered to be composed of segments of texts. Second, they have communicative intents, which are realized either through lexicogrammatical or semantic features. Third, the communicative intents give the segments an unvaried orientation and indicate the content of discourse.

The discussion section is characterized by having repeated cycles of moves. This finding supports the literature indicating that this section of research articles exhibits a cyclical nature. The cyclic structure mainly serves to comment on results.

### **Formal coding**

After collecting the required corpus, codes (e.g., St 1, St 2... or Ex 1, Ex 2...) were assigned to each discussion text. Analyses, including frequency count and structural move analysis, were performed in the next step to determine the total number of words in each discussion section and to code each discussion and identify moves.

The expert writings and student writings were read repeatedly until the researcher was familiar with the topic, literature review, research design, and results to assist with the allocation of appropriate categories for the discussions examined. Then, the raw data were analyzed through conceptual identification and grouping and pattern identification. As suggested by Dudley-Evans (1994) and Holmes (1997, 2001), the researcher adopted the following steps the coding. The researcher operated from sentence-level analysis and sought patterns to identify linguistic evidence to assign a sentence or all sentences to a move. The validation could be established by testing interrater agreement. Two weeks after the first

coding, the researcher started the second coding. The interrater agreement was 75.83, which was considered adequate .

## **Data analysis**

### *Frequency of moves*

The researcher used the number of occurrences, mean, and frequency per 1,000 words to derive the move use in discussion sections in the study. Mean scores were used to determine whether the move is obligatory, conventional, or optional. The definitions have been suggested by Nodoushan (2012), Rasmeenin (2006), and Zekrati (2015). A move is considered obligatory if the mean score of the move is more than 1, conventional if it is between 0.66 and 0.99, and optional if it is less than 0.66.

### *Move sequence*

The move sequence was used to identify a series of moves that expert writers and student writers chose for their LRs. The researcher listed the move progressions of the two groups if there was a regularity of move sequencing of discussion sections in the writers' choice of moves.

### *Alternative explanation of the move cycle*

A move cycle is understood as a recursive pattern among some of the moves in the discussion sections. Generally, a model move cycle is identified as the sequence from move 3 to move 4, in which writers provide alternative explanations. The move cycle was used to decide the discussion writing quality.

### *Text analysis*

Text analysis presented the move use in two representative samples from both groups. Their move choices and arrangements were analyzed and critiqued for their strengths and weaknesses.

## Results

### Background information of the expert writing and student writing

Table 2 presents the background information of the two corpora. The experienced writers on average wrote 8.6 paragraphs for the discussion sections while the student writers wrote 27.6 paragraphs for the discussion sections in their master's theses.

As there were fewer paragraphs in the expert writings, the word counts in the expert writing were consequently less than that in the student writings. The means for the word counts were 1,316 and 3,065 for expert writing and student writing, respectively, which indicates that the length of discussion sections in master theses is greater than that in the discussion sections of journal articles.

Table 2.

Background information in discussions sections for expert writing and student writing

Text type	Paragraphs	Word counts	Text type	Paragraphs	Word counts
Ex 1	8	1193	St 1	40	3890
Ex 2	9	1249	St 2	31	2955
Ex 3	13	2122	St 3	24	2883
Ex 4	10	1405	St 4	69	6010
Ex 5	6	1017	St 5	39	3138
Ex 6	7	1412	St 6	15	1444
Ex 7	9	1202	St 7	14	2046
Ex 8	5	739	St 8	21	4567

Ex 9	14	1773	St 9	8	1146
Ex 10	5	1048	St 10	15	2566
Total	86	13160	Total	276	30645
Mean	8.6	1316	Mean	27.6	3064.5

The first research question “What moves did the expert writers and student writers use in the discussion sections in applied linguistics?” guided the researcher to examine the move use between the two groups. Table 3 shows the number of occurrences, frequency per 1,000 words, and mean of each move for expert and student writings. The mean score indicates the obligatory moves and optional moves in the two groups. As per the definition, if the mean score is more than 1, the move is an obligatory move. If the mean score falls between 0.99 and 0.66, the move is defined as a conventional move, and if the mean score is less than 0.66, it is an optional move. Based on these criteria, the results show that the obligatory moves in expert writing are move 3 (reporting a result), move 4 (commenting on results), and move 5 (claim), whereas in student writing they are move 1 (background information), move 3 (reporting a result), move 4 (commenting on results), and move 7 (recommendation for pedagogy).

Because the discussion section is more extensive in student writing than in expert writing, student writing has more moves than expert writing does. To avoid the fallacy of using the number of occurrences as the basis for comparison, this calculation tried to form the same ground by dividing the number of occurrences by the 1,000-word count in each group to derive the weighted frequency based on the word counts. As shown in Table 3, it was demonstrated that the experienced writers used more of all moves except move 3 (reporting a result) and move 6 (limitation), based on the 1,000-word count. Move 4 was used most frequently among all the moves in the discussion section for both expert writing and student writing. However, the number reached 6.99 in expert writing, which is much higher than that of student writing.

Because move 4 is the major part of the discussion section, the next section shows how arguments are constructed using the submoves of move 4.

Table 3.

Distribution of moves in two genres in number of occurrence, mean and percentages

	Expert Writing				Student Writing			
	Number of occurrence	Mean	Move type	Frequency per 1,000 words	Number of occurrence	Mean	Move type	Frequency per 1,000 words
Move 1	6	0.6	Op	4.55	10	1	O	0.33
Move 2	7	0.7	C	0.52	5	0.5	Op	0.16
Move 3	31	3.1	O	2.36	82	8.2	O	2.68
Move 4	92	9.2	O	6.99	143	14.3	O	4.67
Move 5	11	1.1	O	0.84	3	0.3	Op	0.09
Move 6	3	0.3	Op	0.23	9	0.9	C	0.29
Move 7	7	0.7	C	0.53	13	1.3	O	0.42
Move 8	5	0.5	Op	0.38	7	0.7	C	0.23
Total	162				272			

The mean score  $\geq 1.00$  is the obligatory move (O). 0.99 to 0.66 is conventional move (C).  $< 0.66$  is optional move (Op).

To address the second research question, “How did the writers of the two groups construct arguments in the discussion section?,” the study considered the frequency of the submoves under move 4 to identify their uses. Table 4 shows the move sequence in the discussion sections for the two groups. A cyclic pattern was found for recurrent uses of move 3 (reporting a result) and the submoves under move 4 (explaining a result) (see the shaded area for the cyclic pattern). The total numbers of cyclic patterns calculated in expert writing and student writing

were 37 and 70, respectively, and the means were 3.7 times per piece of expert writing and seven times per piece of student writing. Because student writing is more extensive, the move cycles were more frequent. Also, eight writers used an alternative explanation in expert writing (Table 5), whereas six writers used such an explanation in student writing. Experts use more alternative explanations in the discussion section.

(Table 4)

Move sequence of expert writing and student writing in discussion questions

Expert writing

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EX1	3-2-4A-4B-4C-4A1-4A2-4A2-4A3-4A1-4A2-5
EX2	1-3-4A-3-4A1-4A1-4A2-3-4A2-4A1-7-8-4-8
EX3	3-3-4A-4A1-3-4A1-4A2-3-4B-3-3-3-4A-4B-3-4A-4A1-3-4A1-4A3-3-4A2-4A3-8-6-5-2-7
EX4	1-3-4B-4A-4B-4A-3-4A-3-4B-3-4A-7-7-6-7
EX5	2-5-3-4B-4A-3-4A-4B-3-4B-4A-4A2-4A1-4A2-4A3-7
EX6	1-2-4B-4A2-4A2-5-4A1-5-7-6-8
EX7	1-2-4A-4C-4A3-4A2-4B-5
EX8	3-4A-3-4B-3-4B-5
EX9	4B-3-4B-3-4A-3-4B-3-4B-4A-3-4B-4A-3-4A1-3-4A-3-4B-3-3-4A-3-4A-3-4A-3-3-4B-3-3-3-3-5-8
EX10	1-4B-4A-4A2-4A2-4B-4A1-4A2-4A1-4A2-8

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Student writing

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ST1	3-1-4B-5-3-4A-4B-3-4A-4B-4A-3-4B-4A-4B-3-4A-3-4A-3-4A1-3-4A-7-6-8
ST2	4B-3-4B-4A-4A2-4A-4A2-4A-4A1-4A2-4A1-4A2-4A1-4A2-3-4A-4A1-4A2-4A1-3-4B-3-4A-4A-4B-3-4A-4B-3-4B-3-4A-4B-3-4B-3-4B-3-4A-4A1-7-6
ST3	4B-4A-4A1-7-3-4A-3-4A-3-4A-3-4A-3-4A-4A1-7-6-8
ST4	3-4B-4B-4A-4A1-4A2-4A1-4A2-4A1-3-4A-3-4B-4A1-4A-3-4A2-4A1-C-4A1-4A2-1-3-3-3-4A-4B-3-4A-4B-4A1-4A2-4A1-3-4B-3-4A-4C-4A1-4A1-2-3-3-4A-4A1-4A1-3-7-6-8
ST5	3-4A-3-3-3-3-4B-3-3-3-3-3-7

ST6 3-4A-3-7-6  
ST7 3-4B-3-4B-4A-4A2-3-3-4A-4A2-4A1-3-3-8-3-8-5-7-5-7-8  
ST8 2-3-4A-4B-3-4A-4B-3-4B-2-3-4B-3-4A2-3-4B-2-3-4A-4B-3-4A1-4A2-3-4B-3-4B-3-4A-4B-3-3-4B-7-8-6  
ST9 3-4B-3-4B-3-4B-3-4B-3-4B-5-6-7  
ST10 3-4B-4B-4A-3-4B-4A-3-4B-4A-4B-3-4B-4C-3-4B-3-4B-3-4B-3-4A-3-4B-4A-4A1-3-4A-4B-3-4B-3-4A-3-4B-4A-3-4B-4A-6-7-7

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Table 5. Cycles and alternative explanation for expert writing and student writing

Expert Writing	Cycles	Move 4 A1-A3	Student Writing	Cycles	Move 4 A1-A3
Ex1	1	6	St1	8	1
Ex2	3	5	St2	10	12
Ex3	7	7	St3	6	2
Ex4	4	0	St4	9	17
Ex5	3	4	St5	2	0
Ex6	1	3	St6	1	0
Ex7	1	2	St7	3	2
Ex8	3	0	St8	12	3
Ex9	13	1	St9	5	0
Ex10	1	5	St10	14	1
Total	37	33	Total	70	38
Mean	3.7	3.3	Mean	7	3.8

To investigate how the argument was constructed in commenting on results (move 4), we examined the steps of move 4. In Table 6, the three steps (A, B, C) under move 4 constitute the several cycles of “commenting on results”. Writers could either use any step or combination of steps to “comment on a result”. In expert writing, all the frequencies except move 4 step A (explain the result) were higher, which indicates that the expert writers used commenting on results more than student writers. This indicates that both groups generally use move 4 step A to comment on a result in discussion sections; however, the student writers used comparing with results in the literature and evaluating the result less than the expert writers. For the second round, move 4 step A1, A2, and A3 were also used more in expert writing than in student writing. This indicates that expert writers use alternative explanations, referring to an explanation provided in the literature, and evaluating an explanation or result more often than student writers did. To sum up, expert writers develop more strategies to explain the results.

Table 6

Number of occurrences and frequency of submoves under Move 4 in both groups

	<u>Experienced writing</u>		<u>Student writing</u>	
	Number of occurrence	Frequency per 1,000 words	Number of occurrence	Frequency per 1,000 words
Move 4 Step A	10	0.76	24	0.78
Move 4 Step B	7	0.53	3	0.10
Move 4 Step C	4	0.30	6	0.20
Move 4 Step A1	32	2.43	55	1.79
Move 4 Step A2	32	2.43	27	0.88
Move 4 Step A3	4	0.30	4	0.12

### *Textual analysis*

Expert writers tend to use multiple explanations in the discussion section. Excerpt 1 is a typical example of how expert writers comment on a result by using multiple explanations. As can be observed on the right margin, move 3 (reporting a result) is placed as the first move and is followed by move 4 step A, B, and C (explaining the result, comparing with results in literature, and evaluating the result). Furthermore, two additional explanations follow (move 4 step A1, A2, and A3 + move 4 step A1 and A2). The first explanation is that the participants' preference for bottom-up strategies is related to the L2 (Chinese) developmental factor. Using Jiang's (2000) framework as a theoretical model, the expert writer further explains the three stages and examines the results in the study.

In Excerpt 1, the second explanation is related to learners' proficiency level. The explanation is that the lower the language proficiency level is, the more the learner would depend on bottom-up processing. Nonintegral citation is presented in the citations as a supplement when the theory of top-down and bottom-up processing is declared. Subsequently, the expert writer uses the model of speech production by Levelt et al. (1999) to further support support the claim that in the developmental stages, listening and reading skills are developed earlier than productive skills. Subsequently, the writer examines the results by using the model of Levelt et al.

The third explanation is the cultural factor. Chinese education and culture focus more on establishing the foundation, which is similar to bottom-up processing. For the third explanation, a non-integral citation (Hu, 2002a, 2005; Ma, 2009; Watkins & Biggs, 2001) and an integral citation, Jin's statement, are used.

Excerpt 1. Expert writing (Ex1, p. 14-16)

<p>The study's findings clearly indicate that between the two instructional approaches the bottom-up approach worked marginally better for this population of EFL learners (i.e., first-year university students in China). Put simply, learners seemed to favor the bottom-up over the top-down instructional design.</p>	Move 3
<p>This result may be impossible to explain by reference to a single factor. It is much more likely that the operation of several largely independent factors....</p>	Move 4 Step A Move 4 Step
<p>In the first place, it may be the case that by its nature, L2 lexical development is better aligned with bottom-up instruction. //According to Jiang's (2000) theory, L2 lexical acquisition involves three distinct graphic features for the L2 lexical entry.....After more exposure to , and experience with, the L2, the L1 syntactic semantic features....</p>	B Move 4 Step C
<p>.... These first three steps seem to correspond quite nicely to the first two stages of Jiang's (2000) model...</p>	Move 4 Step A1
<p>Another factor which is quite likely to have played a role in relation to this study's results is the learners' L2 proficiency level.... whereas lower proficiency learners tend to favour bottom-up processing (e.g., Eskey, 1988; Shohamy &amp; Inbar, 1991; Tsui &amp; Fillilove, 1998). ...Levelt et al.'s (1999) model of speech production presented earlier is a good illustration of that.... / As we noted earlier, the participants' test scores at T1 (see Table 2, in the Result section) reveal that their English proficiency level was relatively low, indicating a natural tendency for bottom-up processing.</p>	Move 4 Step A2 Move 4 Step A3 Move 4 Step A1
<p>... would appear that the notion of a bottom-up rooted in the sociocultural and educational tradition of China (Hu, 2002a, 2005; Ma, 2009; Watkins &amp; Biggs, 2001). The concept of gradual evolution from smaller and more basic elements to complex and elaborate structures seems to have been a continuous theme in Chinese thought and philosophy ...., it has been argued, of contemporary Chinese mentality (Li, 2006). ...most textbooks and teaching materials for Chinese literacy seem to follow that order....</p>	Move 4 Step A2

In Excerpt 2, two subsections (5.1.2-5.2.3) were selected for the student writing. Each subsection has the recurrent pattern of move 3 and move 4 step A. However, when the explanation is given, the

student writer would stop without comparing with results in literature or using the explanation to evaluate the result. There are two results reported; each is given an explanation. For the first result, the male English majors are mostly digital natives rather than digital immigrants. This is followed by the explanation that there are few males in liberal arts departments. Without further support from evidence in literature, the student writer switches to the second result that there are more sophomores and juniors in the group of digital natives than in the group of digital immigrants. What follows is the explanation that these groups of participants use technology more frequently because the courses are advanced. The use of recurrent patterns is expected and monotonous without any links to the literature.

For the second subsection, the report of findings is lengthy and redundant. There are two paragraphs that show the numerical data from the questionnaires for several items, which is unnecessary in the discussion section. Although additional explanations are provided for the result, readers are confused about what items are being referred to. As discussed previously, no connections exist with the literature or theories

Excerpt 2 Student writing, (St3, p. 42-46)

<p>5.1.2 Interpretation of Research Question Two</p>	
<p>In order to detail the second research question, the researcher began with examining three variables to find out whether there is any difference between the digital natives and digital immigrants. A few interesting findings are presented below.</p>	<p>Move 1  Move 3</p>
<p>First, as shown in Table 4.5, gender and grade level made a statistically significant difference in the grouping of digital natives and digital immigrants (<math>p &lt; .05</math>). Based on this phenomenon, we could infer that the grade level and innate disposition were the key factors to classify today's students. Indeed, it's worthwhile for us to examine in detail.</p>	<p>Move 4 Step A</p>
<p>Second, the male English majors were found to have a clear tendency to be the digital natives as opposed to the digital immigrants. //The reasons for this result was easily understood because there were fewer male students than female students in the English or Applied English departments in Taiwan...</p>	<p>Move 3 Move 4 Step</p>
<p>Third, in addition, there were more sophomores and juniors in the group of digital natives than in the group of digital immigrants. //A possible interpretation was that the courses for sophomores and juniors would become more complicated and profound, and the students realized and found that the frequent use of technology would help them take and pass these course more</p>	<p>A</p>

<p>efficiently and quickly. This may explain why the sophomores and juniors had a greater tendency to become digital natives than freshmen and seniors.</p> <p>5.1.3 Interpretations of Research Question Three</p> <p>To interpret research question three, the researcher examined the differences in the use of ICTs between the digital natives and digital immigrants in their attitude, perception, and expectation.</p> <p>As shown in Table 4.7, the digital natives and digital immigrants differed significantly in the attitude, perception, and expectation of ICT use for their English learning (<math>p &lt; .05</math>). The group of digital natives would have a more positive attitude, stronger perception, and higher expectation regarding the use of ICTs....</p> <p>.....</p>	<p>Move 3</p>
<p>As can be seen in Table 4.8, the digital natives agreed with six items (60%): (7) (M=4.41), (4) (M=4.12), (9) (M=4.06), (1) (M=4.05), (8) (M=4.03), and (2) (M=3.96), and the digital immigrants also agreed with six items (60%): (7) (M=4.12), (4) (M=3.79), (1) (M=3.71), (9) (M=3.68), (2) (M=3.59) and (8) (M=3.58). The items both groups had agreed with were identical....</p>	<p>Move 3</p> <p>Move 4 Step</p>
<p>As shown in Table 4.9, the digital natives agreed or strongly agreed with 17 out of the 20 items (85%), whereas the digital immigrants agreed with 14 out of the 20 items (70%). Items (17) (M=2.63), (18) (M=2.67), and (19) (M=3.2) were the items that the digital natives did not agree with. In addition to Items (17) (M=3.22) were the items that the digital natives did not agree with.....</p>	<p>A</p> <p>Move 3</p>
<p>We might infer that digital natives didn't agree that the use of ICTs in English would be an obstruction to them and, conversely, it would help them learn more efficiently and beneficially. However, although digital immigrants also had the same selection of Items (17), (18), and (19), this group of students showed a different opinion on Items (4), (1), and (12). //One possible interpretation of this phenomenon might be that the digital immigrants considered the ICT was not a useful tool and it would not assist them a lot in their leaning English.</p>	<p>Move 4 Step</p> <p>A1</p> <p>Move 3</p> <p>Move 4 Step</p> <p>A1</p>
<p>As shown in Table 4.10, the digital natives agreed with 14 out of the 18 items (78%), while the digital immigrants agreed with 13 out of the 18 items</p>	

(72%). Neither the digital natives nor the digital immigrants agreed with Items (1), (8), (17), and (18). Additionally, the digital immigrants did not quite agree with Item 10 (M=3.23), either.

The explanation for this situation might be that both two groups of students believed they had the capability to learn and use the ICTs by themselves, and they also thought that teachers could apply new teaching materials associated with ICTs in the class. //In addition, the digital immigrants did not agree with Item (10) at the same time. We could explain that the digital immigrants might prefer to communicate with teachers face to face because this way of communication could convey and receive messages directly to and from each other.

### **Discussions and Conclusions**

In response to the first research question, “What moves did the expert writers and student writers use in the discussion sections in applied linguistics?” This study selected research articles and theses from the field of applied linguistics. The mean of the move unit of the discussion sections in expert writing is 16.2, and it is 27.2 for student writing. Holmes (1997) indicated that for chemical engineering, discussion sections contained an average of 21.9 moves, compared with 10.9 for political science, 7.9 for sociology, and 4.5 for history. Therefore, the move use in applied linguistics is in between. The move use is less than that for natural sciences and more than that for social science and liberal arts.

However, these two groups differ in move use. The experts’ discussion sections are shorter and more concise, as they have lower word counts and fewer paragraphs. Move 3 (reporting a result) and move 4 (commenting on results) are obligatory moves for both expert writing and student writing.

The reason for the lower move use in expert writing is probably because of the space constraints set for journal articles. Expert writers have to use concise language to present their main comments on the results. Because of the space constraints, expert writers may skip moves such as background information (move 1). By contrast, student writers can elaborate more in the discussion section to provide background information, restate the detailed research findings, and provide their comments on the results without restrictions as long as the students’ advisors permit them to do so. Another possible explanation is that quantitative studies report more answers and comments than qualitative studies. As there is more quantitative research in the collected student writings, the number of move use tends to be more than that of the expert writing.

Regarding obligatory moves, Holmes (1997) found no obligatory moves in social science. “Information, statement of result,” “comparison with previous results, and deduction were obligatory moves in chemical engineering in Peng’s study (1987). Two other moves in Zekrait’s study (2015), reporting results and evaluating the study,” were found to be obligatory. In Nodoushan’s study (2012), reporting a result, deductions from research, and commenting on results were considered obligatory. In other studies by Dudley-Evans (1994), Hopkins and Dudley-Evans (1988), and Peng (1987), reporting a result was reported to be obligatory. It seems that it is difficult to identify a consistent pattern in numerous disciplines from previous studies. From the literature, this study confirms that move 3 (reporting a result) and move 4 (commenting on results) were obligatory in the current study, which is, to some extent, consistent with the results in Yang and Allison (2003) that commenting on results was found to be obligatory. The additional explanation is that this lack of matches among studies may be caused by the data collection method. Yang and Allison’s (2003) sample size included only eight discussions, but some others (e.g., Nodoushan, 2012; Zekrait, 2015; included more than 46 studies for examination.

Based on the two distinct genres (journal articles and theses), student writers tended to report a large proportion of results in theses (mean = 8.2; frequency per 1,000 words = 2.68), which allowed the student writers space to discuss any notable results rather than crucial results or major tendencies. The use of “making a claim” in expert writing could be explained by how the expert writers are able to take a suitable stance when making claims in the academic discourse community.

To address the second research question, “How did the writers of the two groups construct arguments in the discussion section?”, the discussion sections in applied linguistics contained fewer cycles: 3.7 cycles in expert writing and 7 cycles in student writing. Holmes’ corpus in chemistry contained 6.8 cycles, significantly more than the means of 3.5 and 2.7 observed for political science and sociology discussion sections, respectively. Therefore, applied linguistics is situated between the natural sciences and liberal arts.

Although the findings are that fewer move cycles exist in expert writing than in student writing, the analysis of the steps under move 4 showed that, almost all the steps under move 4 appear more in expert writing than in student writing. All the numbers are higher for the steps. The explanation is that expert writers use more strategic writing to provide multiple explanations. In the second round of comments, explain the results, compare the related results in the literature, and evaluate the result are used more often.

Based on the results, students seem to have genre knowledge; however, when considering the textual analysis, they use it in a rather superficial manner. The selected excerpts show the two different

strategies that the expert writers and student writers use in the discussion sections. The expert writer uses reporting a result, and then proceeds with an explanation, comparing with results in literature, and evaluating the result. Furthermore, the expert writer proposes two more explanations with the additional moves, comparing with results in literature and evaluating the result. However, student writers occupied larger proportions in reporting a result (move 3) and the explanations provided were based on instinct without further links to the literature and do appraisal works on results.

The quantity and quality differ between expert writing and student writing. One possible explanation for this is that the two text types are inherently different in their demands of research articles. With constraints on length and word counts (7,000–10,000) given for journal articles, expert writers must use strategic and concise language in the discussion section, whereas student writers can explore as much as they desire in their discussion section without much thought on using succinct language. There is more censorship in journal articles; editors or reviewers of journal articles may decide to delete redundant moves such as background information or the reporting of results in the discussion section. However, student writers' advisors tend to require their students to elaborate as much as possible in their theses.

Another explanation is that the writers differ in research writing expertise. Student writers partially fail in providing multiple explanations based on established theories or in searching for literature as strong support to form an evaluative lens to assess results. Expert writers are able to use more of these strategies to connect with broader academic contexts. By doing so, the research can be traced back and reassessed. This research can be accounted for the same research areas because they have devoted to the same or subsequent or related research topics. The third explanation is that student writers may lack appropriate genre knowledge for the discussion section. Therefore, they may restate or summarize the result to a large extent in the discussion, and some may not provide explanations for the results.

### **Limitation and Suggestion for Future Research**

This was an exploratory and small-scale study; therefore, there were some constraints on generalization. The limitation of this study is the restricted data collection. The results of this study were based on ten theses and ten journal articles, which would be considered insufficient for a large study. Therefore, more data are suggested to be included in the follow-up study to ensure its generalizability. Furthermore, the discussion sections written by student writers could be observed and rated using three to four quality levels to facilitate instructors' judgment of the writing and provision of sound suggestions for student writers.



### **Pedagogical Implications**

One goal in genre analysis was created by pedagogical concerns, in particular to provide an appropriate framework for students who are nonnative English speakers to produce acceptable academic texts in English. The results of the study can provide several insights. First, the coding scheme of the discussion section can serve as a scaffold for thesis writing instructors or thesis advisors to teach graduate students how to recognize and organize an effective discussion section before they start writing. Second, the analysis of discussion sections written by expert writers can function as a model for graduate students to conduct discourse analysis. Third, the inefficient discourse pattern found in students' writing can be avoided.

The findings of this study may have some implications for the EAP practitioners or instructors. Variety and complexity of academic discourse in social contexts is required because there is a perceived inadequacy of available teaching materials, caused by a lack of genre awareness in academic discourse. With inappropriate formal schemata and structures of genres, students who are nonnative English speakers generally fail to write satisfactory academic work. The contribution of this study is the use of expert writing as a baseline to reveal contrasts with Taiwanese students' tendencies in arranging discussion sections. With the appropriate framework, student writers may familiarize themselves with the discourse structure of the discussion sections of research articles.

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## **Developing a Proposed Syllabus of Morphology and Syntax Course for Undergraduate Students of English Education Department at Institut Agama Islam Negeri Palopo**

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### ***Abstract***

This study aims at designing an appropriate syllabus for Morphology and Syntax course. The syllabus was designed based on the objectives of the English Education Department at Institut Agama Islam Negeri Palopo – Indonesia. The components of the syllabus consisted of course identity, course description, competency standards, basic competency, competency achievement indicators, teaching materials, and references. To develop a good quality of syllabus, the researchers involved experts who provided some corrective feedbacks dealing with the weaknesses of the syllabus. The researcher had revised three times of this syllabus due to some errors and weaknesses found by the experts. In addition, the try-out findings indicated that the syllabus had met with the standard that categorized as excellent by the participants of the try-out. Since there are some forms of a syllabus, this study only dealt with an example of syllabus since that meet with the need of the department. In this case, the department who has the same characteristics of IAIN Palopo can adapt or adopt this developed syllabus.

***Keywords:*** *Developing Syllabus, Linguistics, Morphology, Syllabus, Syntax,*

### **INTRODUCTION**

This research was conducted based on the researcher's experience when he wanted to design a course outline of *Morphology and Syntax* course at English Education Department of IAIN Palopo on January 17<sup>th</sup>, 2017. There seemed to be some problems found dealing with the weaknesses of the existing syllabus which completely made the researcher difficult to transfer the contents of existing syllabus into an appropriate course outline.

It was found that the existing syllabus of *Morphology and Syntax* has a number of weaknesses which could hamper the effectiveness of teaching-learning activity of this course. Firstly, the title of this course stated on the syllabus, *Morphology and Syntax*, was too general in which it dealt with the study of morphology and syntax for all languages. Secondly, the credit of this course, 2 credits, was not appropriate because this course was actually a combination of two courses, *morphology and syntax*.

Thirdly, the language used was not designed appropriately because it was designed utilizing Indonesian. Fourthly, the description of the course only covered some basic materials of morphology and syntax. Fifthly, the goals and objectives of this course only dealt with *remembering* and *understanding* level. Sixthly, the instructional materials were not distributed proportionally. The lecturer is likely to choose topics based on his own judgment or preference regardless of the students' needs. Seventhly, the resources stated in the syllabus were not up-to-date. It was supported by evidence that the references were published in 1962, 1978, 1982, 1984, 1988, and 1991.

After identifying the problems, the researcher pointed out that it was very crucial to develop an appropriate syllabus for English morphology and syntax course that could be utilized as a guideline for the lecturers to teach the students this course effectively. Having an appropriate syllabus for English morphology and syntax course had an important role to achieve the goals and objectives of this course. It totally needed a careful plan and action dealing with the needs of lecturers, students, and department. Hyland (2003) stated that teachers have to develop a systematic plan of what need to be learned, selected, and sequenced the contents and the tasks that would lead to the desired learning outcome. Dubin and Olshtain (1986) stated that a syllabus is a document which describes what learners are expected to know at the end of the course when it was to be taught, and how it is to be evaluated.

Referring to the background stated previously, the researcher conducted this study to develop an appropriate syllabus of English morphology and syntax course for undergraduate program of English Education Department at IAIN Palopo. In addition, the proposed syllabus was developed based on need analysis that involved students, head of the department, subject's specialists, and lecturers of English morphology and syntax.

In line with the problems stated previously, the research objective of this study was to develop a proposed syllabus of English Morphology and Syntax for the fourth-semester students of English Education Department at IAIN Palopo. The syllabus being developed was highly needed to meet the goals and objectives of the course. Then, this study aimed at giving a significant contribution to the effectiveness of the teaching-learning of English morphology and syntax at the English Education Department of IAIN Palopo. Theoretically, this study provided appropriate theoretical information about an appropriate syllabus of English Morphology and Syntax for English Education Department of IAIN Palopo. Practically, the proposed syllabus was beneficial for English Language Teaching Department subjecting this course as one of the compulsory courses, the lecturers who teach English Morphology and Syntax, and the students who study this course. For the institution; the proposed syllabus could contribute greatly to the teaching and learning process of English Morphology and

Syntax in the department. For the lecturers; the proposed syllabus was expected to provide an appropriate guidance to teach effectively this course – it was expected to assist the department to achieve the goals and objectives of the course. For the students; this proposed syllabus was developed based on the students' needs. As the result, it fulfilled the students' needs referring to the teaching and learning of English morphology and syntax.

## **LITERATURE REVIEWS**

### **A. Some Previous Related Studies**

A number of researchers have conducted a research in the field of syllabus development. First, Nurisma (2013) develops a proposed syllabus of EAP Reading for the Medical Students of Brawijaya University. Second, Rahman (2013) also develops an English syllabus for undergraduate program of Islamic Teaching Department at STAIN Watampone. After conducting a literature review dealing with previous related studies, the researcher did not find any study related to the syllabus development of Morphology and Syntax. As a result, it totally made him difficult to develop his ideas. It is supported by the evidence that the three previous studies stated previously deal with the development of ESP syllabus.

### **B. Syllabus**

#### *1. Definition of Syllabus*

Rabbini & Gakuen (2002) view syllabus as a set of the idea for teaching in which it would be a guide for both teacher and learner in order to achieve the goals or objectives of the teaching and learning process. Then, McKey (1978), Yalden (1987), Crombie (1985), and Dubin & Olshtin (1986) emphasize that syllabus accounts for the characteristic of learners, materials being taught to the students, the appropriate time to teach, the teaching procedures, techniques, and assessment.

#### *2. Components of Syllabus*

Commonly, a good syllabus accounts for, at least, eight components. They are in forms of course identity, goals, objectives, instructional materials, learning activities, assessment, time allotment, and sources.

#### *3. Types of Syllabus*

Brown (1995: 7) divides syllabus into seven classifications. They are: a) structural syllabus, b) situational syllabus, c) topical syllabus, d) functional situational syllabus, e) notional syllabus, f) skill-based syllabus, and g) task-based syllabus.

#### *4. Roles of Syllabus*

In line with the roles of syllabus, Parkes & Harris (2002: 55 – 58) assert that syllabus fulfills three roles. They are a) the syllabus as a contract, b) the syllabus as a permanent record, and c) the syllabus as a learning tool.

### **C. English Morphology and Syntax**

#### *1. Definition of English Morphology and Syntax*

Payne (2006: 336), Sukirman (2013: 3) defines English morphology as one of the fields of English linguistics studying the internal structure of the English words. In contrast, O’Grady (2005: 151) defines English syntax as one of the fields of English linguistics focusing on the component of the grammar.

#### *2. English Morphology and Syntax Materials*

The materials referring to English Morphology account for; morphemes, root, stem, affixes, inflection, derivation, lexical categories, compounding, endocentric, exocentric, conversion, clipping, blending, backformation, onomatopoeia, and so forth. Besides, the materials referring to English syntax are word categories, phrase, clause, sentence, tenses, phrase structure tree, and many else.

#### *3. Roles of the teaching English Morphology and Syntax*

Teaching English morphology for language students at university level plays important roles to increase morphological awareness of students (Sukirman, 2013: 6). In this case, it is beneficial to improve their vocabulary and reading comprehension. Then, Sandra (1994) points out that morphology can play an important role in developing students' understanding of the morphological process of words structures and in relating their meaning. Besides, the teaching of English syntax also has an important role to provide some insights of how to combine some English words being an English sentence correctly based on English grammar.

## **RESEARCH METHOD**

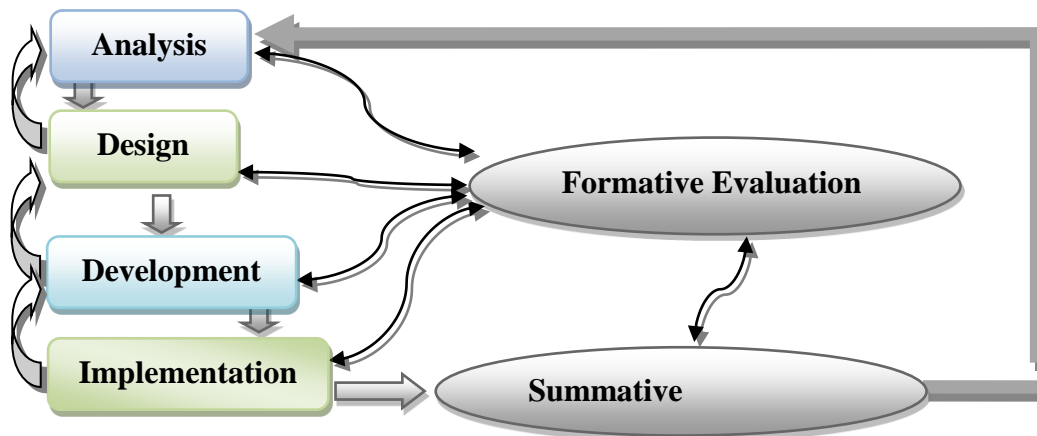
The research design used in this study was *Research and Development (R&D)* design. It was a research design used in order to improve the quality of education. Borg and Gall (1989; 782) stated that research and development is a process used to develop and validate the educational product.

### **A. Research and Development Model**

The researcher totally adopted the ADDIE model (Setyosari, 2012: 223). It is an acronym standing for **A**nalysis, **D**esign, **D**evelopment, **I**mplementation, and **E**valuation (see *figure 1*).



There were a number of considerations affecting the researcher to adopt the ADDIE model. First, it provided an iterative instructional design process, where the findings of the formative evaluation of each step might lead the instructional designer back to any previous phase (McGriff, 2000). Second, it provided two kinds of evaluations (formative and summative evaluation) which assure the quality of the developed syllabus (Castagnolo, 2008).



**Figure 2.1:** The ADDIE Model (McGriff, 2000 cited in Sukirman, 2018)

## B. Research and Development Procedures

There were five stages of the ADDIE Model in developing the proposed syllabus; *analysis*, *design*, *development*, *implementation*, and *evaluation* stage. All the stages were explained clearly the following section.

### 1. Analysis

This phase was well-known as a need analysis phase (Prihatin, 2018). In this case, the researcher conducted need analysis dealing with the learners' needs, skills, existing knowledge, and learning styles. Furthermore, he also investigated the goals and objectives needed in this course. Finally, the research also estimated the budget and timeline needed in developing the proposed syllabus.

The procedures of need analysis in this study accounted for 1) the researcher decides who would be the target populations of the need analysis. After deciding the target population, he made a decision dealing with what data being gathered. Then, he prepared appropriate instruments used to obtain the data. Furthermore, he sequenced the procedures in conducting the need analysis. Then, he shared out the instruments (questionnaire) to the students. Finally, he analyzed the results of the questionnaire in order to find out the students' needs, profile, and learning styles.

## 2. Design

The outputs of the analysis phase were the inputs of the design phase. The data gained from the analysis phase were examined to determine the activities this phase. First, he formulated the goals and objectives of the course clearly dealing with the findings of need analysis. Second, he formulated the instructional strategy being involved in the syllabus. Third, he collected as much as sources dealing with English morphology and syntax materials in order to provide appropriate materials being involved in the proposed syllabus. Fourth, he produced a blueprint or prototype specifications in form of a list of components being included in the syllabus. Finally, he sequenced the materials being involved in the syllabus from the easiest to most difficult one.

## 3. Development

There were some activities being done in this phase dealing with the input gathered from the foregoing phases. First, he formulated the goals and objectives in blueprint by stating them clearly in the real form of a syllabus. Second, he also sequenced appropriate instructional strategies in the real form of syllabus dealing with the students' characters and needs. Third, he reformed the prototypes being a syllabus form. Finally, he wrote all the components of the syllabus in terms of *course identity*, *course description*, *competence standards*, *basic competencies*, *competence achievement indicators*, *teaching materials*, and *references*.

## 4. Implementation

This phase was also well-known as product try-out. The product was implemented by the lecturers of the course. They had to design one or more lesson plans dealing with the syllabus developed (Indri et.al., 2018). The aims of trying-out were; 1) to look at whether the syllabus has fulfilled the students' needs, the goals and objectives of the course or not; 2) to have a look whether the instructional materials and media are appropriate with the target students or not, 3) to analyze whether the teaching–learning activities deal with the learners' interest or not, 4) to evaluate whether the assessments designed in the syllabus refer to the goals and objectives, and instructional materials or not, and 5) to see whether the time allotments are appropriate or not. If not, the syllabus had to be revised dealing with the data obtained from the try-out. The revision was done until the researcher produces an appropriate syllabus for the course.

## 5. Evaluation

The formative and summative evaluation involved in this study (**Figure 2.1**). *Formative evaluation* was ongoing evaluation during and between phases. All activities for each phase were evaluated in order to produce an appropriate syllabus. **Two experts** were involved to evaluate the

product. The experts provided some feedbacks dealing with the weaknesses of the syllabus. Meanwhile, *summative evaluation* dealt with ongoing evaluation in which it was done starting from at the beginning phase until at the end of the phase, whereas summative evaluation dealt with the evaluation done at the end of each program (Sukirman, 2013).

### C. Try-out of the Product

#### 1. Try-out Design

Considering the timeline and budget needed, the syllabus was tried out by implementing *Small try-out*. It would make easy the researcher obtain valid data dealing with the practicality and appropriateness of the product in the real situation.

#### 2. Try-out Subjects

Thy try-out subjects of this study were two lecturers of English Morphology and Syntax who teach the fourth-semester students at English Education Department of IAIN Palopo. A number of considerations affecting the researcher pointed out them as the subject of try-out of this study. First, they had experienced teaching this course for 4 years. It meant that they knew well every single thing needed in this course. Second, they were totally cooperative to accomplish this study. It was supported by the evidence that they would provide their ample time to help the research to accomplish this study. They were also ready to be the subject of this try-out.

#### 3. Types of Data

There were two kinds of data obtained in this study: *qualitative* and *quantitative data*. Qualitative data referred to the feedbacks and suggestions obtained from the experts and the lecturers, whereas quantitative data referred to the results of expert' judgment rubric and the result of try-out of the product.

#### 4. Instruments

Rubrics and questionnaires were the instruments being utilized in this study to obtain valid data. The rubrics were addressed to both experts and lecturers. The rubrics covered seven components of the syllabus; course identity, course description, competence standards, basic competencies, competence achievement indicators, teaching materials, and references. Each of components has 4, 4, 3, 2, 3, 2, and 4 indicators respectively. In addition, the rubric used was adapted from Nurisma (2013), and Sukirman (2013). Furthermore, the questionnaire was only addressed to the lecturer. It covered fourteen questions related to the teaching of English morphology. The questions dealt with the syllabus course identity, course description, competence standards, basic competencies, competence

achievement indicators, teaching materials, and references, problems occurring, and roles of this course. In addition, the questionnaire was adapted from Nurisma (2013).

### 5. Data Analyzing Techniques

In line with the data of this study, there were two kinds of techniques in analyzing obtained data. First, the data obtained from the tow experts were analyzed qualitatively in the forms of description of the products, comments, notes, and suggestions. Second, the quantitative data obtained from both the questionnaire and rubrics were analyzed descriptively resulting in percentage by using the following formula.

$$\text{Percentage: } \frac{\text{the students gained score}}{\text{total score}} \times 100$$

The scores were then graded based on the Lickert scale of four scales in the table of qualification. The scale indicated the quality level of the product and leads to the decision whether the product needed to be revised or not.

**Table .1** *Table of Qualification*

Attainment Level	Quality Level	Action to be Taken
85% - 100%	Excellent	No revision
75% - 84%	Good	No revision
65% - 74%	Average	Revision needed
55% - 64%	Poor	Revision needed

*(Adopted from Laksmi, 2011:36)*

## FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

The product of this study is a proposed syllabus of morphology and syntax course for the undergraduate students of English Language Teaching at Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN Palopo). Before conducting a try-out of the product, the researchers validated the content of the syllabus to the expert in order to maintain the quality of the syllabus (Brown, 1995; Dubin and Olshtain, 1986; Fahmi, 2010; Mbato, 2016; Parkes and Harris, 2002; Rabbini and Gakuen, 2002; Slattery and Carlson, 2005). In this phase, the researchers obtained a number of brilliant ideas, suggestions, and critics dealing with the weaknesses and strengths of the syllabus. Firstly, the experts pointed out that the researchers should revise the syllabus since the materials included in the syllabus were not well-organized in which they were not in forms of the easiest to the most difficult materials (Crombie, 1985; Matejka and Kurke, 1994; McKey, 1978; Parkes and Harris, 2002; Yalden, 1987;). Such this organization could, of course, make the learners confused to understand the materials; as a result; the learning goals of teaching

morphology and syntax could be achieved well. Second, the experts also viewed that there were overlapping materials between the morphology and syntax, especially in the discussion of part of speech (Lee and Ackerman, 2017; O’Grady and Guzman, 2005; Sandra, 1994). It could not be denied that the topic could belong to morphology and syntax as well; therefore, the researchers should make a clear differentiation between both of them. Third, the credits of this course were also criticized by the experts due to the inappropriate distribution in which this course consisted of two course, namely morphology and syntax that covered many materials (Rabbini and Gakuen, 2002; Slattery and Carlson, 2005).

After revising the syllabus three times based on the experts' judgments and suggestions and the try-out findings, the researchers finally succeeded to provide an appropriate syllabus for morphology and syntax materials in line with the department's needs. The syllabus components as follows;

**A. Experts’ Judgement Findings**

*1. Course Identity*

The course identity includes course name, course code, semester, major, program, and course credits. To decide these components, the researchers and department conducted a Forum Group Discussion in order to decide the identity of this course. The details were presented in the following tables.

**Table 2. Course Identity**

Title	Morphology and Syntax
Course Code	TBI1342
Semester	4
Department	English Education Department
Level	Undergraduate Students
Credits	3 (Three)

*2. Course Description*

This course is designed as a forum for introducing learning and understanding the basics of English on lexical morphology and syntactic with a focus on the concept of words, word types, morphemes, allomorphs, inflections and derivations, word structures, categories of words and functions, phrases, types of phrases, and the relationship between morphology and syntax. This course also presents knowledge, understanding, and analysis of word structures, phrases, clauses and sentences in tree or Chinese boxes.

*3. Competence Standards and Basic Competency*

The findings of this study designed the Competence Standards (CS) and the Basic Competencies (BC) for the course of Morphology and Syntax. They were formulated based on the description stated previously (see Table 3).

**Table 3. Competence Standards**

No	Competence Standards	Basic Competences (BC)
1.	Students have the ability to understand the basic concepts and scope of morphology, lexical and syntactic.	1.1. Understanding the history and understanding of lexical morphology, and syntax and its scope; 1.2. Describing the definition of morpheme and its types; and 1.3. Differentiating the terms derivational and inflectional
2.	Students have the knowledge to be able to observe lexical morphology and syntactic phenomena.	1. Determining part of speech and word formation; and 2. Promote the use of compounds and idioms
3.	Students have the ability and understanding to be able to analyze the structures that underlie words, phrases, clauses, and sentences; and represent them in tree diagrams.	3.1. Reviewing phrase structure, word categories, and clauses; 3.2. Understanding the type of sentence; and Designing a tree diagram

#### 4. Competence Achievement Indicators

The aforementioned competencies were still in forms of general description; therefore, the researchers formulated some indicators applied to measure the achievements of the competencies. The teachers could easily assess the students' achievement on this course by referring to the indicators in Table 4;

**Table 4. Competency Achievement Indicators**

Number of Basic Competencies	Competency Achievement Indicators

1.1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Explaining the definition of lexical morphology and syntactic by answering 3 questions that demand an explanation of lexical morphology and syntactic based on the initial knowledge obtained from linguistic courses;</li> <li>2. Explaining the scope of morphology orally;</li> <li>3. Describing the various linguistic branches</li> </ol>
1.2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Differentiating morpheme, morph, and allomorph by discussing the meaning of morpheme and its type</li> <li>2. Providing each of the 5 written examples of morph and allomorph properly and correctly</li> <li>3. Determining the types of the morpheme.</li> </ol>
1.3	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Mention 5 inflectional and derivational characteristics;</li> <li>2. Differentiating derivational and inflectional appropriately; and</li> <li>3. Providing each of the 5 written examples about derivational and inflectional</li> </ol>
2.1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Doing an analysis of the type of words in the text that has been provided in writing properly and correctly;</li> <li>2. Identifying word formation; and</li> <li>3. Creating 5 written examples of affixation by studying the word formation described earlier.</li> </ol>
2.2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Understanding solid, hyphenated, open compounds and idioms by carrying out discussions;</li> <li>2. Mentioning 3 types of compounds word verbally and their meanings; and</li> <li>3. Using compounds word and idioms appropriately in accordance with the context of their use.</li> </ol>
3.1	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Explaining the definition of words, phrases, clauses, and sentences according to the initial understanding they have;</li> <li>2. Identifying noun, determiners, and verb categories by answering questions related to word categorization based on basic knowledge;</li> <li>3. Analyzing 10 sentences through noun, determiners and verb categories described earlier;</li> <li>4. Finding a Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverbial Phrase, Prepositional Phrase in 10 sentences;</li> <li>5. Providing each of the 5 written examples about the silence of phrases;</li> <li>6. Mentioning the types of clauses; and</li> <li>7. Identifying the clause contained in the 5 sentences given.</li> </ol>
3.2	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Mentioning the types of sentences orally; and</li> <li>2. Creating each of the 5 simple, compound, and complex sentences by paying attention to the sentence formation structure correctly from the explanation of the clauses previously.</li> </ol>
3.3	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>1. Designing a picture of the tree diagrams arrangement of Predicate Noun Phrase, Verb Phrase, Adjective Phrase, Adverbial phrase, Prepositional Phrase well and correctly; and</li> <li>2. Designing a tree diagram based on 5 examples of sentences given in writing.</li> </ol>

### 5. *Teaching Materials*

The teaching materials that should be delivered in the teaching and learning process of this course can be seen in Table 5 as follows;

**Table 5. *Teaching Materials***

No.	
1.	Morphology and syntax History of Morphology and syntax
2.	Definition of other linguistic branches.
3.	Types of morpheme, derivation and inflectional.
4.	Word formation
5.	Types of compound words
6.	Word categories
7.	Phrase, words, clause, and sentences level.
8.	Tree diagrams.

### 6. *References*

A host of sources could be applied as the main references for this course. After searching thousands of references that are available, the following are the recommended references for the students to reading. The researchers and the experts pointed out that these references were easy for the students to understand the content due to the way the writers presented the materials in logical orders and simple language. However, the teachers who teach this course are also free to provide other appropriate sources that are not listed on the following table.

**Table 6. *References***

No.	References
1.	Fromfkin,Victoria.1990. An Introduction to Language. Holt Rinehart and Winston
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4.	Jacobs, Roderick A. 1995. English Syntax: A grammar for English Language Professionals.Oxford: Oxford University Press
5.	Miller, Jim.2002. An Introduction to English Syntax. Edinburg: Edinburg University Press
6.	Thomas, Linda.2004. Beginning Syntax. Blackwell Publishing



## **B. Try-out Findings**

The syllabus that had been designed was tried out to the two lecturers at IAIN Palopo who taught Morphology and Syntax Course. In this case, they were asked to design a lesson plan based on the developed syllabus. It was found that they were completely easy to design their lesson plan for this course since all the components of this syllabus were stated clearly. They could directly transform the contents of the syllabus into their lesson plans. They also stated that the indicators formulated in this syllabus made them easy to assess their students understanding because they would present the materials based on the competency standards, basic competency, and the indicators that would be achieved.

Finally, the data obtained from the try-out were converted to the table qualification as stated in the previous section in order to decide whether the syllabus needs to revise or not. After converting to the table it was found that the attainment level of the syllabus was 87% categorized as Excellent and no revision needed.

## **PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION**

The present study positively contributes both to the practical and theoretical development of how to design an appropriate syllabus for certain courses in higher education. It can be one of the role models on how to design an appropriate syllabus based on the students' needs. The research design model adopted in the present study can also be one of alternatives for those who want to develop their own syllabus. Otherwise, the product of this study (syllabus) can also be adopted or adapted to be implemented in their Morphology and Syntax course for those who consider that it deal with their own situation and condition. Further, the present study can also be one of references for the future researchers who are keen on syllabus studies.

## **CONCLUSIONS**

This study aims at designing an appropriate syllabus for Morphology and Syntax course. The syllabus was designed based on the objectives of the English Education Department at Institut Agama Islam Negeri Palopo – Indonesia. The components of the syllabus consisted of course identity, course

description, competency standards, basic competency, competency achievement indicators, teaching materials, and references. To develop a good quality of syllabus, the researchers involved experts who provided some corrective feedbacks dealing with the weaknesses of the syllabus. The researcher had revised three times of this syllabus due to some errors and weaknesses found by the experts. In addition, the try-out findings indicated that the syllabus had met with the standard that categorized as excellent by the participants of the try-out.

The product of this study (syllabus) can be a role model for those who want to develop their own syllabus based on the students' needs. Since there are some forms of a syllabus, this study only dealt with an example of syllabuses since that meet with the need of the department. In this case, the department who has the same characteristics of IAIN Palopo can adapt or adopt this developed syllabus. Last but not least, the researchers certainly highly appreciate the readers who are willing to provide any criticism, suggestions, and comments on the perfection of the present study.

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## **First Language Component-Bridging Program (FLC-BP): A Promising Approach Facilitating Students' Performance in Reading and Writing Skills adopting Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) Curriculum**

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### **Abstract**

First Language Component-Bridging Program (FLC-BP) showed that students learn more effectively when they have developed proficiency in their first language. If students are literate in their first language (L1), they know how language works. First language proficiency provides an excellent foundation for learning a second language (L2). If students are proficient in their cognitive ability through their first language, this ability will carry them to gain the same in a second language. Hence, this study was undertaken to find out the effects of the First Language Component-Bridging Program on the Performance of Junior High School Learners in their Reading and Writing Skills. The study adopted the quasi experimental design, specifically the Pre-test Post-test Control Group Factorial Design. Three sections of Junior High School students were utilized as respondents and assigned to Tagalog-English, Iloko-English, and English-English teaching approaches. After four months of study, the researcher found out that students exposed to the English-English approach indicated a **moderate** performance in reading and **low** in writing skill. The Tagalog-English indicated a **high** level of performance in reading and **moderate** in writing. The Iloko-English students were **moderate** in reading and writing skills. Furthermore, English-only used as a medium of instruction was not the best solution to learn reading and writing. Hence, the researcher recommended the use of first language to improve the performance of students in learning.

**Keywords** – *Socio Linguistics, First Language Component-Bridging Program, Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education, Macro Skills, Factorial Design, Philippines*

## **INTRODUCTION**

The First Language Component-Bridging Program (FLC-BP) is an approach that advocates the use of the first language as bridge of learning, operating around the Bilingual Policy of 1974 by using the First Language (L1) to teach comprehension and understanding, using as a bridge to learn English, the mandated language to teach Science, Math and the Macro Skills, reading and writing skills respectively. This program was set up in Hungduan, Ifugao, Philippines raising the performance of the children in Tuwali, English and Filipino comprehension. The first study was set up under Mr Jeronimo P. Codamon and Superintendents Belingon and Dolores Codamon at Kiangon, Ifugao, Philippines. It was a promising program, however; it lasted only for six years. It collapsed because there was no support from higher officials of the Department of Education. The First Language Component-Bridging Program (FLC-BP) death in Hungduan ushered a new beginning in Region 02 (Baguingan, 1999, 2000).

This program was resuscitated at the Nueva Vizcaya State University and expanded into the Graduate School Curriculum by embedding the FLC-BP concepts and methodology as its special features of the Master of Education (MA Ed.) major subjects through in-service trainings of teachers. Training programs were also held at NVSU, elsewhere in Region 02 and CAR; even the most cited Lubuagan experiment was part of the FLC-BP education. Also, training programs went as far as Oriental Mindoro. Aspects of the FLC-BP instruction included model teaching using the FLC-BP methodology. As an output, there was the production of contextualized instructional materials in the contexts of teachers' classrooms and an exhibition of produced contextualized instructional materials. This endeavor was graced by Bro. Andrew Gonzalez, then Secretary of Education. The quality and quantity of exhibits by teachers enrolled impressed upon him that this type of program can be done. As a result of this classroom activity, a letter of request to the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) by the Secretary of Education was sent requesting Dr. Gloria D. Baguingan to oversee the implementation of the FLC-BP as a methodology in the Lingua Franca Program of Bro. Andrew Gonzalez.

Taking a course of action to improve basic education, NVSU in a MOA with the Secretary of Education undertook the implementation of the FLC-BP in the Lingua Program. The condition laid out was to organize experimental classes in all of Region 02. However, the consultant demurred over

the inclusion of Batanes because of its distance. There were ten (10) experimental classes spread-out in Region 02 and five (5) classes in Lubuagan, CAR. These research classes in their post-tests significantly established that using the First Language with rigorous bridging to a second language, English and Filipino, enhances easily the transfer of learning from a first language to a second or a third language.

In relation to this, Berowa and Devadera (2018) investigated the language attitudes toward the English language among Vietnamese students in the Philippines and probed the relationship between the language attitudes of the participants and their age, gender and socio-economic status (SES). This exploration was meant to determine the significance of the identified variables in creating favorable or undesirable attitude in language learning which may aid in the Project 2020 of the Ministry of Education and Training (MOET) in Vietnam.

Alieto (2018) on the other hand utilized an adapted questionnaire and surveyed 120 would-be mother tongue teachers. The results show that the respondents exhibit an attitude described as “slightly positive”. Furthermore, the respondents were determined to be willing to teach in the MT. Interestingly, there is significant relationship found between the language attitude and willingness to teach in the MT among the respondents. However, contrary to existing trend relative to gender difference on language attitude, the data discounts gender as a factor influencing language attitude and willingness to teach in the MT.

In the same context, De Guzman and De Vera (2018) investigated the status of elementary grade pupils’ English proficiency, particularly the Grades 1, 2 and 3 pupils who are simultaneously taking up subjects in the Mother Tongue and English that are integrated in their curricula. The study employed content-validated data-gathering instruments. The pupils across the three curriculum grades have varied sociodemographic and language-learning characteristics. Sex-distribution in the three grade levels have different ratios. Regardless of curriculum grade designation, the pupils’ mother tongues range from “Ilokano”, “Tagalog”, and “English”. The family income of all the pupils regardless of curriculum grade are differentiated and range from “Very High”, “High”, “Above Average”, “Average”, “Low”, and “Very Low”. Across the three grade levels, the pupils’ academic performance in English registered into different levels from “Outstanding” (maximum) to “Fairly Satisfactory” (minimum). Most of the pupils in each group registered densely in the lower strata of performance levels. Their academic performance in Mother Tongue registered in the levels of “Outstanding” (maximum) to “Fairly Satisfactory” (minimum). Grades 1, 2, and 3 pupils’ English proficiency levels range from “High” (maximum) to “Low” (minimum). Relationship between the profile variables and English proficiency is dependent on the grade level of students. None of the

profile variables are significantly related to EPL in the accounts of the Grade 2 pupils. Grade 1 pupils account for a significance in relationship between “academic performance in mother tongue” and EPL. Grade 3 pupils account for a significance in relationship between EPL and “sex”, “academic performance in Mother Tongue” and “academic performance in English”. Teachers vary as to their level of agreement or disagreement on the positive

With these transformations in basic education, from the very first FLC-BP to MTB-MLE and found effective, the researcher adopted the concept and tried out to Junior High School learners.

### **OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

This study was conducted to determine the effect of First Language Component-Bridging Program (FLC-BP) on the performance of Junior High School Learners in their reading and writing skills. It aimed to assess students’ performance in their reading and writing 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 their reading and writing skills considering their National Achievement Test (NAT) Results 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 three (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, reading and writing. 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 use of the following instruments. A qualifying examination, a 90-item examination designed to identify three (3) comparable classes for the experiment. A pre-test and post-test, a 60 multiple choice item that focused on reading and writing skills. The examination was intended for one hour. The reading skill was a 30 item test which required the students to read and answer carefully. The writing skill had also 45 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 Reading and Writing skills before the study

Table 1. Performance levels of the respondents in the reading and writing skills based on the pre-test result

Experimental Group	Particulars	MACRO SKILLS	
		Reading	Writing
All English	Mean	8.63	5.03
	SD	2.31	1.72
	Description	Moderate	Low
Tagalog-English	Mean	8.69	7.14
	SD	2.13	2.16
	Description	Moderate	Moderate
Iloko-English	Mean	8.10	5.56

	SD	2.22	2.27
	Description	Moderate	Low

Table 1 reflects the performance level of the respondents in the reading and writing skills. It can be gleaned that the students have performed better in their reading skill rather than their writing skill. Moreover, the *Tagalog-English* group has obtained both moderate levels in their reading and writing skills, while the other two groups are moderate in their reading skill but low in their writing skill. This data gave a concrete picture that the students in the *Tagalog-English* group had better preparation over the two groups. This was shown by their grade VI English grades which were high. Such grades showed that students assigned in the *Tagalog-English* group were exposed to a variety of activities in regard to or related to the two MACRO skills over the other groups, the *All English* and the *Iloko-English*.

From the observations made by the researcher during the conduct of the study, some students in the *Tagalog-English* group displayed spontaneous and quick response to problem-solving tasks. They competed as to who should be the first to answer questions without mulling over the question. A few students however, were insightful and cautiously considered alternative hypothesis. These students responded more slowly to the tasks but, they were more precise and exact.

On the other hand, students in the *Iloko-English* group preferred to work by themselves independently. They were self-motivated and blissful to choose the learning tasks for themselves. They were committed to the tasks and persevered at it until completion. Other students were found to be distracted, and needed others to create and contrive stimulating learning situations for them. Meanwhile, the students in the *All English* group were risk-takers. They were observed to be more likely to guess and speculate about the learning task. They chose to take chances and preferred situations, lacking in the spirit of working harder, consequently outcomes were uncertain. Other students of this group however, were observed to be cautious students and felt uncomfortable in risky situations and so they conceived different strategies to make sure the answers were accurate. Some students preferred to learn to work in groups or in pairs. This happened most of the time in the classroom. Most students coveted the social situation involving discussion while they worked. The insight to this observation is to maximize the strategy of cooperative learning.

## Performance of the Respondents in the Reading and Writing skills after the study

Generally, the *Tagalog-English* group of respondents have obtained a high level of performance in their reading skill after going through the intervention strategy, while the *Iloko-English* group has shown dramatic increase in performance in their writing skill. Moreover, although the qualitative descriptions remained the same for the rest of the observations, it can be observed that the respondents obtained higher results as indicated by the mean scores. This is an indication that positive results can be achieved through the intervention strategy.

In particular, the following results are observed.

**Reading test.** The respondents were generally within the moderate level of performance in the reading skill. For the performance levels in the reading skill of the different groups of respondents, the *All English* group was also within the moderate level, (mean score = 8.43); the *Tagalog-English* group on the high level (mean score = 10.05); and the *Iloko-English* group was within the moderate level (mean score = 9.22).

**Writing test.** The computed mean score of the respondents treated in the *All English* was 6.09. This means that the performance level in the writing skill of this group was within the low level bracket. The performance level in the writing skill of the group of respondents treated with the *Tagalog-English* was within the moderate level with a mean score of 8.63. The group of respondents treated with the *Iloko-English* was also on the moderate level of performance indicated by the mean score of 7.51.

Table 2. Performance levels of the respondents in the reading and writing skills based on the post-test result

Experimental Group	Particulars	MACRO SKILLS	
		Reading	Writing
All English	Mean	8.4286	6.0857
	SD	1.7027	2.6830
	Description	Moderate	Low
Tagalog-English	Mean	10.0571	8.6286
	SD	1.9242	2.0876
	Description	High	Moderate
Iloko-English	Mean	9.1707	7.5122

	SD	2.0360	2.0630
	Description	Moderate	Moderate

The table reveals that most of the students showed an uphill mark in their achievements in the two MACRO skills when treated to the FLC-BP approach using inputs prescribed by the DepEd contained in the quarterly kit. All contents of the quarterly kit prescribed for the second quarter were all taught in the three classes; the only difference was in the approach. This finding supports the main goal of the Expanded Lingua Franca Project, the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education, that using an approach, the FLC-BP, improves the students' academic performance in the cognitive skills and the linguistic skills in the acquisition of the MACRO skills – reading with comprehension, and writing skills, first acquired in their mother tongue and simultaneously acquiring the same skills in the second language is efficacious. Using the mother tongue as a bridge to acquire comprehension and understanding in the reading and writing skills paved the entry to the overlays of skills (cognitive and linguistic skills) that should be acquired within the quarter specified for the study. The bridge, the first language made it easy for the acquisition of the linguistic terms, frames, and concepts in the second language, English.

This study upholds the findings of Cummins (2000) that the level of development of students' mother tongue is a strong predictor of their second language development. Children who come to school with a solid foundation in their mother tongue develop stronger literacy abilities in the school language. The first language of a child is part of his personal, social and cultural identity. Another impact of the first language is that it brings about the reflection and learning of successful social patterns. The mother tongue is an indispensable instrument for the development of the intellectual, moral and physical aspects of education. Clarity of thought and expression is only possible when one has a certain command over the mother tongue. Weakness in any other subject means weakness in that particular subject only, but weakness in the mother tongue means the paralysis of all thought and the power of expression necessary in the learning of all school disciplines (Cummins, 2001).

However, some groups were still low in the writing skills. There were factors that could have affected their writing skills. One factor stressed by McKay (1989) was that writer's output is affected by his background knowledge. Indeed, the primary reason why some students do not succeed in developing writing skills may lie in their conceptual knowledge. They should use old experiences to build new knowledge and this is best done in a bridging methodology. The more experience students have in writing about specific topics in particular genres and contexts in their own mother tongue, the more confidence they gain and the more fluent their writing becomes in a second language. Students

who are unable to write particular types of texts required of them in English are unprepared to do so unless they have experienced writing first in their mother tongue.

### Comparison of the Performance Levels of the Respondents in the Reading and Writing skills based on the Gain Score and English Score in NAT as covariance

The table presents the comparison of the performance levels of the respondents in the reading and writing skills based on the gain scores and English scores in NAT as covariance. The discussion is focused on how the respondents fairly performed after carrying out the Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) Curriculum, through the structured approach, the First Language Component-Bridging Program (FLC-BP).

The National Achievement Test was used as covariance for the ANCOVA to determine the effect of the teaching strategies in the achievement levels of the students in reading and writing skills. Table 3. ANCOVA of the Gain Scores of the Respondents when subjected to various treatments in MTB-MLE and the Effect of their National Achievement Test (English) as Covariance

Experimental Group	Univariate Analysis of Covariance					
	n	Mean	SD	Computed value	F-	Significant Level
<b>READING</b>						
All English	35	-0.20	2.15	8.975	0.000*	12%
Tagalog-English	35	1.37 <sup>b = c &gt; a</sup>	1.29			
Ilokano-English	41	1.07 <sup>b = c &gt; a</sup>	1.46			
<b>WRITING</b>						
All English	35	1.06	2.30	1.928	0.150	2%
Tagalog-English	35	1.49	1.82			
Iloko-English	41	1.95	1.97			

**Reading Skill.** The ANCOVA,  $F(2, 110) = 8.975, p = 0.000$ , revealed that the three groups of students differed significantly in their reading skill performance when exposed to the two teaching strategies, 12% ( $w^2 = 0.12$ ) of the total variance in the reading skill was accounted for by the treatments controlling effect of English NAT score. This means that the strategies used had a significant effect in the reading skill of the students with NAT score in English as covariance. Furthermore, to determine the pairs of groups that have significant differences, pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni procedure

was conducted. The results revealed that there was a significant difference in the reading performance of the students exposed in the *Tagalog-English* and the *All English* as indicated by the significant level of 0.000. The same finding was also obtained in the comparison of the performance of the group taught in the *Iloko-English* and the *All English* as indicated by the significant level of 0.006. This means that the students taught using *Tagalog-English* or *Iloko-English* have significantly better reading performance than the students taught in the *All English*.

Moreover, students taught in *Tagalog-English* and *Iloko English* did not differ significantly in their reading performance as indicated by the significant level of 0.987. This means that the treatment using a diglot language simultaneously was significantly better over the mandated method of teaching English, the immersion approach. Prior knowledge and thinking strategies come through the texts whenever one uses his mother tongue to process both old and new information. These two types of information better enhance the experimental groups' understanding of the text. Using a diglot strategy, the first difficulty in the reading process, understanding and comprehension is dissipated by the use of the first language; when this is cleared the challenge of comprehension is cleared. The remaining difficulty is to put the gained understanding and comprehension into the target language. Using the *All English* offers no help, because a reader who is a non-English speaker has to grapple with two skills: cognitive and linguistic skills. These two skills are well knotted, as that of a knotted sewing thread. Unless one wounds the knotted thread, he can use it functionally to thread a needle. This is the analogy of the FLC-BP.

In addition, the above findings showed that the students taught in their mother tongue performed significantly better in their reading skill in English. Using Iloko and Tagalog as media of instruction developed the capabilities of the students in their reading skill. The most logical explanation for this finding was that the students who were exposed to the FLC-BP, an approach which implements the MTB-MLE Curriculum were supported cognitively by their first language, like comprehension was untangled and only language skill in English remained to be the only difficulty. Two principles seem to be suggested by these data. First, mother tongue strategies for education are best suited to settings where there is a high degree of both linguistic homogeneity and monolingualism. Second, students can be effectively educated in a second language if and only if they speak that language well when they begin school (Walter and Trammel, 2010). It is also noted that using the language the child understands- the child's first language, or mother tongue-for teaching lessons, not only enables the child to immediately master curriculum content, but in the process, it affirms the value of the child and his/her cultural and language heritage.

**Writing Skill.** Table 3 showed the result of the ANCOVA,  $F(2, 110) = 1.928$ ,  $p = 0.150$  revealed that there was no significant difference in the writing performance of the groups of students taught in the treatments: *Tagalog-English*, *Iloko-English*, and *All English*. This means that the groups of students taught in the *Tagalog-English*, *Iloko-English* and *All English* had similar performance in their writing skills.

The table further revealed that writing skill was the most difficult and most ignored among the MACRO skills. Hedge (1988) stressed that writing poses a great problem among students who speak English as a foreign language. This is because effective writing requires a degree of organization in the development of ideas and information. It also requires a degree of accuracy so there is no ambiguity. A substantial body of evidence, supported by my observations, indicates that students never try their best to write. First, they do not have a stock of English vocabulary that will make them want to write. Another difficulty of students in writing is due to the lack of interest. When students find their minds snap and altogether stop to even begin the activity. They may have ideas, but they have no words in English with which to give meaning to these ideas.

However, writing should not be neglected. It is essential that students have the freedom to express their thoughts and bring out their ideas. They can be encouraged to write in their first language and into English. Writing in their first language can spring out creative ideas put into good form because through their first language there is a smooth flow of words to authentically express them. Through the first language, all of what they want to say is easily put into words. After working substance, they can now put the same substance to English albeit with difficulty. But never mind, the more important thing is that the FLC-BP triggers a creative mind.

### **Test for Significant Interaction Effects**

Table 4 showed the ANCOVA of the Achievement of the respondents exposed to the MACRO skills particularly reading and writing (Factor A) and subjected to MTB-MLE strategies (Factor B) with English Score in NAT as covariance. The interaction between the MACRO skills: reading and writing and the approaches did not differ significantly. This means that there was not enough evidence to conclude that the students in the two MACRO skills and the teaching strategies on the use of MTB-MLE had a significant interaction effect in their achievements in English.



Table 4. Summary Table for the ANCOVA on the MACRO Skills Achievement Level of the Students (Factor A) subjected to MTB-MLE Strategies (Factor B) with English Score in NAT as Covariance

Sources	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Mean Square	F-Ratio	Significant Level
MACRO Skills (A)	725.293	3	241.764	50.359	0.000*
MTB-MLE Strategies (B)	394.960	2	197.480	41.135	0.000*
MTB-MLE*MACRO Skills	17.975	6	2.996	0.624	0.711
Error	2069.135	431	4.801		
Total	40740.000	444			
Corrected Total	3248.108	443			

\* - significant

**Test for (Factor A) Differences.** The results of ANCOVA on the reading and writing skills revealed that there was a significant difference in the achievement levels of the students in the two MACRO Skills. This means that some groups of students performed significantly better than the other groups. To determine the pair of means that were significant, the pairwise comparisons using Bonferroni procedure was utilized. The results are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5. Pairwise Comparisons using Bonferroni Procedure of the Achievement of the Respondents in English subjected to the two MACRO Skills: reading and writing with English NAT Score as Covariance

Pairwise Comparisons	Mean difference	Standard Error	Significant Level
Reading (9.216) vs Writing (7.406)	1.810	0.295	0.00*
* – significant Numbers in parentheses are adjusted means evaluated at covariance appeared in the model: English NAT scores = 28.6486			

The table showed that the performance of the students in the reading skill was significantly higher than their writing skill. The finding further revealed that the respondents displayed desirable

characteristics of being good readers rather than as writers. The performance may have been influenced by this behaviour at home.

**Test for (Factor B) Differences.** The students differed significantly in their achievement in English when subjected to the two approaches. This finding was revealed by the computed F-ratio of 41.135 with  $p = 0.00$ , controlled by the effect of English NAT scores as covariance. This means that at least one pair of the three classes is significantly different from the other group (Factor B). There remains the task of knowing which pair of means significantly differs using pairwise comparisons with the aid of Bonferroni procedure. The results of the test are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. Pairwise Comparisons using Bonferroni Procedure of the Achievement of the Respondents in English subjected to MTB-BLE Strategies with English NAT Score as Covariance

Pairwise Comparisons	Mean difference	Standard Error	Significant Level
All English (7.915) vs Tagalog-English (10.271)	-2.355	0.262	0.00*
All English (7.915) vs Iloko-English (9.353)	1.438	0.254	0.00*
Tagalog-English (10.271)vs Iloko-English (9.353)	0.917	0.255	0.10
* – significant Numbers in parentheses are adjusted means evaluated at covariance appeared in the model: English NAT scores = 28.6486			

Table 6 revealed that there was a significant difference in the achievement of the students subjected to the *Tagalog-English* and the *All English*. Students exposed to the *Tagalog-English* performed significantly better than the students exposed to the *All English*. It was found out that the students taught in *Iloko-English* had significantly higher achievement in English than the students taught in the *All English*.

The table further showed that the students taught in *Tagalog-English* and *Iloko-English* did not differ significantly in their English achievement. This means that the FLC-BP approach of the *Tagalog-English* and *Iloko-English* had nearly the same effect in the English performance of the students. Students taught in these approaches performed significantly better than the students taught in the immersion, the *All English*. This also implies that if the students were taught using the same approach, the FLC-BP, their performances in the reading and writing skills would still be closely

similar. This finding supports the idea that teaching children to read in the first language helps them to learn to read a second language because the language skills developed in a first language are transferrable to a second language (Smits et al., 2008). Labrador (2010) also disclosed that education that begins in the language of the learners has far more positive effects in the school children. He further explained that when the use of mother tongue is discarded in favour 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 use at home and school.

Moreover, the finding further implies that students in the *Tagalog-English* and *Iloko-English* groups who read more than one language have greater analytical abilities. Such children are much more creative, better confident than their peers, who were exposed to only one language, English. Students who are multilingual have more vocabularies stored in their heads and they can express themselves in a variety of ways.

Meanwhile, research had shown that many skills acquired in the first language can be transferred to the second language. For example, if a child has developed good reading skill in Filipino, she is likely to be able to apply this skill when reading English. (One useful reading skill is the ability to guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from context. Another one is the ability to decide which new words in a text are important to look up in the dictionary and which words can safely be ignored.) Developing reading skills at an early age in a language a child speaks encourages him to read anything as he goes up the educational ladder. Similarly, the skills of being able to plan out a piece of writing or develop an argument in a persuasive essay via a first language step can be applied in the second language once they have been learned in the first.

## CONCLUSION

In the light of the findings, the following conclusions were presented. First, all respondents indicated a moderate level of performance in reading in the administered pre-test before undergoing the treatments. However, they indicated a low level in the writing skills. Second, all respondents indicated a positive increase in performance in reading and writing skills after they were subjected to the FLC-BP treatment. Specifically, the *Tagalog-English* group significantly showed a high level of performance in reading and moderate in the writing skill.

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 reading and writing skills controlled by the effect of National Achievement Test (NAT) English results for the FLC-BP classes.

On the other hand, there was no significant interaction noted between the teaching Strategies (MTB-MLE) and the reading and writing skills in the achievement of the students in English with English NAT scores as covariate.

## **RECOMMENDATION**

Students will forever struggle with English as a foreign language if the approach to learn it is not redirected. They will always feel alienated in their classrooms where they are required to read and write English. They learn very little and enjoy the learning process even less. They will fail examinations and eventually drop out. The use of the English-only as MOI in schools in important subjects, English, Math and Science may also explain why students revert to illiteracy as soon as they drop out of schools. They have been taught to be literate in English through rote memorization. English-only as MOI therefore, is not the best solution to learn to read and write and use English as the ladder to success in college. The use of the first language will not only improve the quality of education but will also be the tool for learning and improving the learning of English.

Based on the major findings of the two approaches used to teach the reading and writing skills in English Grade VII and conclusions drawn from it, the following recommendations are offered.

First, RA 10157 which provides the use of the Mother Tongue to end in Grade VI and this research was implemented for Grade VII, this study nevertheless pointed out that using the FLC-BP over the immersion approach enhanced significantly students' performance in the reading and writing skills. On the basis of this research, the FLC-BP is recommended as a tool for improving students skills in language over the immersion approach. If not adopted for a total classroom MOI, it is recommended for remediation.

Next, teachers can adopt the methodology to enhance students' active participation in the classroom but must undergo the training. Further, administrators should be given orientation and explore various methods in order to monitor teachers' activities in the FLC-BP approach; and for Curriculum planners they should have a think tank group from the multi-sectoral society to plan curriculum for the region, division, district and school level; and a close cooperation between parents and students to sit together to help students in their requirements in school, especially so if the FLC-BP approach is used; inevitably when this approach is used language and culture intertwined in the content of curriculum; thus wisdom of parents are called for.

In addition, the Department of Education should provide the necessary teaching materials like newly updated books, supplementary reading materials and teaching aids to implement fully K to 12 curriculums. English teachers of Grade VII on the basis of the significant gain scores obtained by the

research should continue using the First Language Component-Bridging Program (FLC-BP), an approach which implements MTB-MLE in their classrooms to develop the MACRO skills of the students. Moreover, English teachers should undergo extensive in-service trainings and workshops on how to implement Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) Curriculum. English teachers should motivate themselves to take advanced courses in English to acquire knowledge in the recent development of the English language. English is a growing language. This move will enhance their competence in teaching the subject.

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## **Crossing Metacognitive Strategy Instruction in an EFL Classroom: Its Impact to Thai Learners' Listening Comprehension Skill and Metacognitive Awareness**

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### **ABSTRACT**

Listening comprehension is a cognitive skill that can be developed through acquisition of learning strategies. Metacognitive strategy is able to lead students to think about their learning process by means of using their knowledge about their cognitive activities. Thus, explicit instruction of listening strategies is vital and useful for EFL learners. This study was sought to determine the impact of metacognitive strategy instruction on the listening comprehension performance of the Thai EFL learners and their metacognitive awareness in listening. A total of 29 Freshman students were purposively selected as the respondents of this study. Researcher employed an exploratory case study using a mixed-mode method involving a single group of pre- and post- test design. A Metacognitive Awareness in Listening Questionnaire (MALQ) questionnaire was utilized as a tool to track the development of their metacognitive awareness in listening. Data was collected while the 29 respondents participated in the eight sessions of a pedagogical cycle aimed at improving their listening comprehension of four short informative video items utilizing metacognitive strategy. The quantitative findings revealed that there is a significant difference between the pre-test and post-test results indicative of an improvement in their listening comprehension performance of the short informative video items after attending the eight sessions of metacognitive strategy instruction in the classroom. In addition, further quantitative findings indicated that there is a significant difference on the respondents' metacognitive listening awareness to all the five MALQ factors namely planning and

evaluation, problem solving, directed attention, mental translation and person knowledge. The final quantitative findings showed that there are three out of the five MALQ factors which have significant relationships with the respondents' listening comprehension after the metacognitive strategy intervention. On the other hand, qualitative findings revealed that respondents have positive responses in using metacognitive strategies to monitor their listening comprehension thus enhance their awareness in metacognitive listening strategies. In conclusion, the findings of this study have provided significant support for the metacognitive strategy instructions to be included as a beneficial pedagogical method to improve students' listening comprehension in the EFL classroom.

**Keywords:** English as a Foreign Language (EFL); Listening comprehension; Metacognitive strategy instruction

## INTRODUCTION

Metacognition is defined as knowledge about learning that is a part of learner's store of acquired knowledge and consists of a system of related ideas, relatively stable, early developing and an abstraction of a learned experience (Wenden, 1998). It refers to the conscious knowledge and ability to manipulate the learning process in order to positively curb it (Flavell, 1979). This type of self-knowledge and the strategies associated with it can have an important impact on education, particularly for the second/foreign language acquisition classroom (Cohen & Macaro, 2007). It has been claimed that metacognitive strategies lead students to think about their learning process by means of using their knowledge about their cognitive activities (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

Huang, Gu, Yao, and Zheng (2017) identified listening skill as one of the most important skills and has been recognized as a critical skill in language learning. Listening comprehension refers as a cognitive skill and can be developed through acquisition of learning strategies. Previous researchers (Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010; Rahimi, 2011; Bozorgian, 2014; Alhaisoni, 2017; Zheng, 2018) confirmed that explicit instruction strategies are vital and useful for English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners. However, applied linguists have pointed out that the majority of teachers have taken on the instruction of the listening skill as an activity centered on the listening product, rather than on the listening process the students go through.

In Thailand educational curriculum, listening skill is embedded in the oral comprehension teaching approach through multiple choices, completion type and the like. Thus, the process of explicitly



teaching listening is overlooked with a strong emphasis on the assessment of the product of listening. Furthermore, listening strategy instruction is not practiced to almost all schools and universities in the country. In fact, listening activities are often used as a test of comprehension questions and many students experience frustration in the TESOL program of Faculty of Education in the study university. This only manifests that the typical scenario is a neglect of students' personal strategies in listening. Consequently, students mostly attribute their difficulties in listening performance to either their inadequate competence or linguistic difficulty of stimulus texts. Graham (2006) emphasized that continuing difficulty in understanding listening input may lead to a sense of passivity, lack of motivation and thus, less effective listening performance.

Some significance is noticeably attached to this study by looking into this important topic in the Thai context where most of the time listening is taught through testing comprehension which makes EFL learners more anxious that leads to a poor listening comprehension performance. Furthermore, there is also an issue regarding the relationship between the success of EFL learners in listening comprehension and the strategy used; however, these factors to date have not been sufficiently investigated in Thailand. Therefore, the study attempts to address this gap with the end-in-view of enhancing the listening comprehension skill and metacognitive awareness of the Thai learners through metacognitive strategy instruction in the EFL classroom.

### **CONCEPTUALIZATION OF THE STUDY**

Researcher conceptualized metacognition based on Flavell's Taxonomy of Metacognition (Flavell, 1976, 1979) focusing on the idea of metacognition and metacognition theory. Metacognition is defined as student's awareness of thinking and learning such as what and how student thinks and the relationships to a learning task or situation as well as why student is thinking in a particular way (Flavell, 1976). It also includes the ability to regulate these thinking processes. Metacognitive awareness takes the form of experience and knowledge (Flavell, 1979). Metacognitive experience is defined as a feeling that students have about their cognition, such as the feelings they have when they do not understand something, while metacognitive knowledge consists of their beliefs and knowledge about learning. As a result, metacognition refers to student's knowledge concerning his own cognitive processes and products or anything related to them (Flavell, 1976).

In addition, metacognition can lead to selection, evaluation, revision or deletion of cognitive tasks, goals and strategies. For example, students are able to make meaning and discover behavioral

implications of metacognitive experiences. As described by Krishnan and Kepol (2013), metacognition is like a built-in monitoring device that works in regulating one's thought processes and helps one to gear one's mental mechanism towards the attainment of goal. This device can be used to assist students in their learning by providing them with a host of strategies that they can use to encourage learning. Therefore, students need to be taught how to plan, monitor, assess and reflect upon what is being listened to.

The utilization of metacognitive strategies has been proven to aid students in monitoring their comprehension both oral and in written form. Furthermore, the importance of metacognitive strategies on students' metacognitive awareness is related to effective learning in all learning contexts. The strength of utilizing metacognitive strategies has been supported by Bozorgian (2014). Bozorgian claimed that metacognitive strategy has a direct and positive influence on EFL students' listening performance. Meanwhile, Yang (2009) also indicated that one of the distinctive features differentiating successful listeners from unsuccessful ones is the use of metacognitive strategies and Yang supports the idea that teaching the role of metacognition in L2/EFL listening helps listeners to approach the listening task more effectively. This is in line with Vandergrift's (2003) findings. Vandergrift found that different types of listening strategies deployed make a significant difference between more skillful or less skillful listeners. More skillful students use less translation, more metacognitive strategies, more questioning, further elaboration and more tracking and monitoring compared to the less skillful ones.

Metacognitive instruction in listening is based on the premise that learning to listen requires students to be actively engaged in cognitive, affective and social domains (Goh, 2008). Such an involvement will prepare students to act strategically, engaging in thinking, and talking about their own listening. Students construct their understanding of what it takes to succeed as an EFL student. Metacognitive instruction also takes into account the trajectories or the development paths that language learners follow when learning to listen. Broadly speaking, listeners develop from controlled to automatized processing of spoken information while they build increasing sophisticated neural networks for faster parallel processing of text and meaning (Hulstijn, 2003; Segalowitz, 2003).

Goh (2008) highlighted that teaching listening skill has to follow a process-based approach such as the strategic models which proposed by the past researchers (Chamot, Malley, & Kupper, 1999; Vandergriff, 2003; Wenden, 1991). All the strategic models had been proved to increase control, confidence, and eventually proficiency to EFL learners. On this line of reasoning, teachers have to

provide sufficient opportunities to act upon the set of rules that already devised. This regulated procedure helps listeners to plan, monitor and evaluate their listening (Goh, 2008; Vandergrift & Tafaghodtari, 2010).

Additionally, Vandergrift and Goh (2012) defined pedagogical sequence as a sequence of learning activities that integrating metacognitive awareness, consciousness with listening input, and comprehension activities. This sequence contributes to the students' comprehension of the content of the text at the same time, the metacognitive aspects that are involved in the process. According to Vandergrift (2003), pedagogical sequence encourages students to actively create and check predictions, establish and address gaps in their understanding, and monitor and reflect on their performance. The cycle involves five stages through which the listener progresses linearly: (i) Planning and predicting stage which guides the student through the metacognitive process of planning and the related strategies of directed attention, goal-setting, activating background knowledge and predicting; (ii) First verification stage, in which the students listen to the selection for the first time; (iii) Collaboration with a peer, in which comparisons are made, hypotheses are verified or rejected, differences are discussed, problems are identified and plans are made for the subsequent listening; (iv) Second verification stage, during which the students listen again to the selection to verify any differences notices with their partners during the previous stage; and (v) Reflection stage, in which it involves the metacognitive process of evaluation.

With regard to EFL listening instruction in Thailand, despite having specified a considerable amount of classroom time to listening, teachers tend to test listening skill rather than teach it, meaning, teachers still target listening product rather than listening process. Given the importance of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive control, it is appropriate to investigate this area further. Thus, this study aims to investigate if the instruction of metacognitive strategies impacts the Thai EFL learners' listening comprehension performance and their metacognitive awareness.

## **METHOD**

### *Research design and samples*

The researcher employed an exploratory case study specifically a mixed-mode method design to explore the impact of an implicit metacognitive listening strategy intervention on the students'

listening comprehension performance of short informative video items. Researcher utilized a time series design to monitor students' progress in listening performance and their metacognitive awareness in listening. This includes monitoring the students' progress during 10-sessions which constituted eight sessions for the implementation of the strategy intervention; one session each for the pre-test and post-test.

All the 29 first year university students of the academic year 2017-2018 who are majoring in TESOL program at the Faculty of Education in Khon Kaen University was purposively selected as respondents consisting of two males and 27 females with ages ranging from 18 to 22 years old. The rationale of targeting this group is because they have been exposed to the metacognitive strategies during their previous semester, the researcher would like them to continuously practice and use these strategies through their three succeeding semesters where they will still take *Speaking and Listening* subjects.

#### ***Research instruments and data collection***

Researcher employed four methods of data collection to capture quality evidence that leads to the formulation of convincing and credible data to achieve the aims that have been posed above. The four methods of data collection namely pre and post listening tests, Metacognitive Awareness in Listening Questionnaire (MALQ), field notes, and interview protocol are necessary as it ensures that the data gathered can be triangulated and that subsequent decisions based on arguments embodied in the findings are valid.

Pre- and post- listening tests were used to measure the relationship between metacognitive strategy instruction and the respondents' listening performance of four short informative video items which were aligned to the topic in their regular listening classroom. The choice of the short informative video items was based on the fact that these EFL students participating in the study were exposed to this authentic material on a regular basis. All the short informative video items were approximately three minutes long. The pre-test was administered one week before the intervention began while the post-test took place a day after the intervention was provided.

The MALQ was adopted from Vandergrift, Goh, Mareschal, and Tafaghodtari's (2006) instrument to assess students' metacognitive awareness in listening. It is composed of 21 items measuring five factors of metacognitive knowledge such as *problem-solving strategies*

which help students to make inferences when they do not understand a certain word or phrase with 6 items; *planning and evaluation strategies* which are meant to guide students to prepare themselves before listening and evaluate the results of their listening efforts after listening with 5 items; *mental translation strategies* which help students to translate the information heard in the L2 into their first language with 3 items; *person knowledge strategies* which help students to show their self-confidence and self-efficacy in L2 listening tasks with 3 items; and *directed attention strategies* which refer to students' ability to concentrate on a specific task with 4 items. Respondents are requested to respond to items using a 6-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree" without a neutral point so that respondents could not hedge.

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

Interviews were conducted to provide more details about how often and when the respondents would use the metacognitive strategies after the intervention. The interview protocol was designed to examine the planning, monitoring and evaluation strategies that would help respondents' listening skills as well as how the metacognition strategy instruction assists them to further understanding listening and be aware of their learning process in listening.

***Research procedure and intervention program***

Researcher carried out eight sessions of metacognitive instruction as an intervention program Table 1 presents lesson plans of activities along with its corresponding number of sessions and metacognitive topics discussed.

**Table 1. Lesson plans of activities**

Session	Metacognitive Strategies	Plan of Activities
		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Description, simplification and definition of planning and continued to expand the term "planning" into its subcategory of learning</li> </ul>

Sessions 1 & 2	Plan ning & Advance Organization	<p>strategies: advance organization, directed attention, selective attention and self-management.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• giving of some examples of planning activities to emphasize the importance of planning and advance organization in real life setting.</li> </ul>
	Dire cted Atte ntion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Reiterating the definition of planning and described the definition of second learning strategy - directed attention.</li> <li>• Elaboration of the function of planning in general and directed attention in particular.</li> </ul>
Sessions 3 & 4	Selective Attention	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Elaborate the definition and function of planning in general and selective attention in particular.</li> <li>• Advising students to concentrate on the topic and think of the keywords in the listening input.</li> <li>• Recommending the students to consider the relationship between the speakers through the tone of their voice in addressing each other.</li> </ul>
	Self- Management	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Explaining the function of self-management (next planning strategy) and advising students to concentrate to understand English.</li> <li>• Encouraging students to put everything aside and manage their concentration on what speakers were saying.</li> </ul>
	Monitoring & Comprehensio n Monitoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Preparing the students to be ready with the new category of metacognitive strategy: Monitoring strategies in general and comprehension monitoring in particular.</li> <li>• Advising the students to translate any strange or difficult words and try to put everything together, understanding one thing may lead to understanding another.</li> </ul>

Sessions 5 & 6	Auditory Monitoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Discussing the term auditory monitoring and its function through clarifying its objectives in listening activity.</li> <li>• Advising students to use their knowledge of native language, primary sound and use the sound of words to relate to other words they knew.</li> </ul>
	Double Check Monitoring	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Presenting and defining double-check monitoring strategy.</li> <li>• Suggesting students to do not focus on something they heard that does not make sense to them anymore while listening.</li> </ul>
Sessions 7 & 8	Evaluation & Performance Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Introducing “Evaluation strategy” in general and discussing the function of “Performance Evaluation” in particular.</li> </ul>
	Strategy Evaluation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Discussing “strategy evaluation and directing students to do not concentrate too much on the individual words because it will lead to distractions.</li> </ul>
	Problem Identification	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Elaborating the function of the “problem identification” by discussing its function in a listening activity.</li> <li>• Directing students to identify the central point needing resolution in a task.</li> </ul>

Each of eight sessions for 90 minutes long was including the task sequence called *pedagogical cycle* (Vandergrift, 2003) which involved different stages such as i) *Planning and predicting stage*; ii) *First verification stage*; iii) *Second verification Stage*; iv) *Final verification stage*; and v) *Reflective stage*.

### ***Pilot study and data analysis***

The pilot study was administered to 30 second year college students majoring in the TESOL program. The English proficiency of the pilot study participants was very similar to the levels of proficiency of the respondents in the actual study. It was determined that the instruments

were reliable and good to use as the Cronbach alpha value was high. In addition, the contents of all the instruments were validated by three experts.

Quantitative data were evaluated based on descriptive and inferential statistics, while qualitative data were analyzed using thematic analysis. The Descriptive Statistics such as mean, frequency, percentage were calculated and presented in a tabular form. The t-test statistical analysis was used to compare the means of both sets of tests to indicate the impact of the intervention employed. The t-test verified whether or not the null hypothesis could be accepted. The Pearson Moment correlation coefficient was also used to determine the relationship between the metacognitive strategy instruction to those of respondents' listening comprehension performance and their metacognitive awareness in listening as represented by MALQ.

Data from questions in the interview protocol were subjected to frequency counts and were analyzed using the process of thematic coding (Cresswell, 2008). The themes were predetermined as follows:

**Table 2. Themes for the three interview questions**

<b>Theme</b>	<b>Metacognitive Strategies Use in Listening</b>
The challenge and use of metacognitive strategies	-Metacognitive strategies in listening -Planning -Monitoring -Evaluation
<b>Theme</b>	<b>Importance</b>
Importance of metacognitive strategy Instruction on students' metacognitive awareness in Listening	-helpful to regulate listening input -enhances better listening performance -builds confidence and motivation in listening



## RESULTS

The results of this study are presented in line with the research aims indicated above. The initial results are the tests of difference on respondents' listening comprehension performance on short informative video item and also their metacognitive awareness in listening before and after the metacognitive strategy intervention. This is followed by testing the relationships between respondents' listening comprehension and the five factors of metacognitive awareness in listening. Finally, the impacts of the metacognitive strategies instruction in terms of the challenge and use, the importance of it on respondents' metacognitive awareness in listening are presented.

### *Test of difference on respondents' listening comprehension performance*

The results from the t-test analysis showed that there was significant difference on the respondents' listening comprehension performance on short information video item before and after the metacognitive strategies intervention. As shown from the Table 3, the overall mean scores before the intervention (6.93) and after the intervention (13.93) show that when compared statistically, the differences between the two results were significant with a t-value of -17.0 which is less than the computed p-value 0.000. Therefore, the research hypothesis that claimed instruction of metacognitive strategies had no significant difference on the respondents' listening comprehension of short informative video item before and after the strategy intervention, was rejected indicative that metacognitive strategies help students employ planning, monitoring and evaluation to manage, direct, regulate and guide learning process.

**Table 3. Test of difference on the respondents' listening comprehension performance**

Variables	Mean	SD	t-computed value	p- value
Before the Intervention	6.93	1.75		
After the Intervention	13.93	1.36	-17.0	0.000

***Test of difference on respondents' metacognitive awareness***

Table 4 displays the results of descriptive statistics for metacognitive strategy awareness that were represented by the MALQ. The overall mean and standard deviation (SD) scores of the respondents' MALQ before the intervention ( $\bar{x} = 2.30$ ;  $SD = 0.17$ ) and after the intervention ( $\bar{x} = 4.41$ ;  $SD = 0.18$ ) revealed that when compared statistically, the differences of pre- and post-results were significant with a  $t$ -value of -14.64 which is less than the computed  $p$ -value at 0.000. Therefore, the research hypothesis which claimed instruction of metacognitive strategies had no significant difference on students' metacognitive awareness in listening as represented by MALQ before and after the intervention, was rejected.

**Table 4. Test of difference on the respondents' metacognitive awareness**

MALQ strategies	Before		After		$t$ - computed value	$p$ - value
	Intervention		Intervention			
	Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )	SD	Mean ( $\bar{x}$ )	SD		
Planning and Evaluation	1.32	0.27	4.54	0.27	-45.35	0.000
Problem - Solving	2.10	0.28	4.55	0.26	-35.03	0.000
Directed Attention	1.97	0.31	3.66	0.28	-21.77	0.000
Mental Translation	3.29	0.33	4.43	0.31	-13.59	0.000
Person Knowledge	2.74	0.30	4.72	0.39	-21.78	0.000
Overall	2.30	0.17	4.41	0.18	-14.64	0.000

***Test of relationships between listening comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness***

As revealed from Table 5, there were three out of five factors in MALQ that showed significant relationships with the students' listening comprehension performance. The planning and evaluation, mental translation, and person knowledge factors which yielded  $t$ -computed values of 2.27, 5.09, and 2.07 respectively and are higher than the  $t$ -critical value

of 2.05. This means that there was a significant relationship between the student-participants' listening comprehension performance and the aforesaid factors.

However, two factors in MALQ: problem-solving and directed attention yielding *t*-computed values of 1.52 and 1.23 respectively found lower than the *t*-critical value of 2.05 which means that there was no significant relationship between the student-participants' listening comprehension performance the aforesaid factors.

**Table 5. Test of relationship between listening comprehension performance and metacognitive awareness in listening**

MALQ Factors	Pearson <i>r</i> -value	<i>t</i> - computed value	<i>t</i> -critical value	Interpretation
Planning & evaluation	0.40	2.27	2.05	Significant
Problem-solving	0.28	1.52	2.05	Not significant
Directed attention	0.23	1.23	2.05	Not significant
Mental translation	-0.70	5.09	2.05	Significant
Person knowledge	0.37	2.07	2.05	Significant

The metacognitive strategy instruction, in overall, used as an intervention to enhance the respondents' listening comprehension performance on short informative video item showed a significant relationship to that of their metacognitive awareness in listening as represented by MALQ since the *t*-computed value (2.84) is higher than the *t*-critical value of 2.05. Therefore, the research hypothesis that claimed 'there is no significant relationship between the respondents' listening comprehension performance and metacognitive strategy in listening as represented by MALQ after the intervention', was rejected. This is an indication that metacognitive awareness increases student knowledge and makes them more conscious and active in dealing with listening difficulties rather than simply accepting their problems.

**Table 6. Overall test of relationship between listening comprehension performance and the metacognitive awareness in listening**

Variables	Pearson <i>r</i> - <i>value</i>	<i>t</i> -computed value	<i>t</i> -critical value
Listening Comprehension Performance			
Metacognitive Awareness in Listening Questionnaire	0.48	2.84	2.05

***The impacts of metacognitive strategy instruction***

There were 21 out of 29 respondents from the initial stage involved in the structured interviews. Table 7 summarizes the frequency of respondents' metacognitive strategies use. There were 11 or 52 percent use metacognitive strategies in listening whereas, 13 of them or 62 percent use planning strategy. Meanwhile, the least frequency went to evaluation strategy gaining 2 or 10% only.

**Table 7. Metacognitive strategy use in listening**

Theme 1	Frequency	Percentage
Metacognitive strategies in Listening	11	52
Planning	13	62
Monitoring	7	33
Evaluation	2	10

*N=21*

The interview results revealed that the importance of metacognitive strategy instruction is able to bring respondents a sense of motivation and confidence of using those strategies in listening comprehension. When respondents were asked to express their comments on the effect or use of metacognitive strategies, one student contributed her opinion regarding it.

*“The use of metacognitive strategies in listening comprehension is helpful to us. For me, practicing those strategies make me confident that I can perform better to the listening activity.” (R3)*

Meanwhile, Respondent 4 maximized the effectiveness of the metacognitive strategies in listening for it helped her to regulate her listening performance. She stated that because of those strategies, she was able to come up with a complete grasp of the listening selection and achieve a better listening performance.

*“The metacognitive strategies that I learnt helped me to perform better in listening. Because of those strategies, I was able to comprehend what the speaker is conveying and able to know about the main idea of the listening selection.” (R4)*

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

#### Field-note 1

*Some students after metacognitive strategies instruction became more enthusiastic in the class especially in the planning stage. They believe that planning helps activate their schemas towards the listening selection. Some of them became more confident and motivated to listen because they were led what, when and how to apply those strategies. One student was responsive during planning activities such as reading the short text and share to her peers what she had understood from it.*

However, there were also respondents who felt that there was not enough time to use metacognitive strategies while listening to the selection because the selection disappears as it once played. Like R12, R7 expressed her opinion regarding unsuccessful listening performance due to insufficient time to use the metacognitive strategies she learnt in the class. *“Metacognitive strategies assisted me to understand the listening selection; however, I encounter a problem about lacking of time to practice the strategies because the listening selection disappears once it is played. Although I had the chance to go back but my momentum also fades.” (R12)*

*“The metacognitive strategies that I learned in the class helped me how to listen but sadly, I was not able to use them very efficiently because of time constraints.” (R7)*

The same results were found at researcher’s field-note 2 as follows:

#### Field-note 2

*It was observed that the time allocated in each strategy was not enough for the students to finish it successfully. For example, during the collaboration stage, the students were asked to discuss what they understood from the video to their peers, talked about the strategies they used to understand the video and considered strategies they could employ to deal with gaps*

*and their misunderstanding. However, students were unmindful of the time and unfortunately, could not accomplish all.*

The following interview result corresponds to the quantitative result shown in Table 7 that the planning strategy yielded the highest frequency among all metacognitive strategies being used by the respondents and also the qualitative result from Field-note 3. Like R11's response to the frequency of metacognitive strategy use, it is noted that respondents were already familiar with planning strategies prior to the listening selection.

*"I always keep on practicing planning strategies before listening. It helped me facilitate my knowledge towards the topic. I learned that planning like predicting, and activating my background knowledge could help me understand more about the listening selection." (R11)*

Field-note 3:

*"Planning strategies" is observed as the most favorite strategies of the students especially predicting to activate their background knowledge about the topic they are expecting to hear. Almost all of them participated in the predicting activity even the most shy students tried their best to share answers.*

R1 conveyed her feelings on the use of planning strategies that it could somehow help her in advance to familiarize herself regarding the listening selection especially on unlocking of difficult terms by listing down related ideas about the main idea.

*"Planning like predicting and listing down related ideas (advance organization technique) help me link to what I am going to listen." (R1)*

Meanwhile, reading a short text as an advance organization technique is one better way to activate one's prior knowledge and would regulate listening comprehension. R7 expressed her insight concerning the short text she read before the listening selection is played.

*"I am not used into reading a short text related to the listening topic before I listen. I guess, it's a good planning strategy because helps trigger my previous knowledge about the topic of the listening selection." (R7)*

Successful expression of one's ideas and opinion regarding a topic builds one's confidence and belief to oneself. R9, during the collaboration stage under planning strategy, stated that she was able to share her understanding with confidence and gave her a confirmation that what she shares is correct.

*“The collaboration activity assisted us to share our understanding of the short text to our peers. It built my self-confidence because of the confirmation of ideas that I share is similar to my peers.” (R9)*

Besides, the following Field-note 4 could be used to support the above interview results.

Field-note 4

*It was observed that majority of the students were able to share their understanding towards the listening selection during the “collaboration stage” under planning strategy. Some of them were confident to impart what they heard and were able to confirm that the words and phrases were similar to their peers.*

It is observed that majority of the respondents were already familiar with planning strategy, however, few do not know how to use them strategically. They had no idea regarding what to do during predicting to help them guess what they might listen. Qualitative results from R15, R16 and Field-note 5 could be used to triangulate each other. As R15 expressed her insights:

*“I know that planning and predicting might help facilitate my prior knowledge. Honestly, I do not have the knowledge how to utilize them with strategies.” (R15)*

Like R15, R16 also stated her feelings regarding planning strategies. She was struggling how to activate her background knowledge to be able to connect to what she is going to hear. She also stated that she did not know the name of the strategy she has been using.

*“I had the knowledge that I have to plan before listening, but I have always been encountering problem on how to plan. I don’t have much strategies to aid myself activate my previous knowledge. It is funny that I am using one, but I don’t know how to call its name.” (R16)*

Field-note 5

*Some students were using strategies in listening. However, when they were in the collaboration stage where they need to share the techniques they use in listening, the teacher observed that they were only telling the way they were doing it but could not tell the name of the strategy.*

Regarding monitoring strategies, it is noticeable that few respondents utilized these strategies while listening. Verbatim transcript from R18, R5 and Field-note 6 were found to be consistent. R18 stated her insight regarding its effectiveness:

*“To check if I understood the listening selection, I try to check everything together and I try to understand one thing which I believe will lead to understanding another.” (R18)*

R5 also maximized the effective use of monitoring strategies by trying to go back to her answers during the second or third attempt of playing the listening selection.

*“Since we are informed that the listening selection will be played more than once, I see to it that when the segment is going to be played again, I am trying my best to double check if the words or keywords I wrote are correct.” (R5)*

Field-note 6:

*Some students practiced monitoring strategy during listening. The students keep on going back to their written words to check if they got the correct answers. Some students could not even wait to hear the playing of the listening segments the second time. They were eager to check if what they wrote down were correct or wrong.*

Contrary to R5, R7 was not able to use monitoring strategies while listening because she is afraid to lose on track. She also expressed that she needs more time to practice and expose herself to the strategies before she can be good at using it.

*“I was not able to double check my answers because I was only listening to the selection. I attempted to double check the ideas or answers I wrote down but I lost on track. I need more time to expose myself to monitoring strategies.” (R7)*

With regard to evaluation strategies, it can be gleaned from the Table 7 that students' use of the evaluation strategy gained the least frequency. R8 thought that evaluation is a part of teacher's responsibility. She thinks that evaluation means quizzes or tests.

*“I did not have any idea regarding evaluation strategy. I think evaluation is a teacher's way of assessing us through giving of tests or quizzes.” (R8)*

On the other hand, R13 stated her feeling regarding the effective use of evaluation as a metacognitive strategy. She said that evaluating one's listening performance whether the answers are correct or not, makes her more driven to continue listening and do her best to get correct answers. It also helps her to trace her performance.

*“As I listen, I see to it that I am right there. I am following my performance, whether I did get the answer or not. I always say, I am close! This attitude helps me become more optimistic.” (R13)*

Field-note 7 below was found to be in parallel with the interview results above.

Field-note 7:



After metacognitive strategies were taught to the students, some of them gained confidence and optimism that they could understand what they heard from the listening selection. In fact, one of them exclaimed that “she made it!” Other shouted, “that’s close! I have to do it better next time”. These phrases manifest optimism and confidence.

***The importance of metacognitive strategies on metacognitive awareness***

Table 8 shows that all the respondents confirmed the importance of the metacognitive strategies in improving their listening performance and the questionnaire was helpful to regulate the listening input. Results indicated that the respondents believe that metacognitive strategies should be practically discussed in the classroom to improve listening performance.

**Table 8. Importance of metacognitive strategy instruction on metacognitive awareness in listening**

Theme 2	Importance	Frequency
Importance of Metacognitive	- helpful to regulate listening input	21
Strategy Instruction on	- enhances better listening performance	21
Students’ Metacognitive	- builds confidence and motivation in listening	21
Awareness in Listening		

N=21

R10 expressed her opinion regarding how she became more mindful of those metacognitive strategies after her teacher taught her how to use those strategies in listening. R12 had similar opinion to R10 however, she stressed that it should have been taught to them before because it takes time to master those strategies. R10 and R12’s verbatim transcripts and field-note 8 show the similar results.

*“I became more aware of using metacognitive strategies in my listening class. I think, those strategies should be emphasized in the classroom especially monitoring and evaluation strategies. I now know how to plan, and monitor my performance.” (R10)*

*“Now, I can practice how to predict, use advance organization and activate my prior knowledge. I believe that if teachers teach and expose us to these metacognitive strategies, we students would become good listeners. However, mastering these strategies is not easy.” (R12)*

Field-note 8:

*Majority of the students were happy applying those strategies and suggested that those strategies should be taught in the classroom because they are helpful in successful listening. One student suggested that the teacher should expose the students more on monitoring and evaluation strategies.*

Many students stated that metacognitive strategies helped improve their awareness in listening strategies and eventually enhanced their listening comprehension performance. R27 and R26 as well as Field-note 9 qualitative results are able to support this point.

*“I was taught how to focus harder on keywords or phrases that have connection to the main idea which helped me to listen carefully. Because of this strategy, it improved my listening performance. And I did a good job.” (R27)*

Meanwhile, R26 further states that “slow learners” in the classroom share their thoughts on the use of metacognitive strategies to others and eventually builds confidence in sharing their ideas they understood from the short text and listening selection. Field-note 9 seemed to be of support to R26’s idea.

*“My classmate who has been very slow and hardly share her ideas during group sharing was able to share her opinions about the short text and to what she understood in the selection.” (R26)*

Field-note 9:

*The teacher observed that less - skilled students during the planning stage were trying to share how they used those strategies. They also became less reluctant and were able to share their ideas to their peers, however, if they are asked to impart their ideas to their teacher, they hesitate.*

The above qualitative results either from the interviews or field-notes indicated the significant impacts of metacognitive strategy instruction. All the respondents admitted that they improved their listening awareness through using metacognitive strategies provided that the (i) metacognitive strategies were taught; (ii) they were given enough time to interact with

peers; (iii) sharing interpretations through peer collaboration contributed the students in terms of using planning, monitoring and evaluation.

## **DISCUSSION**

The results of this study revealed that EFL students' use of metacognitive strategies in listening made noteworthy gains in their aural comprehension. It manifests that metacognitive strategy instruction may have influenced the students in becoming aware of the metacognitive strategies in listening and becoming aware of using them to monitor the listening process. As a result of this awareness of metacognitive strategies such as planning, monitoring, and evaluating, it is apparent that metacognitive strategy instruction helped them enhanced their listening performance. This result is found to be in line with Oxford's (2001) and Chen's (2009) results. Oxford noted that having appropriate task knowledge about listening, students can plan, monitor and evaluate what they want to do. This notion is in the same vein with Chen who suggested that the development of students' listening comprehension, greater awareness and control of their listening strategies maybe attributed to the consequence of the intervention.

In addition, the result also goes in congruence with past researchers such as Graham and Macaro (2008), Goh and Taib (2006), Vandergrift (2002, 2003), and Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010). Once students are made aware of successful strategies and discover the learning strategies that suit them best, they might be able to become more effective learners. When students learn how to plan a listening task, how to monitor their listening comprehension and how to evaluate their performance, they take on more responsibility for their learning, which is a pre-requisite for self-directed learning. Self-directed learners actively participate in the process or task completion and have a good plan for dealing with different problems and can monitor their plan which leads to a greater success (Lamb & Reinders, 2006).

The overall result yielded in the pre- and post-tests of the MALQ administration is reported as statistically significant. Progress in MALQ factors such as planning and evaluation, solving-problem, directed attention, mental translation and person knowledge among the students in the present study is congruent with Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari's (2010) and

Bozorgian (2014) results which reported that any improvement of metacognitive awareness in listening seemed to be appertaining to metacognitive strategies such as planning, monitoring, evaluation and problem solving.

However, two MALQ factors have found no significant relationship after the intervention was provided and these are the ‘problem-solving’ and the ‘directed attention’ factors. For the former, it might be caused by the fact that the schemata evoked in the planning and evaluation stage which occurs in the first phase of the pedagogical sequence, was insufficient or not enough. Thus, the prior knowledge might have been unsatisfactory to solve problems that could arise during the development of the pedagogical sequence. For the latter factor, it might be attributed to the fact that the focus of attention got diverted when having trouble understanding words and phrases into the listening input. This cognitive demarcation let them wander mentally and students did not increase their working memory capacity to analyze listening input and thus they could not resume their attention or concentration.

The respondents were provided with MALQ so that they would approach listening input by themselves to develop listening performance as part of the regular classroom activity. The view of self-regulation increases individual awareness of mental processes and characterizes higher order thinking. Self-regulation and higher order thinking are both in the cognitive and affective domains. This awareness is supplemented by Goh’s (2000) study where she underscored that by growing the listeners’ knowledge of metacognitive strategies, students will be more autonomous in solving their listening problems and that they would not immediately give up the listening task anymore.

In addition, the results of this study support those of Goh and Taib (2006) and Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) who also noted that the pedagogical cycle can be effective for improving the listening comprehension of less-skilled listeners; however, the present study explored group of students who are majoring English, thus, they can be considered advanced learners of the language. It appears then that the impact on the use of pedagogical cycle is evident across a range of abilities and contexts. Moreover, Goh (2008) and Vandergrift and Tafaghodtari (2010) exposed their students to a variety of texts whereas, the present study used only short informative video items throughout the study.

Implementing metacognitive strategies through pedagogical cycle such as (i) planning and predicting stage; (ii) First verification stage; (iii) collaboration with a peer; (iv) second verification stage, and (v) reflection stage facilitates metacognitive knowledge among students as reported at Vandergrift et al.'s (2006) study. These sequential stages help students to manage and control their learning at their own control and pace and build knowledge based on what they have already learnt.

## **CONCLUSION**

While this study focused on comprehension of short informative video items and examined 29 EFL learners, the results provide some additional empirical support for the notion that metacognitive instruction using a pedagogical cycle of planning, monitoring, and evaluating can be useful for helping EFL learners to enhance their listening comprehension skill. This study replicates many studies in the field which manifest that teachers investigate their students' listening issues and problems prior to teaching listening strategies and also teachers must be trained in listening strategies and how to approach listening activities in the classroom. This particular way will provide students with appropriate materials which are in relation to students' learning needs. Furthermore, it is evident that three factors of metacognitive listening strategy awareness i.e. 'planning and evaluation' 'mental translation' 'person knowledge' were found to play a significant role in improving listening comprehension skill of EFL learners.

## **PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATION**

The implication of this study for teachers is that metacognitive instruction appears to offer a practical pedagogical approach that can be of beneficial for skills development in listening lessons and activities; thus, indicating the necessity of EFL teachers to pay more attention to a strategic approach to the listening task in the classroom.

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## **Sojourning of Foreign Students in The Philippines In Their Level of Intercultural Communicative Competence as EFL Learners**

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### **Abstract**

One of the fathers of the 20th-century linguistics, Saussure's (1916) powerful question, "But what does a language look like, what is it like at a particular moment?", espouses the thought that language changes from time to time which further provokes questions such as What is language's nature today? How was it yesterday? Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) is an inevitable

demand for global competitiveness especially in the field of Medical education which recognizes the vital role of schools in societal development. This study investigated the sojourning of foreign students in the Philippines in its quest for intercultural communicative competence. It made use of quantitative method. Three instruments were used in assessing the foreign students' Intercultural Communicative Competence. First, is the Intercultural Communicative Competence Scale by Portalla and Chen (2010) and the ICC in Classroom arranged by the authors. The first ICC instrument extracted the factors namely: behavior flexibility, interaction relaxation, interactant respect, message skills, identity maintenance and interaction management. The third instrument used was the ICC scale prepared by the author on ICC in Classroom. To validate their claims, the native of the host culture rated them as well, using the same instrument modified to fit the respondents. Five-point Likert Scale was used to assess the foreign students' level of Intercultural Communicative Competence who are Indians, Ghanaians, Zimbabwean, Nepalese, Nigerian and Malaysian who were enrolled in the College of Medicine, Cagayan State University, Philippines. With these concerns, curriculum revisit, policy analysis, faculty development and screening, functional foreign students' affairs office that cater to the needs of a particular student and a strong leadership were indorsed. Finally, Specific intervention program is primarily recommended.

*Key words: intercultural communicative competence, sojourning, message skills, interaction management, behavioural flexibility, identity management, relationship cultivation*

## **INTRODUCTION**

One of the fathers of the 20th-century linguistics, Saussure's (1916) powerful question, "But what does a language look like, what is it like at a particular moment?", espouses the thought that language changes from time to time which further provokes questions such as What is language's nature today? How was it yesterday?

To highlight, academic institutions are pretty much concerned with this endeavor because it has embraced the fact that though shelter is the first learning arena, most people spend more of their time in school which is considered their second home. This points the fact that since students spend more time in school than in their home, they are exposed to different types of people with different kinds of beliefs. The challenge is how well they communicate to achieve understanding and acceptance.

Many believe that in order for a person to achieve success, one must have a good background in education and the attitude of a survivor. A great education begins with the desire to learn (Osterberg,

2004). Education is important to everybody. It gives knowledge about the world, strengthens people in different aspects in life, gives perspectives in life and helps build opinions and have points of view in everything about life. Education is a responsibility. The progress of the education depends on great extent on the productive capacity of its people. The productive efforts of its people are inherent to the individual development of the potentials. Education is tasked with the people's initiative to formation and transformation. To accomplish this task and to provide a strong foundation for intercultural communicative competence and unity, education must assume the difficult responsibility of shaping the stakeholders - students. This must be taken into account as a primary goal of our second home – SCHOOL which is one social agency created by the society to educate its members. It has become the primary educative agency created of society making it major and indispensable social institution in the world. All countries, irrespective of size, political ideology, and development status, recognize the vital role of schools in societal development.

Cagayan State University (CSU) as a higher education institution partakes in these noble purposes of education. It caters to diverse people both domestically and internationally. For four years of operation, however, no study in the University has focused on the sojourning experiences of these international students. Informal interviews with these foreign students reveal that just like any new student in a university, they also had a share of intercultural barriers in communication, culture shock, adjustments, and strategies for survival as they hurdle the challenges of their new environment. The transfer as well as persistence of these students to stay in the University may reveal numerous issues in Sociolinguistics one of which is Intercultural Communicative Competence. This may influence the success of the foreign students in their academic life, personal concerns and social encounter as they sojourn as student- migrants in the country.

It is at this juncture that the researcher seeks to unravel the intercultural experiences of the foreign students in their sojourn. It is a given fact that these students practice their own culture as a framework and standard for their communication with their teachers, students, administrators and the community members they have to deal with. Their success or failure as students is basically dependent on their level of intercultural communicative competence and how well they get to adapt or cope with the challenges they have to address or otherwise it may result to what is unexpected.

Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC), according to Deardorff (2009) is the interaction of individuals, and not systems such as corporate or national cultures. Yet, every interpersonal encounter takes place within a framework that is defined by the predispositions and norms present in the given system. If the system framework includes hierarchical relationships, for example, or demands assimilation in accordance with certain preconceptions of identity, or gives rise

to conflicts relating to distribution or recognition, then even the interaction of interculturally adept actors can be quite difficult; it can even devolve into expressions of collective violence.

Deardorff (2009) further noted that in a culturally diverse or even conflict-ridden environment, influencing the said framework is an issue for educational management (in an academic setting) or is a general sociopolitical responsibility; in no way, however, is it the object of intercultural competence. Yet it must be noted that educational policies give rise to a framework conducive to intercultural competence when they lead to notions of identity and a basic understanding of social equality that include all members of the group and cease promulgating the idea of a culturally homogenous group. Ultimately, this framework exists when those actors involved in intercultural situations meet—or can meet— at “eye level”.

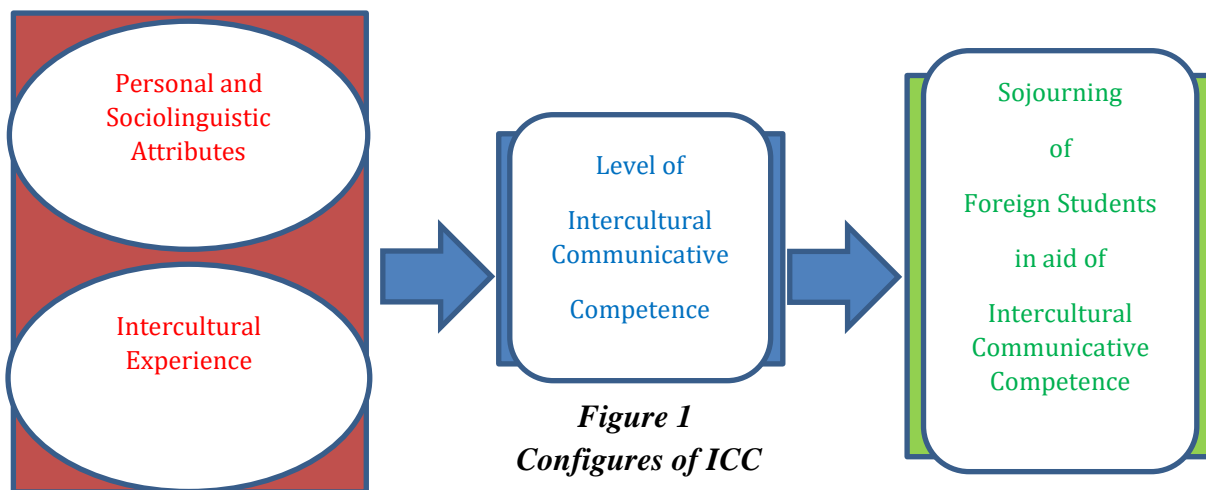
### ***Beliefs on Culture, Language and Communication***

Several basic concepts relating to culture, communication and language will show how communication issues affect human behaviour in general and school life in particular.

Everything that occurs within a school, and especially in the classroom, involves communication, the act of sharing information. Communication involves the use of oral or written verbal symbols. On other occasions, communication involves various types of nonverbal symbols, including body language.

Taylor (1987) propels that communication is the medium for instruction, assessment, interpersonal relationships, group interactions, parent and community relations and counselling. Most behaviour problems in schools, and their resolutions, involve some type of communication. In sum, communication permeates education. Communication is culture bound. The way an individual communicates emanates from his or her culture. Of course, a person may know more than one culture or may be competent in a combination of cultures. Nonetheless, one basic truth prevails: communication is a product of culture.

Students with different cultural norms are at risk if teachers have little knowledge, sensitivity or appreciation of the diversity in communication styles. Such teachers may perceive differences as problems and respond to students' diversify with negative attitudes, low expectations and culturally inappropriate teaching and assessment procedures. Culturally and communicatively diverse students, in turn, may respond with low self-concepts and low academic achievement to a school climate they perceive as hostile. The result is reflected in these students' excessive placements in special education, reduced placements in talented and gifted programs and high suspension rates - or worst, alarming drop-out rates.



*Configures of ICC* points out most of the factors to be used in measuring the intercultural communicative competence of the foreign students.

Factors affecting the ability of individuals to be “intercultural competent communicators” have been studied by various scholars among whom there are lots of similarities. For example, Watanabe et.al (2007) stated in their Technical Report on Understanding and Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence: A Foreign Language Program Evaluation Project that Ruben underlined seven elements regarding behaviour of an individual that will support effectiveness of intercultural communication as; display of respect, interaction posture, orientation to knowledge, empathy, role behaviours, interaction management and tolerance of ambiguity. Chen (1988) has also stated four main dimensions for ICC as; personal attributes, communication skills, psychological adaptation and cultural awareness. These four basic dimensions is divided into various subcomponents to ease the evaluation of competent levels of communicators such as; knowing one selves, being capable of demonstrating both verbal and non-verbal behaviours such as message skills, flexibility, interaction management and social skills, being able to deal with the stress of a climate to a new environment and understanding values, customs, norms and social systems of different culture (Chen, 1988).

In another study, Vuckovic (2008) has listed the factors affecting the ICC ability of individuals as culture, perceptions, roles and identities, communication styles and personality. Majority of people consider learning “native language of counterparts”, as the first step of successful communication among culturally different people. However, knowing a foreign language is not enough for individuals or groups to communicate with different cultures, they should also know the silent language of communication such as colors, distance, perception, mimics, gestures and even kinetics (Daniels et al, 2004). When cultures are communicating it is not expected that receiver is subject to the same social values and cultural variables with the sender (Beamer, 1992) and beside the verbal and nonverbal

factors of communication, the cultural awareness become vital for a mutual understanding. ICC via face to face or not is a very critical point of the socializing process in international businesses. Gerritsen and Verckens (2006) completed a study to evaluate the socialization process among culturally different students who speak the same language. They chose the e-mail as means of communication and matched the students in two and let them fill questionnaire that analyses the rituals, symbols and values in their own culture. Each student pair then send their answer to each other, finds out differences and write a report about these differences. The study was aiming to develop the intercultural awareness and let them learn to talk about the differences and to cooperate with someone from another culture among students toward different cultures. The feedback from the students clearly identify that these kinds of studies can be a part of any education system to prepare students for the real intercultural business environment.

As illustrated in figure 1, all the independent variables have both individual and cumulative direct effect on the ICC of a person and an indirect effect on the success within the international academic environment. Without a question, each component of ICC which is listed has various effects on the “strength and level of ICC”, hence the success of students in international academic environment which stresses not only their weaknesses but also their strengths.

Intercultural effectiveness and intercultural communication competence are often used indistinctly by scholars, which not only reflects the problem of conceptual ambiguity, but also causes confusion in research (Hammer, Gudykunst, & Wiseman, 1978; Ruben 1976; Wiseman 2003 ). In order to avoid the problems of ambiguity and confusion, Chen and Starosta (1996) argued that intercultural effectiveness should only refer to “intercultural adroitness” or the behavioural aspect of intercultural communication competence. In other words, intercultural effectiveness corresponds to communication skills, including both verbal and nonverbal behaviours, which enable individuals to attain their communication goals in intercultural interaction through an appropriate and effective performance.

Scholars have identified various components to account for interculturally effective behaviours, which can be organized into five categories: message skills, interaction management, behavioural flexibility, identity management, and relationship cultivation (Chen, 1989, 2005; Martin & Hammer, 1989; Ruben, 1977; Spitzberg & Changnon, 2009).

The determination of investigating their ICC does not rely solely to spot the weaknesses but also to highlight their strengths. Measuring their ICC extent objectify how they sustain or gain their ICC qualities.

Chen (1990) recommended that Intercultural communication studies should not be occupied with investigating and analyzing communicative problems, difficulties or breakdowns resulted from cultural differences. It is as important to study how people tackle problems, overcome difficulties and repair breakdowns. While researches on sociolinguistic and discourse competencies and the related cultural differences can help explain much of the failure and misunderstanding in intercultural communication, researches on many cases of communication in which cross-cultural understanding is achieved in spite of seemingly formidable difficulties and problems involved must also be studied.

While Chen (1990) commended the idea that an ICC investigation should deal with how people tackle problems, overcome difficulties and repair breakdowns, Deardorff (2009) suggested the integration of intercultural communicative competence to education as well as exploring intercultural competent teaching in social sciences classrooms. While Chen (1990) and Deardorff (2009) pushed these recommendations, Aduli (2011), in her study, provided an in-depth understanding of the challenges international medical students encounter, and the factors that influence their progression through the medical training program. Although the majority of international medical students pursue their academic goals with strong determination, academics and host institutions still need to play a major role in supporting them with the management of challenges in their cultural academic adaptations. It is important that lecturers review their pedagogical practices and host institutions need to develop programs that aim to mutually benefit lecturers, domestic students and the international students. Finally, in order to enhance integration and academic progression amongst international medical students, faculty needs to provide both academic and moral support to their international medical students at three major intervention points, namely point of entry (pre-sojourn), midway (mid-sojourn) through the course and at the end of the course (post-sojourn).

The Cagayan State University in its mantra “Educating for the Best” objectifies quality education. There are avenues that need to be revisited which means greater responsibility for greater respect of what the University has earned over the years of continuing to upgrade and institutionalized international market of graduates.

### **COMPONENTS OF THE INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE (ICC) SCALE BY PORTALLA AND CHEN (2010)**

There are six (6) specific tenets of Intercultural Communicative Competence according to Portalla and Chen (2010). These are message skills, interaction management, behavioural flexibility, identity management, and relationship cultivation (interaction relaxation and interactant respect).

#### ***Behavioural Flexibility***

Behavioural flexibility refers to the ability to observe an interaction, distinguish and make use of the appropriate behaviors, and adapt to the specific situational context (Bochner & Kelly, 1974). Duran (1983) indicated that while individuals must appropriately choose their behaviors, they must also adjust their goals within that interaction to better strategize and adapt to the situation. Therefore, individuals with the ability of behavioural flexibility are “accurate and adaptable when attending to information, and are able to perform different behavioural strategies in order to achieve communication goals” (Chen & Starosta, 1996, p. 368). Behavioural flexibility was considered to be an important element of intercultural effectiveness (Imahori & Lanigan, 1989; Martin & Hammer, 1989; Ruben, 1977; Wiseman, 2003). According to Chen (2007), behaviourally flexible persons can integrate various communication demands in different contexts. Behavioural flexibility can be accomplished by the use of verbal intimacy cues, face saving devices, and the choices of relational messages in interaction (Wiemann, 1977).

In order to be adaptable when combining the different attitudes, values, and beliefs of a culture together with an infinite number of possible communication interactions, individuals must be aware of their own physical and social environment (Spitzberg & Cupach, 1984). Moreover, in addition to understanding one’s own familiar surroundings as a basis for comparison, “the development of behavioural flexibility is dependent on the cognitive awareness of cultural variations and the affective ability in self-monitoring” (Chen, 2007, p. 105).

As Collier (1989) indicated, intercultural communication competence is demonstrated as an individual’s ability to effectively and appropriately advance the other’s cultural identity, which is not only avowed and confirmed by each individual, but also reiterates the many different identities that are salient within the interaction. Ting-Toomey (2005) further pointed out that the management of cultural identities is a form of facework which competent intercultural communicators must be able to reconcile.

### ***Message Skills***

Message skills refer to the ability to use the language of a culture other than one’s own, and in doing so the individual must “exercise one’s counterpart’s verbal and nonverbal behaviors” (Chen, 2007, p. 102). According to Rubin (1982), those verbal and nonverbal behaviors of message skills comprise four components: (1) communication codes—the appropriate use of words, pronunciation, grammar, and nonverbal signals as well as the ability to listen; (2) oral message evaluation—the ability to identify main ideas, distinguish fact from opinions, differentiate informative and persuasive messages, and take notice when another does not understand the message; (3) basic



speech communication skills — the ability to express ideas clearly and concisely, defend a point of view, organize messages so they can be understood, effectively ask and answer questions, give concise directions, and summarize messages; and (4) human relations—the ability to describe another’s point of view, explain differences in opinion, express feelings to others, and perform social rituals.

Message skills are dictated by the process of self-disclosure (Bochner & Kelly, 1974; Duran, 1983; Wheelless & Grotz, 1976), which “must be regulated by the principle of appropriateness in order to reach a successful outcome” (Chen, 2007, p. 102). Therefore, the self-disclosure must demonstrate the ability to use the expected messages and the understanding of the expectation for acceptable behaviors in intercultural interaction (Wiseman, 2003). In other words, what makes behaviors acceptable or effective will fluctuate depending on the specific cultural constraints and situations.

### ***Relationship Cultivation***

Relationship cultivation refers to “the ability to establish a certain degree of relationship with one’s partner in order to satisfy each other’s needs and reach a positive outcome of interaction” (Chen, 2007, p. 106). Hammer, Gudykunst, and Wiseman (1978) found that the ability to establish an interpersonal relationship is vital in the nourishment of intercultural effectiveness. An individual can take on or play different roles in various situations. Although individuals may vary in the amount of effort they contribute toward these situations, relational roles taken on by individuals can build a supportive environment in groups where all members can come together (Ruben, 1976). Ruben also found that through the use of nonverbal and verbal behavior the group can achieve such positive outcomes as conflict resolution, group consensus, and the creation of a group dynamic.

According to Imahori and Cupach (2005), one of the indispensable components of relational competence is the recognition of the reciprocal and interdependent nature of interaction. This indicates that relationship cultivation is other oriented and, to be competent in the ability to attain goals, individuals must effectively collaborate with others (Bochner & Kelly, 1974). The intended goals of the other take precedence when individuals engage in a communication interaction that is both appropriate and effective.

### ***Identity Management***

An individual’s identity is shaped and influenced largely in the process of interaction by internalizing one’s experiences (Wood, 2008). Whether this communication is with a family member, peer, or random member of society, each interactant plays a role in defining the individual’s identity. Intercultural communication poses additional complexity in the management of an individual’s identity because each person has a significant and separate cultural identity that needs to be negotiated,

maintained, and supported by both individuals involved. In other words, identity management allows an individual to maintain their counterpart's identity, which is formed through the verbal and nonverbal interaction. Identity management as well was identified as an important element of communicating effectively in intercultural context (Chen, 2007; Collier, 2005; Kim, 2009; Martin, 1993).

### ***Interaction Management***

Interaction management is “displayed through taking turns in discussion, and initiating and terminating interaction based on an accurate assessment of the needs and desires of others” (Ruben & Kealey, 1979, p. 18). Interaction management has been found to be an important element of intercultural communication competence (Koester & Olebe, 1988; Martin & Hammer, 1989; Ruben, 1976). Interaction management is primarily concerned with the procedural aspects that sustain an interaction, and competency is directly related to an individual's ability to handle those procedural aspects (Wiemann, 1977). In addition to initiating and terminating interaction, Spitzberg (1997) pointed out that there should be a smooth exchange of speaking turns, and “the more a person actually knows how to perform the mannerisms and behavioural routines in a cultural milieu, the more knowledgeable this person is likely to be in communicating generally with others in this culture” (p. 384).

The cultivation of interaction management skills is dependent on the continuous concern for the interests and orientations of others within an interaction (Chen, 2009). Five components of interaction management confined by culturally sanctioned rules have been outlined by Wiemann (1977): “(1) interruptions of the speaker are not permitted; (2) one person talks at a time; (3) speaker turns must interchange; (4) frequent and lengthy pauses should be avoided; and (5) an interactant must be perceived as devoting full attention to the encounter” (p. 199). Moreover, genuine responsiveness and attentiveness, as well as perceptiveness, play a crucial role in showing involvement and commitment to the other person in the process of interaction management (Cegala, Savage, Brunner, & Conrad, 1982).

ICC competence has been conceptualized in a variety of ways. Early in the history of scholarship on the construct, the conceptualizations varied according to the researcher's theoretical orientation or specific sample being studied. Some of these conceptualizations were labeled as cross-cultural adjustment, cross-cultural adaptation, intercultural understanding, overseas success, personal growth/adjustment, cross-cultural effectiveness, and satisfaction with overseas experience (see, for example, Duran, 1983; Deardorff, 1990; Portalla and Chen, 2010).

In the last two decades, there has been a growing consensus on a conceptualization of ICC competence. As a reflection of this consensus and for this purposes, ICC competence involves the knowledge, motivation, and skills to interact effectively and appropriately with members of different cultures.

## **METHODOLOGY**

This study described the foreign students' Intercultural Communicative Competence as perceived by themselves, their teachers and classmates, and their administrators. These foreign students are enrolled in Cagayan State University, College of Medicine, Philippines.

Two instruments were used in assessing thee foreign students' Intercultural Communicative Competence. First, is the Intercultural Communicative Competence Scale by Portalla and Chen (2010); and the ICC in Classroom prepared by the researcher. The first ICC instrument extracted the factors namely: *Behavioural Flexibility, Interaction Relaxation, Interactant Respect, Message Skills, Identity Maintenance and Interaction Management*. The second instrument was used to examine the development of the respondents' intercultural communicative competence based on their own perceptions. The same scales were used to evaluate the native host in areas stipulated earlier.

The second instrument used was the ICC scale prepared by the researcher on ICC in Classroom. To triangulate their claims, the native of the host culture rated them as well using the same instrument modified to fit the respondents.

Likert Scale was used to measure their level of ICC.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS**

### **Level of Intercultural Communicative Competence of the Respondents**

#### **Along Different Dimensions**

The Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) of the respondents was assessed along different dimensions such as behavioural flexibility, interaction relaxation, interactant respect, message skills, identity maintenance, and interaction management.

#### **Along Behavioural Flexibility**

Table 1 reveals the ICC level of the respondents along behavioural flexibility.

Record shows that the participants are highly competent in being one with self when interacting with other people with a mean of 3.94 while all other items show that respondents are on their average competence with a mean of 3.24, 3.15, and 2.62.

The findings mean that the foreign students' perception of themselves is that they could act with no pretensions when interacting with other people.

**Table 1. Level of Intercultural Communicative Competence of the respondents along behavioural flexibility.**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Weighted Mean</b>	<b>Description</b>
I am afraid to express myself when interacting with people from different cultures.	2.62	Average Competence
I am not always the person I appear to be when interacting with people from different	3.15	Average Competence
I often act like a very different person when interacting with people from different	3.24	Average Competence
I find the best way to act is to be myself when interacting with people from different	3.94	High Competence
<b>Category Mean</b>	<b>3.61</b>	<b>High Competence</b>

#### **Along Interaction Relaxation**

Table 2 exposes the level of Intercultural Communicative Competence of the respondents along interaction relaxation.

The participants are very highly competent in finding it easy to talk to different cultures with a mean of 4.26 and for the rest of the items they are highly competence. This result is associated with their confidence as a speaker during the communication situation. Likewise, this could be a manifestation of their perception as gregarious.

**Table 2. Level of Intercultural Communicative Competence of the respondents along interaction relaxation.**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Weighted Mean</b>	<b>Description</b>
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I find it is easy to talk with people from different cultures.	4.26	Very High Competence
I find it is easy to get along with people from different cultures.	4.12	High Competence
I always know how to initiate a conversation when interacting with people from different	3.94	High Competence
I feel relaxed when interacting with people from different cultures.	4.06	High Competence
I find it is easy to identify with my culturally different counterparts during our interaction.	3.79	High Competence
<b>Category Mean</b>	<b>4.03</b>	<b>High Competence</b>

### **Along Interactant Respect**

Table 3 showcases the ICC level of the respondents along interactant respect.

Along this line, the participants are very highly competent in showing respect for their culturally different counterparts during their interaction with a mean of 4.29. They also perceive that they are highly competent as they establish eye contact during interaction with a mean of 3.97 which is necessary in effective communication (Emery, et.al. 2000) as well as they show respect for their culturally different counterparts during the interaction with a mean of 3.94. This makes the foreign respondents highly competent along interactant respect

**Table 3. Level of Intercultural Communicative Competence of the respondents along interactant respect.**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Weighted Mean</b>	<b>Description</b>
I use appropriate eye contact when interacting with people from different cultures.	3.97	High Competence
I always show respect for my culturally different counterparts during our interaction.	4.29	Very High Competence
I always show respect for the opinions of my culturally different counterparts during our interaction.	3.94	High Competence

<b>Category Mean</b>	<b>4.07</b>	<b>High Competence</b>
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### Along Message Skills

Message is the meat of communication. The interaction spontaneity is sustained when there is feedback between and among interlocutors. However, problems may arise when the meaning of the message is distorted due to syntax.

In message skills, the foreign student-respondents have problems with grammar when interacting with people from different cultures as reflected by the weighted mean of 2.5. For the rest of the items, they were assessed to have average competence.

The aspects of message skills showed interrelatedness in the result of their communicative competence specifically along writing an application letter and dictation.

In writing the application letter, errors in grammar were evident while in dictation, errors on deletions were revealed.

**Table 4. Level of Intercultural Communicative Competence of the respondents along message skills.**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Weighted Mean</b>	<b>Description</b>
I have problems with grammar when interacting with people from different cultures.	2.5	Low Competence
I have problems distinguishing between informative and persuasive messages when	2.97	Average Competence
I often miss parts of what is going on when interacting with people from different cultures.	3.24	Average Competence
<b>Category Mean</b>	<b>2.9</b>	<b>Average Competence</b>

### Along Identity Maintenance

Table 5 bares the level of ICC of the respondents along their identity maintenance.

The participants display high competence in finding it easy to identify with their culturally different counterparts during their interaction with a mean of 3.79 and average competence on items *I find it is difficult to feel my culturally different counterparts are similar to me* with a mean of 3.09 and

*I always feel a sense of distance with my culturally different counterparts during our interaction with a mean of 3.03.*

**Table 5. Level of Intercultural Communicative Competence of the respondents along identity maintenance.**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Weighted Mean</b>	<b>Description</b>
I find it is difficult to feel my culturally different counterparts are similar to me.	3.09	Average Competence
I always feel a sense of distance with my culturally different counterparts during our interaction	3.03	Average Competence
I find it is easy to identify with my culturally different counterparts during our interaction.	3.79	High Competence
<b>Category Mean</b>	<b>3.3</b>	<b>Average Competence</b>

**Along Interaction Management**

Table 6 reveals the respondents' level of ICC along their interaction management. The respondents were found to be highly competent in the item *I am able to express my ideas clearly when interacting with people from different cultures* with a mean of 4.09 and only average with a mean of 3.71 in the item *I am able to answer questions effectively when interacting with people from different*.

**Table 7. Level of Intercultural Communicative Competence of the respondents along interaction management.**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Weighted Mean</b>	<b>Description</b>
I am able to express my ideas clearly when interacting with people from different cultures.	4.09	High Competence
I am able to answer questions effectively when interacting with people from different	3.71	Average Competence

<b>Category Mean</b>	<b>3.9</b>	<b>High Competence</b>
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Table 8 summarizes the foreign student-respondents' level of Intercultural Communicative Competence along the different dimensions.

**Table 8. Summary of the Intercultural Communicative Competence of the respondents using ICC Scale by Portalla and Chen (2010).**

<b>Dimensions</b>	<b>Weighted Mean</b>	<b>Description</b>
Behavioural Flexibility	3.61	High Competence
Interaction Relaxation	4.03	High Competence
Interactant Respect	4.07	High Competence
Message Skills	2.9	Average Competence
Identity Maintenance	3.3	Average Competence
Interaction Management	3.9	High Competence
<b><i>Overall Weighted Mean</i></b>	<b><i>3.63</i></b>	<b><i>High Competence</i></b>

Legend:

- 1.00 – 1.79 Very Low Adaptability
- 1.80 – 2.59 Low Adaptability
- 2.60 – 3.39 Average Adaptability
- 3.40 – 4.19 High Adaptability
- 4.20 – 5.00 Very High adaptability

Table 14 shows the competence of the participants in Classrooms. The “Low” competence of the participants reflects on their self - assessment of how they deal with their classmates and professors.

Ward, (2001) revealed in her study on the Impact of International Student on Domestic Students and Host Institutions along impact in interactions between international and domestic students that the incidence of intercultural interactions is low, greater contact is expected and desired by international students. However, despite the finding that domestic students hold relatively favorable perceptions of int'l students, most investigations have concluded that domestic students are largely



uninterested in initiating contact with their international peers. Significant intercultural interaction is unlikely to occur spontaneously to any large extent, and is almost certain that interventionist strategies would need to be introduced to promote more and better intercultural activities.

**Table 14. Level of ICC Using ICC in Classroom Questionnaire for foreign student respondents**

<b>Indicators</b>	<b>Weighted Mean</b>	<b>Description</b>
My ability to adapt to Filipinos helps me in communicating myself in the classroom such as recitation, written outputs and the like.	2.09	Low Competence
My awareness about Filipino and other cultures benefits me to interact appropriately and effectively with teachers and classmates in class.	2.53	Low Competence
My knowledge about Filipinos helps me increase my understanding of my teachers and classmates in the classroom.	2.47	Low Competence
My behaviour influences my interpersonal relationship with teachers and classmates.	2.62	Low Competence
My ability to communicate clearly and effectively aids me to be adaptive, flexible and supportive with classmates and teachers.	2.38	Low Competence
My knowledge of the verbal and nonverbal communication assists me to react appropriately and effectively in classroom discussions.	2.32	Low Competence
My knowledge of cultural differences broadens my perspectives towards the concepts discussed in the class.	2.24	Low Competence
My ability to become tolerant of cultural differences allows me to respect divergent views in the classroom	2.44	Low Competence
My knowledge of the Filipino language enables me to collaborate with classmates during group work.	2.44	Low Competence

My knowledge of the barriers to effective communication reduces my anxiety and conflict with my teachers and classmates.	2.32	Low Competence
<b>Overall Weighted Mean</b>	<b>2.38</b>	<b>Low Competence</b>

**Table 15. Level of ICC of the respondents as perceived by the native host.**

<b>Respondent Number</b>	<b>ICC</b>	<b>YOGA</b>	<b>ICC in Classroom</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Level</b>
1	2.2	2.19	2.16	<b>2.16</b>	Low Competence
2	2.34	2.13	2.23	<b>2.31</b>	Low Competence
3	2.17	2.29	2.33	<b>2.32</b>	Low Competence
4	2.22	2.18	2.18	<b>2.24</b>	Low Competence
5	2.12	2.35	2.44	<b>2.31</b>	Low Competence
6	2.2	2.35	2.14	<b>2.23</b>	Low Competence
7	2.4	2.26	2.32	<b>2.36</b>	Low Competence
8	2.54	2.16	2.4	<b>2.39</b>	Low Competence
9	2.14	2.22	2.14	<b>2.21</b>	Low Competence
10	2.41	2.15	2.23	<b>2.33</b>	Low Competence
11	2.26	2.42	2.38	<b>2.38</b>	Low Competence

12	2.24	2.27	2.12	<b>2.31</b>	Low Competence
13	2.32	2.3	2.26	<b>2.35</b>	Low Competence
14	2.24	2.28	2.28	<b>2.32</b>	Low Competence
15	2.19	2.44	2.22	<b>2.29</b>	Low Competence
16	2.32	2.22	2.44	<b>2.34</b>	Low Competence
17	2.21	2.13	2.32	<b>2.22</b>	Low Competence
18	2.37	2.09	2.29	<b>2.25</b>	Low Competence
19	2.35	2.53	2.44	<b>2.37</b>	Low Competence
20	2.47	2.28	2.25	<b>2.34</b>	Low Competence
21	2.28	2.42	2.62	<b>2.41</b>	Low Competence
22	2.38	2.16	2.18	<b>2.20</b>	Low Competence
23	2.32	2.15	2.24	<b>2.21</b>	Low Competence
24	2.44	2.38	2.37	<b>2.40</b>	Low Competence
25	2.44	2.21	2.27	<b>2.29</b>	Low Competence
26	2.21	2.12	2.44	<b>2.29</b>	Low Competence
27	2.32	2.42	2.33	<b>2.35</b>	Low Competence

28	2.19	2.2	2.18	<b>2.20</b>	Low Competence
29	2.33	2.58	2.43	<b>2.45</b>	Low Competence
30	2.47	2.24	2.2	<b>2.31</b>	Low Competence
31	2.12	2.62	2.21	<b>2.37</b>	Low Competence
32	2.42	2.34	2.18	<b>2.26</b>	Low Competence
33	2.32	2.18	2.23	<b>2.32</b>	Low Competence
34	2.24	2.2	2.29	<b>2.30</b>	Low Competence
35	2.14	2.4	2..0	<b>2.14</b>	Low Competence
<b>Weighted Mean</b>	<b>2.30</b>	<b>2.28</b>	<b>2.27</b>	<b>2.29</b>	<b>Low Competence</b>

Table 15 bares the level of ICC of the respondents as perceived by the native host.

Data on the table proved that how foreign students perceive themselves are totally the opposite of how others perceive them. Fantini (2000) in his *Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence: A YOGA Form* forecasted that usually the responses of the native host are different from the evaluatee (foreign students in particular in this study). Moreover, the Johari Window (1950) tells of four regions: open self, blind self, hidden self, and unknown self. This validates the findings where one of the quadrants can be a solid basis.

Luft and Ingham (1950) thematized a model for mapping personality awareness where one of the quadrants/ windows states the Blind area, blind self or blindspot for which what is unknown by the person about him/herself but which others know. In this case, findings on the Communicative Adaptability and Intercultural Communicative Competence scales where the native host evaluated the foreign students showed consistent low level of competences. Presumably, the foreign students got low competences due to the fact that they were not given the chance to have a fulfilling interaction inside the class.

As proven by the study of Ward (2001) that usually the domestic students do not show intentions of intercultural interactions to the foreign students and that the concentration of the interactions in the classroom lies solely on the pedagogical issues.

In this case the teaching and learning of the teachers and students inside the classroom are compromised in that teachers are encouraged and challenged to create new perspectives in teaching so as to address intercultural interaction between and among students and teachers in class. Knight (2000) proved the conclusion of Burke (1990) that the presence of international students in classes or at an institution rarely prompts faculty members to internationalize what they teach or results in (domestic students becoming internationally educated in a serious way, overall there appears to be a low level of interest and activity by faculty members to internationalize the curriculum and the teaching/ learning process. Developing Intercultural Awareness program professed by Prapinwong (2018) on learners said future teachers will make a profound impact on children's lives therefore it is indispensable and recommendable that these students must have an in-depth and extensive preparation. It is considered crucial to prepare the new generations of teachers for life to be driving forces, bringing about the development of intercultural understanding and peace. Likewise, the community must expand through which consideration of the foreign students as part of it must be addressed. There may be no studies identified that explicitly examine the impact of international students on the larger community however, there is a research that can provide some insights into the relationship between international students and the members of the host culture.

The claims of the native host as regards the foreign students' ICC level as perceived by them are indicative of the thought that every individual have their own way to express themselves. Similar to the findings of Fantini (2000) that usually how the foreign students perceive themselves is the opposite of how other people perceive them.

This also indicates that a strong support must be given to the foreign students to develop their ICC. Deardoff (2006) professed a grounded research-based framework for intercultural competence and discusses the implications of interculturally competent teaching in the classroom and beyond. Given the importance of teachers being interculturally competent in today's diverse classrooms, a number of questions, based on the framework, are presented, which guide teachers in reflecting upon their own teaching practice and the ways in which they integrate aspects of intercultural competence into their classrooms. The paper also provided some examples from the USA of ways in which intercultural competence development is being addressed in teacher training. Aduli (2011), in her study, provided an indepth understanding of the challenges international medical students encounter, and the factors that influence their progression through the medical training program.

Although the majority of international medical students pursue their academic goals with strong determination, academics and host institutions still need to play a major role in supporting them with the management of challenges in their cultural academic adaptations. It is important that lecturers review their pedagogical practices and host institutions need to develop programs that aim to mutually benefit lecturers, domestic students and the international students. Finally, in order to enhance integration and academic progression amongst international medical students, faculty needs to provide both academic and moral support to their international medical students.

## **CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The respondents' level of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) revealed that they have high competence on two scales by Portalla and Chen (2010) and Fantini (2000). However, their ICC level in the classroom demonstrated low competence along awareness, attribution, ability, and knowledge which can be an effect of the lack of ICC encounters in classroom situations.

In native hosts responses, it revealed that most of the foreign students need to be developed along intercultural communicative competence.

In the light of the findings of the study, it is concluded that Medicine foreign students at Cagayan State University are interculturally communicative competent as they pursue their academic goals with strong determination and reasonable interaction with themselves and with others. However, crucial at this point, is the native host's perception of them that calls for introspection among stakeholders in the university.

This has important implications to the institution as it still needs to play the role in supporting them with the management of challenges in their cultural academic adaptations and social adaptations with their co-interlocutors. Essentially, faculty and administration need to advance its efforts that aim to mutually benefit the faculty members, domestic/ local students and international students such as the willpower to craft policy in pursuit of globalizing and institutionalizing Intercultural Communicative Competence as an innovation to the Philippine educational system.

Finally, in pursuit of the integration and academic progression among the foreign Medical students, it is imperative to provide them both academic and moral support to until the time they realize their lived experiences and bring to their families and loved-ones what they primarily have longed for which is their diploma.

## **RECOMMENDATIONS**

While it is fruitful to look into how the student-stakeholders successfully survived their challenges in their sojourn, it is more indispensable to look into how the academe could be a part of the solutions by listening and realizing their issues in their sojourn in the Institution. Only when a study such as this is conducted that CSU can contribute fully to the development and maximization of the stakeholders' potentials. Thus, it is exiting to note that training sessions on upholding academic sustainability and engaging senior foreign students to share their experiences can be reassuring, The administration should invite speakers who are foreign graduates/ alumni to share their sojourn and medical practice overseas to know what awaits them in their future medical and healthcare practice. Encourage interaction between and among domestic and foreign students. Include domestic/ local students (host countrymen) to facilitate and bridge the gap to cultural differences in the healthcare and medical system.

In addition, the alumni/ foreign student-graduates must spearhead what is rarely done by the host institution which is how international students settle back to their home countries and learn the ropes of working in their own medical/ healthcare system. Providing support programs on the stage of reverse culture shock in this avenue might help alleviate their concerns and equip them for easy integration/ immersion. Or it may be necessary for the Institution to let the foreign students serve half their clerkship in their home country and come back to the host Institution for reporting. This is to acculturate the foreign students to what awaits them in their own healthcare/ medical system.

Furthermore, an in – depth Training/ Seminar – Workshop on Intercultural Communicative Competence is also strongly advanced.

Foreign students must be exposed to ICC media such as school paper, TV segment, radio segment, webcasting, and CSU campaign for them to be more exposed in activities to hone their ICC skills.

Foreign students should be introduced to occasional formal classes of local dialect to improve students' clinical competence as regards patient management. There must be a policy – making in institutionalizing Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) at Cagayan State University assistance and support of the whole academic community.

It is important to know the teacher's role in the development of a learner. Therefore, it is recommended that faculty members apply intercultural communication methodology in teaching and learning process.

A Manual of Operations for foreign students with the inclusion of admission and retention in the Institution must be crafted integral to the promotion of an atmosphere that is conducive

optimal learning and clear – cut rules and procedures that prescribe expectations and limitations and institutionalization and internationalization of ICC.

An INTERVENTION PROGRAM for foreign students is highly recommended for adoption in the development and sustainability of their ICC.

Finally, a parallel study can be conducted on the extent of Accommodation of the Host Country specifically the Host Institution in support to the International Students.

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