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Foreword

The third issue of Asian EFL Journal's March Edition presents studies in academic writing and reading, code-switching, mother tongue-based education, academic English and teaching strategies.

Writing teachers play a critical role in determining students' successes and failures in their academic endeavors and Hajan, Castillo-Hajan and Marasigan explored the beliefs of teachers about L2 academic writing and whether these beliefs manifest in their instructional practices in dealing with teaching academic writing.

Castillo-Hajan, Hajan and Marasigan's paper looked into the aspect of academic writing by studying the construction of writer identity in persuasive essays of ESL students. It was further pointed out that the use of "self-mention" in persuasive essays constitutes a metalinguistic feature that secures writers' identity.

Reading is one of the macro-skills that should not be ignored in the classroom. Vidal explored the use of language strategy in L2 reading tasks to identify patterns and degree of strategy orchestration.

With much of learning and teaching experience now incorporates technology, Nozaleda and Agorilla examined the holistic experience of individuals who were involved in open learning and distance education. It was found out that online learning platforms still need to improve on standardization of learning modules and learning platforms and in the employment of qualified and trained teachers.

Rosario and Maguddayao explored the understanding of teachers and students toward the use and practice of code-switching in an ESL classroom. It was further proven in the study that code-switching is a viable useful technique in allowing students to clarify and convey more information in any classroom interaction.

The implementation of K-12 program in the Philippines made possible the implementation of the mother tongue-based multilingual education in the early years of education. Berowa and Agbayani's paper is a presentation of suggestions to improve the implementation of this policy.

Mentoring is an impactful strategy to develop students' skills and knowledge and Kohnke and Jarvis investigated the motivations of students in joining university English language mentoring scheme. The study revealed that mentorship had enhanced students' perceptions of their language skills and that it was an avenue to develop their conversational English skills.

Torres and Alieto explored the extent of acceptability of the lexical variances of Philippine English among pre-service basic education teachers and found out that American English is still the preferred model in classroom pedagogy, yet Philippine English is gaining thrust and acceptability in ESL classrooms which is an indication for its establishment as a legitimate variant of the language.

It is assumed that the application of online and offline activities in a class is expected to provide better outcome as compared to the traditional brick-and-mortar class. Idris, Rahman and Masruddin experimented on the use of blended learning in an ESP class in Indonesia. It was found that students improved their understanding and interest in learning English.

Masruddin and Alex Sander's study tried to check the efficacy of pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program in developing students' skills in TEFL. Since the program focused much

on enhancing the teaching skills of pre-service teachers, it was found to be an effective avenue to acquire skills and knowledge in English pedagogy.

Gender sensitivity in language is now being pushed as another language competence as it counteracts gender normativity in linguistics. Clemente and Temporal's study aimed to determine the gender-fair language competence of faculty members in a state university and it was found that respondents understand the use of gender-fair language to avoid any implicit or explicit discriminatory language against genders.

Tonio and Ella examined the attitudes of pre-service teachers in the use of mother tongue as a medium of instruction in the first three grades in the primary school level. It was further noted that the use of mother tongue in the classroom enable teachers to express their thoughts clearly and would make lessons more interesting to students.

In any bilingual community, code-switching is not a foreign phenomenon and Halim explored the reasons for lecturers in switching codes in an Indonesian university. It was found that lecturers see it necessary to switch code, from Indonesian to English since the syntax of the latter is simpler compared to the former.

With writings everywhere, from toilet walls to classroom desks, Bangayan-Manera received motivation to investigate the reasons why students perform graffiti and found that this is the best means to vent out their emotions and thoughts as they find the formal avenue as limiting.

Clara, Komarudin, Ubedilah and Alkhudri's study aimed at understanding financial management in fishermen's household and how English training programs from the government develop better financial decision making and group solidarity.

Understanding figurative language is a pre-requisite for students to pass their literature class. Malamug studied the difficulties encountered by students in dealing with poetry. The researcher also examined the figures of speech that students find difficult to understand and the strategies they believe can develop their learning process.

Ramon S. Medriano, Jr.

Associate Production Editor

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Second Language Academic Writing: A Study of Teachers' Beliefs and Pedagogical Practices in Senior High School

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Abstract

Education practitioners such as teachers play an imperative role in translating learning among students and understanding their belief systems and practices is central in the reshaping of educational policy and instructional practice. This study employed a case study design to explore teachers' beliefs and pedagogical practices in teaching second language (L2) academic writing in the context of senior high school. Two purposively selected teachers who were teaching academic writing courses in a polytechnic school in the Philippines participated in the study. Drawing from semi-structured interviews, the study revealed that the teacher participants held complex belief systems about the nature of writing and the process of teaching academic writing. While the participants shared a variety of beliefs about L2 academic writing, findings from non-participatory classroom observations showed that they tended to adhere strictly to these beliefs when enacting classroom instructions. Moreover, the participants indicated that time, class schedule, class size and school facilities were among the factors that constrained them from translating their beliefs into instructional practices. The study has practical implications to L2 writing pedagogy. Recommendations for future research are also discussed in this paper.

Keywords: Teachers' Beliefs, Pedagogical Practices, Academic Writing, Senior High School

1. Introduction

The increasingly globalized world of the 21st century continues to grow by leaps and bounds and education has to be recalibrated in order to meet the rising needs of the workplace for students who soon would-be professionals. Suwaed (2011) notes that the most crucial role of all if one talks about meeting the demands of the global market today is perhaps that of English teacher for English language is “the language of science, technology and communication” (p.11). In the Philippines, although English language has gained high prestige over the past few years (Global English, 2012), there remains strong controversy regarding the status of Filipino students as second language (L2) learners. According to Lasala (2014), writing skills of Filipino secondary senior students were significantly lower as compared to their oral abilities though both skills were found to be within the bounds of being acceptable. This finding was observed in all four linguistic components of English language such as grammatical, sociolinguistic, discourse, and strategic. In

addition, a more recent study by Pablo and Lasaten (2018) revealed that Filipino Grade 11 Senior High School (SHS) students are experiencing difficulties in all areas in writing academic essays. The preponderance of students' difficulty was attributed to the lack of variety of ideas, lack of connectives, incorrect word usage, poor sentence constructions and lack of citations. Still, Filipino college students are weak in writing and most of them embody negative attitudes towards writing (Hernandez, Amarles & Raymundo, 2017).

The new K to 12 curriculum in the Philippine educational system is espoused to develop students' skills holistically. For English language education, the curriculum framework focuses on the full development of communicative competence and multiliteracies of the students (see K to 12 Curriculum Guide-English, 2013). A number of important principles that constitute effective teaching of language arts and multiliteracies emphasize developing communicative competence and critical literacy, drawing on informational texts and multimedia in order to build academic vocabulary and strong content knowledge, emphasizing writing arguments, explanatory/informative texts and narratives, providing explicit skill instruction in reading and writing (K to 12 Curriculum Guide-English, 2013, p. 4).

It can be argued that writing as one of the macro skills owns a prime spot in the teaching and learning of English language in the Philippines. In fact, at the senior high school level which is the new 2-year addition into the basic education, several writing subjects such as English for Academic and Professional Purposes (EAPP), Reading and Writing, Research in Daily Life, and Practical Research are required of students to complete before they can graduate. Saladino (2009) pointed out that writing in English is crucial in the total growth of literacy education and communicative skills among Filipino learners. More often than not, the ability to write paves the way to student's academic success. In fact, "writing has become a requirement in civic life and in the global community" (Pablo and Lasaten, 2018, p. 47). However, writing in a language that is distinct from one's native tongue can be a challenging task to the many, especially the Filipino learners where English is considered as a second language (Myles, 2002). Writing is a highly complex process because it entails a myriad of skills. Beyond work of cognition, writing is an intricate mental construction requiring "careful thought, discipline and concentration" Grami (2010, p. 9).

Remarkably, teaching writing becomes even more difficult for teachers who are not even writers themselves. According to Griffiths (2008), in a context where there is little immersion to

the target language, the role of the writing teachers is the most challenging one. These said, writing teachers play a critical role in determining students' successes and failures in their academic endeavors. Hence, an exploratory study into what beliefs teachers hold about L2 academic writing and whether these teachers' beliefs are realized through their instructional practices is instrumental in strengthening the teaching of academic writing in the senior high school. The findings of this study hope to bring in useful insights necessary for classroom teachers, education practitioners, and curriculum developers to design informed instructional decisions and sound teaching practices for the continuous improvement of quality education. In addition, the study will enrich existing body of knowledge in the field of second language teaching which education specialists from other contexts may find relevant and useful.

2. Research Objectives

This study explores senior high school teachers' beliefs in teaching L2 academic writing and the extent to which these beliefs are translated into actual teaching practices. The research also attempts to look at factors influencing these ESL teachers in putting their beliefs into classroom practices. Specifically, answers are sought on the following research objectives:

1. determine beliefs senior high school teachers hold about teaching L2 academic writing;
2. assess the extent to which teachers' beliefs correspond to their pedagogical practices; and
3. ascertain factors that constrain the teachers when translating their beliefs into pedagogical practices.

3. Literature Review

3.1. The Concept of Teacher Beliefs

Research into teachers' beliefs in language teaching has been flourishing for the past few decades. However, the notion of belief as a term is still relatively confusing (Savasci-Acikalin, 2009). Pajares (1992) noted that the term belief is one of the most difficult construct to define because it "does not lend itself to empirical investigations (p.308)". Borg (2003) characterizes beliefs as part of "teacher cognition" referring to "the unobservable cognitive dimensions of teaching—what teachers know, believe, and think (p.81)." Beliefs are "complex, inter-related system of often tacitly held theories, values and assumptions that the teacher deems to be true, and which serve as cognitive filters that interpret new experiences and guide the teacher's thoughts

and behavior” (Mohamed, 2006, p.20). In addition, Pajares (1992) pointed out that beliefs are some kind of hidden characteristics that are revealed only through one’s words and actions.

3.2. Teachers’ Beliefs and Classroom Practices in Language Teaching

Teacher beliefs have been steadily found to have a profound impact on instructional decisions (Borg, 1998, 2003; Borg & Phipps, 2007, Farrell and Lim, 2005; Kuzborska, 2011). Breen, Hird, Milton, Oliver, and Thwaite (2001) accentuated that these beliefs are indispensable as they “influence how the teacher orchestrates the interaction between learner, teacher, and subject matter in a particular classroom context with particular resources” (p. 473). In a case study of an experienced and a novice English language teachers, Farrell and Bennis (2013) have shown strong evidence of language teachers holding certain teaching beliefs which are not always realized in the classroom. They indicated that teaching practices of an experienced teacher were more clearly correlated to his beliefs as compared to the novice one. Nurusus, Samad, Rahman, Noordin and Rashid (2015) through a quantitative inquiry support this result noting that years of teaching experience is a factor with strong influence over the beliefs of teaching grammar. In particular, they found out that teachers with less than 7 years of teaching experience put a little importance on feedback giving to students and foster language production.

Suárez Flórez, and Basto Basto (2017) explore the relevance of pre-service teachers’ beliefs about teaching EFL and their potential changes. The results disclosed that most of the pre-service teachers’ beliefs changed once they faced the reality of the classroom teachings. On reflecting language teaching practice in polytechnic schools in Malaysia, Abdullah and Majid (2013) concluded that perception towards students is a primary source which shapes the language teaching practice of the experienced English lecturers. The authors also indicated that this striking finding could be related to the fact that polytechnic students’ language proficiency is low and that teachers need to take extra efforts in order to respond to the needs of such kind of students.

A case study in Hawaii by Yoshihara (2012) reveals some insightful findings about teachers’ beliefs and teaching practices. The study unveiled that, although the participants hold different teaching beliefs, they share one in common, that is, meeting students’ demands and needs. These teachers’ beliefs were found to have been shaped by their life experiences including class status, learning experiences, teaching experiences, and mentors. Khonamri and Salimi’s (2010) investigation on the interplay between EFL high school teachers' beliefs and their instructional

practices regarding reading strategies in Iran pointed out that teachers recognized the significant role reading strategies play in reading comprehension and that it is essential to teach reading strategies in reading classes. In addition, Farrel and Yang (2017) by exploring one female English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teacher in the context of teaching speaking have witnessed convergence of beliefs and classroom practices. Like what previous studies have shown, however, occasions where teaching beliefs diverge with practices were also discovered. Reasons for the occurrence of divergence were attributed to the programme prospects, the need to sustain the instructional flow of the class, and the novice teacher's insufficiency of teaching experiences in an EAP programme.

3.3. Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices in L2 Academic Writing

Studies inquiring teachers' beliefs in various fields of applied linguistics and English language teaching has provided us with a key understanding of classroom realities, successes and failures. However, as Borg (2003) pointed out, more research into teachers' beliefs has leaned towards native contexts, not to mention areas like speaking and writing have not been the subject of scrutiny until recently.

In a case study in Ethiopia by Melketo (2012), mismatch between university teachers' stated beliefs and classroom practices evidenced due to certain contextual factors such as class time, students' expectations, teaching the test rather than teaching the subject and focusing on classroom management concerns. Suwaed (2011) in her Libyan investigation displayed a number of interesting findings regarding teachers' cognition and classroom instructions in teaching writing. Main findings unearthed that culture plays an integral part in the way teachers know, believe, and think about teaching writing. Al-bakri (2015) embarked on a case study of EFL teachers' beliefs, practices, and challenges focused on written corrective feedback (WCF) and found that both teachers' general beliefs about life and their educational beliefs have impact on their WCF practices. Similarly, teachers' beliefs about their role as teachers, teaching and learning and their students were discovered to be factors affecting their WCF practices.

In addition, Shi, Baker and Chen (2017) from a systemic functional lens with emphasis on informed genre approach to improve Chinese students' writing communicative competence disclosed that professional training in Systemic Functional Linguistics genre pedagogy carries a positive impact towards teachers' cognition about teaching writing among six Chinese College

English teachers. Applying ethnographic qualitative method, Wu and Hung (2011) on examining a teacher's beliefs in an English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course has proposed a framework for EAP teaching practice and a circular model addressing important phases and components which emerged from teacher's beliefs. The framework incorporates five elements: instructional foci, scaffolding, in-class learning activities, corporate learning cycle, and evaluation with three major focal points: critical thinking, academic writing, and thesis writing. Yang and Gao's (2013) investigation of four experienced EFL writing teachers in China has pointed out notable findings about the link between beliefs and practices in teaching writing. Specifically, they saw consistency in three teachers as regards beliefs and practices in writing instruction although one teacher was found out to have some degree of inconsistency between his beliefs and instructional practices.

3.4. Teachers' Beliefs and Classroom Practices in the Philippine L2 Contexts

In the Philippines, research into L2 teachers' beliefs and classroom practices has been scarce until recently. Gutierrez (2004) explored the case of one secondary school teacher as regards the interplay of beliefs and classroom practices. As a result, she saw consistency in what the teacher holds as her beliefs and in what she demonstrates as her instructional practices. For instance, the use of Socratic method (patiently leading students to the discovery of the answers) by the teacher in the teaching-learning process approves her belief that learning is self-discovery. In 2010, Barrot investigates the teaching beliefs and practices of five experienced ESL teachers. She found out that although there are consistencies between teachers' beliefs and practices, some degree of divergence was observed. For example, two teacher participants in the study were aware and agreed to the existence of multiliteracy but failed to practice it in their respective classrooms. Another distinguishing divergence was that all the teachers confirmed that they were fully aware and agreed to the notion of differentiation and reflective learning, but then failed to execute them in the actual classroom situations. In connection, Maestre (2016) uncovered that there are discrepancies between teachers' beliefs and practices in using the CLT approach. For example, the teachers claim that they employ CLT; however, their beliefs about CLT when asked do not conform to CLT principles. Consequently, this ambiguity resulted in teachers providing activities unrelated to CLT approach.

Meanwhile, Zipagan and Batang (2011) through a quantitative investigation of secondary ESL teachers' belief systems and practices yield some useful findings emphasizing that both

teachers' beliefs on the use of the learners' mother tongue and relating to the learners' culture significantly affect their practice use of it when performing certain classroom tasks. In addition, they uncovered that most English teachers give priority to locally-produced materials; however, the employment of learning activities established on English-speaking countries was found to be beneficial and important in the teaching and learning process in the Philippines.

Applying a mixed-method approach, Cirocki and Caparoso (2016) indicated that Filipino ESL teachers hold various beliefs about motivating learners to read in second language. Among these beliefs include creating a positive atmosphere in the classroom, challenging students to love reading through provision of reading materials with high difficulty, allowing students to read a wide array of texts that are interesting, etc. Lastly, Gabinete (2017) exposed that access to technology and availability of instructional materials may also prove to be crucial factors in helping teachers to teach and assess the mentioned skill. The study ended with an urgent call to reinforce school or government support in order to take viewing comprehension in basic education to the next level in order to meet the growing demands of the 21st century.

Nonetheless, little if any studies are available in the Philippine contexts which can provide clear reference to teachers' beliefs and classroom practices as regards L2 academic writing. Hence, an exploration on teachers' beliefs and teaching practices in L2 academic writing is indispensable to provide deeper understanding on the complex relationship between teachers' beliefs and teaching practices. If we are to develop and strengthen skills in English especially in the light of the K to 12 curriculum, then considering expanding research focus in second language teaching is imperative since good teaching practices are guided with theories that are based empirically.

4. Methodology

4.1. Research Design

This study applied a qualitative research method to explore senior high school teachers' beliefs and classroom practices in L2 academic writing. An exploratory case study was employed as a qualitative research design in this paper. The use of exploratory case study in this research could be effective since the researchers attempted to provide the in-depth analysis of one or more cases (Creswell, 2014). In addition, the employment of a case study as a design in this study proves to be beneficial because description and explanation are sought rather than prediction based

on cause and effect (Merriam, 1988, as cited in, Faizah, 2008). This type of approach enables the researcher to venture into the data gathering without any pre-established instruments (Clark & Creswell, 2010) and discover the individual's experiences in reference to desired topics (Faizah, 2008) which provide multiple sources of data being gathered to meet the objectives of the study.

4.2.Participants and Sampling

A convenience sampling technique was employed in selecting the subjects for the study. Dörnyei (2007) defined convenience sampling as a variant of non-probability sampling in which members of the target population are selected for the purpose of the study when certain practical criteria such as accessibility, geographical proximity or the willingness to participate are met. Moreover, “captive audiences such as students in the researchers’ own institution are prime examples of convenience sampling” (Dörnyei, 2007). In addition, this sampling strategy was favored in order to obtain an in-depth description of a focused individual in a population (Clark & Creswell, 2010). The subjects of the study were two English as Second Language (ESL) teachers teaching L2 academic writing courses at the senior high school in a polytechnic school in Pasig city, Philippines. In order to protect participants’ identity, pseudonyms, Maria and Brenda were assigned. During the time of the study, Maria was teaching Practical Research I-Qualitative Research Writing while Brenda was teaching Practical Research II-Quantitative Research Writing.

4.3.Data Collection

The data gathering was conducted during second semester of the academic year 2017-2018. Collection of data from the participants lasted for about 30 days through semi-structured interviews and non-participatory classroom observations. Semi-structured interview is an extremely useful tool for researchers who are scrutinizing areas that are familiar to them (Dörnyei, 2007). Non-participatory observations are preferred to participatory because they are unobtrusive (Creswell, 2013). Both the interviews and the observations were audio-taped using an A1416 iPad and a Core i3 Lenovo laptop. Classroom observations were conducted on a random basis a week after the interviews. Two classes of different sections held by each participant were observed. In addition, the researchers kept field notes during each classroom observation in order to ensure that the participants’ teaching practices are completely captured.

4.4. Instrumentation

The primary research instrument was an interview questionnaire developed by the researchers after reviewing related studies on teachers' beliefs and practices in teaching academic writing. The interview guide underwent validation by 3 experts in the field of languages and research. The questionnaire consisted of two parts. The first part entails the participants' demographic profile. The second part is the interview questionnaire itself where 10 specific questions regarding academic writing, feedback practices, previous writing experiences, and instructional practices are listed. There were 15 questions initially and after the validation process, only 10 interview questions were retained. The other 5 questions were removed due to validity reasons.

4.5. Data Analysis

Data were analyzed through transcription and coding. First, the researchers transcribed all interview data word for word. Then, they coded the data in order to identify recurring themes under each category. To determine the extent to which teachers' beliefs match with classroom practices as regards teaching academic writing, they transcribed data taken from classroom observations, identified recurring topics and analyzed them together with the themes identified in the interviews. The researchers referred their data analysis on classroom observations to the field notes made. In so doing, they could guarantee strong evidence to back up an underlying theme in order to ensure that the study obtains the highest level of accuracy due to the findings being drawn from multiple sources of information (Clark & Creswell, 2010). Furthermore, the interpretations of data were referred back to the participants for their perusal of the truthfulness thus ensuring internal validity of the present study (Clark & Creswell, 2010).

5. Results and Discussion

5.1. Teachers' Stated Beliefs in Teaching L2 Academic Writing

The primary objective of this study is to explore teachers' beliefs in teaching academic writing. From the summary of the interview transcripts, several recurring themes are identified.

5.1.1. Teachers holding similar views about the nature of teaching academic writing

During the interviews, the participants generally expressed quite parallel views about the nature of academic writing and the process of teaching it. They recognized that teaching academic writing is a complex process as it entails a composite of skills.

Well, teaching academic writing is a...a very complex process, in terms of you, as a teacher, you know how to strategize effectively in terms of the lessons that you will be teaching inside the classroom and...of course...this is writing....(Brenda)

Well, for me, academic writing is not just one skill but it is a collection of skills, so meaning to say, if you are going to teach academic writing, you also need to hone their critical thinking skill... so simply collection of skills. (Maria)

Notably, both the participants approved that teaching academic writing is a multifaceted skill where teachers should help students not only to write but also develop other skills necessary for writing. This finding lends support to cognitive model of writing by Flower and Hayes (1980) and Hayes and Flower (1980) which describes writing as an intricate phenomenon holding three separate components, i.e. writer's long-term memory, task environment and writing process. This is also consistent with Grami's study (2010) which underscored that writing is more than just work of cognition but a complicated psychological construction that needs "careful thought, discipline and concentration" (p. 9). If writing is a difficult task to do, then teaching academic writing becomes even more difficult for teachers who are assumed to play two important roles at the same time, being the writer and the teacher

5.1.2. Learners' motivation influencing teachers' academic writing instruction

One of the recurring themes that this study found is concerning how learners' needs and motivations play crucial role in determine instructional success. The participants stated that they use different means to build on their students' needs and motivate them to write.

I personally believe my students are good when it comes to writing but they are not motivated enough. So, what I do is I would let them watch videos and write something about what they've watched. I found this effective in motivating them. (Maria)

I see them differently, I need to handle first their abilities, and their, ah, readiness in terms of writing academic genres, especially with persuasive essay. I really have to think of ways on how I could be able to attach the lessons into real-life scenarios, like for example, ahmm, societal issues like martial law, ah, social media....(Brenda)

Interestingly, this finding connects with Nargis' recent study (2018) which concluded that teacher's belief in students can "diagnose the learners' needs to master the foreign language..., develop a good atmosphere environment in teaching and many kind of teaching strategies...and determine the right teaching strategies by looking at the students difficulties" (p. 63). The use of instructional videos in language classroom is also consistent with Baratta and Jones' (2008) study where they discovered that the use of films can arouse students' interests and help them learn to write effectively. The impact of using moving image in the writing classroom also links to the research conducted by Burn and Leach (2004) noting how stimulating moving pictures can be in classrooms increased literacy. The idea of connecting lessons to real-life situations like what Brenda does substantiates Whitaker's (2012) claim, "when students write about issues, needs, problems, or subjects they find important and relevant to their lives, we {teachers} improve the odds for their engagement, as well as the likelihood that they will strive to write well" (p. 4).

In addition, Brenda shared "I really have to engross more of how efficient or how effective, ahmm, approaches in writing should be... in a particular way that I could be able to motivate them as well that they can also write as best as they could". As writing can be a daunting task to many students, teachers' strategies in handling writing classes are important in keeping students motivated to write. Lopez (2010) stresses out that teachers must be mindful of the students' needs to foster favorable learning experiences which transport a sense of belonging. Keeping track with students' needs not only provides relevant learning experiences to students but also guarantees success in meeting the learning outcomes.

5.1.3. Teachers' written corrective feedback heightening learners' motivation towards writing

Feedback plays a crucial role in improving writing skills among L2 learners (Magno & Amarles, 2011). Of note is that Brenda steadily provides valuable comments regardless of what outputs her students submitted. She shared that students are always excited to hear something about their work from their teacher so she would indicate 'see me', 'very good', or 'talk to me' on students' papers. According to Brenda, whether her students' outputs are desirable or not, it is always important to let them know that their works are being valued. Similarly, Maria regards feedback as a powerful tool in enhancing students' writing proficiency. She revealed that her

students love to read encouraging words and they love to be corrected. The viability of feedback in writing is well documented by Ferris (1999). The author endorses that feedback has a tremendous effect on students' writing abilities. Furthermore, the finding also provides strong support to a recent study by Tee and Cheah (2016) which approves that feedback is essential in writing instruction, however, for it to be effective, feedback provided to students should be "clear, timely and loaded with information regarding their writing performance." (p. 100).

5.1.4. Teachers' previous writing experiences shaping their beliefs in teaching L2 writing

Maria stated that she was a senior writer of her school paper during college and currently taking her master's degree where she does a lot of paper work. Her passion towards writing is a result of the many strategies she learned as a student. Maria hinted that for successful writing, it is indispensable that one familiarizes the rudiments of language. During the interview, she also shared that she loves reading grammar books. Apart from this, Maria also pinpointed how reading stories can be a tremendous help in enhancing her writing. Meanwhile, Brenda shared that she is an experienced writer of various genre as she was also immersed in writing during her college days since she was an English major student. Her professors would task them with numerous writing activities—both academic and creative which allowed her to further enhance her writing skills. She also noted that she was able to publish her undergraduate thesis because she said she was given enough exposure how to write effective academic paper. Both of them insinuated that, as teachers, it is essential to share her personal write ups with students. Whitaker (2012) notes that teachers, being writers may have the advantage in empathizing with students about their experiences in writing. Undoubtedly, this finding clearly advances Borg' (2003) claim that teachers' experiences as learners can inform cognitions about teaching and learning.

5.1.5. Writing teachers playing different roles in L2 writing instruction

As to the role they play in L2 writing instruction, the participants expressed different stance. Maria stressed that her role in her writing classes is more of a facilitator. She stated all her students have potentials in terms of writing, and she is there only to guide them through to unleash those potentials. On the contrary, Brenda underscored that she plays as a coach in her writing classes. She emphasized that she motivates her students, speaks with them personally, and coaches them what to do even if it means failures or successes. The difference in the roles Maria and Brenda

play in their writing classroom may probably have been established by their previous experiences as language learners who once were student writers, their educational backgrounds and professional trainings. In Borg's (2003) Teacher Cognition Framework, it is outlined that schooling and professional coursework are two vital components that can possibly impact teachers' beliefs about teaching and learning. Additionally, Gabinite (2017) echoed that teachers' early education influenced Filipino teachers' ability to assess students' viewing skills.

5.1.6. 'One size does not fit all' or 'no best' strategy in teaching L2 academic writing

The participants regard the principle of learning which states that students learn in different ways.

There is no best strategy in terms of teaching writing or academic writing in particular. First of all, ah, you need to know the students' level, their abilities and their motivation in writing. Since I'm teaching in polytechnic school and most of the students are not very well versed in terms of academics, so I really have to engross more of how efficient or how effective, hmm, approaches in writing should be. (Brenda)

Just like what I said before, one size does not fit all...so, I'm applying different strategies...For example, to Automotive students...So...I need to speak slowly for them to understand our topic and the repetition...it's very important...the repetition. (Maria)

From the statements above, it can be seen how much the participants recognize students' needs and learning styles. The concept of 'one size does not fit all' by Maria or 'no best strategy' by Brenda in teaching academic writing resides in Tomlinson's (1999) differentiated instruction. Ferguson, Tilleczek, Boydell, Rummens, Cote and Roth-Edney (2005) show that, "when teachers recognize diversity in their students, in terms of how and what they identify with and how they learn, and when this recognition is reflected in how teachers teach, students are free to discover new and creative ways to solve problems, achieve success, and become lifelong learners." Each student is a unique individual and brings with him cultural identities which teachers need to address and if these cultural identities are not considered by teachers in their instructions, the students may feel unsupported and thus are unable to fully unleash their potentials. Also, providing customized instructions also allows for a wide variety of learning experiences for students which surely increase their creativity.

5.2.The Interplay Between Teachers’ Stated Beliefs and Pedagogical Practices

The second research problem that the study attempted to seek answers is the extent to which teachers’ stated beliefs influence their classroom practices. Data from classroom observations reflected teachers’ actual writing instructions which may provide pragmatic evidence to support or disavow their stated beliefs.

5.2.1. Maria’s Teachers’ Beliefs and Pedagogical Practices

From the two classes the researchers observed, they noticed that Maria was being consistent in informing students of the learning targets for the day at the beginning of each session. She utilized PowerPoint presentation to deliver her lessons and her learning objectives were presented to the class through the slides. This practice is aligned with her belief, “I need to inform them {my students} about the importance of studying academic writing for them to also appreciate the subject itself.” Jones (2005) elucidates this point stating that the learning outcomes—the tasks students are assumed to accomplish—need to be clearly articulated to students in order to encourage them to be part of the learning process. The author notes that if we are to make students learn and achieve the goals, then two-way communication is imperative to unlock students’ potentials. In addition, Maria’s belief on motivating her students was reflected on the way she asked motive question at the beginning of the lesson.

So, last time, we talked about the importance of research. Now, this is the question. As a student, what do you want to research on and why? Any volunteer? (Maria, observation #2)

However, it should be noted that she did this part only to the second class the researchers observed, Grade 11 Automotive. As noted earlier during the interview, her Automotive students struggle to understand her and often find it effective to have instructions repeated. This variation in teaching technique approves her statement on the idea of ‘one size does not fit all’ teaching strategy. In a more practical sense, it illustrates how much she adheres to her belief about considering the nature of the students. Meanwhile, Maria integrated technology in her lessons through which she makes use of PowerPoint presentation every time she teaches (as far as my two observations). However, the researchers often found her reading the slides with very limited explanations she gave. Chesser (2012) on her paper “Can Technology Replace Teachers?” argues a teacher that while technology is an excellent apparatus to engross students effectively and

competently with information, it should be borne in mind that it by all means does not replace teachers.

In the two classes the researchers observed, Maria was having similar lesson on the introductory concept of research. As part of her strategies, Maria prepared asked her students to do role play presentation she had assigned the other day. The presentation covered the importance of research in students' daily lives and the students presented their work in groups. Although this is a qualitative research class, Maria showed how fun writing can be. This practice is undoubtedly tied to her testimonial that writing should be fun and engaging.

5.2.2. *Brenda's Beliefs and Pedagogical Practices*

Brenda holds a strong belief about creating a positive atmosphere before starting the class. During the two classes the researchers observed, they saw that Brenda set the mood of her students before she began her discussion by making them arrange their chairs, sitting up properly and requesting one student to lead the prayer for the whole class. On the first observation, Brenda proceeded to reviewing her students regarding the previous lesson after the preparation.

Before I'll continue discussing our last topic, I'd like to have a quick recap on what we discussed last day. I think the last topic we had is all about levels of measurement. Now, who can give me the levels of measurement? (Brenda, observation #1)

After the review, Brenda gave the class a short activity immediately where students were made to determine the levels of measurements expressed in each statement. This was an individualized activity. Providing personalized activity where students decide on their own without the help of their peers echoes Brenda's contention about addressing uniqueness of her individual students. However, Khan (2009) on her comparative study between group work and individual work in ESL classrooms opposes this practice who concluded that interaction is motivating for students, i.e. when students work in groups, they tend to gain confidence to think of what to express rather than how to express. Additionally, Wu and Hung (2011) supports this idea stating that dynamic classroom interactions among students encourage knowledge construction, ranging from critical awareness to underlying literacy.

On the second class observation, Brenda was introducing a new lesson, Sampling Techniques. She reminded the class of the deadline submission for their review of related literature. Then, Brenda went on discussing the lesson for the da. During the discussion, Brenda

drew out an example where students can entirely relate. She made use of the school's name and its total population and expound the process of drawing sample from there (see excerpt below).

Let's say we have 1000 students in this school and we need to get a 333 sample out of that population. Now, for stratified random, we have strata. In this school, we have dual training system students, senior high school students, bachelor of technical teacher education students who are our strata and we will take sample from each stratum... (Brenda, observation #2)

In this case, Brenda's account on the importance of providing topics where students see relevance and have direct application to real life situations is markedly mirrored. This incidence boils down to her belief on learners' motivation, a theme which she had reiterated earlier during the interview. Interestingly, this practice relates to what Theall (2004) stated, "*Applications of theoretical material in real-life situations make content easier to understand, and that the relevance of content is demonstrated by real-life examples*" (p. 1).

Moreover, for the whole time the researchers were observing, Brenda demonstrated positive appraisal towards students' verbal responses during class interaction. Although there researchers were unable to collect her students' outputs due to time constraints to see how she provides written feedback, this somehow provides an initial support to her assertion on positive feedback provision.

5.3.Factors Constraining Teachers When Translating Their Beliefs Into Classroom Practices

From both interview transcripts and classroom observation data, a number of important factors which seem to constrain teachers when translating their beliefs into pedagogical practices were discovered. One of the salient factors found to have a strong influence over teachers translating their beliefs into classroom teaching is time. Both the participants agreed that time is a prime force which instigated the delay in their lessons knowing writing is a tedious process.

Hmm, well, there are so many factors wherein you need to consider, of course, that is writing. As I said, it is a very long process. You cannot be able to expect a student to write within an hour. (Brenda)

It happens actually. The time was too short, like for example, if you want to...if you want to teach for two hours and only you have one hour. (Maria)

Likewise, time was also seen as a distressing factor when Brenda told her students after the activity (during the first observation) that she would continue with the next lesson the following

meeting because it was already time for dismissal. Likewise, Maria illustrated a similar case where she had to dismiss the class and the last group who was supposed to present their role play would have to do it the next meeting.

Connected to time is the scheduling of classes. Brenda said that if a writing class were scheduled after lunch, students would find it boring and they would be sleepy during the class hours. This finding corroborates Melketo's (2012) study which he found time as the primary contextual factor leading Ethiopian university teachers to teach in ways opposed to their stated beliefs. Alzaanin (2014) also reported similar finding among Palestinian writing teachers. Strong evidence of time as a constraining factor in enacting teachers' beliefs has been extensively noted in numerous research in the field (e.g. Andrews, 2003; Burns & Knox, 2005; Li & Walsh, 2011; Mak, 201, as cited in, Melketo, 2012).

Apart from the scheduling of the writing class, the nature of students also affected the participants. Maria stated that for her students, it is their behavior and their educational backgrounds that influence her teaching the most.

For example, you planned to give them activity, and you want them to finish that activity asap, but some of them find it hard to finish that activity so you always have to adjust you have to understand their educational background, their knowledge, intellectual capacity in terms of writing. (Maria)

Notably, it can be understood how Maria works out to fit his teaching into the needs of her students. This statement was demonstrated in her Automotive class where she had to incorporate motive questions, something she did not do in her Computer Programming students. On a similar occasion, Brenda also highlighted how she adapts to the levels of her Automotive students by making necessary modifications in her teaching strategies. Findings on the nature of students as interceding factor in writing classroom have been reported from different perspectives (e.g. Zhang, 2017; Alzaanin, 2014).

Apart from the nature of students, Brenda claimed that the number of students in the class is also an important element to consider. She added that when there are more students in one class than the other, it will cause her more preparations because the activities she employed to a small class, for example, may not be effective for a class that is composed of numerous students. Although Brenda advances the idea of individual differences, her concern with preparations still has to do with time in general. This finding proves Faour's (2003) finding, as cited in (Jamalzadeha

& Shamsavar, 2015) that several factors such as schools' socioeconomic status, class size, and grade level can influence teachers' beliefs and classroom practices considerably.

Lastly, Both the participants recognized how much importance technology has on their work as teachers who need to prepare daily tasks for their students. In particular, there was an instance where Brenda was unable to use the pre-installed projector in the room where she had the class because the unit was not functional. This is similar to Cuayahuitl and Carranza (2015) found where institutional factors such as the length of courses and lessons, the school facilities, among others appeared to be the most powerful in the teachers' lessons. A more recent study conducted in the Philippine context by Gabinete's (2017) also disclosed similar findings where access to technology and availability of instructional materials affected teachers in teaching and assessing the students' viewing skills.

6. Conclusion

In conclusion, teachers hold complex belief system about the nature of writing and the process of teaching academic writing. There is strong evidence that writing teachers' beliefs correspond well to their pedagogical practices. However, certain factors such as time, class schedule, class size, nature of students, and school facilities are important considerations if teaching academic writing has to thrive successfully. Writing is a complex process, a product of multifaceted skills which demands not only good writers but good writing teachers packed with understanding and skills on how to strategize instructions for students. Students' needs and motivations are primary attentions in selecting methods of teaching. The best teaching method for academic writing is that which responds to students' writing needs. Positive feedback is key in triggering students love for writing. For L2 academic writing instruction to be meaningful and successful, it is a must that teachers are writers themselves. Moreover, writing teachers may play different roles in the classroom provided that the goal is to help students overcome the fears of writing and consequently become writers themselves.

7. Pedagogical Implications and Directions for Future Research

In the light of the findings and the conclusion of the study, a number of pedagogical implications for L2 academic writing can be considered. First, the study generally underlines how

important L2 teachers' beliefs are in shaping their classroom practices and, in turn, effecting learning. The correspondence between teachers' stated beliefs and pedagogical practices found in this research implies that teachers need to engross themselves in professional trainings in order to continuously improve on their beliefs as beliefs are invaluable bedrocks of teachers' instructional decisions (Borg, 2003). Second, academic writing teachers need to establish close relationship with their students in order to understand their struggles, needs and motivations as writing can be an extremely complex process, more so for ESL learners. Third, curriculum experts are suggested to rethink on the length of time to be allotted specifically for academic writing courses, especially in the context of senior high school where there is bulk of writing subjects offered. Scheduling of writing classes is one important aspect in this category which needs further deliberation as well. Last, schools must be supportive of their teaching practitioners in keeping up with their functions by providing enough facilities such as provision of LCD projectors, computer laboratories, etc. which are beneficial for both the teacher and students.

Nonetheless, for a more encompassing result, the following limitations are noted. Only two senior high school teachers from a Polytechnic school were purposively considered for investigation in which data obtained may have issues generalizing the result. Other subjects which fall under academic writing category such as English for Academic and Professional Purposes (EAPP) and Reading and Writing were not part of the study coverage which may engender rich data regarding teachers' pedagogical practices. Also, only two classroom observations were carried out for each participant and these observations occurred roughly around the beginning of the semester which may have failed to capture substantially teachers' actual practices in their academic writing classes. In addition, using simulated recall after the observations and document analysis of students' written outputs could have provided supplementary information for a much stronger finding. If we are to provide more pragmatic evidence on the configurations of teachers' beliefs and the extent to which these beliefs interlock with pedagogical practices in the context of L2 academic writing in senior high school, then an investigation which incorporates large number of participants from different schools covering different academic writing subjects where data are drawn from multiple sources is indispensable.

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Appendix A: Interview Questionnaire

Part I- Participants' Demographics

Name: _____ (optional)

Gender:

Male

Female

Course Finished:

Education

Non-education

Area of Specialization:

English

Non-English

Educational attainment:

Bachelor's Degree

Bachelor's Degree with Master's Units

Master's Degree Holder

Master's Degree Holder with Doctorate Units

Doctorate Degree Holder

Length of Service:

1-5 years

5-10 years

10-15 years

15-20 years

20 years and above

Part II- Interview Guide

1. What is academic writing from your own perspective?
2. Can you share your experiences with writing in general before you became a teacher?

3. Did your experiences in writing influence how you teach academic writing? If so, in what way?
4. What are your beliefs on feedback practices in academic writing classes?
5. What type of feedback to student writing do you consider most important as a teacher? Why?
6. What type of feedback to student writing do you think your students consider as useful? Why?
7. How do you develop academic writing skills among students? What specific strategies do you usually take in teaching the subject?
8. Can you share an instance where you conducted a successful writing in class? Why do you think it was successful?
9. Can you also share about a writing activity you have recently conducted in class which you felt was not really successful? Why do you think it was not successful?
10. What roles do you play in the classroom as a teacher of academic writing? How important are these roles to your students' learning?



Construction of Second Language Writer Identity in Student Persuasive Essays: A Metadiscourse Analysis

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Abstract

Academic writing is not a lifeless communicative endeavor. It is an interactive process where both writers and readers negotiate meanings in many complex ways. In the case of persuasive essays, students should venture to manifest stance and identity rather than just write to transport ideas. This paper looked into this important aspect of academic writing by examining the construction of

writer identity in ESL students' persuasive essays. Data were drawn from 50 persuasive essays written by Filipino senior high school students in a polytechnic school. Using Hyland's (2004a) Model of Interpersonal Metadiscourse, analysis revealed that students employ *self-mention* across all samples in displaying their identity as writers. Findings also underscored the employment of other interpersonal metadiscourse elements such as *hedges*, *attitude markers*, *boosters*, and *engagement markers* in student essays. The study echoes the following implications to L2 academic writing pedagogy: (1) L2 teachers may consider explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers in the classroom if students are to become effective writers; (2) students should be taught pragmatic functions of personal pronouns to help them carry out their stance in such a highly academic world of writing; and (3) more importantly, L2 writing teachers should employ more real-life and authentic writing activities which can foster the development of critical thinking skills and understanding of various contextualized linguistic elements. Moreover, directions for further research are provided in this research.

Keywords: *writer identity, interpersonal metadiscourse, second language, academic writing, senior high school*

1. Introduction

Writing is a productive performance of expending words in a written form which entails innumerable challenging skills among learners. Academic writing is a complex process that when students create texts, they are assumed to communicate a variety of implications and meanings in an academic style without simply presenting. As reported by Davies (1999), academic writing is regarded as a tough and neglected skill area among Japanese EFL learners with which it is considered the least competent ability in developing critical thinking skills (Kroll, 1990).

In the Philippines, Pablo and Lasaten (2018) identified several areas where senior high school students have difficulties in academic writing ranging from content and ideas, organization, vocabulary and word choice, formality to referencing. They concluded that more exposure to academic writing texts is imperative to improve the quality of students' writing outputs. A study by Hernandez, Amarles and Raymundo (2017) also revealed that College Filipino students demonstrate weakness and negative attitudes towards writing. Furthermore, Martin (2001) on investigating self-representations in reflective essays found that college freshman students appear

to portray themselves as passive subjects in the writing process. They seem to underuse expressions of ability, obligation, intent, and certainty, which are determiners that warrant agency. Suggestion is that Filipino student writers should be encouraged to employ more personal pronouns especially first person in their writing to gain greater ownership of ideas. It is through this sense that this paper is put forward to situate how Filipino ESL students create their identity as writers in the context of academic writing. This study aims at investigating writer identity in senior high school students' persuasive essays through a metadiscourse analysis. Specifically, it seeks to (1) identify dominant metadiscoursal feature in student persuasive essays; and determine how and what kind of writer identity of students is constructed by the dominant metadiscoursal feature.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Identity in Academic Writing

The concept of '*identity*' in writing has been used interchangeably in research across cultures, time and space. Its multidisciplinary nature has carried the notions of self, person role, persona, position, subject, and plurality that encompass the four interconnected features of selfhood: autobiographical self, discursal self, authorial self, and possibilities for self-hood in the socio-cultural and institutional contexts (Ivanič, 1998). Meanwhile, in an attempt of mirroring how second language acquisition shapes identity and self, Gay (2013) exemplified that the formation of one's identity requires an understanding of social phenomenon where the individual not only creates his own reality but builds his perceptions of individuality and acceptance in socio cultural contexts. Hyland (2005b) strongly acclaimed that writing is not an inanimate communicative process where readers on the other hand see themselves as receptors of knowledge. Writing, in its very nature, should always be interactive since it lives with the people's interests, stance, beliefs, viewpoints, moral, and values. In dwelling more into the reading-writing process, it is evident that the language, the author, the reader, and the socio-cultural context engender an important aspect in understanding a text. While language and culture serve as the soul and background of any writing genre, the author and the reader are the 'clown actors' who give and translate meaning to lifeless thoughts and ideas dancing through the rhythm of a musical entity. In this sense, the readers' fathom of responsibility to untangle meaning within a text is shifting cognitive understanding to sociocultural outlook (Gee, 1992; John-Steiner, Petoskey, & Smith, 1994).

Therefore, it is significant to stress that the conceptualization of meaning by readers in a text is influenced by how the author deliberates the role of the society to control perceptions and understanding relating to reader's prior knowledge and experiences (McKinley, 2010). The written texts present the identity of the language, its symbolic forms and visual components to be interpreted and deciphered accordingly by the demands of the author. Furthermore, as Hyland (2002a) stated, academic writers' identity is influenced and situated by the environment where they write and the knowledge of who their target readers are. Writing cognition is presumably constructed *by* the society as a whole and not just embedded *within* the social context (Lewis, 2000).

The construction of writer identity in L2 academic writing has been implicitly evident in classroom settings. Though it has been undoubtedly guarded as a significant factor in assisting students' writing process in fabricating academic genres, writer identity is subtly created in not just echoing the '*what*' factor which merely pertains to the output, but also explicitly on the '*how*' student writers illuminate their own identity in terms of taking their stance and claims in the text.

Apart from the extensive discourse analysis and the study of pragmatics in various context, writer identity through pronominal usage has gained significant attention from scholars in the spectrum of ESL/EFL teaching-learning processes. Hyland (2002a) unveils that Hongkong L2 writers' underuse authorial pronouns and determiners in representing themselves in the discourse is influenced by writer's skepticism in the notion of authority and loyalty to rhetorical effects. Restraining their role in the research and adopting a less independent stance compared with native writers, HongKong students clearly speak within the misconceptions and distinctions of understanding as to what the functions of metadiscourse will be. More often than not, the focus given to ESL writing contexts nowadays has been intensely shown on how students can produce systematized content that is significant and meaningful. Writing is not all about putting information across as dictated by style guides from the textbooks and from the teachers. Writing should be thought of an opportunity for students to represent themselves, that is, the writing material should leave an impression about the writer (Hyland, 2002b).

In the Philippine ESL setting, the same is true about the insufficient use of pronominal markers. Martin (2011) reveals that Filipino student writers prefer to employ fewer first person pronouns. Although the corpora in the aforementioned study include Tagalog, student written

essays in English yield similar result—that is, first-person referencing is least frequently used making Filipino student writers passive subjects or agents in the writing per se regardless of the languages. In this regard, the author suggested that language teachers must devote their teaching more on the usage of personal pronouns, so students will be able to take a sense of ownership in the ideas expressed and represent themselves quite well in the text.

Other recent studies involving different foci on L2 students' written essays in the Philippines include those of Masangya and Lozada (2009) and Gustilo and Magno (2012). Masangya and Lozada (2009) deal with the investigation on the relationship between the language exposures and errors in English essays of high school students. In this study, they discover that students with high English exposure have significantly less frequency in their errors in terms of wrong case, fragmentation, parallelism, punctuation, and verb tenses. However, with specific reference to verb form, preposition, and spelling, students with high exposure are found to have significant higher frequency in errors compared to those with low English exposure. The significance of this finding is that, since errors are quite inevitable and it takes time to correct them, much more exposure to authentic contexts where English is used is needed among Filipino ESL students. Whereas, Gustilo and Magno (2012) disclose that word choice and capitalization errors are factors impacting essay scores which deviates from Sweedler-Brow's (1993) finding that it is sentence-level errors which play a significant role in essay scores. In this regard, it is suggested that further studies be conducted to validate the conflicting findings. In lieu of pedagogical implications, Gustilo and Magno (2012), despite disparity in findings, maintain that more focus should be given on vocabulary and, while many language teachers are open with the idea of emerging World Englishes in composition writing, emphasis on accuracy in terms of written texts should still be considered beneficial. In addition, Almaden (2006) using topical structure analysis (TSA) reports that parallel progression is the most frequently used in the paragraphs, followed by the extended and sequential progressions. She further reveals that extended sequential progression is the least used. Interestingly, her findings show that Filipino ESL students, despite being L2 learners who are bilinguals, could write in the same pattern as do natives who are monolinguals. She relates this finding to the consistent use of English language in the Philippine context and the fact that English is strictly used as medium of instructions.

2.2. Interactional and Interactive Metadiscourse

Due to its pragmatic role in a written discourse, metadiscourse has appealed with significant attention and interest in the field of language research. Researchers like Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore, Markkanen & Steffensen, (1993) and Hyland (2005a) categorized metadiscourse into different classes to describe its functions in written discourse. Vande Kopple (1985) classified metadiscourse into textual and interpersonal domains. The ‘textual domain’ guides writers connect their propositions in a cohesive manner and the ‘interpersonal’ gives writers the opportunity to convey the intended meaning of the sentences. The *textual metadiscourse* is illustrated through the use of ‘text connectives’ and ‘code glosses’ while the *interpersonal metadiscourse* is realized through the use of ‘*illocutionary markers*’, ‘*validity markers, narrators, attitude markers*’ and ‘*commentary*’. With this, Vande Kopple (1985), Crismore et al. (1993) and Hyland (2005) described metadiscourse into two functional domains: interactive and interactional metadiscourse.

Through the use of computers and accessibility of information nowadays, the study of metadiscourse has shifted into newer dimensions with the use of large corpora samples. To point, Hyland (1999) conducted a comparative study comparing the number of uses of metadiscourse in textbooks and research articles where he discovered that the latter has gained more number of interpersonal metadiscourse. On a similar vein, Hyland (2004b) explored postgraduate research artifacts which revealed that the number of metadiscourse employed in doctoral theses is far more obvious in occurrences than masters’. Interestingly, Intaraprawat and Steffensen (1995) noted that good essays normally receive more metadiscourse than that of underrated essays as good essays project substance and relevance on the subject being discussed.

Aside from previous studies exploring on the two domains of metadiscourse, other language researchers are moving into specific features. Wu (2007), for example, highlighted the uses of engagement resources in high and low-rated undergraduates’ geography essays. Harwood (2005) concentrated on the use of *self-mention* with the use of inclusive and exclusive pronouns. Additionally, Hyland (2001a) pinpointed the importance of audience’s communicative engagement in academic reasoning and dealt on exclusive pronouns and self-citations as well (Hyland, 2001b).

2.3. Metadiscourse Across Academic Genres

The main impetus of scrutinizing the occurrences and functions of metadiscourse in written discourse is concerning the promotion of how metadiscourse can be a big help for readers in defining and structuring their notions to different approaches in academic genres. For instance, in the cross-linguistic study of English and Persian editorials, Kuhi and Mojood (2014) disclosed that genre conventions influenced the writer's choices in employing metadiscourse which are evident in the distribution of these features across English and Persian newspaper editorials. To prove the discipline and ethno-linguistic aspects, some differences were found between the two sets of data with which, the interactional category has proved to be the predominant feature which mirrors the construction of persuasion in this type of genre. Similarly, Zarei (2011) conducted a comparative study in metadiscourse elements in humanities and non-humanities researches which lays down the difference of employability of metadiscourse features favoring Persian research articles. However, humanities researches which include Applied Linguistics tend to focus more on textuality that relies mainly on interactive metadiscourse as an outflow of reader's involvement. Meanwhile, Sukma and Sujatna (2014) explored the interpersonal metadiscourse markers in Indonesians' editorial articles. Results affirmed that only few of metadiscourse categories were employed and attitude markers ranked first followed by commentaries, hedges, certainty markers, and attributors.

Jimenez (2013) examined a web-based discourse genre by applying a dialogic framework to the study of interpersonality. This genre fits to the sphere of travel and tourism, where the interface of writers-readers (or wreaders—a term coined by Landow in 1994) attempts at persuading others through positive and negative views. Findings indicate the following descriptions of the traveler forum: (1) the stance voice, irrespective of the wreader's turn in the thread, is usually demonstrated through self-mentions and hedges, creating authority and personal discourse with credibility to gain thoughts and evaluations of a nonbusiness nature; (2) the engagement voice displays an ostensibly constant and apparently generic weakness in the wreader; and (3) the most recurrent interpersonal markers that help readers' alignment are personal pronouns/commitment markers and directives. In this respect, the engagement voice attains the traveler forum purpose, having constant reader involvement in evaluations, judgments, and advice and establishing harmony and peer-to-peer communication.

In a much nearer dimension, in the Philippine contexts, metadiscourse research has also found its way in the field. Tarrayo (2014) examined the view of 20 investigative journalism blogs published in the official website of the Philippine Center for Investigative Journalism (PCIJ) blogs and found that interactive and the interactional metadiscourse in Philippine investigative journalism blogs are undoubtedly remarkable where interactive metadiscourse received the highest occurrences than interactional metadiscourse in the two sub-categories. Results advanced that Filipino writers are more conscious in terms of allowing the ideas to flow coherently using prepositions to aid the readers in understanding the texts. Similarly, in an attempt to investigate the intertwining relationship of language and culture through metatext categories, Tarrayo (2011) made use of the results-and-discussion sections of 15 research articles (RAs): Philippine-English variety ESL Ras and EFL RAs Taiwanese-English and Iranian-English varieties. Findings show that although the entire corpus has larger number of previews, Philippine-English RAs has the highest frequency of preview and review metatext categories. Tarrayo concluded that Filipino writers possess “writer-responsible” attitude as compared to other nationalities.

2.4. Metadiscourse in Persuasive/Argumentative Essays

Persuasive essays, also known as argumentative essays are genres of writing that require student to inspect a topic to accumulate, produce, assess evidence, and establish a stance on the topic in a concise manner. Persuasive essays are one of the common writing genres that students are tasked to produce as classroom writing activities (Hyland, 2009) and usually considered the most sophisticated type of writing due to their complexity (Johns, 1993) comprising the writer – reader interaction (Hyland, 2004a). Kuteeva (2011) affirmed that argumentative essays are predominantly a social norm that requires the writer to hold the reader’s anticipations of how ideas are coherently and cohesively interconnected, as well as the proficiency of the linguistic features that are used to convey meaning (Morgan, 2011).

Hyland (2004) argues that apart from composing texts that denote external veracity, writers also used language to plausibly characterize their output as themselves and formulate social relations with readers. This mirrors the importance of writer-reader interaction in a persuasive essay that knowledge of metadiscourse being one of the interactional writing tools is of paramount importance in developing the skills and styles of L2 student writers. To Hyland (2004), “the ability of writers to control the level of personality in their texts, claiming solidarity with readers,

evaluating their material, and acknowledging alternative views, is now recognized as a key feature of successful academic writing” (as cited in, Tarayo, 2014, p. 36). Though a similar study was conducted by Rahimivand and Kuhi (2014) exploring discursual construction of identity in academic writing employing 30 research articles, gaps remain in our understanding as regards authorial presence in academic writing produced by EFL and ESL learners. In particular, knowledge of metadiscursual features presented within academic writing by senior high school students is almost scarce since remarkably the K to 12 is a new established curriculum program in the Philippines with varying education settings. Moreover, while there have been a number of investigations into self-mention and personal pronoun used in published student academic essays (e.g. Hyland 1999, 2001; Harwood 2005), there is hardly ever any study that has directly examined writing produced by ESL learners in senior high school which is the mainstream focus of this paper.

3. Theoretical Framework

Metadiscourse analysis has been extensively studied in different academic genres of English language. The proliferation of research works in the field has engendered several frameworks; however, this study adopted Hyland’s (2004a) model on metadiscourse over others because the categorization is concise and comprehensive (Vazquez-Orta, Lafuente-Millan, Lores-Snaz, & Mur-Duenas, 2006, as cited in, Tan & Eng, 2014).

According to Hyland (2005a), the writer makes use of *interactive* metadiscourse as linguistic devices to direct the reader through the text. With the *interactive* metadiscourse, writers establish a more cohesive and coherent content. The *interactive* dimension covers various subcategories such as *transition markers*, *frame markers*, *endophoric markers*, *evidential* and *code glosses*. In addition, Hyland’s model underscored the second dimension of metadiscourse which is the *interactional* category. This dimension is recognized by Vande Kopple’s (1985) and Crismore et al.’s (1993) as *interpersonal* metadiscourse. Regardless of the differentiation in categorization, its role in the writing discourse is alike; that is, the *interactional* dimension is employed to express the writers’ affective aspects or reactions to the propositional content and to establish a reader-friendly atmosphere with the intended audience. This metadiscourse domain encompasses subcategories such as *hedges*, *boosters*, *attitude markers*, *engagement markers* and *self-mentions* (See Figure 1 below).

CATEGORY	FUNCTION	EXAMPLES
<i>INTERACTIVE</i>	<i>HELP TO GUIDE THE READER THROUGH THE TEXT</i>	<i>RESOURCES</i>
TRANSITIONS	Express relations between the main clauses	In addition; but; thus; and
FRAME MARKERS	Refer to the discourse acts, sequences or stages	Finally; to conclude; my purpose is
ENDOPHORIC MARKERS	Refer to information in another part of the text	Noted above; see Fig.; in Section 2
EVIDENTIALS	Refer to information from other texts	According to X; Z states
CODE GLOSSES	Elaborate propositional meanings	Namely; for example; such as; in other words
<i>INTERACTIONAL</i>	<i>INVOLVE THE READER IN THE TEXT</i>	<i>RESOURCES</i>
HEDGES	Withhold commitment and open dialog	Might; perhaps; possible; about
BOOSTERS	Emphasize certainty of close dialog	In fact; definitely; it is clear that
ATTITUDE MARKERS	Express writer's attitude to proposition	Unfortunately; I agree; surprisingly
SELF-MENTIONS	Make explicit reference to the author(s)	I; we; my; me; our
ENGAGEMENT MARKERS	Explicitly build relationship with reader	Consider; note; you can see

Figure 1. An Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse (Hyland, 2004a)

4. Methodology

4.1. Corpus of the Study

This qualitative analysis utilized 50 persuasive essays on societal problems highlighting key topics such as Extrajudicial Killings, Martial Law in Mindanao, Overpopulation, Social Media, and Youths of Tomorrow. The articles were written by Grade 11 senior high school students as part of the requirements in Reading and Writing subject. Since it was impossible to obtain similar data from students in terms of the degree of writing interest, the length of the essays which passed the criterion of 250-word count and above served as the prime consideration in the selection of the learner corpus. Of the 150 student persuasive essays, only 50 were considered to

be the data with 10 articles representing each key topic (See Table 1 for a breakdown of the corpus). The researchers regarded each key topic as important since topics are diverse in nature and may uncover various linguistic evidences from students that are helpful in realizing the study’s purpose.

Table 1. Breakdown of the Learner Corpus

Key Topics on Persuasive Essay	Number of Essays Used	Word Count
Martial Law	10	6, 923
Extra-Judicial Killings	10	3, 477
Social Media	10	2, 855
Overpopulation	10	3, 472
Youths of Tomorrow	10	11, 109
Total	50	27, 836

4.2.Procedure

This study is an analysis of the use of metadiscourse structures in student persuasive essays following Hyland’s model of interpersonal metadiscourse (2004a) which has been considered most comprehensive and pragmatically grounded means of exploring interpersonal features in written texts (Vazquez-Orta, et al., 2006, as cited in, Tan & Eng, 2014). This framework is seen progressing and can adapt to any relevant studies revolving around metadiscourse categories. According to Rahimivand and Kuhi (2014, p. 1495), “this model overcomes many of the limitations of other models and tries to move beyond exterior and superficial forms or assays about metadiscourse as a self-sufficient stylistic scheme” in which evidentials, hedges, boosters, self-mentions and attitude markers are analyzed. Considering Ivanič’s (1998) model of identity, which is also used significantly in the study, can give a thorough understanding of the issues about constructing L2 writer’s identity.

The corpus was collected from students as part of their requirements in an English class. After collecting the corpus, essays were carefully read and examined. Frequency count was done through a concordance tool called AntConc (3.4.4w) and analysis was done manually. To add the validity of the results, the researchers invited two teacher-researchers who were language teachers from the same school to assist in coding the metadiscourse features found in student persuasive essays. Both the researchers and the teacher coders discussed if decisions on individual markings

are differed. However, it is important to note that it is very difficult to identify metadiscourse features since words chosen by the writer do not always suggest one pragmatic interpretation (Hyland, 1996b). This supports the idea of language as a creative human activity in which, writers are expected to have a wider scope of vocabulary to help readers perceive the intended meaning of the texts. As such, categories of metadiscourse can be treated and realized through linguistics in various forms (Rahimivand and Kuhi 2014), however, a context-sensitive analysis should be carried out since metadiscourse features are multifunctional (Tarrayo, 2014) which, in this study, only expressions suggesting metadiscourse characteristics were selected and analyzed as metadiscourse.

5. Results and Discussions

5.1. Interactive and Interactional Metadiscourse in Student Persuasive Essays

Metadiscourse as defined by Crismore et al. (1993) refers to writer's direction and involvement for how readers should read, analyze, and assess the ideas presented. That is, in this context, it could be comprehended that, writers dictate the reaction of their readers. In contrary to the former view, Hyland (2005a) has seen metadiscourse as 'self-reflective expressions' through which the reader and the writer are engaged to interact within the text. This statement is parallel with Vande Kopple's (1985) textual and interpersonal categorization of metadiscourse by classifying metadiscourse features into interactive and interactional, where interactive devices play to "guide the reader through the text and interactional resources include the reader actively in the progress of the text" (Thompson, 2001, p. 58). Hence, while interactive metadiscourse is used to structure a text coherently, the interactional category designates the writer's voice through personal note cohesively.

Table 2 below presents the metadiscourse features used in student persuasive essays. Remarkably, the data showed that the student essays employed more interactional features (66.79%) than interactive (33.21%). It appears that student L2 writers are sensitive in making their ideas strong, organized, and cohesively presented as interactional features build a notable sense of ownership of thoughts through the development of the text. Students tend to actively engage their readers in a way that a sense of writer identity is projected, and at the same time, a collaborative reading community is assumed. This result supports the claim of Kuhi and Mojood (2014) which states that interactional metadiscourse is overtly argumentative in nature, i.e. highlighting the

explicit construction of textual persona. However, this is inconsistent with Hinds' (2001) finding which found native English writers to be more favorable on the use of interactional devices such as hedges, attitude markers and boosters. Additionally, this finding challenges the idea of Morgan (2011) that L2 writers show preference for interactive metadiscourse features to interactional resources. As far as rhetorical styles are concerned, Hyland (2005b) argued that Asian writers overuse frame markers (*firstly, secondly, finally*) which is a sub-category of interactive features, while Swedish (Aijmer, 2002), and Chinese (Hyland 2005b) tend to rely freely on the modal verb *will* versus the *can* and *could* by Germans, and *may* by French (Aijmer, 2002).

Table 2

Frequency of use of Interactive and Interactional Metadiscourse in Student Persuasive Essays

Metadiscourse Category	Frequency	Percentage	Total Percentage
<i>Interactive Features</i>			
Transition	51	46.78	15.66
Frame Markers	22	20.18	06.76
Endophoric Markers	1	0.94	0.03
Evidentials	19	17.43	05.84
Code Glosses	16	14.67	04.92
<i>Total</i>	109		33.21
<i>Interactional Features</i>			
Hedges	22	10.13	06.76
Boosters	21	9.67	06.43
Attitude Markers	7	3.25	02.18
Engagement Markers	55	25.34	16.87
Self-Mentions	112	51.61	34.55
<i>Total</i>	217		66.79
<i>Grand Total</i>	326		100

Among the five features under interactional metadiscourse, the use of self-mentions overrides the frequency (51.61%) which almost doubled the list of all interactional resources total count. Since, it is viewed that the metadiscoursal analyses can provide ample evidences on how writers build reader-relationship through academic genre, it means that when students are to write an argumentative article, they are anticipated to take position, lead, and persuade readers to take their stance using the four elements of persuasion namely: claim, reasons, arguments, and counterarguments (Pena and Anudin, 2017). With this, Wilson and Sperber (2004) added that, argumentative writers should know their audience well so they can assess their claims properly

brought by the topic discussed on hand. Moreover, understanding social norms, relationship with readers, and the purpose of writing help achieve rhetorical goals in writing an essay (Hyland, 1998).

Also, the data revealed that the total number of engagement markers ranked second in terms of the frequency of use (25.34%). The former result appeals to the thoughtfulness of writers which provides an evaluation that readers' inclusion in the subject discussion is of paramount importance as the arguments unfold. The students tend to demand readers' participation and delve into reading engagement all throughout. Meanwhile, attitude markers were the least favored interactional metadiscourse (3.25% only). This shows that student writers did not find attitude markers or sentiment devices a strong feature. Though it mirrors intensity of ideas given, student slightly stressed its significance in underpinning writer identity. This evidence is supported by Rahimivand and Kuhl (2014) who discovered similar result in the case of ESL/EFL research articles. As evidenced, this report relays that student persuasive writers stress significance of both projecting identity in writing as well as involving readers actively in the texts.

As regards the interactive metadiscourse features, transition was ranked first (41.78%). Hyland (2004b) stated that metadiscourse includes "unpacking decisions writers make in creating discourse itself rather than the events and processes that they participated in" (p.140). Transitions are being used to connect the chronological points in the arguments while expressing relationship with sentences in a paragraph. The use of this transitional interactive metadiscourse feature provides the text an edge to be qualitatively-impacting. Thus, in writing persuasive essays, the employability of transition signals the reader what to expect next in the text and dictates readers to change or to maintain anticipation with the previous understandings.

5.2. Interactional Metadiscourse Features in Student Persuasive Essays

The following tables reflect the analysis of the 10 different metadiscourse features found in student persuasive essays as anchored on Hyland's (2004a) interpersonal model of metadiscourse. Again, it should be noted that the analysis was manually contextualized in nature to match the validity of the expected results and to surpass the notion of no one pragmatic meaning yields one single interpretation (Heng & Tan, 2010).

Table 3

Frequency of Hedges Used in Student Essays

Form of hedges	Frequency
Could	5
Can	5
Might	4
May	3
Would	2
Maybe	1
Seem/Seemed	1
Is believed	1
<i>Grand Total</i>	22

The use of hedges in student persuasive essays is relatively less frequent. However, it is obvious that students used a variety of hedges in their articles. Most evident hedges used are *could*, *can*, and *might*. The result indicates that although students are most likely to share inputs with less commitments and anticipations in expressing their statements, they appear to be cautious and modest in giving their views to preserve their identity. This may be due to the notion that persuasive essays are more into reasons and takes up less commitments because writers merely play as a dispenser of thoughts informing readers of the stance they take regarding a certain issue. In contrary, William (2007) points out the need to use more hedges for writing to be a successful one. As such, Rahimivand and Kuhl (2014) argue that through the use of hedges, writers can anticipate possible oppositions while appearing not to be too assertive, which is a valuable element to hold writer's position (Hyland 1996a, 1998; Moreno 1998, & Salager-Meyer 1994).

The use of hedges in student persuasive essays are presented in the following extracts:

(1): *At the very least, it is possible that soldiers **could** misinterpret their orders and miscommunicate their authorities through power out of ignorance. (ML)*

(2): *The government and powerful leaders keep this private from the society to avoid the breakdown of ideologies and **might** lessen the faith in religion. (OP)*

(3): *A simple post of a teenager about global warming can inform many about the effects of it and more or less, a reader of the post **may** start to change his un-eco-friendly ways. (YT)*

Table 4

Frequency of Boosters Used in Student Essays

Form of Boosters	Frequency
Truly	6
Must	5
Should	4
Surely	2
Of Course	2
Legally	1
In Fact	1
<i>Grand Total</i>	21

As can be gleaned from the table above, the use of boosters was downplayed in terms of the number of occurrences which displays a very slight difference only as compared to the number of hedges. It is surprising that students see this feature as not obligatory in taking propositions and stance. Persuasive essays are supposed to be reflections of reasons and arguments of writers. As Rahimivand and Kuhi (2014) confirms that boosters or certainty markers are complex metalinguistic devices that strengthen authoritative persona in various functions. The most evident use of boosters are *truly, must, and should*.

See extracts (4), (5), and (6) for the reference:

(4) *Many minors commit crimes because they think they can get away with it. **Legally**, they can. (YT)*

(5) *We **must** do our best to help the youths to go through the right direction. (YT)*

(6) ***Of course**, the issue of privacy remains to be unsettling topic but we already have milked it and stressed on it more than enough times. (OP)*

Table 5

Frequency of Attitude Markers Used in Student Essays

Forms of Attitude Markers	Frequency
Especially	5
More Importantly	1
Unfortunately	1
<i>Grand Total</i>	7

Interestingly, this result corroborates Burneikaite's (2008) study which accentuated that the dominant reason why attitude markers are objectively less preferred because this feature represents reluctance and lack of confidence of writers in establishing their voice in their outputs. This does not mean that feelings or affective stimuli of students do no longer exist when writing, however. It simply indicates that, in the academic world especially in the realm of persuasion, emotional sentiments must always be controlled by reasons. Following below are extracts that served as the evidence.

(7) *With this, the situation then was clearly different, **especially** by the terms situated for its declaration. (ML)*

(8) ***Unfortunately**, many teenagers commit suicide just so, they can escape from problems.*

Table 6

Frequency of Self-Mentions Used in Student Essays

Form of Self-Mentions	Frequency
I	35
We	48
Our	10
Us	10
My	6
Me	2
Grand Total	112

Interestingly, self-mentions are distinctly illustrated the most visible representation of constructing writer identity in persuasive essays. The prevalence of self-mentions promotes the writer and his/her work in academic community which holds the overwhelming part of this study. Harwood (2005b) supports the use of self-mentions or promotional devices in projecting authority in writing, *authorial self*. This is consistently supported by Hyland (2002) claim, "self-mention constitutes a central pragmatic feature of academic discourse since it contributes not only to the writer's construction of a text, but also of a rhetorical self (p.1110).

Hell, Verhoeven, Tak and Oosterhout (2005) exposed that the use of first person singular and plural, and third person singular is seen more dominant in narrative texts than in expository counterparts whereas impersonal pronouns are favored in expository than in narrative texts. In contrary, Martin (2011) revealed that Filipino student writers have a tendency to employ fewer

first person pronouns. The result was evident in both Filipino and English essays where first-person referencing is least favored. This implies that the students are more inclined with self-representation than with having a feeling of otherness (Partington, 1993). They tend to create individual identity while managing to establish solidarity and foster an atmosphere of oneness. Extractions (9), (10), and (11) below justify the points.

(9) *Such utterances from **my** parents strike **my** heart and soul. Telling **me** to become studious and be more pro-active in **my** academics. **I** have always thought that maybe they're just worried for **my** future, if not, my reputation in general. If so, **I** try to attain excellence in the work **I** do. However, as the average student that **I** am, **I** do not take this too much into consideration – until now. (EJK)*

(10) ***I** believe in the meaning of Martial Law that is meant to give the military control over its coverage area when the civilian government could no longer function. (ML)*

(11) ***I** would like to express to those affected by this calamity that **I** am thinking of them and wish to send them **my** love and prayers. **I** know that **we** will rise together stronger and united as a country and as a people.*

Table 7

Frequency of Engagement Markers Used in Student Essays

Form of Engagement Markers	Frequency
You	40
We	15
<i>Grad Total</i>	55

It can be seen from the table above that engagement markers ranked second in establishing writer identity in student persuasive essays. This shows that student writers develop a writing strategy to bring readers into the text in an unfolding dialogue (Hyland, 2004a). Using the pronoun *you* enables the students to link the past knowledge and experiences of readers to strengthen the interaction between the speaker and the audience in the speech event. The following extract could prove the effective use of an engagement marker, in a form of rhetorical question, which aims to call readers' participation and engagement in giving insightful arguments. The use of *You* showing the uniformity of ideas or a 'shared knowledge' between the writer and the reader is also notable.

(12) *Did you ever wonder or ask yourself, why NASA needs a vast exploration outside the world? What is their purpose? What is the benefit? (OP)*

(13) *How can you tell if you are using social media appropriately and wisely? (SM)*

(14) *Did you see? Do you see what is happening today? (OP)*

(15) *Open your eyes; Clear your mind. Let everything sink in and realize that we are in danger. The future held by the teenagers is in jeopardy. How can we progress if people like such are executed, killed and accused without real and solid evidences? Even if so, where is the proper due process? (EJK)*

Indeed, metadiscourse owns a prominent rank in second language academic writing. It has been proven that explicit instruction about metadiscourse has a positive impact on students' writing experiences (Crismore, 1984; Perez-Llantada, 2003; Simin & Tavangar, 2009; Xu, 2001, as cited in Tarrayo, 2014). Through explicit classroom instruction, students will be able to try to employ mostly on metadiscoursal elements to present a more acceptable piece of writing within the socio-rhetorical framework of academic picture within their target communities (Hyland, 2005b). In other words, by introducing metadiscourse in L2 academic approach, student moves out from simple sharing information to context-rich interaction (Dafouz-Milne, 2008, as cited in, Tarrayo & Duque, 2011) as it carries social meaning by displaying the author's dispositions and identity and by marking how he/she expects his/her readers to react to the ideational material.

6. Conclusion

This study concluded that the use of *self-mention* by students in persuasive essays constitutes a metalinguistic feature that promotes, establishes, equips, and secures their writer identity. The predominance of *self-mention* as a sub-category of interactional metadiscourse allows student writers to achieve interaction of readers personally where they can construct their metadiscoursal identity, i.e. *authorial self* not only to represent the text but more importantly position themselves as writers. Furthermore, the strategic use of personal pronouns as engagement markers is overwhelming in the study as clearly exemplified through rhetorical questions attempting to evoke participation and engagement among the readers. This is useful for student writers should know how to label their readers as interlocutors in order to attain persuasive and argumentative insights while creating a highly communicative engaging reading environment.

Hence, it can be concluded that such distinct feature of personal pronouns unquestionably helps shape writer identity in student persuasive essays. Nonetheless, it is significant to note that attitude markers are considered to be the least frequently used interactive metadiscourse element. The underuse of attitude markers or sentiment markers approves the dominance of reason over emotional perception in academic writing. Thus, attitude markers are seen to be impersonal feature that weakens authoritative voice and personal involvement of writers. In an academic world especially in the parlance of persuasion, overtaking emotions by arguments means eradicating “impressionism” (Rahimivand and Kuhi, 2014, p. 1499) and highlighting opinionated schemes. In addition, the underuse of hedges is remarkable in the study which shows that students are cautious and modest in giving their views regarding certain topics while the less frequency of boosters is surprising in that students’ authoritative persona in their persuasive essays were not truly reflected.

In conclusion, the role of metadiscourse in discursual construction of student identity lies in its intermediary nature in the sense that, with special use of its elements like evidentials, hedges, boosters, self-mentions, engagement markers and attitude markers, students can reflect their principles and uniqueness as a writer. This being said, factors that affect the use of metadiscourse markers when developing an academic argument may reside on the type of academic genre, the translation of various writing experiences through cultural norms, and linguistic choices.

7. Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

Based on the foregoing findings and the conclusion, this study offers some pedagogical implications useful for second language academic writing instruction. There is no question that metadiscourse markers are important ingredients in L2 academic writing. For an effective use of these markers, L2 teachers should directly teach them to students as explicit instruction of metadiscourse significantly enhances quality in student writing (see Dastjerdi & Shirzad, 2012; Yaghoubi & Ardestani, 2014). It is also imperative that teachers pay equal attention to the teaching of personal pronouns in the writing classes. Students should be taught the pragmatic functions of personal pronouns to help them carry out their positions in such a highly academic world of writing. Enough exposure on the different uses of personal pronouns is deemed necessary if the goal is to strengthen representation skills of students in different written discourses (Martin, 2011). Moreover, L2 writing teachers should employ more real-life and authentic writing activities which

can foster the development of critical thinking skills and familiarization of contextualized linguistic elements to transfer significant student writing experiences in the classroom.

However, a much deeper qualitative analysis of large and varied learner corpora is important to reach at a more conclusive result. Future studies may also investigate other persuasive essays that tackle other topics such as politics, sports and business. Lastly, since writing is culture-bound, a contrastive rhetoric analysis on metadiscourse can be a rich information showing the distinction of functions between metadiscourse categories of different languages situated within the broad field of academic writing.

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Mapping reading strategy orchestration of tertiary ESL students

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Abstract

Although extensive research has identified the learning strategies of students learning second or foreign languages, several concerns remain unexplored. One of these concerns is identifying localized strategic behavior (Cohen, 2007) or specific strategies selected for a task. Thus, this study investigated the use of language strategy in L2 reading tasks of six participants to identify emerging patterns and degree of strategy orchestration. The participants, enrolled in Communication Arts 2, were equally grouped as either proficient or less proficient. Method triangulation was used to analyze data from the reading stages: pre-reading, while-reading, and post reading. Data from think-aloud protocol (TAP), the main data gathering procedure, was complemented by other data gathering procedures: stimulated recall interview, and observations. The participants used varied strategy quantity and types. However, more proficient participants have richer strategy repertoires compared to less proficient participants who have limited strategy inventory. In addition, proficient participants have better metacognitive awareness, which enable them to produce better strategy clusters and chains. Findings indicated the need of research to further understand the role of metacognition on strategy orchestration.

Keywords: language learning strategies, strategy orchestration, emerging reading strategy patterns, reading strategy chains and clusters

Introduction

Often, tertiary students are required to do voluminous readings on their courses as part of the academic training. Reading is a process in which students interact with texts meaningfully;

they utilize a set of tactics or techniques to comprehend the text. These sets of tactics are more commonly known as *learning strategies*. Rebecca Oxford, a front runner in language learning strategy (LLS) research defined learning strategies as specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations (1990, p. 8).

The publication of Joan Rubin's article "What the Good Language Learner Can Teach Us" in 1975 heralded language strategy research (Greenfell and Macaro, 2007). In this article, Rubin (1975) noted that the primary characteristic of good language learners was their creative employment of strategies in learning a new language. Language learning strategies (LLS) play an important role in second language learning. LLS experts such as Rebecca Oxford, Andrew Cohen, J.O Malley and Anna Chamot underscored the importance language learning strategies in the arsenal of successful L2 learners.

The most general finding among the researchers on language learning strategies is that the use of appropriate LLS leads to improved proficiency or achievement in overall or specific language skills (Oxford, 1989; Cohen, 1996, Rossiter 2003). Relating this to the parable on teaching men to fish instead of giving them fish, the use of appropriate LLS enables students to take responsibility for their own learning by improving learner autonomy and independence.

Teachers often provide students advice on how to improve language skills. Teachers' suggestions will be more effective if they have a comprehensive knowledge of students' learning strategies. As Fleming and Walls (1998) would put it, an understanding and awareness of learning strategies on the part of the teachers and students may provide valuable insights into the process of language learning.

According to Oxford (1990) learning strategies have certain features. First, learning strategies allow learners to become more self-directed. This is important because learners will not always have teachers around to guide them as they use the language outside the classroom. (9 -14)

Second, learning strategies are problem oriented, since these strategies are tools to be used to solve problems, or to accomplish a task, or to meet an objective. For example, a learner can use reasoning or guessing strategies to understand a reading text better.

Third, learning strategies are action-based, for they are specific actions taken by the learner in order to enhance their learning. Furthermore, the choice of strategy depends upon the task with some strategies appropriate for more than one task.

Next, LLS involve many aspects of the learner, not just cognitive, as some strategies are beyond cognition. Besides cognitive functions, strategies also include metacognitive, emotional or affective and social functions as well.

Furthermore, learning strategies are not always observable to the human eye. For example, while many aspects of co-operating with someone else to achieve a learning goal are observable, it is impossible to observe a learner act of making associations.

Also, learning strategies are often conscious efforts used by learners to take control of their learning. However, after a certain amount of use and practice, learning strategies, like any other skill or behavior, can become automatic.

Another important feature of LLS is flexibility: they are not always found in predictable sequences or in precise patterns. Individual learner can choose, combine and sequence the strategies in a way he or she wants. But in some cases, such as in reading a passage, learners use some strategies in a predictable way. For example, learners first preview the text length, text title, skim or scan the first and last sentences, and then read it more closely by using L1 translation, background knowledge, etc.

Research supports the effectiveness of using L2 learning strategies. More so, various studies have shown that successful language learners often use strategies in an orchestrated manner, which Oxford (2011) termed as strategy chain. Successful language learners select strategies that work together in a highly-orchestrated way that fit the requirements of the language task. A combination of strategies often has more impact than single strategies. When used together, language strategies improve proficiency or level of achievement in specific language tasks.

Better language learners are more capable of employing metacognitive skills than poor learners. According to Anderson (2002) the five components of metacognition are: preparing and planning for learning, selecting and using learning strategies, monitoring strategy use, orchestrating various strategies and evaluating strategy use and learning.

Researchers have been interested in LLS orchestration as early as 1985 when Chamot already observed “combination” of strategy use for single language tasks. She conducted a descriptive study among 70 ESL students with the primary purpose of identifying the different strategies used by the subjects. Using class observation guides and interview guides, 638 instances of learning strategies were reportedly used. While there were new strategies, many of the reported strategies matched those already identified by the literature. These strategies were classified into cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective.

In 2005, Andrew Cohen, a noted LLS researcher, published the results of a survey he conducted among 19 strategy experts. The list of respondents included the who’s who in the field of language strategy – Neil Andersen, Anna Chamot, Andrew Cohen, Do Coyle, Claudia Finkbeiner, Christine Goh, Suzanne Graham, Carol Griffiths, Peter Gu, Veronica Harris, Ernesto Macaro, Martha Nyikos, Rebecca Oxford, Joan Rubin, Osamu Takeuchi, Larry Vandergrift, Qiufang Wen, Cynthia White and Lawrence Zhang.

The instrument was a questionnaire consisting of eleven sections dealing with many issues on LLS. One of the sections of the questionnaire dealt with strategy cluster and chain. When asked about this issue, there was a consensus among experts that strategic behavior fall along a continuum of a single action to a sequence of actions (Cohen, 2007). Furthermore, there was an agreement on the following issues:

- a. A strategy used singly cannot function well.
- b. The use of strategy clusters is task-dependent
- c. Metacognitive strategies are used to evaluate strategy clusters.

This consensus among LLS experts correlates with Macaro’s (2004) proposed features of strategies. First, he emphasizes that for a strategy to be effective in promoting learning or improved performance, it must be combined with other strategies either simultaneously or in sequence to form strategy clusters and chains.

Second, strategies are both situation -specific and transferable to other situations Macaro (2004). Strategies are transferred to similar tasks when learners perceive similarities between the new and former tasks. Also, he emphasized that evaluation of strategy effectiveness is undertaken not in isolation but against the background of the relative effectiveness of strategy clusters.

Third, a strategy cluster is evaluated by a metacognitive strategy or a series of metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies are attached to strategy clusters to regulate conscious cognitive activity (Macaro, 2004). Strategy clusters are complex that from time to time strategies are added or disregarded through ongoing monitoring and evaluation. Strategy clusters involve a high-level of planning and orchestration which is the result of metacognitive strategies. In fact, Macaro (2001) sees that metacognitive strategies aid learners combine and orchestrate strategies effectively in any given situation.

For example, if a learner needs to determine the meaning of the word ‘antiquity’, he may use word analysis, recognizing that “anti” is a prefix. However, ‘anti’ is not a prefix in the word. Thus, the strategy won’t work in this case. When the learner finds out that word analysis does not help him figure out the meaning of the word, he turns to another strategy such as context clues.

Vast literature on language learning strategies has identified several factors correlating strategy choice and use (Oxford, 199; Oxford & Nyikos, 2011). Among these factors are: gender, proficiency level, ethnicity, motivation, personality traits, and age. These factors are discussed, in turn.

Some studies have investigated the relationship between gender and LLS choice and use. These studies reported higher frequency of strategy use by females than males. Lee (2003) surveyed 325 Korean EFL secondary students using Oxford’s Strategy Inventory of Language Learning (SILL). Results revealed higher LLS use by females in all six strategy categories: memory, cognitive, compensation, metacognitive, social and affective. In 1996, Dreyer and Oxford (in Osamu, Griffiths and Coyle, 2007) reported that females used social and metacognitive strategies more often than males.

Similar findings were noted in a study conducted by McMullen (2009) among Saudi EFL students. The survey among 165 respondents reported that the 94 female students reported higher LLS use than their 71 male counterparts.

In all of the studies reviewed, a higher level of proficiency has been associated with better use of strategies. In a study conducted by Shamais (2003) among Arab-speaking English majors in An-Najab University in Palestine, a positive correlation between strategy use and proficiency

level was revealed. Similar findings were disclosed in a study done by Bremner in 1999. Higher proficient learners used more strategies, especially cognitive and metacognitive.

Cohen (1987) undertook a survey on the way learners relate to teacher feedback on compositions, revealing that poorer writers had limited repertoire of strategies for processing teacher feedback. Using Oxford's SILL, Wu (2008) found that more proficient Chinese EFL learners used cognitive, metacognitive and social strategies more often than affective, memory and compensation strategies. Furthermore, the study showed that cognitive strategies had the strongest relations to English proficiency, especially in reading and listening proficiency. The strong relation between cognitive strategies and English proficiency suggests that cognitive strategies are a good predictor of English proficiency

Among 18 Singaporean pupils, flexibility and appropriateness of reading strategies are affected by level of proficiency (Zhang, Gu, Hu, 2008). High proficient learners were better LLS users than low proficient learners.

Cultural values affect a learner's attitude about learning. Nachiengmai (1998) observed that in his native Thai culture, respect for parents and the elderly and the more qualified people caused learners to be non-participative in class. Asian students preferred strategies involving rote memorization and language rules than communication strategies (O' Malley and Chamot, 1990). Politzer (in Lee, Ibid) found that Hispanics and Asians differ strongly in the kinds of strategies they use in language learning. Hispanics choose more social and interactive strategies, while Asians opted for rote memorization.

The preference of rote learning in vocabulary learning strategies among Chinese was confirmed in a study done by Li (2005). Drawing data from 100 Chinese EFL students in the English department of a university in Northeast, China, results indicated that the subjects held highly positive belief about rote learning – repetition, memorization, and practice. Six factors were identified as reasons for the preference, namely: Chinese educational and cultural background, EFL environment, traditional habits, national examination demand, Chinese linguistic background and inability to try out other strategies.

Another variable examined with respect to its relation to LLS use is motivation. General findings point that learners who are more motivated use a wider range and strategies and use these

strategies more often. Chang and Huang (1999) found out that among their 46 Taiwanese respondents, use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies were highly associated with intrinsic motivation; while extrinsic motivation account for the use of memory and affective strategies.

Aside from motivation, positive attitude directly correlates with the frequency of LLS use. Ming (2007) found that Chinese students who regarded English learning as a difficult task prevented them from taking positive measure to improve their vocabulary learning strategies. Learners with negative attitude showed low use of vocabulary management, vocabulary activation and dictionary use.

Self-efficacy refers to personal judgments of performance capacities in a given domain of activities (Schunk in Rossiter, 2002). People with high efficacy are confident to perform since they judge themselves capable of managing the activity. Also, they avoid activities which they believe are beyond their abilities. In addition, people who have a stronger sense of self-efficacy tend to exert more effort to meet challenges and tend to make decisions on when and how to use strategies to manage the challenge of the tasks. Wong (2005) found that high self-efficacy pre-service teachers reported more frequent use of a greater number of language learning strategies than did low self-efficacy pre-service teachers.

Students of different stages of L2 learning used different strategies, with certain strategies often being employed by older (Oxford, 1990 and Lee, 2003) and more advanced language learners (Lee, 2003). A study done by Chamot, et al (1987, in Lee 2003) discovered that cognitive strategy use decreased and metacognitive strategy use increased as language course level increased; but social and affective strategy use remained low across all course levels.

Studies indicate that situational variables exert influence on the use of strategies. Strategy choice is also task-dependent. Generally, Kang (1997) noted, students used memory strategies for vocabulary learning, compensation strategies for listening and reading comprehension tasks and metacognitive strategies for listening and writing tasks. It also appears that strategies for test taking are determined by the nature of the tests (Roizen, 1983). Also, the level of difficulty of the language task is a factor for strategy preference (Oxford, Cho, Leung and Kim, (2004).

Educational and teaching environment also influences students' learning (Lin and Wenden, (1998). The subjects of the study agreed that the fear caused by junior and senior high school has

a negative influence on their university English learning. In 1990 Watanabe examined the effects of staying overseas on LLS use by Japanese EFL students. Analysis of the data obtained showed that staying abroad had a favorable effect by providing students with opportunities to develop strategies of learning English through communication.

As to the relationship between personality and LLS choice, Ehrman and Oxford (1989 in Osamu, Griffiths and Coyle, 2007)) found that extroverts used two categories of strategies, namely: affective and visualizations. Introverts, on the other hand, made use of searching for and communicating meaning. In another study by Ehrman and Oxford (1990), extroverts showed strong preference for social strategies, while introverts use metacognitive strategies more frequently. Extroverts are more willing to take risks and may benefit from their involvement in communication, while introverts may be more comfortable with form-focused activities that ensure accuracy than communicative-focused activities.

Despite the vast research made in this area of L2 learning, LLS in some LLS areas are relatively unexplored, one of which is LLS used in combinations, which experts termed as LLS orchestration. The limited studies on strategy orchestration prompted this researcher to explore the considerable potential in investigating the topic as all language learners employ LLS of varied types, quantity, quality and level of effectiveness.

Statement of the Problem

This study mapped the different language learning strategy chains and clusters of respondents in L2 reading tasks. Specifically, these questions were posited:

1. What are the patterns of language learning strategies that emerged from the reading tasks?
2. How different / similar is strategy orchestration among the two groups of learners?

Method

The qualitative action case study was used to map the language learning strategy clusters and chains of students in two L2 reading-writing tasks. Nunan and Bailey (2009) define action case study as “an investigation carried out by a classroom practitioner in his or her professional context.” (p. 165).

Six students equally grouped as proficient or less proficient were chosen as participants for the study. These students were enrolled in Communication Arts 2 during the first semester of academic year 2017-2018.

Two authentic expository texts from The Philippine Daily Inquirer were selected. According to Chamot, et al. (1990), authentic materials provide a wide variety of written passages with different patterns of rhetorical organizations and writing styles. The text were selected based on text structures, text readability, and text difficulty, which was calculated using the Flesch Reading Ease test.

The first text, *Stuck in a Sandbox (RT1)*, by Amaris Grace Cabason described Filipino sportsmanship, and then uses facts, reasons and examples to support her main idea.

Counting Friends (RT 2) by Johaira C. Wahab describes friendship through an enumeration of the friends she has had, contrasted friends to allies and gives an extended definition of friendship.

Since most strategies are internal mental processes (White, Schramm and Chamot, 2007), the research relied on learners' accounts. Self-report was used to document learners' use of LLS (Cohen, 1998 and Chamot, 2004). Data from participants' self-recall were collected using the following instruments: Think a-loud protocol, stimulated recall interview, observation, and strategy journal.

Think-a-loud protocol (TAP), the main data gathering instrument, has been used extensively in strategy studies especially in reading (Chamot, 2004). In this method, the students verbalize the process as they are engaged in the tasks.

Observation was used in conjunction with think- a-loud protocol while the students completed the reading tasks. The procedure documented nonverbal communication which think-aloud protocols were not able to account for.

Stimulated recall interview technique provided flexibility in seeking clarification and elaboration from the participants. They were interviewed as they watched segments of the videotaped TAP and were asked to analyze the tasks. The videos were replayed to the participants to stimulate their recall their actions and verbal protocols during the reading tasks.

A pilot try-out, involving three participants, was conducted before the start of the actual study. The try-out assessed the methodology so that possible problems that might occur during the conduct of the study could be anticipated. Revisions on the procedure of the data gathering based on the evaluation of the pilot study were made before the actual study.

Numerical count of the different strategies used by the participants and numerical difference among participants' strategies employment were also analyzed using percentage and ranking.

However, such simple counting did not capture how a strategy was used and how the strategy chains and clusters were orchestrated. Hence, qualitative analysis was employed to examine the think a-loud protocols.

Method triangulation was employed to improve the validity and reliability of the research. Golafshani (2003) stresses that triangulation strengthens a study by using several kinds of methods and data, including both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The collection of different types of data will permit the comparison of outcomes of the various kinds of data collection (Nunan and Bailey, 2009).

The data gathered from the think a-loud protocols were coded and segmented. After the data were coded, the cognitive processes were reconstructed as chains and clusters of strategies. The segmentation scheme enabled the researcher to have in-depth understanding of the processes and interaction between the participants and the texts. Two reading strategies coding schemes were adapted for the study: Davis and Bistodeau (1993) Ozek & Civelek, (2006) Reading Coding Schemes. These coding schemes were adapted as classifications of the strategies were considered: reading phases and general categories of reading strategies.

Also, the qualitative nature of the data raised concerns from on reliability of codified strategies (Manchon, de Larios ad Murphy, 2007). Hence, the coded strategies were tested for intra-rater and inter-rater reliability.

The researcher did a second coding of the protocols, two weeks or 14 days after the first coding. The two coding were compared, and consistency was calculated at 92%. Inconsistencies in the coding were reviewed and revised. After resolving the inconsistencies, an inter-rater reliability test was done.

The inter-rater's coding was compared with that of the researcher's. The percentage of agreement between the researcher and the inter-rater was 82.5%. Discrepancies in the coding were resolved through discussion with the inter-rater and consensus was reached.

After which, coded strategies were catalogued according to strategy types: bottom up, top down and metacognitive. The procedure is shown in the figure below.

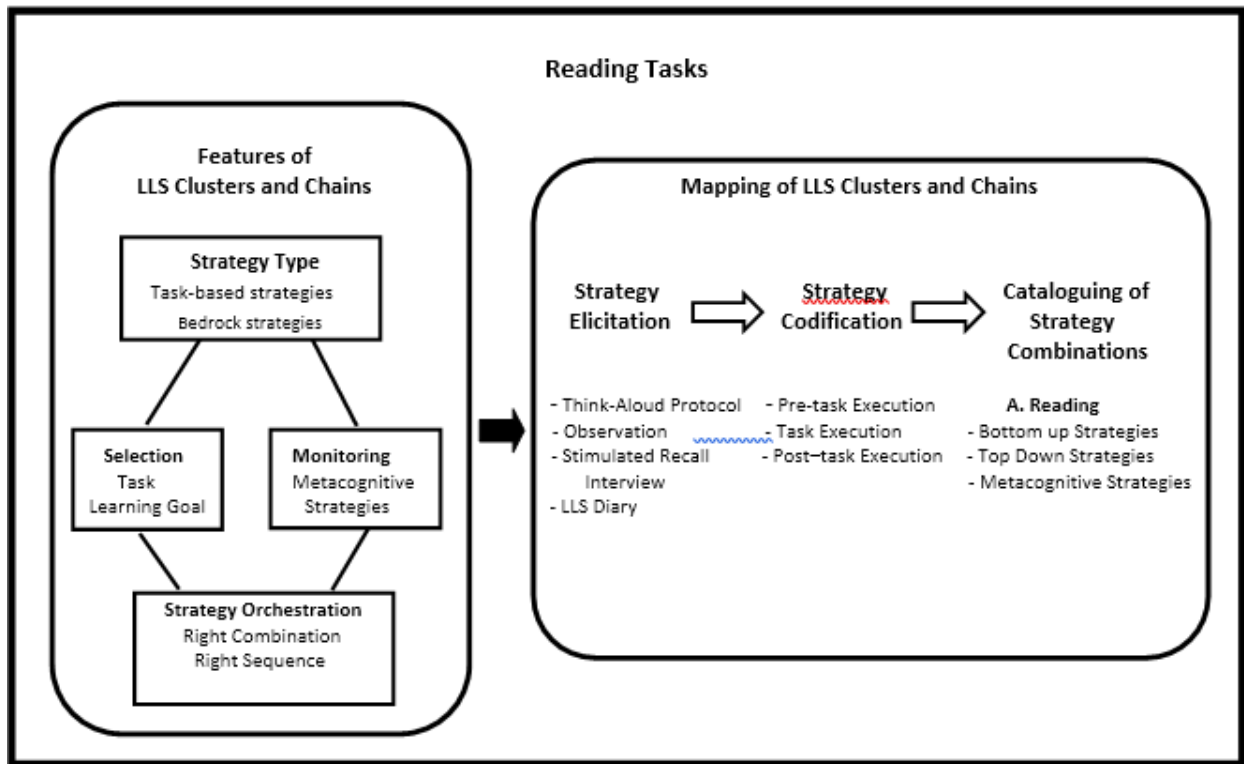


Figure 1. Schematic Diagram of Mapping Model of LLS Clusters and Chains in Reading Tasks

Results

Problem 1: What are the patterns of language learning strategies that emerged from the reading tasks?

Participants (PAR) have shown preference for some strategies as 9 emerging LLS patterns were documented. The summary of these preferences is listed in the following table.

Table 1. Summary of emerging patterns of reading strategy

Emerging Patterns	PAR 1	PAR 2	PAR 3	PAR 4	PAR 5	PAR 6
1. Combining Inference with:						
a. Rereading	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
b. Vocabulary strategy	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>			
c. Background Knowledge	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				
2. Combining Rereading & Translating to L1	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
3. Using Metacognitive Strategies	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				
4. Combining Commenting, Assessing & Questioning about the Content w/ other strategies	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>				
5. Relying on Dictionary Use			<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>		<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
6. Using Single Strategies						
a. Inference	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	
b. Translating to L1	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Two emerging patterns were present in the repertoire of all participants: using translating to L1 singly combining rereading and translating in L1, which is consistent with Chamot, et al (1987, in Karimian and Talebinijab, 2013) finding that translation strategy is a base for learners L2 comprehension. More so, the use of L1 could lower affective filter (Krashen, 1985) as participants became more confident with their reading comprehension.

All of the participants paired two bottom-up strategies: rereading and translating to L1. Participants used rereading as a compensatory or repairing strategy (Walczyk, 2000) when faced with decoding difficulties. Also, it was easier for the participants to reread the text before translating in L1. However there seemed to be an over-reliance as the pattern constituted an entire LLS chain. This was observed particularly with less proficient readers.

However, over-reliance on translation could be counter-productive (Laio, 2006, Erler and Finkbeiner, 2007) leading to inappropriate transfer of L1 features to L2 to cause grammatical mistakes and mistranslation. This was observed with PAR 6 who generally used direct translation.

Proficient participants PAR 1, PAR 2 and PAR 3 combined inferencing, a top down strategy, with other strategies. PAR 1 and 3 combined inferencing with bottom up strategies, namely vocabulary strategies and rereading. PAR 1 and PAR 2 combined 2 top down strategies: inferencing and using background knowledge. Nassaji (2006) noted that language proficiency correlates with the use of inferencing strategies: proficient learners are more effective in inferring conclusions.

PAR1 and PAR 2 have two other emerging patterns: using metacognitive strategies and combining commenting, assessing or questioning the content of the text with other strategies. By pairing these strategies with other strategies, they made predictions and hypothesis about the text content. PAR 1 and PAR 2 checked initial predictions, refocused on the content of the RT's and amended the hypothesis when needed (Ozek & Civelek, 2006).

Less proficient participants, PAR 4 and PAR 6, heavily relied on a single VLS: using the dictionary for a difficult word. Although dictionary use is important in language learning (Prichard, 2008), other VLS were not employed: they were not yet automatized. In fact, there were some instances that less proficient participants could not understand definitions culled from the dictionary. On the other hand, PAR 3, a proficient participant, has a strong confidence on dictionary use, preferring it over other VLS that she knows.

Problem 2: How different / similar is strategy orchestration among the two groups of learners?

Grenfell and Macaro (2007) stressed that complex tasks would need strategy clusters evaluated by metacognitive strategies. PAR 1 had the most strategy chains, 96 chains; followed by PAR 2 with 71 strategy chains. Although a less proficient learner, PAR 6 used 75 strategy chains for the two reading texts. PAR 3 used a total of 63 strategy chains and PAR 5 forty-seven strategy chains. PAR 4 used the least strategy chains, 44. The summary is given in Table 54

Table 3. Summary of Strategy Chains

	PAR 1	PAR 2	PAR 3	PAR 4	PAR 5	PAR 6
Number of Strategy Chains	96	71	63	44	47	75
Longest Strategy Chain	20	19	7	13	6	10
Average strategies in a chain	4.4	5	3.3	4.5	3	4.4
Occurrences of metacognitive strategies	16	12	4	1	0	2

The longest strategy chain, composed of twenty strategies, was used by PAR 1 in the text below:

RT 1	: into private life. It seems as if they have scrapped the word “losing” from their vocabulary, and are intent on finding excuses, if only to spare themselves the agony
------	--

Seven types of strategies were used: 2 bottom up strategies, 4 top down strategies and 1 metacognitive strategy. To assist comprehension, PAR 1 separated the text into 3 segments.

The segments are:

Segment One :	into private life
Segment Two :	It seems as if they have scrapped the word “losing” from their vocabulary,
Segment Three:	and are intent on finding excuses if only to spare themselves the agony

She identified the importance of the second segment by translating to L1 the word “losing.”. She reread the word and connected her comprehension with the previous text by rereading “and retreat.” She explained the reason in the interview below:

PAR 1 : Nahirapan ako intindihin etong part na ito. Alam ko naimportante ito sa message ng binasa ko. Mahirap ito intindihin kasi connected siya sa ibang parts. May malalim sa meaning ang part na ito. Kaya medyo naging mahirap sa akin. Pinutol-putol ko ang pagbabasa kasi mas madaling intindihin pag pina-iksi ko. *(It was difficult to understand this part and I know this is important. It has a deeper meaning that's why it was difficult for me. It is was easier to understand if I segmented this part.)*

After inferring the meaning of the second segment, she reread segment 1 and related it to background knowledge. She explained:

PAR 1 : Nasabi ko na parang showbiz and mga natalong candidates kasi nagpapa interview sila sa tv at parang tele-nobela, madrama sila. *(Loosing candidates are like show business personalities; they are interviewed and it's like watching a tv soap opera, full of drama.)*

PAR 1 reread and translated to L2 the entire segment; then reread segment three. Encountering an unfamiliar word, “agony,” she then reread the word. After inferring that agony is *pagtanggap* in L1, she reread the segment; repeatedly rereading *agony* 3 times. The reason for doing so was verbalized by PAR 1:

PAR 1 : Nahirapan ako intindihin ang “agony” kasi di ko alam ang meaning. Tapos related pa ito sa election. Kaya sinubukan kong hulahan ang word. *(I found difficulty in understanding agony since I don't know the meaning. And it's related to the elections; that's why I tried to guess the word.)*

Although rereading slowed down PAR 1's reading speed, it helped her understand the word “agony” by relating it to background knowledge and inferring its meaning. She still doubted the inference, and for the third time, she reread segment 3. After using two bottom up strategies, translating the segment to L1 and rereading the segment, she revised her inference of *agony* to *nagtatangol*. However, she still doubted her comprehension of the text.

The use of “commenting on own behavior and process” indicated the participant's lack of comprehension which is needed for high-level processing of the text as well as regulating other comprehension processes. PAR 1 orchestrated the reading strategies in relation to task demands.

She monitored the process of comprehension, evaluated the effects of the selected strategies, and adjusted strategies when needed. She was able recognize if a strategy was not effective by using another strategy. The strategy orchestration is shown in the following LLS chain:

RT 1 : into private life. It seems as if they have scrapped the word “losing” from their vocabulary, and are intent on finding excuses, if only to spare themselves the agony

Strategy Chain 1	Strategy Type	TAP
RS1. Translating or restating the text to L1	Bottom Up	Pagkatalo (<i>lost</i>)
RS2. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	Losing
RS3. Connecting new information with previously stated content	Top Down	Hmmm... sabi dito kung sinu-sino daw iyong mga taong nanumpa, di mga tao tao nanumpa, di marunong tumanggap ng pagkatalo (<i>Hmmm... it says here a lot of people are sworn to office, not people, people sworn, can't accept defeat</i>)
RS4. Rereading the previous text	Bottom Up	And retreat
RS5. Making inference about the content of the text	Top Down	di sila umaamin ng kasalanan nila. Do not know eh. Di sila umaamin ng pagkakamali nila, mga kasalanan (<i>they don't admit their faults. Don't know. They don't admit their mistakes, their faults</i>)
RS6. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	into private life...
RS7. Relating the text to background knowledge about the topic	Top Down	Oo nga, kasi sa election nga minsan showbiz nga eh. Kung anu-ano ...(<i>Yes, because it's the elections, sometimes show business</i>)
RS8. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	it seems they have scrapped the word losing
RS9. Translating or restating the text in L1	Bottom Up	di nila, parang wala sa bokabularyo nila ang pagkatalo (<i>losing is not in their vocabulary</i>)

RS10. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	and are intent of finding excuses, if only to spare themselves the agony.
RS11. Commenting on one's behavior and process	Metacognitive	Agony? Agony, di ko alam iyon, Di ko na maintidihan, ah. Basahin ko ulit (<i>agony? agony, I don't know this. I can't understand. I'll read again.</i>)
RS12. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	Agony...
RS13. Making inference about the content of the text	Top Down	siguro agony, pagtanggap? (<i>I suppose agony is acceptance</i>)
RS14. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	If only to spare themselves the agony, agony, agony of having to accept...
RS15. Questioning, assessing, commenting on the information in the text	Top Down	ano kaya ibig sabihin? (<i>What does it mean?</i>)
RS16. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	are intent of finding excuses only to spare themselves of the agony...
RS17. Translating or restating the text in L1	Bottom Up	sabi kasi dito.. di nila alam ang word na loosing at lagi silang may mga excuses. (<i>It says here... they don't know the word loosing and they always have excuses</i>)
RS18. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	if only to spare themselves the agony
RS19. Making inference about the content of the text	Top Down	Ah, nagtatanggol ng sarili nila. (<i>Ah, they are defending themselves</i>)
RS20. Commenting on one's behavior and process	Metacognitive	Iyon ba iyon? Parang mali yata ang interpretation ko. (<i>Is this it? I think my interpretation is wrong.</i>)

Initially, PAR 1 translated to L1 (RS1) the word *losing* then reread the word (RS2). Next, she connected previously stated information (RS3) to improve her comprehension. Chunking another important segment for rereading (RS4), she made a partial inference (RS5) of the text. She related to her background knowledge on elections in the Philippines (RS7) the segment she

previously reread (RS6). After a series of rereading and translating (RS8,9 and 10), She recognized a difficult and unfamiliar word, *agony* (RS11). Focusing on the word, she reread (RS12) it then inferred its meaning (RS13). To commence testing his hypothesis on *agony*, PAR 1 reread the text (RS14) and asked what the text could mean (RS15). She made use of a series of translating and rereading (RS16, 17, 18) in order to come up with a second hypothesis (RS19). After the attempts to comprehend the text, she still doubted (RS20) her inference.

The same could be deduced in the use of metacognitive strategies in the two reading tasks as 16 incidents were documented. This corroborated with the results of previous studies indicating the use of metacognitive strategies by proficient learners (Anderson 2002, Upton, 2009, Zhang and Wu, 2009). However, not all the strategy chains included metacognitive strategies. Aside from not always observable (Oxford, 1990), complete metacognitive strategy use might not have been captured in PAR 1's TAP

Generally, strategy chains and clusters are employed in complex tasks like reading comprehension. Throughout the reading processes, the participant made use of strategy chains. The success of bringing together more than one strategy depends on metacognitive strategies. PAR 1 also used metacognitive strategies in shorter chains

PAR 2's longest chain, with 19 strategies, was also monitored by a metacognitive strategy which was used twice: commenting on one's behavior or process. Striking also was PAR 2's use of the metacognitive strategy with commenting, assessing or questioning about the content of the text. In using this top down strategy, PAR 2 focused on the problem on hand and as she planned how to attend to the problem.

In the four instances PAR 3 used the metacognitive strategy "commenting on own behavior or process", she was able to monitor her comprehension as she planned the next strategies to employ.

However, the longest chain used by PAR 4, a less proficient learner, mainly composed of three series of rereading and translating, preceding the development of inferences. He did not evaluate his processing of the information as no metacognitive was used.

Similarly, the longest chain of PAR 6 had no metacognitive strategy: a series of five pairs of rereading and translating in L1. The strategy chain primarily involved surface-structure

processing as he segmented the text into five short phrases. This buttressed Hassenfeld’s (1977, in Erler & Finkbeiner, 2007) observation that less proficient readers lost track of the main meaning as they read or translated in short phrases.

RT 2 : When I was in college, or more precisely when I shifted out of Interned to take an AB course in UP Diliman, Caloy, an Interned batch mate in UP Manila, asked me, grinning: “So, do you have many friends now?” I told him, “Well, here I don’t need friends, I only have allies. That’s all I need.

Strategy Chain	Strategy Type	TAP
1. Translating or restating the text to L1	Bottom Up	Noong nasa kolehiyo pa lang ako, (<i>when I was still in college</i>)
2. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	or more precisely when I shifted out
3. Translating or restating the text to L1	Bottom Up	noong lumipat ako (<i>when I transferred</i>)
4. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	of Interned to take an AB course in UP Diliman, Caloy, an Interned batch mate in UP Manila, asked me, grinning: “So, do you have many friends now?”
5. Translating or restating the text to L1	Bottom Up	Tinanong ako kung marami akong kaibigan sinabi ko, di ko kailangan ng maraming kaibigan, (<i>I was asked if I have many friends, I said, I don’t need many friends</i>)
6. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	“I don’t need friends, I only have allies. That’s all I need.”
7. Translating or restating the text to L1	Bottom Up	Kailangan ko lang ng allies, (<i>I only need allies</i>)
8. Using the dictionary for an important word	Bottom Up	Allies ... (Uses dictionary). Connection, membership
9. Translating or restating the text to L1	Bottom Up	Kailangan ko lang ng koneksyon, (<i>I only need connection</i>)
10. Rereading the text	Bottom Up	That’s all I need

The participant's overdependence on these two bottom up strategies clearly shows his very limited internalized strategies. His lack of confidence in using other strategies made him rely on translation. This observation confirms Upton and Lee-Thompson (2009) findings that less proficient learners often use the mother tongue in direct translation and less in the metacognitive level. That is, PAR 6 employed translation basically as a decoding strategy.

The use of metacognitive strategies by PAR 4 and PAR 6 was not helpful in their reading comprehension. PAR 4 used a metacognitive strategy only once while PAR 6 twice, behaviors which might indicate that both participants have not yet proceduralized the strategies. Oxford (1990) stated that a strategy needs to be automatized in order to be effective. There was no documented use of metacognitive strategy by PAR 5 signifying that it may not yet be part of her strategy repertoire.

Discussion

Both proficient and less proficient participants actively engage in strategy use in the two reading tasks. However, the groups differ in strategy quantity and types. Proficient participants have richer strategy repertoires which allow them to employ better strategies. Less proficient participants, because of their limited strategies, repeatedly use the same strategies. More so, both groups show preferential use of some strategies which Oxford (1990) called *bedrock strategies*, perhaps for different reasons. Proficient participants' dependence on some strategies might be of high level of confidence in these strategies which they have repeatedly used in various contexts. Less proficient participants, on the other hand, usually used the same strategies because of limited repertoires.

Both groups show preference for using bottom up strategies, specifically rereading and translating or restating in L1. However, less proficient participants rely more on text based or bottom up strategies in attempt to gain understanding of the reading texts. They seem to focus more on decoding text-based elements of the reading texts because their proficiencies could not automatically process these elements. Less proficient participants tend to check over the sentences they do not understand by translating directly to L1 to and confirming their understanding in L1.

On the other hand, more proficient participants used more top down strategies like inferring, using background knowledge and questioning, assessing and commenting on the content. Also, proficient participants selection of reading strategies may be due to better metacognitive knowledge. They are more cognizant of the reading processes, their own strategy repertoires, and the actual use of these strategies to maximize text comprehension (Zhang, 2002)

Proficient participants have better metacognitive regulation (Oxford, 2011) than their less proficient counterparts. Proficient participants were able to produce better strategy chains, in terms of quantity, variety, and quality via metacognitive strategies. Using metacognitive strategies, proficient participants seem more conscious of the strategic processes of the reading tasks, of their strategy repertoires and the actual utilization of their strategies. Grenfell and Macaro (2007) consider metacognition as the orchestrating mechanism for effective combining of strategies in any given learning situations.

Through metacognitive strategies, a LLS phenomenon which this researcher terms as *strategy scaffolding* is observed - the harmonizing nature of strategies working together in patterns or chains leading to achievement of planned language tasks. LLS orchestration involves the on-line shredding and adding of strategies as students, through metacognitive awareness, monitor, evaluation and revision of strategies. Likened to the construction of a building, learners need to scaffold strategies to address the demands of learning tasks. Strategy scaffoldings are built above each other via LLS clusters and chains as learners engage in more complex tasks.

Hence, it is imperative to improve LLS repertoire and metacognitive awareness of learners through explicit LLS instruction for them to build stronger LLS scaffoldings. In doing so, students will have more strategies in their arsenal and will have the metacognitive awareness to use these strategies effectively.

Pedagogical Implications

Consciousness of LLS among students should be part of instruction for them to become better second language learners. The use of appropriate LLS enables students to take responsibility for their own learning by improving autonomy, independence and self-direction

(Oxford and Nyikos 1989 and Lee 2003). Learning strategies need to be internalized so that they can be utilized in different learning situations. This can be done through explicit LLS training. Strategy Based Instruction models have been developed by Chamot and O' Malley (1994), Oxford (1990) and Greenfield and Harris (1999). Upon inspection, these models contain almost the same steps: preparation, teacher-modeling, implementation, evaluation and expansion. For teacher who are not yet familiar with LLS training, this researcher proposes the inclusion of a pre-LLS training phase: teacher strategy training.

Before teaching learners how to use strategies effectively, the teacher should be adequately knowledgeable in LLS instruction. Training on how to implement strategy instruction should be a part of the faculty development program. Untrained teachers who will implement for the first time SBI may create problems rather than solutions. However, LLS training may be unavailable due to the lack of experts and materials. An alternative to teacher-strategy training is for teachers to read on available research and literature. Several books are available in the market and a plethora of research articles can easily be downloaded from the internet.

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Connecting Time and Space: Examining the Perspectives and Motives of Distance Learners and Teachers to Open Learning and Distance Education

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Abstract

Several benefits are offered to individuals involved in distance education. To the learner, open learning and distance education (OLDE) means more freedom of access, and thereby a wider range of opportunities for learning and qualification. The barriers that may be overcome by distance learning include not only geo-graphical distance but also other confining circumstances, such as

personal constraints, cultural and social barriers and lack of educational infrastructure. It is imperative, therefore, to examine the experiences of individuals involved in OLDE in the Philippines. Although open universities are gaining popularity in the global educational arena, its popularity in the country remains elusive. This study documented the holistic experience of individuals who are and were involved in open learning and distance education. In-person interviews were conducted and recorded using a video camera in a quiet and in a neutral location. After thorough analysis, the study found out that both students and teachers perceive distance education as an avenue for self-improvement and a successful measure to provide quality education. Though, based on their individual experiences, in order to become a successful distance education learner, one must possess intrinsic motivation to finish the course. Students and teachers view open learning and distance education as an avenue for socialization and appreciation of varied cultures, beliefs and traditions since they have the opportunity to meet other learners across the nation and across the globe. However, reforms and improvements should be met such as improving the telecommunication services in the country, standardization of the learning modules and learning platforms, appointing and hiring of qualified and trained teachers. OLDE therefore presents promising substitute in obtaining a higher education degree.

Keywords: Open Learning, Distance Education, OLDE

Introduction

Under the 1987 Philippine Constitution, Article XIV mandates that quality education at every level should be made accessible to all Filipinos, including self-learning, independent, and out-of-school youth programs. This legal mandate alongside the rapid growth of technology which breaks limits and boundaries between and among people across the different nation in different fields proliferated an alternative form of education that is beyond the physical classroom. Thus, the open learning systems, such as the Open Universities, and distance education ideology has thrived in the Philippines over recent years. This is considered as one of the most rapidly growing fields and means of education; such that it changes the approaches used; the delivery system; faculty requirements; and the need to respond to the rare breed of students which are being catered to by this type of educational arrangement.

The terms open learning and distance education (OLDE) characterize methods that motivate opening access to the provision of education or training, liberating learners from the restrictions of time and place; thus, offering flexible learning. Its potential impact on all education delivery systems has been greatly accentuated through the development of Internet-based information technologies and in particular the World Wide Web (UNESCO, 2002).

Specifically, Open learning is “a philosophy of learning that is quality-assured, open to people, methods, places, and ideas, and is highly flexible and learner-centered, enabling the latter to learn at the time, place and pace which satisfy the person’s circumstances and requirements.” Distance education, on the other hand, refers to “a mode of educational delivery whereby the teacher and learner are separated in time and space, and the instruction is delivered through specially designed materials and methods using appropriate technologies (Castolo & Chan, 2013).

Distance education is offering solutions to the need of making college and graduate education accessible and thus, catalyzing mass higher education. This is essential in achieving the country’s socio-economic goals and demands of globalization. OLDE can also become the answer to these problems as cited by Castolo and Chan (2013); the difficulty in synchronizing schedules brought about by the complexities of modern society; the dispersal and remoteness of students due to the archipelagic configuration of the country; and increasing the student population. Consequently, the said challenges are some of the striking reasons why higher education institutions in the Philippines and students searching for schools for their graduate and undergraduate education have welcomed this new system in contemporary education.

Since OLDE has received the spotlight in recent years in higher education, there is indeed a rapid expansion of researches in open and distance education. The main issues of research studies were enrolment trends, learner’s characteristics, policy, planning and management, problems faced by distance learners, the role of multimedia, and economics of open and distance education.

Srivastava (1995) examined the expansion of higher education in India by comparing the effectiveness of distance education and traditional education. He found that distance education course was relevant to the individual needs of the learners and was growing faster than conventional education. There has been a significant increment of enrolment through the distance mode among the disadvantaged group such as the rural people, women, scheduled castes and

scheduled tribes. The motivating factor amongst the distance learners was improving qualifications and social status, and getting better jobs.

According to UNESCO (2002), several benefits are offered to individuals involved in distance education. To the learner, open and distance learning means more freedom of access, and thereby a wider range of opportunities for learning and qualification. The barriers that may be overcome by distance learning include not only geographical distance but also other confining circumstances, such as personal constraints, cultural and social barriers and lack of educational infrastructure. For the student, it is often a cheaper alternative to pursuing a course through conventional methods. Since many people cannot afford to leave their work in order to study, it is important that distance education and training may be combined with work. Distance and open learning may also mean a more learner-centered approach, allowing greater flexibility and choice of content as well as more personal organization of the learning program.

The current and emerging communication and information technologies provide unique opportunities to continue the professional development of teachers and other educators. The Web provides teachers with incredibly rich instructional and information resources to enhance their instruction and professional skills and the possibility of on-demand, just-in-time professional development without leaving their classrooms. The Web also provides opportunities for online mentoring and support of novice teachers during their first year of teaching and to develop online communities of practice. Virtual Web-based environments for teachers now enable them to seek help from other teachers, locally, nationally, or globally in solving classroom problems, sharing lesson plans and materials, interacting with experts in particular fields, and in planning collaborative curriculum development projects. The latter may be particularly important in nations in which educational expertise in specific knowledge domains or instructional practices is scarce and distributed.

Distance education may also play a major role in upgrading the knowledge and skills of teacher educators both in higher education and educational agencies. Web-based resources and tutorials may assist teaching faculty and teacher educators in upgrading their knowledge and skills in areas such as the new technology tools for learning in order that they may infuse and model the use of technology in the courses they offer to future teachers.

Open and distance learning has indeed made a revolution on thinking and practice in the entire educational system, in terms of how students learn, the teaching process, and innovations on educational resources in making them more efficient in delivering instruction that is needed. OLDE has shattered physical boundaries and now students can learn wherever they are as long proper facilities are installed. No student would need to take instruction from exactly the same teacher as any other; students could have access to teachers from any state or country at any time and in any combination; they could have access to information resources from any state or country at any time and in any combination.

However, several issues about OLDE have been cited by Litz (2010) in his study on distance doctor in education degrees. The first issue is the quality of instruction that is provided through distance learning programs. In relation to this, Valentine (2002) believes that instructors and even school administrators often lose the essence of distance learning programs and they fail to comprehend that the achievement of distance learning programs is principally a consequence of the level of preparation of the teacher, assessment of needs of the students and understanding those needs. Moreover, Litz also highlighted faculty and students concerns as issues in OLDE. Winsboro (2002) explained that faculty members involved in OLDE handling various academic disciplines often express concerns about the workload of the Internet and e-learning based courses. In terms of student concerns, DuCharme-Hansen and Dupin-Bryant (2004) have observed that students in distance learning environments can often feel isolated and as such it is essential that they collaborate and interact with other students and the professor. However, with these issues, one interesting issue cited by Litz is on Technological issues. This observation is very relevant to the local context of OLDE in the Philippines. Litz cited that the emergence of internet and computer technologies has made the growth of distance education possible, but it has also posed several challenges to the preparation of teachers and students. Students must have a certain level of computer knowledge and they must have undergone introduction to the e-learning platforms that are used in their program. Instructors, on the other hand, need to be trained to properly implement and utilize the technology and encouraged to adapt to new environments of distance education (Wikeley & Muschamp, 2004). Other related technological issues include equipment and hardware malfunctions including the slow internet connection.

Having laid down these benefits and issues of open learning and distance education, it is imperative to examine the experiences of individuals (i.e., teachers, students, administrators) involved in OLDE in the Philippines. Although, open universities are gaining popularity in the global educational arena, its popularity in the country remains elusive. The researchers believe that examining the beliefs and opinions of teachers and learners about OLDE will help us understand the status of distance education in the country; hence, this study.

Objectives of the Study

This study aims to document the holistic experience of individuals who are and were involved in open learning and distance education (OLDE). Specifically, it sought to achieve the following objectives.

1. Identify the motives/reasons of the respondents in venturing to distance education and enrolling to open universities;
2. Document the positive and negative experiences they had in the course of their study as a distance learner;
3. Determine the enabling and impeding factors for the success of an open university student; and,
4. Look into the prospects and challenges of OLDE as perceived by the respondents.

Methodology

Philosophical Foundation

The epistemology framing this qualitative dissertation research is constructivism. This approach assumes that various people construct meaning in different ways, even when experiencing the same event (Crotty, 1998). Crotty identified several assumptions of constructivism, three of which are fundamental to this study: (1) Because meaning is constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting, qualitative researchers tend to use open-ended questions, so that the participants can share their views; (2) humans engage with their world and make sense of it based on their historical and social perspectives; (3) the basic generation of meaning is always social, arising in and out of interaction with a human community. The research interpretations and findings in this research, therefore, are context-specific.

Locale and Participants of the Study

Potential participants of this study were gathered using the Internet as a search tool. Since the knowledge of the researchers in terms of individuals involved in OLDE, Facebook and other social media sites were utilized to look for potential participants. The researchers also gathered information from their colleagues to gather for more participants in this study. In-person interviews were conducted and recorded using a video camera in a quiet, neutral location where the participants are not in danger and there is no intimidation or coercion such as their offices and classrooms.

The researchers sought a voluntary (convenience) sample which included online teachers and tutors, distance learners who are currently enrolled and those who chose not to continue pursuing their degree and those already graduated from a distance learning institution. Demographics such as education and race were not variables of this study; hence, familiarity with the interview participant was of limited concern. There were no interview questions that delve into specifics about the organization that made the interviewee uncomfortable.

Research Design

A qualitative research design was used in this study. Qualitative research is a systematic subjective approach used to describe life experiences and give them meaning. It aims to gain insight; explore the depth, richness, and complexity inherent in a phenomenon. Specifically, in achieving the aforementioned objectives, a qualitative research interview was utilized. The qualitative research interview seeks to describe and the meanings of central themes in the life world of the subjects. The main task in interviewing is to understand the meaning of what the interviewees say.

A general interview guide approach in particular was applied. This approach is intended to ensure that the same general areas of information are collected from each interviewee; this provides more focus than the conversational approach, but still allows a degree of freedom and adaptability in getting the information from the interviewee (Kvale, 2006).

Interview Instrument and Procedure

As a first step in the interview process, the participants were reminded of the purpose of the study, research procedures, expected benefits, their right to withdraw from the study at any time, and

protection of confidentiality. They were also provided information about the researchers themselves to establish rapport and gain their trust.

The following research questions were asked;

1. How did you become aware of distance education/open universities?
2. What were your motives/reasons in enrolling to an open university?
3. How is it different with classroom-based instruction?
4. Can you relate to us your positive and negative experiences while you were taking the program?
5. What are the factors that you consider enablers and distracters for your success in finishing the program?
6. Few years from now, how do you envision the state of distance education in the country?
7. Do you think distance education is well appreciated by people in the academe?
8. What are the prospects and challenges ahead of distance education?

Data Analysis and Strategy

This study utilized a multi-layer coding process; the first coding process is through Initial coding. This type of coding was chosen to examine, compare and search for similarities and differences throughout the data, and as Charmaz (2006) contextualizes “..to remain open to all possible theoretical directions indicated by your readings of the data.” The second level coding chosen, was Pattern coding. Pattern coding gave this study the basis to explain major themes underneath the segments of the data; patterns in human relationships, the search for causes and explanations to the possible phenomenon, and finally, the platform to construct frameworks and processes. To conclude, a Triangulation of the patterns and themes, creates new levels of understanding the existing knowledge by reviewing the interviews.

Findings

Motives/reasons in enrolling to distance learning institutions

The respondents were able to identify three distinct reasons why they enrolled in distance learning institutions and these are: (1) to pursue a higher level of education in order to get

credentials from notable institutions that offer distance education (e.g. University of the Philippines, International Universities); 2) study at their own pace since they have workloads most of their time more so, they are not required to travel to attend face to face classes; and (3) to understand and experience the difference of classroom education which employs a face to face teaching-learning environment.

These reasons encapsulate the researchers wanting to access educational opportunities for higher education in order to improve their work qualifications hence developing themselves professionally. Students therefore are able to take advantage of traditional modes of education because of personal and professional obligations. Distance education allows them to attend classes where it is most appropriate for them, thus balancing life's demands of family and work. Littlefield (2017) agrees with the same reasons for enrolling in a distance learning institution where she says that online education offers flexibility for students who have other commitments. Whether a person is busy as stay-at-home parent or a professional that simply doesn't have the time to take a course during school hours. Asynchronous options allow students the opportunity to learn without a set weekly schedule or online meetings at a specific time.

Experiences as Distance Education Learner /Teacher

The respondents had a wide variety of experiences both on the positive and the negative side of education. On the positive side, the learners were able to develop self –discipline, independence while forcing themselves to become patient and self-reliant. Another positive experience of both the student and the teacher is to be able to learn and appreciate varied cultures since some of the learners have different nationalities. Mingling with them is a start of familiarizing themselves with their cultures, beliefs and practices, therefore establishing rapport with them.

Students enrolled in online education programs network with peers from all over the nation or even across the globe. Students were able to make the most out of their courses by networking with their peers thus, they could be able to make friends and develop excellent references and connect with people who can later help them find a career in their shared field (Littlefield, 2017)

Furthermore, as a student they were able to learn to improve the quality of their outputs since they are forced to submit requirements that conforms to the international standards. Moreover, the students were able to get accustomed with a wide range of technologies and

computer applications in which they can use it in their day to day lessons and school transactions such as checking of grades and updating payment schedules for school fees. And lastly, the students and the teachers can have access to unlimited knowledge resources from online libraries. This is due to the fact that learning is mostly done online, therefore online resources such as e-books, e-journals and other references from trusted e-libraries and e-learning hubs are of easy affiliation and access.

On the negative experiences, it was highlighted that due to the unstable internet connection in the country, students and teachers cannot communicate well with their classes and they were hardened up in submitting their completed requirements on time. The teachers had their difficulty in contacting their students during booked sessions when there is weak internet connection. Unparalleled teaching methods and learning styles were also encountered by some of the student respondents therefore, creating difficulty in the learning process. The enormous amount of requirements given by their professors are also counted as time-consuming, especially it consumes the free time they have after work hours. Students who enroll in an international open learning institution had to battle sleepiness because of the different time zones among the teacher and the learners.

Enabling and impeding factors for the success of an OLDE Learner

In order to succeed in the program, the respondents all agreed that before enrolling in a distance learning institution, the student must have to assess himself/herself if she really wanted to have online learning. After which the student must have a background on the institution where he/she plans to enroll. The rules, regulations, the mode of teaching and learning environment must be clearly understood by the student so that he/she will not be overwhelmed with the kind of education he/she is about to take. Hence, according to them, there should be strong internal motivation among learners. Internal driving force plays a crucial role to finish the course enrolled by the learner because learning in an open university requires enough patience and discipline. Time management is another essential factor in succeeding the program. The ability to divide our time wisely would give the students the opportunity to have enough time for work, self-studying and to do whatever the requirements they were asked to do. Resourcefulness is another attribute taken into account as an enabling factor during the interview, the ability to become resourceful and open

for technical support from other people who can assist the learner is a big help. Open-mindedness to people would mean a lot of help especially when there are tough home works and activities.

Impeding factors, on the other hand, include the poor telecommunication facilities in the country especially the slow prepaid internet services that we have. Moreover, teachers from the distance learning institutions also have different strategies and approaches to education, students who are not accustomed to independent or self-learning find difficulty in passing subjects or courses thus, mismatched teaching and learning style may serve as an impeding factor for the success of a student within the program. Moreover, the familiarity of the students with the technologies used within the class also affects his /her performance. And lastly, the bulk of requirements that may come along the way while workloads and other responsibilities which also come during deadlines of requirements and even exams may affect their performance.

The results gathered from the respondents affirms the findings of Gonzales (2012) where he says that the student internal factors such as student initiative, familiarity with technology, motivation and competence play a great role in the success of an online learner. Whereas, the student external factors like family and work responsibilities, and pedagogical factors like the course design, and course delivery can also impede in the students success. In reference to Vygotsky's (1978) social development theory, social interaction is a critical cognitive developmental process (Pea, 1996). Learning is a social activity that involves interaction with the instructor and among students. Interaction is one of the central issues related to distance education today (Jackson, 1994). It encourages reflection and discussion, which makes it an important component of any learning experience (Harasim, 1990). When students perceive and regard interaction highly, they tend to be more satisfied with instruction in Web-based courses (Fulford and Zhang, 1993). Additionally, learners who always interact with an instructor and other students are more likely to be motivated and have a better learning experience (Garrison, 1990). The difference in learning preferences therefore also determines the success and failure of the student.

Prospects and Challenges of Online Learning and Distance Education

The respondents believed that online learning distance education is a great avenue for achieving higher education because it will provide wider opportunities for those who are at work or for those people who have personal responsibilities that comprises a majority of the population.

However, there is a challenge on the improvement of the delivery of learning to the students to maximize learning. Perhaps there should be an introduction of more “hybrid” courses into the learning curriculum. These types of courses are taught approximately 50% online and 50% onsite learning. This may encourage students to take charge of their own learning experience, make full use of their resources / online resources, work at their own pace, and provide some scheduling flexibility, while also providing an occasional live forum for face-to-face discussions with the instructor and the rest of the class members to build a stronger learning community. Moreover, delivery applications and platforms must also be improved and updated for the students. One thing more, there should be an overhaul in the telecommunication services in the country specially the internet services. Access to online education would be a lot easier for the student if the internet services have a higher speed and could be accessed free.

And lastly, in order to improve and respond with the challenges of open learning and distance education, the offering institution must constantly gather data from their students on what they need and prefer, the problems they face and what they want to be done for them. Unless they would be able to do this, there will be no improvement in the delivery of learning through distance education. It would also be wise to develop varied types of communication media to augment the effectiveness of distance education. Devising procedures to encourage learners to do assignments by themselves would increase the academic performance of the learners and assure the quality of distance education. Standardization of the learning modules and learning platforms should be given priority to ensure the quality of education given in OLDE. In addition to this, the appointing and hiring of suitable qualified and trained teachers who are familiar with the technologies and applications used could help raise the standard of the open and distance education system.

Conclusion

Open Learning and Distance Education has gained its acceptance in the society for the past few years and has become popular to those people wanting to pursue higher education. Most especially, to those who cannot go to traditional schools in order to improve professionally and earn credentials to compete with the world of work.

Both students and teachers perceive distance education as an avenue for self-improvement and a successful measure to provide quality education. Though, based on their individual experiences, in order to become a successful distance education learner, one must possess internal motivation to finish the course. This type of motivation would allow the learner to become conscious about time management, self-reliance and self-discipline which are key factors for quality learning.

Also, students and teachers view open learning and distance education as an avenue for socialization and appreciation of varied cultures, beliefs and traditions since they have the opportunity to meet other learners across the nation and across the globe.

Moreover, they are also given the opportunity to familiarize themselves with varied learning applications, resources and technologies that they can use. However, because of the different challenges that they meet along the way, they view distance education as a better source of online learning if reforms and improvements are met such as making telecommunication services better in the country, standardization of the learning modules and learning platforms, appointing and hiring of qualified and trained teachers. Having those said, it could become one of the best substitutes in obtaining a higher education degree.

Pedagogical Implications

Based on the foregoing conclusions and results of the study, the following are recommended to improve the implementation of open learning and distance education;

- a) The delivery applications and platforms must be improved and updated
- b) The offering institution must constantly do needs assessment or consultation from their students for proper addressing.
- c) It would also be wise to develop varied types of communication media to augment the effectiveness of distance education. However along this is to improve the telecommunication services in the country especially the internet services to make access a lot easier for the students.
- d) Standardization of the learning modules and learning platforms should be given priority to ensure the quality of education given in OLDE.

- e) The appointing and hiring of suitable qualified and trained teachers who are familiar with the technologies and applications used could help raise the standard of the open and distance education system.

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Code Switching of English Language Teachers and Students in an ESL Classroom

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Abstract

Language for learning and teaching in schools is clearly a complex sociocultural process that is continually being redefined by the bilingual and multilingual system of education. Linguistics, the study of language, helps the learners to cross the bridge towards the world of English. As the international language, English is a matter of subjective acceptance regardless of culture and race. Filipinos, being a multilingual race consider English as their Second Language. However, combining the international language with the vernacular becomes a habitual practice among Filipinos both in rural and urban scenarios. It is commonly used as a marked socio- linguistic activity. Thus, code switching and borrowing is a natural occurrence in the Philippine context. This study aimed to determine the discernment of teachers and students toward the practice and use of code switching in an ESL classroom. The respondents were five English teachers and 41 Grade 10 students of Sampaguita National High School, Sampaguita Solana, Cagayan, Philippines for the school year 2017-2018. It used descriptive research design. Data were collected through the adopted questionnaires from the study of Joanna Tiffany Selamat (2014), Canagarajah's (1995) and Ferguson's (2003) categories of code switching. Results showed that from the three functions of teacher code switching, classroom management outdid the other two functions namely curriculum access and interpersonal relation. The teachers have a positive attitude toward the practice of code switching during their ESL classroom interaction. Furthermore, it revealed that code switching will make the students better understand topics and that their learning is not hindered when teachers code switch during classroom interactions. It makes students understand the lesson easier to understand and it is a means of strengthening their comprehension. The results

of the study indicated positive views of the respondents on code switching as one instructional strategy of learning. Apparently, code switching should be allowed for effective communication between students and the teacher in a natural and comfortable way to highlight the significance of a specific piece of information and explanation of complex concepts. Despite the uncertainties of many, teachers still feel indeterminate towards the merits of code switching in teaching English as a second language, code switching may still be considered as a useful technique in classroom interaction, especially if the goal is to clarify and convey the information to students in an efficient way.

Keywords – code switching, ESL classroom, perception

Introduction

Language for learning and teaching in schools is clearly a complex sociocultural process that is continually being redefined by the bilingual and multilingual system of education Bernardo, 2005 [1]. Linguistics, the study of language, helps the learners to cross the bridge towards the world of English. As the international language, English is a matter of subjective acceptance regardless of culture and race. Filipinos, being a multi-lingual race consider English as their Second Language. However, combining the international language with the vernacular becomes a habitual practice among Filipinos both in rural and urban scenarios. It is commonly used as a marked socio-linguistic activity. Thus, code switching and borrowing is a natural occurrence in the Philippine context.

In the Philippine setting, however, to sound more formal and dignified, the use of English both in written and oral communication language becomes a common socio-linguistic practice (Valerio, 2015) [2]. Maguddayao (2017) clearly stated in her study that to be able to survive in the academic society, one must be socio-linguistically competent. She professed, on the other hand, that not only students must be socio-linguistically competent but also the teachers. In fact, in schools in the Philippines specifically at Sampaguita National High School, English is taught as a second language (L2). Students speak English; however, at some point when speakers find it difficult to say the word in English, they suddenly switch in their vernacular. Thus, code switching was born out of necessity.

At present, code switching has become a trend in many parts of the world. In multilingual countries like the Philippines and Malaysia, code switching has emerged as a new language variety (Bautista, 2004) [3]. There are varieties of definitions of code switching given by different researchers. Early definition by Valdes-Fallis (1978) [4], says that code-switching is an interchangeability of two codes done by transfer, borrowing or mixing of words. Gumperz (1982) [5] defined code switching as the juxtaposition of two grammatical systems or sub-systems. Code switching is defined as “the mixing by bilinguals or multilinguals of two or more languages in discourse, often with no change of interlocutor or topic” (Poplack, 2001, p. 2062) [6]. Being a linguistic phenomenon, its use has become widespread in post-colonial countries such as the Philippines for the interaction, media, business, politics, science, and scholarship.

Baker (2006) [7] has discussed the topic of code switching from a sociolinguistics perspective, in which he listed twelve main purposes of code switching, which are relevant to bilinguals talks in general. Some of these functions can be observed in classroom environment and in relevance to teachers and students interactions. According to Baker [7] code switching can be used to emphasize a particular point, to substitute a word, to express a concept that has no equivalent in the culture of the other language, to reinforce a request, to clarify a point, to express identity and communicate

friendship, to ease tension and inject humour into a conversation, and in some bilingual situations, code switching occurs when certain topics are introduced.

An extensive body of literature studies reported that code switching in classrooms is not only just normal but useful tool of learning. Cook (2001) [8] referred to code switching in the classroom as a natural response in a bilingual situation. Furthermore, in the same study, Cook [8] considered the ability to go from one language to another is highly desirable among learners. Moreover, in eliciting teachers reflections to their classroom teachings, Probyn (2010) [9] noticed that most notable strategy that teachers used was code switching to achieve a number of communicative and metalinguistic ends. Cook's [8] studies were mainly in the second language classroom context. They also point to the various pedagogical uses of code switching such as facilitating student comprehension; helping students build their vocabulary; manage classroom activities; and even to build solidarity with students (Bateman, 2008 [10]; Qing, 2010 [11]; Yang, 2004) [12].

Simon's (2001) [13] study mentioned that code switching is a common linguistic practice for teachers and students. While Maguddayao (2018) professed the many ways on how to linguistically achieve understanding in a communication process, Simon encouraged teachers and students to reconsider the role that code switching plays in the classroom interaction and to "break with the methodologically imposed code constraints in order to use code switching strategically to achieve their pedagogical aims."

According to Sert, (2005) [14] opponents of using code switching in classrooms believe that some learners may be neglected if all students don't share the same native language. The competence of the teacher in the native language is also taken into consideration. Supporters of using code switching in classrooms, however, believe that when used efficiently, it provides continuity in speech which helps students to adjust with others within communicative circle as part of social interaction.

Probyn [9] noticed that code switching was notably used by teachers to achieve a number of communicative ends. Furthermore, code switching helps to facilitate the flow of classroom instruction since the teachers can save much time striving to explain or searching for the simplest words to help clear the students' understanding.

Code switching is very common in ESL / EFL classrooms throughout the world these days and students have positive and negative attitudes towards code switching of teachers in classroom (Abdolaziz & Shahla, 2015 [15]; Dar, M. F., Akhtar, H., Khalid, H, 2014) [16]. S. Krashen (1982) [17] suggested that exposure to comprehensible input is necessary for successful language acquisition. If the students cannot understand what has been mentioned, they will not be comfortable in proceeding with a task or retain it in their mind. Therefore, EFL classroom teachers sometimes prefer to use the

pupils' L1 to explain and organize a task and to manage behavior in the belief that this will facilitate the medium-centered language-related goals of the lesson (Ellis, 2015) [18]. Code switching occur unconsciously by the teachers and is used as a good strategy in explaining instructions, translating difficult vocabulary, managing class, giving background information and in reducing students' nervousness (Jingxia, 2010) [19]. Code switching serves as a mean to provide low proficient learners with the opportunities to communicate and enhance understanding of the lecture (Ahmad & Jusoff, 2009 [20]; Selamat, 2014) [21].

A descriptive analysis of two teachers' and 32 3rd Year high school students' perceptions of code switching during classroom instruction reported that code switching in Chemistry and Geometry is a resource in making knowledge more comprehensible to the students than when only English is used (Abad, 2010) [22].

The following are predominant reasons for code switching: (1) easier self-expression; (2) loss of words (e.g. translation problems, not knowing the right words; (3) influences of people around; (4) natural already (habit); (5) exposure to two languages; (6) fluency in speaking both languages; and (7) to make the speakers feel more comfortable (Matila, 2009) [23].

Code switching has also been observed in English language teaching (ELT) classrooms. Some of these studies were focused on elementary level (Anselmo & Williams, 2012) [24], (Rezvani & Rasekh, 2011) [25] and some others were in higher education level Ahmad & Jusoff [20], Bista, 2010) [26] as cited in Amalo, 2018). [27]. In secondary school level, Selamat [21] studied code switching (CS) on Malaysian ESL (English as Second Language) classroom. She found that teachers and students generally exhibit positive attitudes towards code switching in the classroom and perceive its pedagogical merits as an effective teaching and learning resource. Canagarajah, (1995) [28] studied CS in ESL classroom in Jaffna. He summarizes the categorization of CS in classroom into classroom management and content transmission. In addition to CS in English classroom, Ferguson, (2003) [29] reported that, CS has three functional categories in the classroom context as for curriculum access, classroom management and interpersonal relation (cited in Amalo, 2018) [30].

Meanwhile, linguists and educators are being challenged on the view that code switching lowers communication standards and they highlighted its potential impact on any teaching – learning process. Code switching along instruction is a widely observed phenomenon especially seen in multilingual and multicultural communities. In particular, it is often argued that each language serves a different function: English has an instrumental role as the language of learning in the important domains, while Filipino has a symbolic role as unifying language and the language of nationhood (Sibayan, 1994) [31].

Martin (2006) [32] mentioned that language preferences of teachers and students are often identified as the reasons behind the continuing deterioration of English language proficiency among Filipino students.

The Philippines has been code switching for over 30 years (Durano, 2009) [33] and code switching is now an established lingua franca in the urban areas of the Philippine archipelago (Bautista, 2004) [3]. In spoken discourse, English teachers switch code during their lectures for different purposes. Some students are in favor and some are against code switching in English classes (Gulzar & Qadir, 2010) [34]. Hence, the perception of teachers and students towards code switching needs to be explored in ESL context in Sampaguita National High School in order to devise teaching and learning strategies.

Theoretical Framework

As this paper looks at code switching, the two most popular language acquisition theories are Chomsky's innate-universal structure (1972, 1975, 1979) and Skinner's Behaviorist (1957) theories. According to Chomsky, each human being is born with underlying universal language structure. As they grow, they are exposed to cultural elements of the society they are in. These cultural elements help them define the universal language structure as to what is acceptable or appropriate to be produced in the context of that language. It is important to note here that, these cultural elements have been prescribed to the learners through affirmation and rejection of other language users (James, 1990; Skiba, 1997) (cited in Nordin, 2013) [35].

The Behaviorist theory on the other hand, believes that man learns language through a series of reinforcement. They suggest that an individual tends to keep certain structure and reject the rest due to the positive and negative feedback received from the caretaker or other adult(s) during the growing period (James, 1990) [36]. Both of these theories are grounded on the fact that they "rely on exposure to appropriate samples of the language" (Skiba, 1997) [37]. The same is evident in second language learning. According to Skiba (1997) [37] even though code switching may cause discomfort to the listeners, "it does provide an opportunity for language development".

One of the most important issues focused on in the field of second language acquisition is the use of the native language in English as a Second Language class. The practice of the native language in the process of learning the second language is deemed a negative phenomenon that hampered the effective and productive second language acquisition. This is because code switching is considered as a haphazard mixture of two languages, thus; students were not allowed to switch forth and back between the native language and the target language. The advocates of the intralingual teaching

strategy support the idea that the use of only the target language in English classrooms promotes and contributes to productive language acquisition and any switching impacts negatively the process of second language acquisition. Some supported this strategy while others were against it.

Much debate has been centered on teachers' attitude towards code switching of teachers. The proponents of target language exclusivity believe that it is not necessary to know all linguistic material and teaching through the target language allows students to immerse in an authentic second language class environment. On the other hand, the tradition of excluding the native language from the second language class restricts the possibilities of language teaching. For them the classroom is a natural code switching condition and code switching is a highly skilled activity (cited in [Catabay, 2016](#)) [38].

Elsa Auerback (1993) (cited in [Catabay, 2016](#)) [38] carried out a detailed study on the concept of code switching in the English language classrooms. She looked at the two different views of the topic. To either use it or avoid it. She tracked the English –Only movement through history and provided the justifications and reasoning behind that movement. She offered the following justifications for code switching in ESL classes. First, students who are unable to participate in English only programs will have an opportunity to study both their first language and second language. Second, using L1 or resulting to code switch reduces barriers to language learning and develops rapport between teachers and between the students themselves. Third, it was found that students who were allowed to use their native tongue had acquired L2 faster than students who were mandated to use L2 alone in their classrooms. However, Auerback as cited in [Catabay, 2016](#) [38] concluded by saying that although there are two points of view to this topic, it is the teachers maneuvering the class who ultimately decides whether they need to code switch or not. Every classroom is unique and for that, the teacher is the best judge to decide whether to code switch or not.

Objectives of the Study

This study was conducted to determine the perception of teachers and students toward the practice and use of code switching in an ESL classroom. Specifically, it aimed to find out the perception of teachers toward the practice of code switching in English classroom with respect to curriculum access, classroom management and interpersonal relations, and the perception of students toward the use of code switching in English classroom.

Methodology

To find out the teachers' and students' perceptions toward the practice and use of code switching in an ESL classroom, the present study used descriptive survey research design. It was conducted among the 5 English language teachers and 41 Grade X students of Sampaguita National

High School at Sampaguita, Solana, Cagayan for the school year 2017-2018. Total enumeration sampling was used in the study.

To gather the data, closed questions questionnaires were administered to teacher and student participants adopted from [Selamat, \(2014\) \[21\]](#), [Canagarajah's \[28\]](#) and [Ferguson's \[29\]](#) categories of code switching. The first questionnaire, which is a standardized scale, contained 24 statements which cover the personal use and/or beliefs of teachers in the practice of code switching in an ESL classroom. The first part measured the teachers' self-reported frequency in using code switching during ESL classroom interaction. It consisted of 14 items and for each item, the teachers had to choose between 1 (never) to 5 (every time). The second part of the questionnaire consisted of 10 items of five-point (1=totally agree to 5=strongly disagree) of teachers' beliefs in the practice of CS. The second questionnaire that is likewise a standardized scale contained 15 statements that described the perception of the students toward the use code switching in English classroom. To make sure that the students have understood the questions, the researchers explained it in their L1. In addition, the researchers encouraged the respondents to ask questions pertaining to the 15-item questionnaire should there be further queries asked by them. The respondents were asked to rate each statement using Likert type scale described as follows: 1 (never) to 5 (every time). Weighted mean was utilized to determine the level of respondents' perception toward the use and practice of code switching in English classroom.

Result and Discussion

The present study aims to find how code switching practice and use is perceived by high school English language teachers and students in Sampaguita National High School.

Table 1. Teachers' perceptions on the practice of code switching in ESL classroom

(1) Code switching for curriculum access		
Perception Description	Mean Computed	Qualitative
In class, I switch from English to the students' first language:		
1.to explain meaning of words and sentences of the Time	4.0	Most
2.to explain difficult concepts of the Time	4.2	Most

3.to explain grammar explicitly of the Time	3.8	Most
4.to check for comprehension of the Time	3.6	Most
5.to introduce unfamiliar topics/materials of the Time	3.8	Most
6.to explain the differences between the students' of the Time L1 and English	3.8	Most
7.to draw students' attention to the correct pronunciation of sounds in English	2.8	Often
Average of the time	3.71	Most

(2) Code switching for classroom management

Perception Description	Mean Computed	Qualitative
8.to organize classroom tasks of the Time	3.6	Most
9.to maintain class room discipline and of the Time structure of the lesson.	3.8	Most
Average of the time	3.8	Most

(3) Code switching for interpersonal relations

Perception Description	Mean Computed	Qualitative
10.to provide praise/ feedback and personal remarks about students' performance	3.4	Often
11. to encourage students' participation in class room activities	3.4	Often
12. to build/ strengthen inter personal relationships of the Time between the teacher and the students	4.0	Most
13. to reduce students' anxiety in learning English of the Time	4.0	Most
14. to increase students' motivation and confidence of the Time in learning English.	3.6	Most

Average of the time	3.68	Most
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Table 1 indicates the teachers' perception towards the practice of code switching in classroom instruction which was categorized into curriculum access, classroom management and interpersonal relation. From the three functions of teacher code switching, surprisingly, classroom management outdid the other two functions with an average mean of 3.8 described as "Most of the Time". It was followed by curriculum access with an average mean of 3.71 described also as "Most of the Time", and interpersonal relation with an average mean of 3.68 described too, as "Most of the Time". This is in contrast with the findings of Selamat (2016) [21] in her study on the Malaysian ESL code switching inside the classroom. She stated that the use of code switching by teachers for constructing and transmitting knowledge (curriculum access) takes precedence over the use of teacher code switching for classroom management and for interpersonal relations.

The data above also reveals that the teachers code switch "most of the time" in their classroom instruction to organize classroom task and maintain classroom discipline. They also code switch to explain meaning of difficult and unfamiliar words, sentences or grammatical concept. Moreover, the teachers code switch to provide feedback, strengthen interpersonal relationship and increase students' motivation.

Table 2. Teachers' beliefs in the practice of code switching in an ESL classroom

Beliefs Qualitative Description	Mean Computed	
As an ESL teacher, I believe that		
1.Code switching will facilitate the language learning process	1.4	Totally agree
2. The practice of code switching will increase the students' reliance and dependency on the teacher.	2	Agree
3. Code switching should be included as an integral part of the ESL lesson	2.4	Agree
4. There should be a strict separation of the mother tongue and English in the ESL classroom	2.2	Agree
5. Code switching should only be used as a last resort when all other options have been exhausted	2	Agree
6. Code switching is an efficient, time-saving technique nor disagree	2.8	Neither agree
7. English is best taught in English only classroom	3.6	Disagree
8. The use of other languages in the ESL classroom will result in a decline in the standards of English nor disagree	2.6	Neither agree

9. The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker nor disagree	3.4	Neither agree
10. The more English that is used, the better the results for the learners	1.8	Agree

Table 2 shows teachers' beliefs in the practice of code switching in ESL classroom. The data tells that all the teacher-respondents "totally agreed" with a mean of 1.4 that code switching will facilitate the language learning process. Moreover, they "agreed" with a mean ranging from 1.8-2.4 on the beliefs that code switching should be included as an integral part of the ESL lesson; that there should be a strict separation of the mother tongue and English in the ESL classroom; that code switching should only be used as a last resort when all other options have been exhausted; that the practice of code switching will increase the students' reliance and dependency on the teacher, and that the more English that is used, the better the results for the learners.

However, in the concepts of whether the ideal teacher of English is a native speaker, whether English is best taught in English-only classroom, and whether the use of other languages in the ESL classroom will result in a decline in the standards of English, the teachers were "neither agree nor disagree" with a mean ranging from 2.6-3.4. Meanwhile, regarding the concept of whether English is best taught in English-only classrooms, the teacher-respondents "disagreed" with a mean of 3.6.

It is evident on the above data that the teacher-respondents believe that the use of code switching has positive impacts on the language learning process since 6 out of 10 concepts fall under agreement with an average mean of 1.96 described as agree.

Table 3. Students' perceptions on the use of code switching in ESL classroom

Perceptions Qualitative Description	Mean computed
1. The use of my first language by the teacher helps me to enjoy the lesson. Most of the time	3.88
2. The use of my first language by the teacher helps me to understand the lesson better. Most of the time	4.17
3. The use of my first language by the teacher makes me feel more confident and motivated in learning English. Most of the time	4.02
4. The use of my first language by the teacher enables me to focus on the lesson without worrying about unfamiliar words and sentences. Most of the time	3.68
5. The use of my first language by the teacher encourages me to actively participate in classroom activities. Most of the time	3.83

6. I would prefer the teacher to use English only during lessons and not to use my first language. Often	2.83
7. I would prefer the teacher to minimize the use of my first language during lessons. Often	3.10
8. I would prefer the teacher to use my first language during lessons. Most of the time	4.12
9. I would prefer the teacher to use both English and my first language during lessons. Hardly ever	2.09
10. I don't like it when the teacher uses other languages during English lessons. Often	3.27
11. I find it difficult to learn when the teacher does not explain new words/topics/concepts in my first language. Often	3.17
12. I find it difficult to concentrate during English lessons when the teacher uses English only. Most of the time	3.58
13. I use code switching to help me maintain the flow of conversation. Most of the time	3.63
14. I use code switching when I communicate with my peers who share the same language. Most of the time	3.83
15. I use code switching when explaining difficult words and sentences to my peers. Most of the time	3.90
Grand Mean Most of the Time	3.54

Table 3 reveals the perception of the students in code switching. Out of 15 statements, the item “The use of my first language by the teacher helps me to understand the lesson better.” topped with a mean of 4.17 and “Most of the time” as its descriptive equivalent. It was followed by the statements ranging 4.12-3.58, respondents said that “Most of the time”, “I would prefer the teacher to use my first language during lessons”, “The use of my first language by the teacher makes me feel more confident and motivated in learning English.”, “I use code switching when explaining difficult words and sentences to my peers.”, “The use of my first language by the teacher helps me to enjoy the lesson.”, “I use code switching when I communicate with my peers who share the same language.”, “The use of my first language by the teacher encourages me to actively participate in classroom activities.”, “...enables me to focus on the lesson without worrying about unfamiliar words and sentences.”, “I use code switching to help me maintain the flow of conversation.” and “I find it difficult to concentrate during English lessons when the teacher uses English only.”

It is also evident from the above table that some of the statements had descriptive equivalent of “Often”. The following were ranked according to their mean; “I don’t like it when the teacher uses other languages during English lessons .” with a mean of 3.27; “I find it difficult to learn when the teacher does not explain new words/topics/concepts in my first language.” with 3.17 as its mean; “I would prefer the teacher to minimize the use of my first language during lessons.” with 3.10; “I would prefer the teacher to use English only during lessons and not to use my first language .” with 2.83 as its mean.

There was one of the 15 items with a descriptive value of “Hardly Ever” with a mean of 2.09 which is “I would prefer the teacher to use both English and my first language during lessons.”

The grand mean was found to be 3.54, described as “Most of the Time.” This was in line with the previous research of Selamat (2014) [27] as stated in Tandoc (2016) [34], in her study on the Malaysian ESL code switching inside the classroom. She stated that students believe that teacher code switching is a useful classroom strategy which enhances their language learning experiences.

Moreover, Tandoc (2016) [39], in his study on Code switching in an ESL classroom stated that the respondents have positive views on code switching as one instructional strategy of learning. His findings indicated that code switching should be allowed for effective communication between students and the instructor in a natural and comfortable way. Comparatively, Dela Cruz (2018) claimed that having a class as such may create a teacher-student learning experience and understanding is being enjoyed by using two or three languages at their own disposal. Code switching can be a good technique to highlight the significance of a specific piece of information and explanation of complex concepts.

Pedagogical Implications

Code switching should be used as a vehicle for seeking understanding, effective production of communication, and should be regarded as an effective and transitional language learning strategy. The language teachers, however, need to remember that English is the medium of instruction and code switching should be kept to an effective minimum. Language teachers are only encouraged to make adequate use of code switching in classrooms when explaining difficult concepts to students so that they will be able to actively participate in the activities and discussions. Language teachers should, in any means, use code switching to clarify concepts and not teach in the mother tongue. This means that code switching must be used in moderation not excessive, as it may turn the pace of learning very slow. Besides this factor, learners who are weak in language acquisition may only be allowed. Finally, specific intervention on second language acquisition to enhance both L1 and L2 is highly

recommended for English language teachers and other teacher who use English as a medium of instruction.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The results of the study showed the positive views of the respondents on code switching as one instructional strategy of learning, the same with the different studies which agreed with the use of the said strategy. The findings indicated that code switching should be allowed for effective communication between students and the teacher in a natural and comfortable way. Code switching can be a good technique to highlight the significance of a specific piece of information and explanation of complex concepts.

Even though many teachers still feel uncertain towards the merits of code switching in teaching English as a second language, code switching may be considered as a useful technique in classroom interaction, especially if the goal is to clarify and convey the information to students in an efficient way.

Code switching has the power to facilitate greater understanding and to involve the entire classroom population in the lesson. Code switching should be used as a vehicle for seeking understanding and effective production of communication, and should be encouraged as an effective and transitional language learning strategy. The language teachers, however, need to remember that English is the medium of instruction and code switching should be kept to an effective minimum. Language teachers are only encouraged to make adequate use of code switching in classrooms when explaining difficult concepts to students so that they will be able to actively participate in the activities and discussions. Language teachers should, in any means, use code switching to clarify concepts and not teach in the mother tongue. They should be very careful and cautious while code switching. Its use should not be made excessive as it may turn the pace of learning very slow. Besides this factor, code switching should be used only for those learners who are weak in language acquisition. It need not be employed for the learners who possess high linguistic proficiency. Finally, proficiency seminar to enhance both English and Filipino language is highly recommended for English language teachers and for others teachers as well.

Appendices
A. Request Letter

Republic of the Philippines
Cagayan State University
GRADUATE SCHOOL
Tuguegarao City

March 27, 2018

Henry B. Parana, Ph.D.
Secondary School Principal III
Sampaguita National High School
Solana, Cagayan

Sir:

I am currently conducting a research study entitled “**CODE SWITCHING OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHERS AND STUDENTS IN AN ESL CLASSROOM,**” in partial fulfillment of the requirements in the subject **LE 313** (Instructional Management of Bilingual Education Program) for the degree **Doctor of Philosophy in Language Education major in English Language Education** at the Cagayan State University at Tuguegarao City.

In this regard, I would like to request your good office permission to float questionnaires in your school.

Your favorable action to this request is highly appreciated.

Very truly yours,

OLIVIA G. ROSARIO

Proponent

Approved:

HENRY B. PARANA, Ph.D.

SSP III

B. Questionnaires adopted from [Selamat](#), (2014) [21], [Canagarajah’s](#) [28] and [Ferguson’s](#) [29] categories of code switching

1. *For English Language Teachers*

Name: _____ (Optional)

Please rank the following statements according to your personal use and/or beliefs in the practice of code switching in an ESL classroom.

Instructions: Place a check mark in the columns provided.

1 – Never

2-Hardly ever 3-Often 4-Most of the time 5-Every Time

In class, I switch from English to the students' first language:	1	2	3	4	5
1. To explain meaning of words and sentences					
2. To explain difficult concepts					
3. To explain grammar explicitly					
4. To check for comprehension					
5. To organize classroom tasks					
6. To introduce unfamiliar topics/materials					
7. To explain the differences between the students' L1 and English					
8. To draw students' attention to the correct pronunciation of sounds in English					
9. To maintain classroom discipline and structure of the lesson					
10. To provide praise/feedback/personal remarks about students' performance					
11. To encourage students' participation in classroom activities					
12. To build/strengthen interpersonal relationships between the teacher and the students					
13. To reduce students' anxiety in learning English					
14. To increase students' motivation and confidence in learning English					

1-totally agree 2-agree 3-neither agree nor disagree 4-disagree 5-totally disagree

(Statements 15-25 are rated based on the above scale

I believe that:	1	2	3	4	5
15. Code switching will facilitate the language learning process.					
16. The practice of code switching will increase the students' reliance and dependency on the teacher.					
17. Code switching should be included as an integral part of the ESL lesson.					
18. There should be a strict separation of the mother tongue and English in the ESL classroom.					
19. Code switching should only be used as a last resort when all other options have been exhausted.					
20. Code switching is an efficient, time- saving technique.					
21. English is best taught in English-only classrooms.					
22. The use of other languages in the ESL classroom will result in a decline in the standards of English.					
23. The ideal teacher of English is a native speaker.					
24. The more English that is used, the better the results for the learners.					
25. The younger the child, the easier it is to learn English.					

2. For the students

Dear student,

The main goal of this study is to determine your perception towards code switching (the use of Filipino/Ilocano) in an English class. The participation will be made anonymously. Thank you for your help.

Instruction: Please put a check mark on the columns provided.

1: Never 2: Hardly ever 3: Often 4: Most of the time 5: Every time

Items	Never	Hardly Ever	Often	Most of the Time	Every Time
1. The use of my first language by the teacher helps me to enjoy the lesson.					
2. The use of my first language by the teacher helps me to understand the lesson better.					
3. The use of my first language by the teacher makes me feel more confident and motivated in learning English.					
4. The use of my first language by the teacher enables me to focus on the lesson without worrying about unfamiliar words and sentences.					
5. The use of my first language by the teacher encourages me to actively participate in classroom activities.					
6. I would prefer the teacher to use English only during lessons and not to use my first language.					
7. I would prefer the teacher to minimize the use of my first language during lessons.					
8. I would prefer the teacher to use both English and my first language during lessons.					
9. I don't like it when the teacher uses other languages during English lessons.					
10. I find it difficult to learn when the teacher does not explain new words/topics/concepts in my first language.					
11. I find it difficult to concentrate during English lessons when the teacher uses English only.					

12. I use code switching when I am unable to express myself in English.					
13. I use code switching to help me maintain the flow of conversation.					
14. I use code switching when I communicate with my peers who share the same language.					
15. I use code switching when explaining difficult words and sentences to my peers.					

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The MTBMLE Policy: Attitudes Among Teachers on the Ground

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Abstract

This study illustrates the attitudes of the teachers from Kindergarten to Grade 3 levels in Ilocos Norte, Philippines toward the MTBMLE policy as well as the factors that influence their attitudes. Furthermore, the study presents the suggestions of the research participants to improve the implementation of the policy. The data were gathered through a survey questionnaire and interviews from 62 research participants who are teachers of the thirteen (13) elementary public schools in Paoay and Vintar in the province of Ilocos Norte. The results indicate that generally, teachers have positive attitude toward the MTBMLE policy and such attitude is influenced by their beliefs and experiences. The participants also suggested for additional funding, learning resources and teacher training to improve the implementation of the said policy.

Keywords: *MTBMLE, teachers, attitudes, factors, suggestions*

Introduction

The implementation of Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTBMLE) Policy in 2012 brought forth changes in the Philippine education realm specifically in all public schools. Basically, MTBMLE policy pertains to the use of mother tongue or first language in the early education of children (Alieto, 2018). Lartec et al. (2014) emphasized that it is “first-language-first” policy which means that children’s schooling from kindergarten to grade 3 begins in their mother tongue and transition follows by adding two or more languages. This policy intends at addressing the pressing issue concerning the high functional illiteracy among Filipinos which is deemed significantly influenced by the language used as a medium of instruction (Capitol University, 2017). It is believed that the use of mother tongue encourages children to become more expressive, more active and more participative in the learning process. Moreover, learners are encouraged to construct better and provide an elaboration as regards to their world and can articulate their personal thoughts and notions. The Department of Education identified twelve (12) major Philippine languages as medium of instruction (MOI) which include Tagalog, Kapampangan, Pangasinense, Iloko, Bikol, Cebuano, Hiligaynon, Waray, Tausug, Maguindanaon, Marano, and Chabacano (DepEd, 2013). The implementation of the MTBMLE in the Philippines serves as a model among countries in Southeast Asia (De Guzman & De Vera, 2018).

However, despite the existence of this educational reform in the country, it is argued that its effectiveness, even in the other parts of the globe, will be realized only when it does not solely focus on the implementation of the new program but also centers on the attitudes of the teachers about the policy (Naom & Sarah, 2014). As articulated by Berowa, Devanadera and David (2018), “attitude is a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to the object, person, institution, or event” (p.8). Thus, the success of any education policy is also measured on the trust and support the teachers give on the idea of the system and the system itself for them to change classroom practices. It should be emphasized that the new programs or policies being introduced compete with strongly established teaching and learning language theories which are brought by previous experiences, beliefs, and prejudices in teaching and learning (Karavas- Doukas, 1991).

Therefore, this study is done to investigate the teachers’ attitudes toward the MTBMLE policy as well as to find out the possible factors influencing their attitudes. The concentration of this study lies on the teachers who are teaching from Kindergarten to Grade 3 as they stand in the front line of the mother tongue implementation. Since the way teachers employ a language in the classroom instruction is affected by their feelings about the language that they are being exposed to in the school context (Paulson Stone, 2012), their attitudes would largely influence the success of the MTBMLE

policy in the country. Moreover, the study tries to provide pertinent suggestions directly from the teachers themselves to achieve a more effective implementation of such policy.

Review of Related Literature

The implementation of mother tongue-based education in the country boils down to the idea of heightening students' achievements through centering on their cognitive development using their first language (L1) and utilizing it as a solid foundation in learning Filipino and English languages in their later years. In 2013, Gallego and Zubiri affirm that the MTBMLE could afford Filipinos with a sustainable future. As proofs, students are provided with quality education as well as long-term success in school. Also, MTBMLE enhances the status of local languages. However, even with all these positive promises, the implementation of the MTBMLE is never easy. It is faced with myriad challenges such as teachers' preparation, availability of resources, as well as attitudes and multilingual classes (Naom & Sarah, 2014). Moreover, insignificant importance has been provided to the views of those that are at the ground level that include the teachers (Burton, 2013). Instead, these people are more normally seen as the soldiers of the system that carry the order given to them (Shahomy, 2006).

Needless to say, teachers, in any educational policy, play an enormously vital role because they are the front liners of its implementation. Paulson Stone (2012) asserts that without teachers, the education system cannot run. He adds that if teachers do not believe and support the policy, it is likely impossible to succeed. This is the primary reason why attitudes of teachers toward the MTBMLE should be given utmost consideration as they have a direct association to classroom practice. This dispute points to the importance of teachers in the implementation of the MTBMLE as their actions, in essence, are the policy (Sutton & Levinson, 2001). In its simplest sense, if a teacher deems that the use of another language will be more beneficial to his/her students, there will be no enough motivation to use the mother tongue that actually deviates from the policy. By doing that, one is not expected to reap the supposed outcome of the education policy which is yearned to flourish and raise the status of education in the country. On the contrary, if teachers have a strong desire to apply the real concept of mother tongue in the classroom, addressing first their attitudes is a must. Since the implementation of the MTBMLE in 2012, some studies were carried out in the different milieus around the country probing the attitudes of the teachers toward the mother tongue education policy.

In a study conducted by Paulson Stone (2012), he focused on the attitudes of the teachers about language and education. Assisting program designers is the ultimate goal of the study especially in coming up with professional efforts to address the challenges in the implementation of the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTBMLE) that includes negative attitudes. The application

of interview method aids the researcher to uncover the confidence and positivity of teachers in teaching the mother tongue when they had the opportunity to spend time learning about their own language, to create mother tongue teaching and learning materials, and to reflect on their early learning experiences and experience what it is like to learn in a language that is not familiar.

In a similar vein, an examination with regard to teachers' and parents' means of understanding and enacting MTBMLE was likewise realized by Burton (2013). The study was done in one school district in the Bikol region in the Philippines. Teachers' and parents' knowledge, beliefs, and practices were studied to identify how national language policy is appropriated at the ground level. Additionally, the challenges to policy implementation were explored and analyzed. The study focused on grade one teachers since they were the only group to have implemented MTB-MLE in their classroom. Findings of this study pointed out that teachers' and parents' views of MTB-MLE concentrated on the short-term benefits of the policy and the long-term disadvantages. While both groups were overwhelmingly satisfied with the increase in student understanding, they expressed concern about the future implications for learning in Bikol rather than in English. They overtly supported the policy in terms of complying with the requirements, yet covert resistance was observed in their words and actions.

Moreover, a study was carried out to determine the current state of perceptions of English teachers about MTBMLE policy and its implementation by Wa-Mbaleka (2014). It was found that teachers' perceptions on the impact of MTBMLE on learning, in general, were inconclusive. At that time, teachers' perception could not reveal with certainty whether or not they believe an impact of MTBMLE exists on learning in general. Second, results were not conclusive to state with certainty whether or not the Philippines is well prepared for the implementation of MTB-MLE. While the curriculum has been "dumped" on schools and teachers, enough training does not seem to have occurred to allow successful implementation.

On the same year, Lartec et al. (2014) which analyzed the strategies utilized by teachers among teachers from Baguio City in the implementation of the MTBMLE in a multilingual classroom context and the problems they encountered. It was a qualitative researcher in which data were gathered through interview method. The results illustrated that teachers used numerous strategies in the implementation of the mother tongue-based education that include translation, the use of lingua-franca and multilingual teaching, and the use of learning materials that were written in the mother tongue. On the other hand, teachers encountered problems since there were no sufficient books that were written in the mother tongue, teachers had vocabulary problem, and they lack teacher training.

From these research trends, it appears that there are different attitudes expressed by the teachers as regards mother tongue-based education. Most of the results indicate that while mother tongue is

welcomed to provide a better understanding on the part of the learners, there is also a strong presence of resistance toward it as it may be disadvantageous in the learning of the English language which is highly valued for economic gains. Also, resistance comes from the perceived challenges that come along with the MTBMLE implementation.

However, most of these studies reflected only the perspectives of the English teachers and were conducted in the initial stage of the MTBMLE implementation. It would also be beneficial to hear the views of those who are directly involved in the use of mother tongue as a medium of instruction--the teachers from Kindergarten to Grade 3 levels. It is interesting to discover the attitudes of these teachers as we already have produced the first batch of mother tongue-educated learners. Also, it may yield interesting results now that this study is conducted in which they already have first-hand experience in implementing the policy. This will not only provide additional literature to the topic but it would also serve as an evaluation as to how teachers perceive the policy that is hoped to provide insights to further improve it in order to achieve its utmost success.

Research Questions

The present research targeted at discovering the attitudes of the teachers from Ilocos Norte, Philippines toward the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction. Specifically, it tried to answer the following questions.

1. What are the attitudes of the Ilocano teachers toward MTBMLE policy in general?
2. What are the factors influencing the attitudes of the participants toward the MTBMLE policy?
3. What are the suggestions of the participants to allow more effective implementation of the MTBMLE policy?

Methodology

In this research, both quantitative and qualitative (mixed- method) designs were pursued to offer in-depth information about the problem. Quantitative is appropriate since the data gathered from the survey questionnaire mainly composed of numbers, and thus subjected to statistical analysis. Qualitative design was also observed through an interview. Hence, through these designs, the researchers fully gathered the teachers' attitudes toward MTBMLE policy, specifically mother tongue as a medium of instruction as well as the probable factors affecting their attitudes. Also, their suggestions to better implement the policy was examined.

The study was conducted in thirteen (13) public elementary schools in the municipalities of Paoay and Vintar in the province of Ilocos Norte since one of the authors of this present study is a

bonafide resident in the said province specifically in the municipality of Vintar. Hence, these schools were chosen for ease of access to the research participants. Seven (7) of which come from the former comprising *Pasil Elementary School, Nanguyudan Elementary School, Evangelista Elementary School, Nagbacalan Elementary School, Salbang Elementary School, Paoay East Central Elementary School, and Paoay Central Elementary School* while the other six (6) schools represented the latter consisting *Parut Elementary School, Salpad Integrated School, Salsalamagui Elementary School, Magabobo Elementary School, Malampa Elementary School, and Manarang Elementary School*.

The teachers from Kindergarten, Grade 1, Grade 2, and Grade 3 teachers from the identified schools took part on this study. These teachers are teaching Iluko (mother tongue) as a subject and utilize it as a medium of instruction in their classrooms. Sixty-two (62) teachers were randomly selected and approached for the study – thirty-eight (38) from Paoay District and twenty-four (24) from Vintar District. The participants' consent or permission was sought to allow the researchers in floating the survey questionnaire. In conducting the interview, 30 percent of the total number of respondents were selected to participate. Thus, a total of eighteen (18) teachers were interviewed on the scheduled dates.

Among the participants, there were sixty-one (61) females and one (1) male. As regards number of years in service, one participant has rendered less than a year of service when the study was conducted. Eleven have between one to five (1-5) years of service, ten of them have six to ten (6-10) years, ten have 11–15 years, another ten have 16 – 20 years, and 20 are currently in their 21st year of service. Lastly, in terms of age, eleven of the participants were between 20–29, twelve were between 30-39 years old, eighteen were 40 – 49 years old and twenty-one (21) were already in their 50s and above.

This study employed two data gathering instruments, including a survey questionnaire and an interview. The survey questionnaire was adapted from Paulson Stone (2012) and it is divided into two parts. The first part of the questionnaire aimed to elicit the participants' personal information particularly name, gender, number of years in the service, and age. The second part is composed of a list of 30 statements concerning the participants' attitudes toward the Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTBMLE) which is followed by four choices. The interview was done in order to collect data about the factors influencing the attitudes of the participants toward the MTBMLE policy and also their suggestions to allow more successful implementation of it.

For the analysis, the data collected were presented in tabular form in which mean and standard deviation were computed. Furthermore, the identification of the factors influencing the participants' attitude toward MTBMLE policy and their suggestions were done through thematic analysis.

Results and Discussion

The attitudes of the teachers toward a policy are very important as it influence their language use and behavior that could directly correlate with their classroom practices. Thus, to determine the attitudes of the respondents toward the MTBMLE in the context of this investigation, the mean scores and standard deviations were determined as presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Attitudes toward Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTBMLE) Policy

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Description
1	3.08	0.635	Agree
2	2.50	0.805	Agree
3	2.31	0.861	Disagree
4	2.89	0.680	Agree
5	2.18	0.800	Disagree
6	3.66	0.571	Strongly Agree
7	2.73	0.813	Agree
8	3.27	0.548	Strongly Agree
9	3.10	0.783	Agree
10	3.21	0.604	Agree
11	3.16	0.632	Agree
12	3.15	0.765	Agree
13	3.11	0.546	Agree
14	3.08	0.522	Agree
15	2.27	0.548	Disagree
16	3.11	0.515	Agree
17	3.24	0.502	Agree
18	3.13	0.383	Agree
19	2.79	0.604	Agree
20	2.39	0.636	Disagree
21	2.52	0.620	Agree
22	3.71	0.555	Strongly Agree
23	3.71	0.492	Strongly Agree
24	2.90	0.762	Agree
25	3.02	0.820	Agree
26	3.24	0.534	Agree
27	3.61	0.491	Strongly Agree
28	3.50	0.594	Strongly Agree
29	2.81	0.743	Agree
30	2.87	0.665	Agree

Note: Scale: 1.0-1.75= Highly Negative; 1.76-2.50= Negative; 2.51-3.25=Positive; 3.26-4.0= Highly Positive

As shown, the mean scores of almost all the statements indicate that teachers have favorable attitude toward mother-tongue-based education. This finding is very sensible since it is assumed that learners

learn well using their mother tongue (Capitol University, 2012). From the items, there are statements that were highly rated by the participants as shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Statements with highly positive attitudes

Items	Mean	Standard Deviation	Descriptive Interpretation
6. Students participate more actively in the classroom when the teacher and students are speaking the mother tongue	3.66	0.571	Strongly Agree
8. Teaching literacy in the mother tongue is added challenge for teachers.	3.27	0.548	Strongly Agree
22. Teacher's role is to impart knowledge to the students.	3.71	0.555	Strongly Agree
23. Students need to actively participate in the lesson in order to learn.	3.71	0.492	Strongly Agree
27. I see myself as a facilitator of learning.	3.61	0.491	Strongly Agree
28. If I had enough materials, teaching mother tongue would be easy.	3.50	0.594	Strongly Agree

Note: Scale: 1.0-1.75= *Highly Negative*; 1.76-2.50= *Negative*; 2.51-3.25= *Positive*; 3.26-4.0= *Highly Positive*

As presented in Table 4, the participants highly agreed to statements 6, 8, 22, 23, 27 and 28 that could illustrate their strong affirmation on the notion that the use of mother tongue helps learners to learn while teachers see themselves as facilitators of learning. The highly agreed statements ‘*Teacher’s role is to impart knowledge to the students*’ and ‘*Students need to actively participate in the lesson in order to learn,*’ demonstrate that learning is a two-way process which involves efforts both from the teacher and the learner. And in the process of learning, the language used as a medium of instruction plays a very significant role for teachers to effectively impart their knowledge and for the learners to better understand what are being communicated to them. In this investigation, teachers could be seen to have strongly believed that the use of the native tongue is directly connected to the understanding of the pupils that enables them to interact and participate during lectures, to be active learners, and to communicate better with their teachers and with their classmates. This view was supported by the participants who articulated the following thoughts.

Participant 2: *Using mother tongue as a medium of instruction, the learners are very active in the teaching-learning process because they can easily express their answer using the mother tongue. With that, it is easier to acquire learning if you fully*

understand what the teacher wants to impart to the learner because the language being used is your own language.

Participant 3: *The pupils can understand easily the instruction. Everybody was able to express their opinion.*

Generally, the participants believe that the use of mother tongue is very beneficial for the pupils since they become more confident in expressing their ideas and feelings that actually facilitated better learning and understanding. This affirms the idea of Gallego and Zubiri (2013) who asserted that academic competence can be attained through the use of native tongue. The exclusive use of language that is most familiar to the learners, can promote linguistic skills making it easy to engage in academic activities (Naom & Sarah, 2014).

In addition, teachers in this study strongly agreed that they see themselves as facilitators of learning that tend to illustrate the importance of learner-centered education rather than teacher-centered. Teachers in this study appears to strongly affirm that effective teaching is achieved by letting children learn and discover for themselves, and help them explore beyond just learning information. In assuming this role as facilitator of learning, it is hoped that the goals of the MTBMLE policy which emphasize “language development which establishes a strong education for success in school and for lifelong learning; cognitive development which focuses on Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS); academic development which prepares the learner to acquire mastery of competencies in each of the learning areas; and socio-cultural awareness which enhances the pride of the learner’s heritage, language and culture” (Burton, 2013, p. 4) will be realized.

However, teachers who served as participants in this study did not only highly agreed on statements which talk about the positive effect of the mother-tongue-based education in the Philippines but also on challenges in the implementation of the policy. The statement, ‘*If I had enough materials, teaching mother tongue would be easy,*’ shows the need for books and learning materials in the mother tongue to effectively implement the MTBMLE. Teachers in this context see learning materials as a vital element to effectively teach MTBMLE and for students to learn and understand the lessons. Thus, it appears that they strongly recognize the importance of materials for making their tasks easier and that adequate learning resources written in local language in a wide range of subjects allow them to successfully implement the MTBMLE.

Participant 10: *Absence of books written in mother tongue. The condition of having no textbooks or dictionaries in the mother tongue has been a common problem to teachers like me. These are needed to accommodate the needs of the learners having different mother tongues. Although I have stated "improvising instructional materials written in mother tongue, still we teachers need looks that are accurate and reliable.*

As provided by Participant 10, there is an absence of books and dictionaries that are written in the mother tongue that has become a common problem among teachers. The participant believes that learning materials that are accurate and reliable are very important to address the needs of the learners who do not share the same mother tongue. This is consistent with the idea stressed by Hall (2010 as cited in Lartec et al., 2014) that teaching will never be effective without relevant and accurate use of learning materials. It is also important to note that in teaching through the use of mother tongue, teachers will be forced to use materials that are written in other languages in the absence of adequate learning materials. This creates problems and confusions since the medium of instruction is different from the learning resource and most probably from the examinations to be conducted. This perceived disadvantage was presented by one of the participants during the interview.

Participant 43: *Using the mother tongue as medium of instructions ensures mostly complete comprehension in pupils of what is the exact task. But there could be disadvantage in using the mother tongue for instruction that is different to what is used in the textbooks if students are being tested in the language.*

Moreover, the respondents perceive the teaching of mother tongue literacy as added burden for teachers. It could be possible that since teachers are already used to teach Filipino and English literacy, they find the use of another language as a burden because of the unavailability of the needed materials and of the fact that they have to master the native tongue including its grammar and vocabulary. These sentiments were articulated in the following excerpts.

Participant 31: *It is easy to teach using MT as long as we know the technicalities and grammar.*

Participant 42: *Using mother tongue as a medium of instruction is not that easy. When we first used it, it was very challenging on our part but as we learned some of the terminologies, we found it very useful and easy to use.*

The responses of the participants illustrate the challenges that goes with the use of mother tongue as a medium of instruction similar to what Lartec et al. (2014) found in their study in which grammar and vocabulary were found to be a problem among teachers in Baguio. With this, it is then more challenging if a teacher is faced with pupils who come from different linguistic and multi-cultural backgrounds.

Thus, the highly rated statements suggest that teachers strongly believe that the MTBMLE policy could facilitate better learning as pupils understand what is said to them which could be translated to active participation in the classroom as they understood what are asked of them. In turn, the use of the native tongue leads to better learning and effective teaching. Furthermore, teachers see themselves as the provider of knowledge to the learners although they also acknowledge the need for

active participation of the pupils in order to learn. Apart from the perceived positive impact of the MTBMLE, the statements which described the difficulties faced by the teachers in implementing the policy were also highly rated. Respondents expressed concerns in relation to learning materials and in teaching literacy in mother tongue that make their tasks more difficult.

Aside from those statements that are highly agreed, there are also those that are disagreed by the participants as presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Statements with negative attitude

Item	Mean	Standard Deviation	Descriptive Interpretation
3. Mother tongue literacy is not useful because there are very few mother tongue reading materials available.	2.31	0.861	Disagree
5. The mother tongue is not suitable to be used as an academic language.	2.18	0.800	Disagree
15. I use the same teaching methods in my classroom as were used by my teachers when I was a student.	2.27	0.548	Disagree
20. Teachers are not equipped to use foreign language as the medium of instruction.	2.39	0.636	Disagree

Note: Scale: 1.0-1.75= *Highly Negative*; 1.76-2.50= *Negative*; 2.51-3.25= *Positive*; 3.26-4.0= *Highly Positive*

As shown in Table 5, the statement ‘*The mother tongue is not suitable to be used as an academic language*’ is the one which got the lowest mean score (M=2.18). This could mean that teachers disagree with such statement since they believe that mother tongue fits to be a language for academic purposes. As asserted by Gallego and Zubiri (2013), the use of language which is unfamiliar to the learners is often found to impede education and communication. Accordingly, the best way achieve success in school is through the use of the language which is common to both students and teachers. This involves the use of mother tongue as a medium of instruction that starts with what the students already know and with what they already have. Thus, the mother tongue is suitable as an academic language.

Furthermore, the second to the lowest mean score is found in the statement, ‘*I use the same teaching methods in my classroom as were used by my teachers when I was a student.*’ Alidou et al. (2006 as cited in Paulson Stone, 2012) maintained that the use of unfamiliar language as a medium of

instruction force teachers to employ traditional and teacher-centered methods in teaching such as memorization, repetition, recall and chorus that produce passive learners. With the MTBMLE, participants believe that they can employ teaching methods that are different from those traditionally utilized by their teacher. The policy allows teachers to employ innovative and learner-centered activities and appears to be the best option to facilitate learning as learners can express and understand better (Paulson Stone, 2012).

In addition, the item *'Teachers are not equipped to use foreign language as the medium of instruction'* is reported to have the third to the lowest mean score (M=2.39). This means that teachers think that they are actually capable of using foreign languages in teaching. As Paulson Stone (2012) claims, Filipino teachers believe that they are equipped to use Filipino and English as a medium of instruction but they are not comfortable in utilizing these languages as it limits the participation of the learners when foreign languages are used. Thus, it could be that the disagreement expressed by respondents to the statement is based on the fact that teachers have been used to English and Filipino as languages for instruction in which they believe that they are linguistically armed.

Moreover, the statement *'Mother tongue literacy is not useful because there are very few mother tongue reading materials available'* got the fourth to the lowest mean score (M=2.31) among those items that are negatively reported. Although it has been emphasized by the people in the academe that the lack of learning materials provides the opportunity to use English as a medium of instruction (Naom & Sarah, 2014), still, the respondents believe that mother tongue literacy is useful despite the absence of books and learning materials that are written in the mother tongue.

Notwithstanding with the disagreements expressed by the participants in this current research, teachers generally have positive attitude toward the MTBMLE policy in the country. This kind of attitude displayed by these teachers in Ilocos is found to be influenced by a number of factors.

3.2 Factors influencing attitudes toward MTBMLE

The data obtained for this study also illustrated the numerous factors which influence the attitude of the respondents toward the MTBMLE policy.

Teachers' beliefs

The MTBMLE policy of the government for the first three years of a learner's education are strongly supported by the experts in the field of language since they believe that children who receive education using the language familiar to them would learn better (Naom & Sarah, 2014). Such belief tends to contribute to the positive attitude displayed by teachers who served as participants in this current study.

Participant 4: *Prior to learning other languages, one must learn first his/her native language. For me it is easier to acquire learning because the language used is your own not the language of others.*

Participant 6: *I find the use of mother tongue as a medium of instruction, pupils actively participated because they can express themselves with the use of our own language.*

Participant 7: *For me it is easier to acquire learning if you understand what you are learning because the language used is your own dialect.*

Based on the responses, teachers strongly believe that the use of mother tongue would positively promote the linguistic skills of the learners that would better facilitate the acquisition of knowledge as they understand what is asked of them. Accordingly, mother tongue-based education develops strong L1 competencies among young learners and they perform well in all subjects. As asserted by Heugh (2006), the linguistic expertise and skills of the learners in their native tongue can be developed further as it is used in the academic contexts especially in writing and in reading for cognitive and creative purposes. It was also added that learners boost their self-esteem and develop a solid foundation in learning additional languages. Moreover, the use of native tongue promotes more involvement among parents and of the community in the school activities. Since teachers hold strong belief that something good will result from the mother-tongue-based education, this contributed to teachers' positive attitude toward the MTBMLE policy which affirms the claim made by Dutcher (2001 as cited in Wa-Mbaleka, 2014).

Teachers' experience

Aside from the teachers' beliefs, the experiences of the participants also who are directly involved in the implementation of the MTBMLE could also be seen as a factor for them to perceive such positively. Teachers revealed that based on their experiences, pupils were more attentive and active in their classes and seem to understand the lessons very well as illustrated during the interviews.

Participant 8: *Pupils were more attentive in class discussion. They are also able to explain their answers well when responding to questions. It makes them more confident to converse.*

Participant 14: *Using Mother Tongue as a medium of instruction is a great help and important because it encourages my pupils to participate actively in class. They can easily understand what is being discussed since Iloko, our mother tongue is their natural language and medium of communication by our surroundings.*

As articulated by the participants, teachers find the use of mother tongue as a great help for learners to express their thoughts freely and to actively participate in the class. As such, teachers had

pleasant experiences as learners understand the concepts during classes very well. With this, it appears that their good experience contributed to their positive attitude toward the MTBMLE.

Thus, these factors found in this investigation sustain the assertion made by Karavas-Doukas (1991) who argued that teachers' attitudes are products of teaching and learning experiences, prejudices and beliefs. Although the attitude of the participants toward the MTBMLE appears to be favorable, teachers still have suggestions to achieve a more effective implementation of the policy.

3.3 Suggestions to improve the implementation of the MTBMLE Policy

The teachers on this investigation provided suggestions in order to improve the implementation of the mother-tongue-based education in Ilocos which include additional funding/budget, learning materials/books, and teacher trainings/seminars.

Funding/Budget

The success of the MTBMLE policy is believed to be measured on its educational programs (Naom & Sarah, 2014). Thus, trainings, seminars and workshops on how to effectively implement the policy are very important that would demand funding from the government. As expressed by most of the teachers during interviews, the implementation of the MTBMLE involves learning resources, teacher trainings, and curriculum designing which would cost the government.

Participant 1: *Major effort and budget be given attention to the program for the full implementation and success of the program.*

Participant 2: *Enough funding for the implementation of mother tongue-based instruction and full support implementing the MTB instruction especially in the higher-ups organization.*

Participant 4: *I suggest for enough funding for the implementation of mother tongue-based instructions.*

From the excerpts provided, the teachers generally believe that the success of the mother-tongue-based education policy in the Philippines would demand a considerable amount from the government. Wa-Mbaleka (2014a) suggested, the government must provide sufficient budget to address the challenges about MTBMLE since the policy has met challenges in the actual implementation in terms of the development of instructional materials, language instruction and teacher training.

MTBMLE learning materials

The lack of learning resources for teachers in the classroom was the most commonly mentioned problem in implementing the MTBMLE (Burton, 2013). The same top-most concern was raised by teachers from Ilocos during the interviews viewed that adequate instructional materials that are written

in the mother tongue are very significant in the success of the MTBMLE since teachers need reliable and accurate books native language.

Participant 5: *We suggest to give us complete teacher's guide and more learners materials for us teachers to fully implement mother tongue based as a medium of instruction.*

Participant 6: *There should be more textbooks and activities provided for the pupils.*

Participant 12: *The Department of Education should be equipped and well prepared in implementing the K-12. The government should provide us teachers' guides that jive with the learners' materials so that we teachers will not be hard-up to make our daily lesson plans.*

Thus, it will be impossible to attain the goals of mother-tongue-based education if the needed learning materials are unavailable (Lartec et al., 2014). As articulated by the participants during the interviews, there is a great need for textbooks, teachers' guide, and other learning materials to improve and to succeed in the implementation of the MTBMLE policy. As asserted by Hall (2010 as cited in Lartec et al., 2014), teachers cannot effectively teach if appropriate materials are absent that incorporate curriculum goals as established by the government and prior knowledge, culture and value systems of the pupils. Literacy can only be sustained if there is sufficient supply of materials in reading (Burton, 2013). With that said, books are very significant in the learning process of an individual in which, without adequate supply of these, effective teaching and learning cannot take place (Lartec et al., 2014).

Teachers' training

Participants on this investigation also suggested that trainings, seminars, and conferences must be consistently provided to address various issues in using the mother tongue as the medium of instruction. The following responses made by the participants illustrate the suggestions of the teachers as regards teacher development.

Participant 9: *More seminars and wokshops for teachers and enough instructional materials and books.*

Participant 11: *I could have suggest that the Department of Education should let the teachers undergo several trainings and seminars to enhance their knowledge on the different strategies and techniques in teaching the mother tongue based instruction.*

As shown, participants suggested that the Department of Education must provide more trainings, seminars and workshops to enhance the knowledge of the teachers in relation to the different teaching strategies and techniques in the mother tongue. Lartec et al. (2014) maintain that the limited background of the teachers can impede them from becoming effective in the use of mother tongue as

a medium of instruction. Additionally, seminars and trainings are greatly needed to provide orientation and guidance on how to handle the learners especially in a multilingual setting. Moreover, these professional trainings are opportunities for teachers to learn with and from the other attendees that could further enhance their knowledge and experience. Trainings in teaching methodology are also important so that teachers can make the most of the advantages that comes in the teaching the children in the language that they can understand (Dutcher, 2004). If teachers will be equipped with the necessary trainings, knowledge and skills, it is assumed that there will be less occurrence of passive learning. Instead, students will be encouraged to interact, to read, and to discover in their learning process.

Generally, the findings indicate that teachers have positive attitude toward the MTBMLE and such attitude is influenced by teachers' belief and experiences in relation to the policy. This favorable attitude toward the educational policy is a very good indication for its success. As emphasized by Stern et al. (1975 as cited in Paulson Stone, 2012), teachers must have a positive attitude toward the policy since it plays a very significant role in facilitating educational change, a very important aspect in any pedagogical innovation. The results also illustrated the importance of teachers' beliefs and experiences in determining the attitudes of the teachers toward educational innovations. Thus, attitudes toward educational policy may come from conscious or unconscious held beliefs that might have direct association with their classroom experiences. However, positive attitude toward the policy does not mean that it is already perfect. Hence, suggestions such as sufficient budget/funding, availability of books and other learning materials that are written in the mother tongue, and teacher trainings were provided to effectively and successfully implement the policy.

Conclusion

This current study illustrates the attitudes of the teachers from Kinder to Grade 3 in Ilocos toward the MTBMLE in the country as well as the factors that influence their attitudes and it presents suggestions to improve the policy. It should be emphasized that it will be impossible for an educational system to run without teachers, and any policy in relation to education cannot succeed if they do not trust or support it. Clearly, the study shows the favorable attitude of the teachers toward mother-tongue-based education in the Philippines despite the fact that teachers are being challenged by the dearth of instructional and learning materials. Thus, it is the task of the Department of Education to conduct mechanisms to maintain the generally positive attitude of the teachers and to consider their suggestions for a more effective implementation of the MTBMLE. It must be remembered that for an

educational policy to be more successful and more effective requires favorable attitude on the part of the teachers who stand on the front lines of its implementation.

Pedagogical Implication

From the pedagogical perspective, this study unveiled that the use of mother tongue as a medium of instruction is generally beneficial both on the part of Kindergarten to Grade 3 teachers and pupils. Empirical evidences from this inquiry show that the implementation of MTBMLE policy paves the way toward building and providing better avenues to teachers and pupils to be more expressive of what is in their minds about the topic being taught and learned.

The study's result imply that the mother tongue usage in Kindergarten and first three grades classrooms appears to be contributory to the positive outcome of teaching and learning undertakings. Teacher participants of the study corroborated this claim since according to them, pupils can easily grasp basic concepts. They are likely to understand instructions, more confident in constructing, articulating, and explaining their ideas without fears of making mistakes. By and large, the learning ability of children is being enhanced when teaching in the early grades is done utilizing the mother tongue. In similar vein, teachers find the use of mother tongue as a medium of instruction sustains the flow of classroom discussion and interactions.

However, while it is true that teachers are doing and giving their best to cater all the needs of their pupils, the MTBMLE policy's initial implementation has laid down problems such as lack of funding or budget from the government, scarcity of MTBMLE instructional materials, and dearth of teachers' training. These equally challenge the full realization of the policy. Consequently, there is a need for straightaway attention and decisive action from the Department of Education and the Philippine government to address these concerns. When these will be urgently resolved, tendency would be, teachers are more able to perform their responsibilities inside the classroom toward reinforcing their teacher mastery and proficiency. Moreover, learners' engagement and participation in classroom interactions would be more assured as they may find the courage and passion to be self-driven in overcoming their apprehensions of sharing their personal viewpoints about the lessons at hand heading on the direction of attaining excellence in all academic endeavors.

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Developing Mentorship Provisions for Academic English Success

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Abstract

This study investigated the motivations of undergraduate students in joining a university English language mentoring scheme. The study also reports participants' views on the effectiveness of this scheme in fulfilling their learning objectives. Participants consisted of 46 first-year students transitioning from secondary to university education in Hong Kong. A two phase-research design was implemented including an initial questionnaire followed by semi-structured interviews to clarify and extend on the preliminary data collected. Data revealed that the mentorship program had enhanced participants' perceptions of their language skills, and the mentees appreciated the informal nature of the mentoring sessions and the opportunities to develop conversational English. Participants also indicated that they felt more comfortable in addressing specific language problems than they would have in a larger class setting.

Keywords: academic; English; mentoring; mentee; mentor

Introduction

Bridging the gap between the teaching of English in secondary schools on the one hand and in colleges and universities on the other is a challenge facing language educators worldwide. Students who enter an institution of higher education in their freshman year often have uninformed or unrealistic expectations about the learning environment and overconfidence in their English skills, and as a result they often struggle in English classes (Stinebrickner & Stinebrickner, 2012; Zafar, 2011). Students in Hong Kong are no exception, as many find that their limited English proficiency is insufficient for success at an English-medium university (Evans & Morrison, 2016; Ortega, 2018). For such second-language learners, it has become increasingly important that higher education institutions find ways to help with the transition to the more demanding coursework when English is the medium of instruction.

This study evaluates a mentoring program, Excel@English, implemented at a university in Hong Kong that has the potential to address the shortcomings of current English language instruction in China for students transitioning from secondary to post-secondary education. In academic mentoring programs of the kind discussed here, students receive support for a range of needs. Thus, for example, self-directed learning helps students to set goals, acquire subject knowledge, and build personal relationships with mentors in the context of small-group interactions (Sandner, 2015); it also, as the name suggests, promotes the development of autonomous learning behavior (Brodeur, Larose, Tarabulsy & Feng, 2017). There is, however, a gap in the current literature regarding the engagement of second-language students in mentoring programs in post-secondary settings. This study aims to help fill this gap by doing an in-depth and holistic examination of the needs of this specific group of learners.

Context

Mentoring programs for language learners are common at universities, and several in Hong Kong offer such services to their students (Urmston, Raquel, & Aryadoust, 2016). The mentoring program studied here was unique, however, in that its aim was to provide undergraduate students with a language learning path tailored to their personal needs, studies, and careers mediated by a trained English instructor serving as a dedicated, personal mentor.

Mentoring is understood here as a process by which an educator (mentor) teaches, encourages, counsels, and befriends a student (mentee) for the specific purpose of addressing needs associated with language learning and encouraging the development of learner autonomy. The mentoring program was open to all undergraduate students; it ran for 10 weeks out of 13 weeks of a semester and consisted of weekly meetings, either face-to-face or online, between mentees and mentors. The focus of the meetings was not on the English language per se but rather on the logistics of learning a language. Students had the opportunity to select a mentor based on their preferred mentoring style (i.e., advisory, casual, cooperative, or directive) and the option of meeting with their mentors either individually or in the context of small groups of no more than six students with the same mentoring preference and level of English. These regular meetings provided students with access to resources in the form of both academic and emotional support for the transition to college. Through frequent contact of this sort, it was hoped that the mentees would experience increased self-efficacy and reduced anxiety regarding academic success, would better define their academic goals and would raise their career expectations.

This mentoring program was open to all undergraduate students, though the majority who participated had entered the university with low English proficiency scores and were faced with heavy linguistic demands in courses taught at a level of English that was simply too challenging for many students (Kohnke & Jarvis, 2018; Ortega, 2018). These students were struggling with increasingly complex language issues while trying to learn to break down complex tasks into steps, plan and manage their time, and hold themselves and each other accountable for their academic performance.

In order to prepare for the mentoring sessions, the mentors received training and feedback as well as mentoring kits from the coordinator that specified weekly activities (speaking, pronunciation, listening, etc.) to incorporate into the mentoring sessions. All of the mentors were full-time English language instructors who had previous experience with mentorship. They were asked to keep notes on the focus of each session in an effort to align the learning goals from one session to the next closely and to evaluate the mentees' progress over the course of the program.

Literature Review

Mentorship takes a variety of forms across institutions of higher learning. Traditionally, it has involved the pairing of a faculty member with a student in order to support the latter's transition to college, coursework, and planning for a career (Budge, 2006; Eby, Allen, Evans, Ng, & DuBois, 2008; Hawkrige, 2003). In practice, mentors may meet with individual students or with pairs or groups of

students (Hill & Reddy, 2007). Previous research has documented the positive impact of mentorship programs on such key educational outcomes as retention, academic success, and graduation rates (Collings, Swanson, & Watkins, 2014; Santos & Reigadas, 2002, 2004; Wilson et al., 2012).

For freshman students entering the university, who often feel unprepared and at risk, faculty members represent a source of knowledge and experience that can facilitate the transition from secondary education. In their role as mentors, faculty can help these new students to achieve their academic, social, and personal development goals (Wilson et al., 2012). Several studies have found that students who receive mentoring tend to be more successful than those who do not (Campbell & Campbell, 1997; Kendricks, Nedunuri, & Arment, 2013). Mentoring focused on language learning, however, has not been common at higher education institutions.

As noted, mentors may meet with one or two students or small groups of them. Mentorship approaches can be informal in nature, which is to say spontaneous and voluntary, or formal, involving a schedule of regular meetings (Budge, 2006). The various types of mentoring serve various purposes; in the case of self-directed, small-group mentoring, for example, students are particularly encouraged to take charge of their own learning (Merriam, Baumgartner, & Caffarella, 2007). Knowledge exchange and discussion are enhanced in such mentoring sessions through sharing, active listening, and constructive feedback (Baptiste, 2003).

Moreover, the existing literature suggests that students can benefit academically from learning cooperatively (Johnson & Johnson, 2014). The benefits of small-group mentoring sessions include improvements in students' thinking skills, self-motivation to learn, self-esteem, and overall attitude toward learning (Alghamdi & Gillies, 2013). Other research has drawn attention to the potential of mentoring in assisting undergraduate students' attitudes and persistence in completing their studies (Crisp, Baker, Griffin, Lunsford, & Pifer, 2017).

Among the key factors in successful mentoring are trust, mutual respect, support, and useful feedback (Izadinia, 2016; Johnson, 2015). Mentors need to be inspiring role models and effective communicators in order to have a positive impact on students' academic outcomes (Blanchard & Muller, 2015). In the context of trusting and cooperative relationships, mentors work with mentees to identify their needs and to create a personalized language-learning pathway (Everhard, 2015). For students in Hong Kong in particular, this sense of belonging and trust has proved to be crucial to maintaining motivation at the university level (Lau, 2018).

Based on the considerations discussed above and the current state of research into mentoring at the college level, we formulated the following questions:

1. Do students join the language mentoring program in order to improve their overall performance in classes taught in their second language?
2. How helpful was the mentoring program in terms of fulfilling their language needs?

Methodology

This explorative, interpretive case study investigated the motivations for mentees signing up for language mentoring and the effectiveness of the mentoring program in fulfilling their objectives. The two-phase research design included a qualitative data phase that served to clarify and extend the initial quantitative data phase (Creswell, Plano Clark, Gutmann, & Hanson, 2003). This mixed-methods approach provided a basis for a holistic understanding of the phenomena of interest. This study was carried out within the context of an interpretive paradigm designed to reveal the full complexity of mentoring in the form of “thick responses” that accurately reflect the lived experience of the participants (Geertz, 1973).

Participants

This study relied on convenience sampling, which is a common means of gathering data for qualitative research. With convenience sampling, as Yates, Partridge, and Bruce (2012) observed, the aim is to identify participants based not only on their availability but also on their “appropriateness to the purpose of the research study, that is, they have experience of the phenomenon being explored” (p. 103). Participants in the present study included 46 freshman undergraduate students who had enrolled in the university’s mentoring program and volunteered to fill out questionnaires relating to mentorship; they were considered to be reasonably representative of the wider population of mentees in the mentoring program. Of those who filled out the questionnaire, eight further volunteered to participate in semi-structured interviews.

Data Collection

The data collection for this study, then, consisted of an initial ten-item questionnaire followed by face-to-face interviews. As discussed, the latter, qualitative data served to clarify and build on the

quantitative data, the two distinct phases complementing one another to create a holistic picture of the phenomenon of interest (Creswell et al., 2003). The face-to-face, semi-structured interviews consisted of 12 open-ended questions designed to yield rich accounts of mentees' attitudes about the mentoring program. Thus they were asked to discuss specific factors that influenced their decisions to join the mentoring program and how helpful it had been in various respects.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed inductively in accordance with the interpretive paradigm (Carter & Little, 2007; Miles & Huberman, 1984). The first phase, involving the questionnaire, generated descriptive quasi-statistics (Becker, 1970) using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software. More specifically, the survey was conducted online using SurveyMonkey and the results migrated to SPSS for cleaning and correction.

The second phase, involving the semi-structured interviews, generated rich data that were transcribed, coded, and categorized. Thematic analysis was chosen for identifying, analyzing, and reporting patterns in the data on account of the flexibility of this approach (Reicher & Taylor, 2005). As Braun and Clarke (2006) have observed, thematic analysis can provide a rich, detailed, and complex account of the data that are guided by key ideas and perspectives (Gibbs, 2007; Kelle, 1997).

Results and Discussion

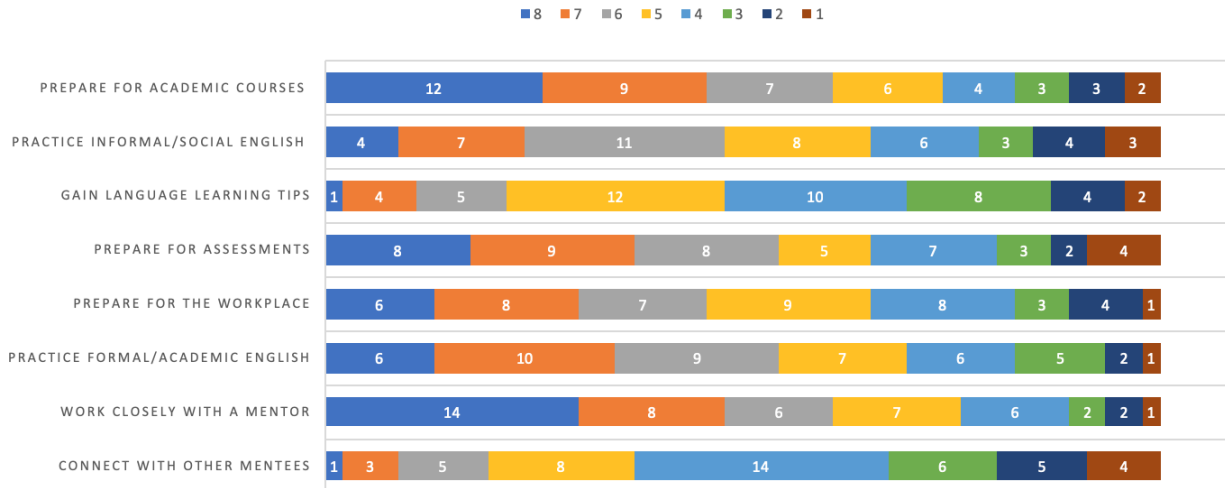
Research Question 1: Do students join the language mentoring program in order to improve their overall performance in classes taught in their second language?

The most popular response given by the participants in both the questionnaire and interviews when they were asked why they had joined the mentoring program was to “work closely with a mentor,” as can be seen in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Summary of the Results for Research Question 1

HOW IMPORTANT WERE THE FOLLOWING WHEN DECIDING TO JOIN EXCEL@ENGLISH SCHEME

1=LEAST IMPORTANT - 8 MOST IMPORTANT
N=46



Additionally, as can be seen in Table 1, 22 participants assigned this item a 7 or 8 on the 8-point scale. Because the mentors are teachers in the university’s English Language Centre (ELC), students viewed the mentors as language experts who could help them with their university studies, their ELC courses and their general proficiency. Related to this point was the students’ incentive to prepare for academic courses and assessments. The items listed in Table 1 were also rated very highly by the mentees as reasons for joining the program.

The interview data corroborated the findings from the questionnaire. First year students indicated that they felt anxious about the language demands of university classes. In the words of one of them, Kelvin:

You need to write a lot of business proposals or academic writing. Sometimes you find that your English level cannot meet the requirements of the subject. Then you take so much time with the dictionary or in the class and you find you cannot understand some readings in a class.

Kelvin's concern about English proficiency was echoed by many of the interviewees, who indicated that they were struggling to cope with the use of the English language as the academic lingua franca at the university. Seven of the interviewees referred specifically to their need for support with the English Language Centre's subjects as a reason for joining the mentoring program. First-year students at the university are required to take a general English course for academic purposes that some interviewees found challenging. Unsurprisingly given the students' focus on academic performance, the findings from the questionnaire suggested that they were more focused on formal or academic English than on informal or social English (though both were frequently cited as motivations for taking part in the program). Thus, the mentoring program thus appealed to students as an informal way to enhance their formal academic skills.

The need to develop speaking skills was identified in the interviews as another important reason for joining the mentoring program. As discussed, the program offered students the opportunity to practice speaking in small group contexts that they found less intimidating than the large and more impersonal lectures. The ELC classes, which usually included around 20 students, could also be an intimidating environment for less confident users of English. One participant, Alex, observed that Excel@English allowed him to

Have an extra chance to communicate and, uh, practice—practice oral English.

Giving presentations is a common form of assessment in both English classes and discipline subjects at the university. While the students were not necessarily graded on their English in discipline subjects, it was still necessary for them to present and express their ideas clearly and confidently in the language. These presentations were a great source of anxiety for many of the students who took part in the study, as Kelvin made clear:

Because I think the main reason for this is that like I hope I can improve my English level, especially for speaking. Sometimes I'm too nervous to give a presentation.

Two interviewees reported International English Language Testing System (IELTS) preparation as their reason for joining the program. Although IELTS was not a requirement for students in their first year, it became increasingly important for them in subsequent years in regard to job placement and further education. Another participant, Isaac, stated that he was

intending more to go for IELTS. So we ask our mentor, specifically, to provide us with IELTS oral tasks.

Research Question 2: How helpful was the mentoring program in terms of fulfilling students’ language needs?

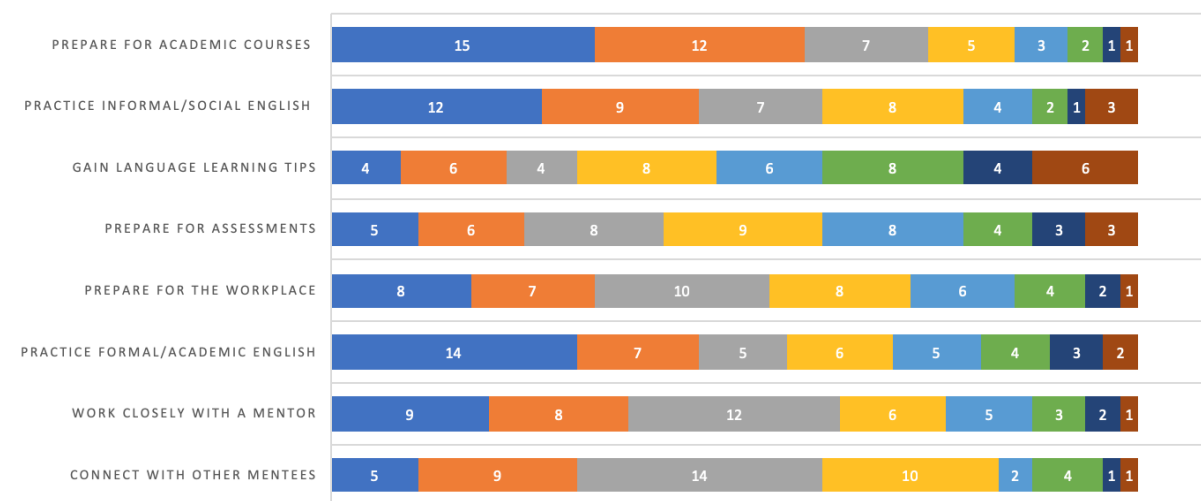
Overall, the participants reported that their expectations were met in many respects and that the program generally fostered a positive learning experience for them as mentees. These results are reported in Table 4; the results indicate that, in several respects, the program was more helpful than they had expected it to be.

Table 2: Summary of the Results for Research Question 2

HOW HELPFUL WAS THE MENTORING SCHEME IN THE FOLLOWING AREAS FOR YOU?

1=LEAST IMPORTANT - 8 MOST IMPORTANT
N=46

■ 8 ■ 7 ■ 6 ■ 5 ■ 4 ■ 3 ■ 2 ■ 1



Looking at the results in detail, 12 participants initially chose “preparing for academic courses” as their main reason for joining the program, and 15 chose preparation as the area in which they had been most helped by the program. Thus more students found that the program helped them to prepare for courses than had expected it would. An even greater difference was found for the item “practice informal/social English,” with 8 more students rating this item as helpful in their mentoring experience

than those for whom it was a significant motivation for joining the program. It is possible that the participants, though they were, as discussed, offered a choice of mentoring styles when they joined the program, did not fully appreciate fully the relatively informal nature of the mentoring relationship, in which they were encouraged to use English in a conversational manner.

A number of participants indicated that “preparing for assessments” was an important consideration for them when joining the program, but a smaller number reported having been helped in this regard. This result may be attributable to the fact that mentors and faculty at the language center in general were restricted in terms of the type of feedback that they could provide on English assessments; specifically, while they were permitted to answer questions about writing assignments and to guide students to develop certain areas of a script, they were not to proofread or correct errors on assessments. This restriction may have confused mentees, who may have expected that the mentors would correct their work. It is therefore important to make clear to prospective mentees that the aim of this and similar mentoring programs is to offer opportunities to practice English and to develop strategies for learning rather than to ensure that their assessments are free of mistakes. Mentoring programs are intended to build independent learning skills (Brodeur et al., 2017) that can enhance students’ academic performance in the long run.

The Excel@English Scheme was designed to develop independent learning skills through language learning strategies. Six respondents gave gaining language learning tips the lowest rating of 1 out of 8, and a further 12 rated it at 2 or 3. These findings indicate that, for a significant number of the participants, the mentoring program seems not to have been effective in developing language learning strategies, perhaps owing to differences in individual mentoring styles or group dynamics or to inadequacies in the learning resources made available to the mentors.

The data from the questionnaire also showed a higher response rate for the item “connect with other mentees” but a lower response rate for “work closely with a mentor.” Students may have expected their mentors to exercise complete control over the mentoring relationship because of their authority as English teachers in the university language center. However, though the students had the option of selecting a “directed” mentoring style, the program scheduled mentees and mentors to meet in the context of small groups in order to encourage students to learn from each other and to make the relationship between mentor and mentee less hierarchical. Moreover, mentees benefited from

watching their peers deal with similar language problems. Three respondents mentioned this benefit specifically, two of them noted this idea as follows:

I can learn—still learn some things during—from other mentees.

I think, actually, that all of the attributes are quite important, such as talking to foreigners and self-study. Actually, I think EES—this program does provide you some opportunities to learn from different students and the mentor.

Interviewees mentioned other benefits of the program as well. Most of them indicated satisfaction with the learner-directedness and flexibility of the mentoring. They stressed the importance of being able to discuss their weaknesses in English during mentoring sessions and to choose their time slots, the focus, and the materials involved in the mentoring. In part because the program could be customized in these ways, they considered mentoring an effective aid to learning English. Thus, while their other courses were driven by learning outcomes, mentoring offered them opportunities to address specific language issues. As Jennifer noted,

EES is a bit better [than language courses] because you have more freedom so you can choose what you want to develop.

Confidence is another area in which mentoring can have a positive impact, and eight of the interviewees indicated that this was the case with regard to using English. These students affirmed that they felt more comfortable chatting with international students and lecturers in English after having participated in the mentoring program. In the words of Kelvin,

And you hear the other student [laughs] speaking English. So then you feel so confident.

That is, the experience of watching other mentees in his group speaking English gave Kelvin greater confidence in his conversational English skills.

Nine of the interviewees indicated that the mentoring program had helped to improve their use of English. Three of them referred specifically to academic writing and another three to spoken English.

Thus the program assisted them in refining their academic presentations and writing, learning new referencing styles, using words in practical contexts, and generally gaining greater exposure to English.

Lastly, five interviewees stated that mentoring stimulated their interest in learning English, more so than had been the case with their English Language Centre's subjects. According to Alvin,

So it definitely enhanced my interest in learning English. . . EES motivates me to improve my English.

The relatively closer relationship between mentees and mentors than between students and teachers, coupled with the student-led focus of mentoring, are likely explanations for this finding.

Conclusions

In this study, the student participants were found to have joined the mentoring program in order to work closely with a mentor who could help them with courses and assignments. Many of these students felt they were struggling to cope with the demands of an English-medium university and especially the required English courses. Perceiving weaknesses in their speaking and writing abilities, they were eager to improve in these areas; class presentations in English were especially daunting for them. The participants generally reported that the mentorship program had enhanced their language skills, though their experiences were not always consistent with their expectations. Thus, they received less direct feedback on their university assignments than they had hoped for but still felt that the program had helped them to prepare for their academic coursework. Some mentees felt that the scheme did not offer enough language learning tips. Overall, though, participants in the study appreciated the informal nature of the mentoring sessions and the opportunities to develop conversational English. They also valued the opportunities to learn from peers provided by the program, an aspect of mentorship that few had considered very important at the outset.

One advantage of language-focused mentoring programs over academic English courses mentioned by mentees was the flexibility and learner-directedness of the former. In a small group context, the respondents indicated, they felt more comfortable addressing specific language problems than they would have in a larger class setting. The data from the interviews demonstrated that this mentoring program has the capacity to help students to develop confidence in language use. The effectiveness of the program in this respect may have been due to the low-stakes environment and more personal nature of mentorship and to the salutary effect of observing peers' attempts to use English. One last finding

worthy of note was that some of the participants felt that their overall interest in English had been stimulated by the program.

Pedagogical Implication

This study has explored the language-focused mentoring program Excel@English and reported participants' pre and post perceptions. Implications for developing mentoring schemes for undergraduates will now be considered.

Firstly, the design of language-focused mentoring programs is crucial and this study showed that mentees appreciated the informal nature of the program. Therefore, rather than being driven by specific learning outcomes, these schemes can provide a space for flexible, informal, and learner directed English experiences. Mentoring schemes can aim to stimulate participants' positive relationships with English, develop confidence and increase exposure to the language. This can be achieved through casual learning experiences in a low-stakes environment. In this way, mentoring schemes can complement class-based instruction and provide informal ways to develop formal language skills. In terms of practical design, one consideration would be to provide mentoring groups, rather than one on one mentoring as mentees in this research recalled that they gained greatly from their peers. Peer support helps to increase the social atmosphere of the mentoring sessions and build confidence in the mentees. Longer mentoring schemes, for example, over one semester or an entire academic year, may help to develop dynamics within mentoring groups.

Secondly, the goals of the mentoring scheme should be communicated clearly to prospective recruits. As reported in this study, participants did not know exactly what they were signing up for with many expecting a more formal, teacher-led experience. Students should be aware of the informal nature of the program and how it can complement the enhancement of their academic and social English. The scheme should relay clear information that it is not intended to be a proofreading reading service. This information can be given to students during online sign up, briefing sessions or at the first mentoring session. It is also important to target hard to reach students when promoting the scheme. These students may be disillusioned in their EAP classes, feel anxious about their English, and lack the confidence to seek out further opportunities. In our case, we work with departments who have lower intake requirements for English, and we promote the scheme within their discipline lectures. The EES Scheme also has a referral service in which EAP teachers identify and direct weaker students to the program early in the semester.

Finally, mentor training is a vital element to the success of mentoring schemes. This should not be conducted in a prescriptive way, as mentors have their own mentoring styles. Instead, mentors can be encouraged to share their experiences, strategies and resources to build a cooperative mentoring culture. This study showed that some learners did not feel that they had developed their independent learning skills, which is one of the goals of the scheme. This is an opportunity to enhance expertise and resources in this area which can be developed and shared among the mentors. Having a scheme coordinator is important for facilitating these types of professional development experiences for mentors. For the success of future mentoring programs, it is important that mentors know how to facilitate and support the diverse needs of mentees. There is potential to explore the training and experiences of mentors and the role they play in building relationships with the mentees. It would be worthwhile exploring this in more detail as this study only considered mentoring for one academic semester.

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**Acceptability of Philippine English Grammatical
and Lexical Items among Pre-service Teachers**

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Abstract

Using the Grammatical and Lexical Acceptability Questionnaire (GLAQ), the study aims to contextualize the extent of acceptance of PhE grammatical and lexical items among 400 pre-service basic education teachers in state universities in Luzon and Mindanao. It further determined the difference on the participants' extent of acceptability when grouped according to gender, type of high school attended, educational program, and geographical location. Lastly, it explored relationship between extent of PhE acceptability and number of languages spoken and perceived English proficiency. Implications to the future of English pedagogy and pre-service teachers' curriculum were also discussed. The study poses a challenge among basic education teachers and language practitioners as regards the measures to be done for PhE's full acceptance in the academic context.

Keywords: *World Englishes, Philippine English, acceptability, pre-service teachers*

1. Introduction

1.1 Background of the Study

First articulated by Kachru (1991), the World Englishes (WE henceforth) model accounts for the way language is now used by millions of multilinguals taking ownership of English and changing it to reflect to their own lives. WE is described as “those indigenous, nativized varieties that have developed around the world and that reflect the cultural and pragmatic norms of their speakers” (Kirkpatrick, 2007, p.3). The introduction of the WE paradigm to Filipino scholars and teachers of English in the 1990s presented an opportunity to finally resist the dominance of native speakers’ norms in the classroom (Martin, 2014).

In 2004, Bautista and her team released in full form a number of Philippine International Corpus of English (ICE) based research that focus on the features of PhE. The collaborative effort of Bautista and her team enabled PhE to carve its niche both in the local and international milieu. Martin (2014) claimed that all the 140 publications in Bautista’s 2011 bibliography of Philippine variety have made valuable contributions in elevating PhE to legitimacy status and consequently promoting its acceptability.

Indeed there is awareness to an extent of the existence of PhE; however, this does not necessarily mean that acceptance comes along with it (Martin, 2014). This means that there is a need to explore acceptance towards PhE. Exploration of attitude towards a language or its variety can provide information essential for the prediction of linguistics scenes in areas where possible competition exist (Wang & Ladegaard, 2008 cited in Alieto, 2018). Moreover, there is a dearth of studies exploring PhE’s acceptability. PhE speakers, as the ones in contact with PhE, are always part of the equation. Hence, to fully describe the PhE phenomenon, background of its speakers as well as the context in which it is used is necessary for it is the users and its uses that determine PhE’s destiny and the direction of its evolution, change and development.

Pre-service basic education teachers will soon be dealing with learners at the grassroots giving them larger scope of influence considering the more number of learners they will cater. At this juncture, it is important to note that teachers, as Stafford and Arias (2005) maintained, play an important role in the learning process of the students. Moreover, Alieto (2018) claimed that pre-service teachers soon become full-fledged teachers and form part of the basic implementers of policies; therefore, they are to extent determiners of the language or its variety to be used in school. Along this line, it is important to note that learners’ acceptance of language varieties is influenced by teachers’

acceptance at great extent. Being so, teachers' acceptance towards PhE is an essential factor to consider and study in the continuous quest of promoting PhE's acceptance. Hence, the present study aims to determine the extent of acceptability of the different PhE's grammatical and lexical items among pre-service teachers. The present study further undertakes to determine the difference on the participants' extent of acceptability when grouped according to gender, type of high school attended, educational program, and geographical location. Lastly, it tries to establish relationship between extent of acceptability and number of languages spoken and perceived English proficiency.

2. Review of Literature

2.1 Philippine English

PhE as a variety has been an accepted phenomenon. Maria Lourdes S. Bautista worked with Susan Butler of Macquarie Dictionary in compiling a list of PhE words for inclusion in an Asian English Dictionary and in 1992, aiming to form an Asian English database, Macquarie started collecting works of fiction and non-fiction in English, and English language newspapers from Singapore, Malaysia, Hongkong, and Philippines-Countries which have well-established varieties of English. PhE has continuously flourished, giving birth to new words which are popularly and widely used by Filipinos today (Bautista, 2000).

For McKaughan (1993), PhE has emerged as an autonomous variety of English with its own self-contained system. This system is a system that is understood by many Filipinos, and has been used by them in different language domains. Bolton (2008) added that since the post-independence era after 1946, PhE has become a WE variety associated with distinct accent, a localized vocabulary, and even a body of creative writing by Filipino writers in English. Borlongan (2011) ardently said PhE does follow AE being undeniably a child of its parent. But like a typical child of any parent, it has a life of its own too.

2.2 Acceptability of Philippine English

Among the educated class, it is understood the PhE has found its place. Tupas (2006) describes the educated class as having the economic and sociopolitical innerness of Standard Englishes within communities of use in any part of the world. Borlongan (2011) is one of those who promotes the use of PhE in classrooms. He argues for the retraining of teachers, the development of new instructional materials based on the existing corpora of PhE, and the re-envisioning of instructional leadership in

managing innovations in English language teaching in the Philippines. However, there are groups who do not fully agree on the status of PhE as a Standard English and consider the former inferior to the latter. For instance, Gonzalez (1997) commented that the AE is the one that is legitimate and postulated as an ideal, while the PhE is deemed illegitimate although it can be considered in the local standard.

In the 2006 study of Tupas, which involved seven graduate students pursuing Diploma in Education and Master in Language Studies, it was found that they had consistently reported about the difficulty of teaching AE because their pupils bring with them their own way of using the language that is legitimate on political and cultural grounds. It was also revealed that the graduate students perceived PhE as unideal model in the English language classroom.

Likewise, in a survey conducted to 185 public school teachers, Martin (2014) found a large percentage of teachers who reported that their target model of teaching English was the AE. Using triangulation, enabled the researcher to extract the reasons why teachers preferred the AE over PhE. Universality, status, and market value of AE were the three cited reasons.

Bernardo and Madrunio (2015) administered Pedagogical Acceptability Test (PAT) to 42 English instructors and 242 students from 10 colleges and universities in Metro Manila to determine which from the 35 forms of PhE grammatical variants are pedagogically acceptable and unacceptable. Results show that 16 of the 35 PhE grammatical variants are pedagogically acceptable. After having identified pedagogically acceptable PhE grammatical features, the two authors proposed the endonormative pedagogic model reflective not only of AE norms but also of PhE grammatical and lexical items.

Using the same instrument, Rosales and Bernardo (2017) determined the pedagogical acceptability judgments of ESL teachers and learners of the 38 items constructed within acceptable PhE conventions, which participants rated on a six-point Likert scale as to its acceptability. Results show a slight disparity in the acceptability of some items that turns out to be more significant items that were otherwise accepted.

2.3 Gender and Language Varieties Acceptability

Bilaniuk (2003) claimed that there is complexity in the construct of gender and is a significant factor influencing language ideology. Moreover, Zhang (2011) claimed that gender as a factor influencing language attitude has been established and proven true across communities and culture.

In the study of Milroy and Milroy (1998), preferentiality of women toward the prestigious norm of language has been established. The same study claimed that while men prefer to learn the vernacular norm the same attitude is not held by women. Women prefer learning the prestigious norm. Corroborating result was yielded by the study of Gürsoy (2013). In the study, gender difference on language attitude was found as female trainees were significantly more positive toward English than their male counterparts. Moreover, Vasko (2010) provides ample evidence that in sociolinguistic studies including a sample of males and females belonging to the same social class, women usually use fewer stigmatized and non-standard variants than males. For instance, Wolfram (1969) mentioned that compared to men, women exhibit a greater sensitivity to socially evaluative linguistic feature. Further, women are more conscious of the social significance of different linguistic features and use more socially prestigious speech forms (Poussa 2001, 2006). Bilaniuk (2003) discussed that this phenomenon of language attitude difference across gender can be explained by the social, cultural and economic conditions women.

2.4 Geographical Location and Language Varieties Acceptability

Clark (2014) explored the variations in the use of English in creative spoken performance such as comedy, drama and poetry, as well as in written texts such as letters to local newspapers, stories and poem written in dialect. Results suggest that there is a growing and conscious use of English among individuals that identify them with a particular place. They did this by incorporating into their speech a set of linguistic features drawn from a particular variety of English. By using features in this way, people emphasize their place of origin over other factors such as age, gender, social class and ethnicity. The author concluded that place of origin is the most important identity factor.

Everett and Aronoff (2013) presented evidence that the geographic context in which a language is spoken may directly impact its phonological form. They examined the geographic coordinates and elevations of 567 language locations represented in a worldwide phonetic database. Languages with phonemic ejective consonants were found to occur closer to uninhabitable regions of high elevation, when contrasted to languages without this class of sounds. In addition, the mean and median elevations of the locations of languages with ejectives were found to be comparatively high. The patterns uncovered surface on all major world land masses, and are not the result of the influence of particular language families. They reflect a significant and positive worldwide correlation between elevation and the likelihood that a language employs ejective phonemes.

3. Research Questions

The study aims to determine the acceptability of PhE grammatical and lexical items. Specifically, it answers the following questions:

1. What is the extent of acceptance of the PhE grammatical and lexical items among the participants?
2. Is there a significant difference in the extent of acceptance of the PhE grammatical and lexical items in terms of participants':
 - 2.1. gender;
 - 2.2 educational program;
 - 2.3 type of high school attended; and
 - 2.4 geographical location?
3. Is there a significant correlation between the extent of acceptability of the PhE grammatical and lexical items and participants' number of languages spoken and self-perceived English proficiency?

4. Methodology

4.1 Research Design

The study utilized the cross-sectional descriptive, predictive nonexperimental research design. Johnson (2000 cited in Perez & Alieto, 2018) explained that a with the primary objective of describing is determined to be descriptive. The current study involves no use treatment or intervention, but intends simply to describe the variables involve, and no comparable groups were established hence characterized as non-experimental.

4.2 Research Setting

Two state universities, one in the Luzon area and one in Mindanao, offering teacher education program were taken as research sites of the study. In each institution, the teacher education program of Bachelor of Elementary Education and Bachelor of Secondary education are offered, and the same programs are accredited by the Accrediting Agency of Chartered Colleges and Universities in the Philippines (AACUP) and Commission on Higher Education (CHED). Both of the teacher education programs in each university are considered largest in respective areas in terms of the number of enrolees.

4.2 Participants

A total of 400 participants were enlisted for the purpose of this study. Equal appropriation of the number of males and females as well as from the two educational programs (Bachelor of Elementary

Education and Bachelor Secondary Education) was done. Moreover, equal number of participants from Luzon and Mindanao was observed.

Only 48 participants attended private high schools constituting 12%, while 352 respondents came from public high school making up the remaining 88% of the total participants. Effort was exerted to equally represent the respondents according to type of high school attended. However, to no avail was it possible. This means that most of the students who attend state universities taking education degree programs come from the public school system.

For the number of languages spoken, 7 or 1.8% declared that they are monolinguals, 218 or 54.5% disclosed that they speak 2 languages, 139 or 34.8% stated that they speak 3 languages, 31 or 7.8% noted themselves to speak 4 languages, and only 5 or 1.3% determined themselves to speak 5 languages. With the given data, it can be assessed that majority of the respondents of the study speak 2 or 3 languages which constitute the majority which is 89.3% of the total number of pre-service teacher participants.

In the case of the self-perceived English proficiency of the respondents, 91 or 22.8% claimed that their proficiency in English is intermediate, 124 or 31% claimed to be at the level of upper intermediate, 60 or 15% disclosed that their level of proficiency is advance, and 125 or 31% stated that are proficient in English.

The choice on the number of participants was based on the guidelines suggested Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) that the minimum number of participants needed for a representative sample for descriptive studies is 100.

Inclusion criteria were set to determine qualified participants of the study. One, the participant must be enrolled in either the elementary education or secondary education program. Those enrolled in the Professional Education Certificate Program were excluded from participating. And two, the participants should be at the final year of the educational program by the time this study was conducted.

4.3 Research Instrument

To determine the level of acceptability of PhE grammatical and lexical items, an acceptability questionnaire was designed and administered to Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEE) and Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSE) pre-service teachers in state universities in Luzon and Mindanao. Since the only available instrument on PhE acceptability at the time the study was conducted was the Pedagogical Acceptability Test (PAT) of Bernardo and Madrunio (2015), the researchers designed an acceptability instrument for the present study. The researcher-made instrument (Appendix A) was referred as Grammatical and Lexical Items Acceptability Questionnaire

(GLAQ). While PAT was designed to determine English teachers and college students' judgments on how much they accept a grammatical item that is illustrative of a specific grammar rule as a norm in teaching and learning English grammar, the GLAQ determined pre-service teachers' judgment on identifying the acceptability levels of PhE grammatical and lexical items.

The instrument has two parts. In Part I, participants were requested to provide their personal information. For the second part, the participants were requested to encircle the number that represents the level of acceptability of the different grammatical and lexical items.

The second part of the instrument is composed of 44 grammatical and lexical items. Some of the grammatical items were taken from the PAT. Of the six items in the category of prepositional phrase, five items were adopted and one was added (i.e., based from). Other items lifted from PAT include those that focus on the distinctive use of verbs, *would*, distinctive plural noun forms, use of assure as intransitive verb, unidiomatic verb phrase, distinctive use of pronoun case, double comparative and unpluralized semantically plural noun. Items such as *with regard*, *wherein* and *get-passive* were also lifted from the PAT. The researchers added the following items in the instrument: items on lexical creativity, which include lexical shift from noun to adjective, verb to noun, lexicalized acronym and brand name, overgeneralization of affixation; item on split infinitive; items on the use of *fewer* and *lesser* interchangeably; use of *between* instead of *among*, *bring* instead of *take*; item on word choice and redundant expression; and the use of *will* as future marker in the first person. After the items were finalized, the instrument was shown to two language specialists for review and comments. The suggestions were incorporated. The instrument was pilot-tested to 30 non-participants. Cronbach's Alpha of 0.919 was obtained during the pilot-testing. The Cronbach's Alpha value obtained means that the instrument is reliable.

4.4 Procedure

Two letters of request were drafted and sent to the universities identified in this study. The letters were addressed to the Deans of the College of Education to seek permission for the administration of the instrument. Upon the approval of the request to administer the instrument to the students, the researchers were asked to meet teachers assigned to serve as coordinator of the activity. The teacher-coordinators provided the list of students qualified for the study. A day was scheduled for the researchers to conduct and discuss the nature and purpose of the study. Letters of consent were requested to be signed by those who were willing to participate. Afterwards, a date was scheduled for the administration of the questionnaire. On the appointed day, before the administration of the

questionnaire the participants were once more informed that participation is voluntary and that it has no merits whatsoever in their ratings. Further, the participants were assured of confidentiality of their provided information. After answering, participants submitted at will. Upon handing over of the instruments, the researchers checked for possible missed numbers, double entry and the like which would disqualify inclusion for analyses.

4.5 Method of Analysis

The raw data generated from questionnaire were tabulated, organized, and analyzed. To determine the extent of acceptability of the PhE lexical variance, descriptive statistic was performed. The mean across items was computed, and the mean for each item in the questionnaire was also determined to identify the lexical items with the highest and lowest ratings. Table 1 presents the interpretation of the computed means.

Table 1.

Extent of Acceptability Scale

Range	Interpretation
3.25 – 4.0	Accepted
2.5 – 3.24	Somehow Accepted
1.75 – 2.49	Somehow Unaccepted
1.0 – 1.74	Not Accepted

For the significant difference of the extent of acceptability across gender, educational attainment, type of high school attended and geographical location, the mean score of the extent of acceptability of the PhE lexical items was computed across the variables. T-test for independent sample was used to determine the significant difference.

Moreover, to determine the significant relationships between the extent of acceptability of the grammatical and lexical variance of PhE and the perceived language proficiency and number of languages spoken, Pearson Product Moment Coefficient (Pearson r) was used.

5. Results and Discussion

5.1 Acceptability of PhE Grammatical and Lexical Items

Presented in Table 2 is the participants' extent of acceptance of the PhE grammatical and lexical items. As shown, the mean (M) of 2.83 with a standard deviation (SD) of 0.306 is interpreted as “*somehow accepted*”. This means that the PhE lexical and grammatical items used in the study are considered by the participants as correct and proper. This implies that the PhE as a variant is existent among the participants. The results corroborate with that of Tupas (2006) reporting that PhE found its place among the educated class such as the respondents of this present study.

Table 2.

Extent of PhE's Grammatical and Lexical Items Acceptability

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
Language Attitude	2.83	0.306	Somehow Accepted

However, it can be deduced from the computed mean that the extent of acceptability is not full. In other words, the respondents do not consider those items to be completely appropriate. The data reveal that the respondents remain to have certain reservations toward the use of PhE which may be influenced by the perception of the existence of the so-called “Standard”. It can be further inferred that the acceptance of variants remains limited. The respondents may have considered it to be acceptable only in certain dimension such as informal discourses. This claim echoes the findings Tupas (2006) and Martin (2014) who maintained that PhE remains to fall short from being an ideal model to be taught inside the classrooms. Therefore, although the variant found its identity, it failed to secure its place inside the classrooms which remain to favor the use and the teaching of the ‘Standards’ which explains the ‘partial’ acceptance of the PhE among the pre-service teachers. PhE’s acceptability level among pre-service teachers is still influenced by AE’s universality, status and marketability. This also relates well with what Tupas (2006) said that WE, such as PhE, does not have enough symbolic power vis-a-vis AE to enable teachers to legitimize their own work should they opt for it. WE may be sociolinguistically legitimate but it remains politically unacceptable to most people and in some discourse type, especially in the academic or formal written domain.

5.1.1 Items rated with highest extent of acceptability by the respondents

Table 3 provides the items with highest extent of acceptability. Five most accepted PhE lexical items and phrases are presented.

Table 3.

PhE Lexical Items rated with highest acceptability

Item Numbers	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
11. Majority of students nowadays use online references to do their papers.	3.48	0.749	Accepted
5. Students should learn to cope up with the challenges in their studies	3.46	0.831	Accepted
23. The president assured free tuition to all State Universities and Colleges.	3.40	0.811	Accepted
16. The number of students enrolled last term have increased.	3.34	0.824	Accepted
6. Students have different views with regards success.	3.24	0.421	Somehow Accepted

It can be gleaned from the table that Items 11 (M=3.48, SD=0.749), 5 (M =3.46, SD = 0.831), 23 (M=3.40, SD= 0.811), 16 (M=3.34, SD=0.824) and 6 (M=3.24, SD= 0.421) are rated highest. However, from the five, only four (Items 11, 5, 23 and 16) were considered “*accepted*” by the participants, while Item 6 was only considered as “*somehow accepted*”. In total, out of the 44 items used in the questionnaire, only four (4) items, which constitute only 9 % of the number of PhE grammatical and lexical items used in the study, were identified as “*acceptable*”. Further analysis of the data reveals that 30 or 68.18% of the lexical variance were identified as “*somehow acceptable*”, and 10 or 23 % of the items were considered as “*somehow unacceptable*”. There was no item identified to be “*unacceptable*” by the respondents.

The acceptability of omitting the indefinite article in *a majority* is also consistent with the findings of Bernardo and Madrunio (2015) that the feature *majority* in PhE is more acceptable than its AE counterpart. Bautista’s (2008) findings, in all the PhE studies she conducted that the use of articles is problematic for ESL learners, could explain why this item has become acceptable for the participants.

Another plausible explanation is that *majority* is seen as a plural noun, hence the use of the article *a* before the word *majority* may seem awkward (Trenkic, 2009). Likewise, the acceptability of the prepositional phrase (cope up with) also conforms with the findings of Bernardo and Madrunio (2015) that it has already attained formal recognition and thus can be used not only in conversation but also in lecture, presentation, speeches, meetings, and other formal spoken discourse as well as informal written discourse such as blog, email, text and twitter.

The acceptability of *assured* can be explained by what Bautista (2008) referred to as the simplification process. Likewise, the claim of Bernardo and Madrunio (2015) that *assure* is used as an ambitransitive verb if the object (i.e. *us*) is often unnecessary, especially when it is obvious that *us* is being talked about may also explain why it was considered acceptable by the participants.

The acceptable use of verbs that do not agree with subjects specifically for those sentences beginning with expressions such as *the number*, *a number*, *either* and *one-third* still has to do with the difficulty of locating or identifying the subjects in those sentences. For these two sentences - (1) *The number of students enrolled last term have increased* and (2) *A number of different teaching techniques has emerged*, one may consider *students* and *a number* as the subjects for each sentence respectively.

5.1.2 Items rated with low acceptability among the participants

Presented in Table 4 are the five items that received the lowest acceptability level, which are rated by the participants as ‘somehow not accepted’.

Table 4.

PhE Grammatical and Lexical items rated with lowest acceptability

Item Numbers	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
44. Last February 14, I did not do a valentiney undertaking.	1.90	1.055	Somehow Not Accepted

33. When he heard the news, he OMGed .	1.90	0.984	Somehow Not Accepted
34. The materials were already xeroxed yesterday.	1.98	1.09	Somehow Not Accepted
31. He would unsmile whenever that person passes by.	1.99	0.967	Somehow Not Accepted
32. I have PMed to you the proposal.	2.03	1.087	Somehow Not Accepted

Items that participants rated ‘somehow not accepted’ are those relating to the overgeneralization on the use of affixes like in *unsmile* (M=1.99, SD=0.967) and *valentiney* (M=1.90, SD=1.055), lexicalized brand names as in *xeroxed* (M=1.98, SD=1.09) and lexicalized acronym as in *OMGed* (M=1.90, SD=0.984) and *PMed* (M=2.03, SD=1.087).

This implies that future teachers do not accept those local varieties that extend vocabulary range by modifying the beginning or ending or root words in order to alter their meaning as well items that are products of lexical creativity such as lexicalized acronym and lexicalized brand name to create and understand expression one has never heard before.

5.2 Difference in the extent of acceptance of the grammatical and lexical variance of PhE in terms of gender, educational program, and geographical location

The mean score of the items was computed and compared across the identified four variables. T-test for independent sample was used to determine the significant difference in the extent of acceptability of the lexical and phrasal variants of PhE between males and females, respondents enrolled in the BEEd and BSEd program, respondents who completed high school in public and private schools, and those from Luzon and Mindanao.

The data in Table 5 reveal that for the variable gender, the males (M=2.839, SD=0.309) do not significantly differ with the females (M=2.825, SD= 0.305) in the extent of acceptability of the PhE grammatical and lexical items as evidenced by the p-value of 0.652, which is greater than 0.05. Despite the fact that there was no significant difference in the level of acceptability between male and female participants, it can be observed that males had slightly higher mean than females. The foregoing result contradicts the findings of Labov (1972, 1990), Wolfram (1969) Milroy and Milroy (1998), Poussa

(2001, 2006) and Vasko (2010) that women are more sensitive than men to the prestige pattern, and women usually use fewer stigmatized and non-standard variants than males. One possible explanation as regards the incongruence of the present finding with those of the earlier findings can be based on what Gürsoy (2013) concluded that despite the fact that previous studies had established gender difference on language use and attitude towards language, such finding is not universal. Hence, while gender divide in acceptability of English variants exists in foreign setting it may not be true among Filipinos especially the pre-service teachers. Meanwhile, the finding supports that of Armandi (2016) that participants' attitudes toward a language variety are not mainly affected by gender differences. It can be deduced that through time, gender difference in language attitude and use has already been eradicated and the notion that the ability to communicate in a more prestigious language variety gives one an economic and professional advantage seems to be attractive to both genders nowadays. This might also serve as their motivation to favor the prestigious variety than the less prestigious.

Table 5.

Difference in the Extent of Acceptability of PhE Grammatical and Lexical Items across variables

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Mean	SD	Sig (2-tailed)
Extent of Acceptability of Philippine English	Gender			
	Male	2.839	0.309	0.652
	Female			
		2.825	0.305	
	Educational Program			
	BEd	2.90	0.275	0.000*
BSEd				
		2.76	0.321	
	Type of high School attended			
	Private	2.784	0.257	0.267
	Public			

2.837 0.313

Geographical Location

Luzon	2.813	0.308	0.263
Mindanao			
	2.847	0.305	

N=400; *Significant at alpha=0.05

For the type of school attended, the data shows that participants, who studied in private schools during their secondary education (M=2.784, SD=0.257), do not significantly differ with those who came from public high schools (M=2.873, SD=0.313). The non-existence of significant difference between those who came from private school and those who graduated from public school is evidenced by the p-value = 0.652 which is greater than alpha=0.05. Although it can be noticed that generally, the respondents who completed their secondary education from public schools have shown higher extent of acceptability toward the PhE lexical items as compared to those who were enrolled in private institutions during their high school. The higher mean on the level of acceptability of the participants, who completed their secondary education in public schools as compared to those from private schools, is attributed to the intensive English training and exposure students from private school gain, which provides premium on the AE form, making the students from private institutions less accepting of the variants. It is underscored that students in the private schools are not only taught and exposed but also converse to each other in AE, which is not just a preferred variety, but the accepted one in the school community. This notion is reflected in the discussion of Cruz (2014) that many parents send their children to private schools because of their impression that private school students speak better English than their public school counterparts. For him, there is a general impression among parents that Ateneo and La Salle students speak better English than UP students (to take only the best private and public schools) or that the students in the nearest private schools speak English to each other, unlike students in the nearest public school who allegedly speak to each other in the local language. As such, participants who graduated from public high school are more accepting of the PhE grammatical and lexical items than those who graduated in private high schools.

Moreover, for the variable geographical location, the data provides that those who were from Luzon ($M=2.813$, $SD=0.308$) exhibit a relatively similar acceptance of the lexical items with those from Mindanao ($M=2.847$, $SD=0.305$). Further, as evidenced by the p -value = 0.263, there is no significant difference in the acceptability of the lexical items between the respondents coming from two varied geographical situation. The finding does not support that of Clark (2014), who noted that there is a growing and conscious use of English among individuals that identify them with a particular place. This means that in the context of English varieties acceptability such as PhE, regionalism seems to have no influence. According to Danao (1996), regionalism is the idea or practice of dividing a country into smaller units for political, economic, social, and cultural purposes.

From the four independent variables accounted in the study for significant difference, only the variable educational program was found to have an influence on the extent of acceptability of the lexical variance evidence by the p -value (0.000), which means that the educational program is a factor influencing difference in the acceptability of PhE. The findings further reveal that those enrolled in the BEEd program ($M=2.90$, $SD=0.275$) are more likely to accept the lexical items as compared to those enrolled in the BSEd program ($M=2.76$, $SD=0.321$). This implies that future elementary school teachers are more accepting of the nativized English varieties than the secondary school teachers. The finding is to some extent a realization of what Delpit and Dowdy (2002) mentioned that elementary teachers need to accept the language a child brings into the classroom as an expression of self since rejecting one's language can only make that person feel as if he is rejected.

5. 3 Relationship between the extent of acceptability of the PhE grammatical and lexical items and the number of languages spoken and perceived English proficiency

The mean score for the extent of acceptability of PhE was computed. The relationship between the extent of acceptability of PhE lexical and phrasal variance and the number of language spoken and self-perceived English Proficiency were determined through the conduct of the statistical tool known as Pearson Product Moment Coefficient or Pearson r .

Table 6.

Correlation Matrix: Extent of Acceptability and number of languages spoken and self-perceived English Proficiency

Variables	p-values	r-value
Extent of Acceptability of PE lexical variance	0.059	0.094
Number of Languages Spoken		
Self-perceived English Proficiency	0.123	0.089

The data shows (Table 6) that relationship between the variables extent of acceptability of PhE lexical variance and number of language spoken and perceived English proficiency is not significant as evidenced by the p value, 0.059 and 0.123, which are both greater than alpha = 0.05. This implies that the number of languages spoken and the perceived English proficiency have no relationship to the extent of acceptability of PhE lexical and grammatical variance. The non-existence of significant relationship between the extent of acceptability and number of languages spoken does not support the finding of Wetzl (2013) as regards the encouraging signs of a possible correlation between increased knowledge about linguistic diversity and positive language attitudes.

4. Conclusion

The current study was set out primarily to determine the extent of acceptability of the lexical variance of PhE among pre-service basic education teachers in Luzon and Mindanao. Based on the findings, the following conclusions are made:

The most striking finding was that PhE is ‘accepted’, however its acceptance is only to a limited extent. It can be inferred from the results that there seems to be a clear rationale as to why participants tend to think and evaluate PhE grammatical and lexical items only as ‘somehow accepted’. Indeed, AE is still the preferred model. This is not surprising as previous linguists (cf. Jenkins, 2011; Hundt, Zipp & Hurber, 2015) have already established that placing the inner circle varieties above other varieties is a very common mindset all over the world since many people have been taught in the AE framework. Such exposure made people consider AE as the only correct one. However, it can be noted

that PhE variety is acknowledged and has already gained acceptability, which is a good initial indication for its establishment as a legitimate variant.

Equally surprising is the finding that there is significant difference in the extent of acceptability of PhE between would-be elementary and high school teachers. The would-be elementary teachers were found to be more accepting of the PhE grammatical and lexical variants. This can be attributed to their training and orientation directed towards leniency of language use as compared to the high school teachers whose perspective and frame of thinking is correctness of usage.

Another astounding result is that contrary to established trend in literature that determined women to be more favoring the prestigious and standard forms (e.g. Zhang, 2011; Gal, 1978; Wang & Ladegaard, 2008; Bilaniuk, 2003; Milroy & Milroy, 1998) the male and female respondents in this study had no significant difference in their extent of acceptability of PhE. Less surprising were the non-significant difference in the extent of acceptability of PhE across the variables geographical location and type of high school attended. Moreover, there exist no significant relationship between the extent of acceptability and number of languages spoken and perceived English proficiency.

5. Pedagogical Implications

Culturally responsive pedagogy starts with the premise that race and class matter, and that some schools fail to send diverse students signals that they belong. To make sure all students feel valued, the theory goes, teachers need to be aware of their own biases, work deeply to understand their individual learners, find ways to bring students' heritage and community into the classroom, and hold all learners to a high academic standard (Quinton, 2013).

Teachers must distinguish between the informal and formal varieties in an objective way and must accept the learners' variety as a valid form of communication. The use of the different varieties can be contrasted. As such, learners may become language detectives, noticing that most books and tests use the more standard variety of the language, whereas plays, movies, oral discourse and even dialogue in a work of fiction exhibit more informal forms of the language. Teachers must point out that one variety is not better than the other but that one is more appropriate than the other depending on the circumstances (Brisk, 2006).

Prospective basic education teachers should get a healthy dose of sociolinguistics, transformational grammar, and the history of English. There is a need for them to study the emergence of dialects and the social contexts from which language standards grow. They should also learn that unlike the standard meter or kilogram, which can be measured with scientific precision; there is no single, objective standard language which everybody speaks. They should be exposed to the concept

of language contact, assimilation, and heritage language loss, and that when schools abandon bilingual education and leave non-English-speaking students to sink or swim in English-only classes, most sink. And last but not least, they should be taught to regard their students' language not as something to be constantly graded and corrected, but as an energetic, highly-competent, continually-evolving form of language, complete with its own standards and variants.

According to Barron (2009), perhaps the most significant grammar lesson to learn is to trust our language instincts rather than mimicking some ideal which turns out to be a moving target. We need to finally abandon the eighteenth-century prescriptions behind and aim for language that is simply good enough to do the job of expressing whatever it is we need to say. And when we study language, we should study what it is, not what someone thinks it should be.

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Appendix A. Research Instrument

Part I. Demographic Profile

Directions: Please check to which applies to you. Please make sure to leave no item unanswered.

Program you belong to: ___BEEd or ___BSEd **Gender:** ___Male or ___Female High

School Attended: ___Private or ___Public **Location:** ___Luzon or ___Mindanao

Number of languages spoken: ___ (Please write in numeral)

Perceived English Language Proficiency:

___Intermediate ___Upper Intermediate ___Advanced ___Proficient

Part II. Extent of Acceptability: The items given below are lexical/grammatical items which are *italicized and bold* for easy reference. Please rate the extent of acceptability for each item. Four choices are provided for each item, to wit: 1 – unaccepted; 2- somehow unaccepted; 3- somehow accepted; and 4 – accepted. Simply encircle the number of choice.

Grammatical/Lexical Items				
1. Failure to return borrowed books from the library on time can <i>result to</i> fines and other penalties.	1	2	3	4
2. Many classic movies are <i>based from</i> popular novels.	1	2	3	4
3. My perspective is sometimes different <i>for</i> your perspective.	1	2	3	4
4. During quizzes, students are asked to <i>fill</i> the blanks.	1	2	3	4
5. Students should learn to <i>cope up with</i> the challenges in their studies.	1	2	3	4
6. Students have different views <i>with regards</i> success.	1	2	3	4
7. There are a number of organizations <i>wherein</i> students can join.	1	2	3	4
8. It's <i>a more correct</i> answer.	1	2	3	4
9. Students should <i>get involved</i> to extra-curricular activities.	1	2	3	4
10. The secretary attended the meeting <i>in behalf</i> of her boss.	1	2	3	4
11. <i>Majority</i> of students nowadays use online references to do their papers.	1	2	3	4
12. It must be enacted to a law whatever the political <i>cost</i> .	1	2	3	4
13. They <i>left</i> the Philippines before their children entered college	1	2	3	4
14. Students are required to attend the symposium which <i>would</i> be held in May.	1	2	3	4
15. The use of social media <i>have been</i> the most significant change in the last decade.	1	2	3	4
16. <i>The number</i> of students enrolled last term have increased.	1	2	3	4
17. A number of different teaching techniques <i>has</i> emerged.	1	2	3	4
18. Either the students or the teacher <i>know</i> how to open the presentation.	1	2	3	4
19. One-third of the test items <i>was</i> asked during the review	1	2	3	4
20. This method, along with other methods, <i>are</i> applicable now.	1	2	3	4

21. I, together with my other classmate, are attending the symposium.	1	2	3	4
22. That is one of the reason why I chose to pursue my education.	1	2	3	4
23. The president assured free tuition to all State Universities and Colleges.	1	2	3	4
24. In schools, students are taken cared of by their teachers.	1	2	3	4
25. Due to the requirements, me and my group mates are staying in the hostel over the weekend.	1	2	3	4
26. In pair work, choose the person who you think you could work well with.	1	2	3	4
27. Since its very traffic in Metro Manila, I don't want to study there.	1	2	3	4
28. Thank you for the invite you sent last week.	1	2	3	4
29. My teacher has that fascination in vintagy items.	1	2	3	4
30. Since I was not responding to his message, he unfriended me in Facebook.	1	2	3	4
31. He would unsmile whenever that person passes by.	1	2	3	4
32. I have PMed to you the proposal.	1	2	3	4
33. When he heard the news, he OMGed .	1	2	3	4
34. The materials were already xeroxed yesterday.	1	2	3	4
35. I will return next week.	1	2	3	4
36. The celebrant did not expect the kind of party given to him during his 45th birthday.	1	2	3	4
37. This is necessarily needed to pass the course.	1	2	3	4
38. The five members divided the task between themselves.	1	2	3	4
39. She tried to quickly finish the book before she had to leave.	1	2	3	4
40. I should drink fewer coffee.	1	2	3	4
41. My doctor advised me to have less doughnut for my immediate recovery.	1	2	3	4
42. He will bring his father to Tagaytay this summer.	1	2	3	4
43. Faculty members are engaged in their respective researches .	1	2	3	4
44. Last February 14, I did a not so valentiney undertaking.	1	2	3	4



**The Effect of Blended Learning to the Students' Achievement in English For Specific (ESP)
Class At Islamic Education Study Program In Indonesia**

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Abstract

Blended learning is trusted to improve students' understanding of learning English for Specific Purpose. The application of offline and online activities is expected to give a better outcome than traditional face-to-face activities. This research presents how blended learning was

applied in an ESP class of Islamic Education Study Program and whether it significantly improved students' achievement after the treatment. The participants involved in this research were 25 students of the second-semester students of the Islamic Education Study Program State Islamic Institute of Palopo, Indonesia. Pre-Experimental research was conducted by comparing the means of the participants' scores in both pre-test and post-test. The analysis shows that there was a significant improvement, proven by the paired t-test analysis. The p-value 0.00 was less than alpha 0.05. This research concluded that blended learning was effective to assist the students to learn English for Specific Purpose at the Islamic Education Study Program. To strengthen the findings, this research also involved pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire to understand students' responses to the use of blended learning. At the end of the semester, most students found that online activities help them comprehend and practice the materials. Students' reflective journals also revealed that blended learning was able to improve their understanding and interest in learning English for Specific Purpose at the Islamic Education Study Program.

Keywords: *blended learning; ESP Class; pre-experimental research*

Introduction

Students of English for Specific Purpose (ESP) class in Islamic Education Study Program at State Islamic Institute (IAIN) Palopo - Indonesia are demanded to be able to understand and communicate in English. In fact, there are still many students have low skills and low motivation in English. It happens since they are still rarely practice and lack of vocabulary in English. In addition, they have no many chances to use and exposure their practice in English. Furthermore, the available materials for students of Islamic Education Study Program at IAIN Palopo are still in only offline form. They need to have more motivated teaching materials and teaching process in their English Specific Purpose (ESP) in order to support their career in the future. One of the ways to solve the students' problem is through blended learning.

Blended learning is trusted to improve students' competence in learning. Pravingwong (2018) states that students who are learning through blended learning instruction perform higher progress. This approach can be described as a collaboration of a face-to-face classroom component with online instruction (Osguthorpe & Graham, 2003). The employment of offline and online program is expected to have a better outcome than the traditional face-to-face programs. It should be accepted that today's generation is familiar with technology; hence they are categorized as the net generation. In addition, one of the advantages of having online files is that students can find out the files they have and read e-

books, as an instance, more flexible in time and space. It is, then, inevitable that the learning and teaching process should provide online materials and exercises to engage the students' contexts.

Some researchers have shown their argument that the teaching of ESP should suitable with the target learners' needs (Masruddin, 2018, Saragih, 2014, Gatehouse, 2001; Hutchinson & Waters, 1987). This research is trying to examine the effectiveness of Blended Learning in developing students' competence in an ESP class namely in Islamic education study program at IAIN Palopo, Indonesia. The Blended learning in this ESP class is created based on the target learners' needs. The Blended Learning program is expected to be able to be suitable to the students' need at Islamic education study program. ESP program has to be developed since the significance of the language courses with specific contents, language skills, motivations, and processes are mixed into specialized courses.

The researcher expects that the result of this research can be a helpful contribution for the English teachers to develop their strategies in teaching in an ESP class of Islamic Education Study Program and its effectiveness in improving students' achievement after the treatment. The research is limited to the use and the effectiveness of using blended learning in an ESP class of Islamic Education Study Program.

Blended learning prepares approaches to give solution one of the main duties of modern traditional education: the application and development of each student's potential abilities. Based on the blended learning concept, it is possibly assumed that the introduction of this form of training to teaching practice can develop the efficiency of the educational process in a changing paradigm of advance modern education. This idea is based on an analysis of Russian and foreign experts' works on blended learning (Bersin, 2004; Mokhova, 2005; Kapustin,2007; Picciano & Dziuban, 2007; Sharma & Barrett, 2007; Nazarenko & Sizykh,2009; Matukhin et al., 2014; Veledinskaya & Dorofeeva, 2014).

Literature Review

Sharma (2010:456) has defined blended learning as the integrated collaboration of modern learning with web-based online approaches and traditional learning process which is related to the classroom face-to-face language classes. Furthermore, blended learning can also be described as a collaboration of technologies or a collaboration of multiple methodologies.

Thorne (2003) states that blended learning as the evolution in our learning program which is most logical and natural. It offers an elegant solution to the challenges of supporting learning and development to the individual's needs. By saying those words he endorsed and joined most of the

researchers who considered blended learning as one of the efficient tools that technology has brought, as well as stating that it is a good alternative solution which is suitable to various levels of knowledge.

Blended learning is much related to media and technology. It is defined as a comprehensive concept which combines various approaches supporting the traditional one. However, blending a classroom needs to have a face-to-face (FTF) system in order to keep matching with the traditional system of education (Macdonald.2008).

Western Sydney University gives a general description for Blended Learning by defining it as a strategic and systematic approach that collaborate various types of learning by using the convenient ICT's to consolidate the best of all aspects which consists of face-to-face (FTF) and online interactions in learning. (University of Western Sydney.2013).

Rooney (2003) has described a clear definition that is cited by Bonk, C. J. & Graham in their book "The Handbook of Blended Learning ", he stated that: "In 2003, the American Society for Training and Development described blended learning as one of the top ten trends to emerge in the knowledge delivery industry".

Another view definition by Motteram & Sharma (2009) which was cited by Zhao (2013), stated that: "Despite continuing scholarly arguments over its definition and form, most recently it has come to signify, specifically, the continued use of technology and face-to-face (FTF) methods in teaching and learning", it is to show that Blended Learning cannot stand for one definition agreed upon; Furthermore, the continued improvement of technology in education, that ensures supporting the complexity of presenting and designing lectures, may prepare new aspects, techniques and challenges to change the overall view of Blended Learning.

The Internet gives a variety of ways for language learners to involve in communicative activities. Due to developed chances apart from reading and writing online speaking and listening activities can be included (Chinnery, 2010). The application of computers in the foreign language classroom has totally affected how teachers teach and students learn, and continuing improvement in the Internet technology will most likely continue to affect the profession of teaching languages. In order to support online teaching successfully, some requirements must be fulfilled, such as chances for learners to involve and negotiate to mean, communicate in the target language, be engaged in authentic tasks, work in a good environment without stress or anxiety, and teachers have to give feedback to learners on their success and achievements (Egbert, Chao, and Hanson-Smith, 1999:4).

By applying these principles to online speaking and listening interaction activities, the new technologies have become the main tools for enhancing students' second language learning and acquisition.

Related to learning outcomes, BL has been proven to reduce drop-out rates, improve exam pass rates, and develop student achievement. For example, López-Pérez, Pérez-López, and Rodríguez-Ariza (2011) examined the use of BL with 985 first-year university students in a general accounting course at the University of Grenada. They found that by using various kinds of online materials and exercises to consolidate the content of the FTF lessons, including online evaluations, student drop-out rates were reduced and exam pass rates increased. Students have improved their final' achievement while the teacher' involvement has achieved an excellent degree during the learning process. Finally, students experienced that the BL environment contributed to a high degree of utility and improved their motivation and satisfaction. These findings were stated by Vaughan (2010) who conducted a case study with 70 participants which compared an experimental psycholinguistics course before and after its redesign that focused on alignment of learning outcomes, assessment activities and the use of technology. This course was included in an institutional initiative to shift teaching and learning from a passive learning approach to a more involved and collaborative one through the use of BL. The redesigned course saw student satisfaction raise from 50% to 75% while retention increased and the class grade average improved substantially. (Jacob, Larsen, Jacob, & Larsen, 2012)

Several studies also show how student's interest, satisfaction, and motivation can improve as a result of using a Blended Learning environment. An example of one such research is Collopy and Arnold (2009) who evaluated the work of 80 undergraduate teacher candidates who involved in modules delivered in one of three ways: online only, partially blended and fully blended. Their results showed that learners in the two types of blended classes found "significantly greater feelings of ability and comfort in putting what they learned into practice" (Collopy & Arnold, 2009, p. 97) and were more satisfied with how their group work teams functioned compared to the online-only group.

Amaral and Shank (2010) prove that blended learning has shown a positive contribution to the preparation of the classroom. Their study involved 450 students, evaluated and the redesign of an introductory college chemistry course. The redesign is called the ANGEL (A New Global Environment for Learning) LMS and used detailed study guides for the students to use the course's online and paper-based materials most effectively. This support to better student understanding of course content and an improvement in student preparedness for class. dynamics and intellectual interaction. Their aim was to assess the effect of BL on individual student interest using a blend of online and FTF discussions. While they found that there was no statistically significant difference in individual interest

between students doing online and FTF discussions, they did observe that students were more eager to involve in textual dialogue and had greater participation in online discussions. They concluded that online discussions supported further individual student assimilation, reflection, and critical thinking. (Jacob et al., 2012)

Hughes (2007) has evaluated by testing and measuring the effectiveness of Blended Learning on learner's extent of retaining and supporting through an experiment where the face-to-face time was decreased, unlike tutor support which was increased. The results indicated that whenever students got prepared and encouraged through Blended Learning, it will certainly increase each course's level of retaining as well as being helpful for instructors and time management.

In order to describe the students' satisfaction and achievement, Melton et.al (2009) conducted a study where a quasi-experiment was designed to measure the students' course grades, satisfaction, and teacher evaluation, however students taught in blended classroom have shown much satisfaction, unlike traditional ones, even though pre and post-test grades haven't witnessed a significant difference.

A survey conducted by Woltering et.al (2009) to compare traditional and blended problem-based learning, which involved eight categories; The results showed that motivation, satisfaction, and subjectivity in learning have been varied among these categories. Consequently, blended problem-based learning was useful and has increased the students' motivation, satisfaction, and subjective learning.

Historically, learning has been a mixture of distance (distributed) learning technologies and face-to-face (FTF) instruction. For example, the invention of the printing press in the 15th Century enabled the blending of FTF, teacher-led instruction with reading homework. Likewise, the 20th Century saw the development of audio recordings, television transmissions, online text-based databases, and discussion boards, just to name a few, which "imaginative educators, with the assistance of technical experts, have found ways to exploit and combine (or blend)...to meet their learning objectives" (Hoffman, 2006). Graham (2006) goes on to point out that historically, "distributed, "distributed learning environments placed emphasis on learner-material interactions, while face-to-face learning environments tended to place priority on the human-human interaction" (p. 5). The reason for this is that existing technology did not allow for high-quality synchronous interaction in the distance learning environment. However, "the widespread adoption and availability of digital learning technologies have led to development levels of integration of computer-mediated instructional elements into the traditional face-to-face learning experience" (p. 7). Thus, it may be fair to argue that the upsurge of

interest in blended learning within the past decade, as evidenced by the volume of publications within this period, came about due to the increased capabilities of modern computers. This is also clearly described in Graham's (2006) definition of BL, which he sees as a mixture of face-to-face (FTF) and computer-mediated instruction. (Jacob et al., 2012)

Methodology

This study applied pre-experimental research. It aimed at finding out the effectiveness of Blended Learning in teaching ESP material for Indonesian EFL students. The treatment applied in this research is blended learning, which involved students' activities outside the classroom by using computer and internet. Experimental research is one kind of correlation (associational) research as it aims to test a relationship between or among variables and to make predictions, which are dependent on the outcome of a strong relationship between or among variables (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 145).

In this research, the researcher used overflow model offered by Bersin (2004) Learning management system (LMS), Moodle. It was chosen because it prepares good online course management (Thorne, 2003). The researcher applied the blended learning conducted treatments in six meetings. In order to find out the influence of blended learning in ESP class, this research applied pre-experimental research.

In measuring the individual students' competence at the beginning and the end of the treatment, the researcher conducted pre-test and post-test. The instruments that had been used in this research were: writing, reading, speaking test through an interview, and listening. The speaking test was given to measure the students' ability in speaking. Then, in comparing the means of the group's scores, a paired t-test was applied. T-test aims at knowing whether the means of the two groups are significantly different from one another. It also describes the relationship between the treatment group and its outcomes after experiencing particular treatment, i.e. blended learning (Burns, 2010, p. 13).

The participants involved in this research were 25 students of the second-semester students of the Islamic Education Study Program State Islamic Institute of Palopo, Indonesia. In Addition to comparing the students' scores in pre-test and post-test, this research also used another instrument, questionnaire. The pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire were also distributed to the students. The questionnaire shared used Lickert scale in which the students had to choose the options "strongly disagree", "disagree", "neutral", "agree" and "strongly agree". The questions distributed in the questionnaire were taken from Grugrovic's previous study (2011) as follows:

- I like to work on online activities in my ESP class*
- I prefer to work on online activities for homework*
- Working on online activities helps me with practicing English*
- I can see the connection between online activities and activities done in class*

The last instrument used in this research was the students' reflective journal. The employment of this instrument aims at knowing how the students experience the treatment. Journal writing supports the students to express their interests, thinking and curiosity students' impression on the treatment, blended learning. The reflective journal was submitted in Moodle after the given treatment.

Findings

The result of the research shows that there is an improvement in students' achievement ability after the treatments by using blended learning. There are 4 aspects that have been evaluated in students speaking namely grammar, listening, writing and speaking.

Table 1. Students' mean score of speaking achievement in Pretest and Posttest

Pre-test	59.12
Post-test	80.64

Table 1 shows that the students' achievements in English test in ESP have been improved. The students can increase their achievement in the post-test. Furthermore, the hypothesis of the research was tested using SPSS 20. In this case, the researcher used t-test (testing of significance) for paired sample t-test, that is, a test to know the significant difference between the result of students' mean score in pretest and posttest. Assuming that the level of significance (α) = 0.05, the only thing which is needed; the degree of freedom (df) = N - 1, where df = 24, then the t-test is presented in the following table.

Table 2. The Probability Value of T-Test of the Students' Achievement

Variable	P-Value	(α)
X2 – X1	0.00	0.05

From the analysis, the researcher concludes that there was a significant difference between pretest and posttest in teaching ESP for Islamic Education Study Program students by using blended learning. In other words, using blended learning in teaching ESP could be used to increase the students' grammar, listening, writing and speaking skill related to Islamic education matters.

The result of statistical analysis for a level of significance 0, 05 with the degree of freedom (df) N-1, where (N) = 25, df = 24. The probability value was smaller than α ($0.00 < 0.05$). It indicated that the alternative hypothesis (H1) was accepted and the null hypothesis (H0) was rejected. It means that Blended Learning is effective in increasing the English ability of students at IAIN Palopo.

In addition, the next bar chart shows the comparison between the students' achievement in four skills in English namely dimensions of reading fluency before and after the treatments.

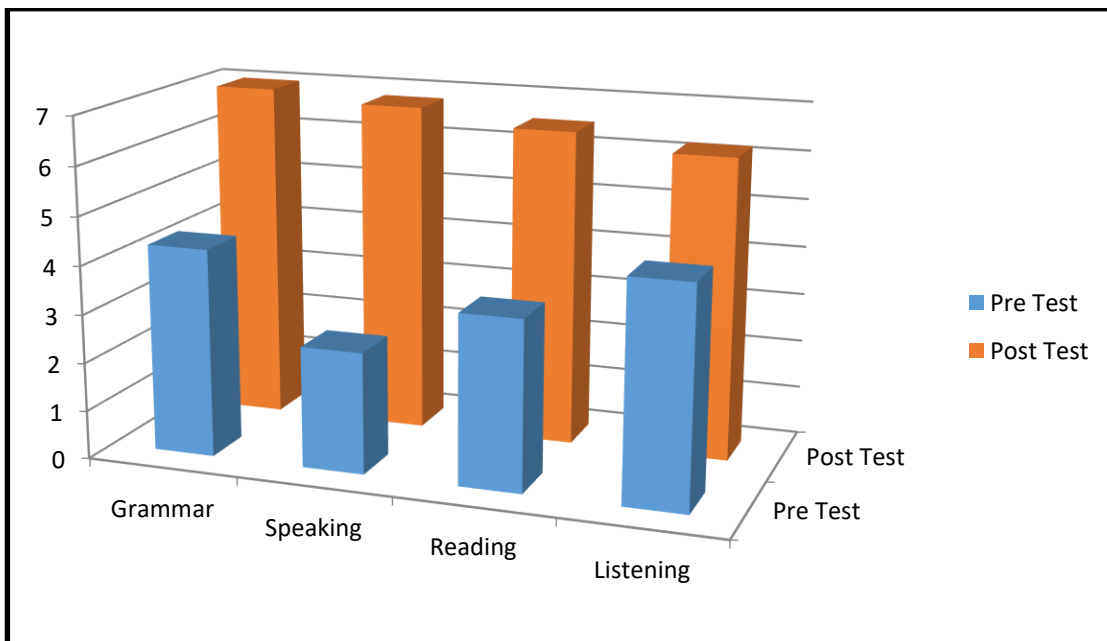


Figure 1: Students' scores in pre-test and post-test

From the previous chart, it can be seen that there was a significant difference between students' score in pre-test and post-test. The students' score in post-test was higher than their score in the pre-test. The students' grammar score in pretest achieved only 4.3, speaking the students achieved 2.4, reading the students achieved 3.3 and the students' listening score in pretest only achieved 4.0. However, in The students' grammar score in pretest achieved only 7.3, speaking the students achieved 7.3, reading the students achieved 6.3 and the students' listening score in pretest only achieved 5.0.. in rate. It means that there was an improvement of students' score from pre-test to post-test after learning ESP by using blended learning.

Based on the result of this study, the researcher proves that teaching ESP material through blended learning is effective. This finding supports the previous researchers, such as Kesta and Harb (2013), they found that blended learning can increase the students' self-learning and students' achievement. Then, Godwin-Jones (2011) also states that Blended Learning can develop students' autonomous learning. In addition, Pravingwong (2018) states that students who are learning with blended learning instruction perform higher progress. Furthermore, Alkathnai (2016) states that using technology as a tool in the classroom can help a learner to work systematically by themselves or with their classmates. In addition, Liu (2013) found that modern technology can increase the students' ability within a very short time and it can be an effective way to promote learner autonomy and effective learning strategy. Furthermore, the application of technology use in learning a language can increase a learner's achievement and increase their learning efficiency in language learning (Chen & Chung, 2008; Lin, 2010).

Amaral and Shank (2010) BL led to better student understanding of course content and an increase in student preparedness for class. López-Pérez, Pérez-López, and Rodríguez-Ariza (2011) They found that by using various kinds of online materials and exercises to consolidate the content of the FTF lessons, including online evaluations, student drop-out rates were reduced and exam pass rates increased. Students' final grades also improved while the teacher achieved a greater degree of involvement with the students in the learning process. Vaughan (2010) the use of BL. Can increase the students' satisfaction increase from 50% to 75% while retention improved and the class grade average increased substantially.

The students' involvement during the treatment proves that they are placed in a suitable environment which can influence their motivation. Motivation is an important contribution to learning success since the students can control their learning processes (Orhan, 2007, p. 391). The

motivation is shown by their participation in the given assignments. The students have become autonomous as they have a duty to complete the assignment. They consciously participate in the tasks in blended learning class to achieve their goal. This research found that most of the participants have been in self-regulated learning. Self-regulated active and conscious control of the learners' activity in terms of metacognition, motivation, and behavior individually and socially (Dettori, 2007).

This also in line with what is explained by Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2000) states the roles of technology in five ways, namely: (1) being able to bring the real-world settings into the classroom. (2) providing the scaffolding that allows learners to participate in complex cognitive tasks. (3) increasing chances to receive sophisticated and individualized feedback. (4) building communities of interaction among teachers, students, parents, and other interested. (5) expanding supports for teacher development.

Furthermore, it was mentioned previously that in this research the researcher using the group work as a way to conduct the learning process, the result of this research is supported by the argument that have been previously revealed by McDonough and Shaw (2003) who explained that some advantages of group work, there are as follows: (1) Group work provides students to work correspondently. (2) Group work encourages the student to share ideas and exchange information. (3) The different tasks can be assigned to different groups. (5) Group work makes each student has proportionally more chance to speak and therefore to be involved in language use. (6) Group work can promote a positive atmosphere in the classroom (7) Group work can be seen as very interesting to teach and provide the students' creativity.

Students' Responses in the Questionnaires

The questionnaires were given both in the beginning and at the end of the ESP classroom. It aims at finding out how the students express their experience in ESP with blended learning class. Similar to comparing the students' achievement in the pre-test and post-test, there are also differences in the students' responses in ESP blended learning class.

Table 3. Students' Responses in the Questionnaires

No	SDA		DA		N		A		SA	
	Q1	Q2	Q1	Q2	Q1	Q2	Q1	Q2	Q1	Q2
1	0%	0%	2%	1%	60%	32%	30%	45%	8%	22%
2	0%	0%	6%	2%	30%	10%	35%	53%	29%	35%

3	0%	0%	3%	0%	25%	20%	40%	42%	32%	40%
4	0%	0%	2%	0%	40%	27%	40%	38%	8%	35%

The first statement to respond in the questionnaire is “I like to work on online activities to improve my English skill”. In the pre-questionnaire, most of the students choose “neutral”, presented in 60%. On the other hand, in the post-questionnaire, there are 45% of the students choose “agree”. This finding reveals that after experiencing a blended learning class, the students’ learning style changes. Seen from the option “agree”, there is a 15% increase in those who enjoy online activities to improve their English skill. The number is satisfying as the students show their interest in the class.

The result of the questionnaire suggests that students can find the advantage of being involved in the blended learning environment as they can develop their autonomy. By practicing online, students can save time and be motivated (Keshta & Harb, 2013). The students have found their motivation to achieve the goal in class. The positive outcomes shown by the students cannot be separated from their engagement in the learning environment. It is undeniable that computer and internet become the students’ part of life. Consequently, students’ positive effect on learning outcomes is reflected after they experience a blended learning class (Moreno, 2012).

The second statement in the questionnaire is “I prefer to work on online activities for homework”. At the beginning of the ESP classroom, there were 30% of the students choosing “neutral”, whereas of the ESP Class, there were 53% of the students choosing “agree” and there were 35% of the students choosing “strongly agree”. The dominating students who choose the option also change. At the beginning of the ESP Class, most of the students do not show exact interest to work online activities for their homework. However, at the end of the semester, the majority of the students like the online activities for their homework. It shows that the students enjoy their learning process.

Since the students found their motivation in learning, students become familiar to use internet and computer to do their homework. Students have made their learning styles suitable for their life. Their ability to finish their work outside the classroom describes their autonomy. Students have improved their methods in order to achieve their individual learning (Godwin-Jones, 2011). The goal they set to learn English is enhanced by practicing individually outside the classroom. Their autonomy is represented through their position, time and place in which they are doing the assignments which refer to the atmosphere different from the classroom (Ayan, 2015).

The third statement in the questionnaire is “Working on online activities helps me with practicing English”. At the beginning of the ESP classroom, there were 25% of the students choosing “neutral”, whereas of the ESP Class, there were 42% of the students choosing “agree” and there were 40% of the students choosing “strongly agree”. The dominating students who choose the option also change. At the beginning of the ESP Class, most of the students do not show exact interest to work online activities for their practicing. However, at the end of the semester, the majority of the students like the online activities for their practicing. It shows that the students enjoy their learning process.

The result of the questionnaire indicates that students have a positive thought to blended learning. This case cannot be separated from the importance of communication teacher and students (Ayan, 2015) when introducing the blended learning in class. Despite the lack of facilities faced by the students, the teacher provided online materials and assignments on the website provided by the university. Thus, students have more access to be involved in a blended learning environment.

In the pre-questionnaire, many of the students choose “neutral”, presented in 40%. On the other hand, in the post-questionnaire, there are only 27 % of the students choose “neutral”. Most of the students tend to choose to agree and strongly agree. This finding reveals that after experiencing a blended learning class, the students’ learning style changes. Seen from the option “agree” and “strongly agree”, there is 73% totally those who enjoy the online activities to improve their English skill. The number is satisfying as the students show their interest in the class. This finding shows that students still can see the connection between activities done in class and the online one. Before attending the blended learning class, some students already practice online themselves. It is good that, as digital natives, the students should to use the online materials autonomously. The ease of browsing online materials gives them a lot of opportunities to develop their competencies.

Students’ Reflective Journal

From the activity, the students are assigned to write their opinions related to the activities offered in the LMS. Below are some examples of students’ reflection.

- *I get the video and the hand out before class therefore so that I can read and learn it before it is taught in the class. I also can watch the videos to make me understand and **remember** the materials.*
- *In the videos, it is explained clearly about the grammar point, speaking activities, reading task and listening activities. It tells the materials in a simple way, and it only gives the **important points** about the target skills.*
- *The use of videos always **helps** me in understanding more about the four skills lesson. They are very helpful.*
- *I can **improve** my understanding of material since I can read more and more the explanation before the ESP class.*
- Every student can find more benefits from videos.

Observing the students' language choice, the reflective journal shows that the students show positive responses to the use of blended learning in ESP class. The verbs such as *learn*, *help*, and *improve* infer that the students conduct particular actions in their learning process. The given materials provided online are proven to motivate the students to exercise their grammar skill. The actions done by the students affect their cognition shown by the verbs *understand* and *remember*. Moreover, the use of also displays a clear relation between the students' regular activities in the LMS and their understanding of the materials. The previous conclusion is also strengthened by the students' results in the post-test.

The second activity is giving online assignments. The given assignments vary: writing report on video, explaining video for speaking, reading based on video and filling in the blanks, uploading a single file, and taking multiple choice assignments. Those assignments were given at the end of each topic discussed. To motivate the students' regularity of online practices, the assignments weigh the same as the test scores. That strategy, the students are motivated to access the LMS regularly. In doing the assignments, the students also owed to discuss the assignments through the assignments scores are given individually.

- *I think it is enjoyable and good for us as the student because it makes us **active** learn by ourselves the skills such as speaking, reading, listening and writing of the ESP program.*
- *It is very **helpful** using videos and online assignment in ESP knowledge.*

- *I can **understand** the materials well through online and video materials*
- *It's very awesome and **helpful** because we don't have to study just from the lecturer in class, but because it's online assignments we can access it wherever we want.*
- *The online material is an **effective** way to give us more times to learn.*

The students' language choice in the above journals shows that the assignments. The previous fact is proven by the use such as *good, enjoyable, active, awesome, helpful, and useful*. Those adjectives reveal that the students show their interest and excitement when they are given online assignments. Besides showing their interest, students show their appreciation by the verb *help* and the adverb *efficiently*. The students' reflective journal also emphasizes the students' responses in the questionnaires. The elaboration presented in the above paragraphs infers that the participants can improve their understanding in ESP class by means of blended learning. The uploaded videos in the LMS are useful to improve the students' understanding of the materials. To increase their participation and learning comprehension, the videos which are is also effective to apply. In line with Wright's research, the videos should be preceded by pre-online-lesson and class explanation. Post-online-lesson is also necessary to follow up with the students' understanding. By doing so, teachers have more times to clarify and to discuss students' questions about the learning materials (Wright,2017).

Conclusion

Blended learning is effective to improve students' understanding of learning English for Specific Purpose. The employment of offline and online activities can give a better outcome than traditional face-to-face activities. Blended learning is suitable to implement in courses related to language skills. The regular activities given online are proven to students exercise their understanding of the given materials, seen from the results in both pre-test and post-test. There is also consistency between the students' achievement in the post-test with the students' completion of the online assignments. The exposures are given in the LMS to motivate the students to practice their English ability. Moreover, the uploaded videos also become another learning resource for the students. Referring to the students' reflective journals, students show their appreciation for blended learning by choosing positive adjectives in their journals. On the other hand, the use of verbs in the journal also reveals the students' practice and access to online activities. This article suggests that applied in other courses related to language skills. Thorough interview and a wider survey are also needed to enrich the present findings. The use of discourse analysis is highly suggested material

Pedagogical Implication

Based on the result of this research, it is shown that blended learning seems to provide many benefits not only for students but also to teachers. The blended learning can cover the limitations of conventional classroom instruction such as a lecture. Blended learning can facilitate the development of learning outcomes, access flexibility, a sense of community, the effective use of resources, and student satisfaction. It is also can give immediate and targeted feedback to all students, rather than just the ones actively participating in class. Furthermore, blended learning can increase student involvement with material by providing students with more control over their learning experience, students may have better integrate the new knowledge with existing knowledge, thus supporting with the comprehensive learning. In addition, blended learning can enhance the student learning outcomes, greater flexibility for students and teachers, improved autonomy, reflection, and research skills, reduced student withdrawal rate, ability to foster a professional learning environment and potential cost and resource savings.

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The Efficacy of Pre-Service Teacher Training Camp in Developing Students' English Teaching Skills at English Education Study program in Indonesia

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Abstract

This research was aimed at finding out the efficacy of Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program in developing students' skills in teaching English as a Foreign Language. This research was conducted at the English education study program of Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Palopo, an Indonesian University. The total number of samples was 15 students. This research used a pre-experimental method with pre-test and post-test design. The pre-test through a microteaching practice was given to find out the basic ability of the students in teaching and the post-test given to find out

the students' improvement in teaching after giving the treatment through Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp. The Camp was conducted in 10 days with lesson teaching models, plans to make, teaching practice and experts' feedback as main activities. The findings showed that Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp is effective in developing students' skills in teaching English as a Foreign Language. It is supported by the result of the significance test through SPSS 20 program that the P was 0.00. Therefore, it is recommended to conduct the Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program in developing students' skills in teaching English as a Foreign Language at English education study program in Indonesia.

Keywords: Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program, Pre-service Indonesian EFL students, English Teaching Skills

Introduction

In accordance with the vision and mission of Institut Agama Islam Negeri (IAIN) Palopo, alumni including prospective teachers, both in terms of quality and quantity should continue to receive attention. This must be followed by various renewal efforts in various fields. The most important improvement in the quality of prospective education personnel to be done is through the development of competencies for prospective teachers graduating from IAIN Palopo. The development of teaching skills is directed to support the competence of professional teacher candidates. Especially with the enactment of Law No. 14 of 2005 about Teacher and Lecturer demand the teacher educated qualification for the bachelors' degree (S1). In order to realize the professional teacher who has a qualification in S1, the competence improvement program for the alumni of education and teaching major is very important. Teaching skills (teaching skills) must be the compulsory provision of students as prospective teachers to be better prepared and resilient in solving various educational problems. This is also supported by Sevimel and Subasi (2018) who state that the factors that most influence the professionalism of prospective teachers are practical teaching experiences.

The results of observations and interviews to the 6th semester of English students of IAIN Palopo, they still face difficulties and challenges in teaching. They still lack teaching knowledge and still have problems with teaching practice even though they have learned many lessons about teaching in the previous semester. They still lack confidence and feel embarrassed about perfume as professional teachers. They still need training and additional knowledge that focuses on teaching English (Masruddin, 2018). There are some students who already have English competence but they

still really need more extra teaching skills. Based on the problems of prospective English language students, one of the solutions offered is the English Teacher Camp Pre-service Program.

The teaching and learning process is the main learning activities carried out at school. The teaching and learning process is a series of interactions between the teacher and students that take place in an educational situation to achieve the learning objectives. The main role model in the learning process is the teacher. In this case, the teacher functions are as teaching and learning process manager, acting as a facilitator, good learning materials developer, and improve students' ability to listen to the lessons and master the educational goals that they must achieve.

The teacher has a very important role in determining the quality of learning. Therefore, the teacher must be able to master the teaching skills. The teaching basic skill is tactics or methods that teachers do in delivering learning activities to obtain optimal learning outcomes. Turney (1973) in Majid (2013) mentioned 8 teaching basic skills, namely: questioning skills, strengthening skills, teaching skills of small groups and individuals, explaining skills, opening and closing skills in learning, skills in guiding small group discussions, classroom management skills, and skill to make variations. Basic teaching skills according to Allen and Ryan (1969) in Remesh (2013) include tactics to open the lessons, stimulus variations, questioning skills, cues, giving illustrations/examples, communication skills, reinforcement and feedback, and strategies to close the learning process. The ability to develop basic teaching skills is carried out starting from the initial activities (opening), initiation activities, to the final activities (closing) of learning.

Teaching basic skills are needed to create an effective learning process. Effective teaching and learning conditions are characterized by students' interest and attention in learning (Usman, 2010). Having the ability to apply each type of teaching basic skills in professionally is not enough just to be memorized. Each type of teaching a basic skill is an applicative ability that needs to be sharpened with regular exercises through a controlled mechanism.

Training to master and improve basic teaching skills needs to be done by prospective teacher students through an approach called "microteaching". In the microteaching process, students are trained to develop certain teaching skills in a more specific and controlled (A. Pelberg, 1982) in Rusman (2010) The implementation of microteaching is carried out on a simplified scale covering the number of students, the time used, and the material presented.

Arsal (2014) states that microteaching is a quick and enjoyable training tool offering pre-service teachers confidence, reinforcement, and feedback by giving them with chances to experiment with small parts of what they may plan to teach. Similarly, Fernandez (2005) points out that microteaching involves pre-service teachers in a cooperative program of lesson plans, application,

analysis, and revision. Furthermore, as indicated by Arends (2000), microteaching activities are useful in reducing pre-service teachers' anxiety levels and increasing their professional competence to and awareness about the teaching profession; in addition, microteaching can help them to learn how to engage with students, have experience in assessment, integrate educational technologies into their classes, and manage their classrooms successfully. In addition, Ho Phuong Chi (2016) explains that in order to create a professional teacher in teacher education, it is good chance to motivate them through the teaching practicum.

It was found that microteaching activities gave their participants opportunities for self-reflection. In another study dealing with the assessment dimension of the microteaching sessions, Büyükkarcı (2014) came to the conclusion that the formative microteaching assessment reduced pre-service teachers' anxiety, and augmented their professional development. Regarding the effectiveness of microteaching videos on methodology courses, Savaş (2012) investigated the opinions of EFL teacher candidates and revealed that microteaching videos supported their English competence and their teaching ability. Ögeyik (2009), on the other hand, researched the significances and drawbacks of microteaching as perceived by prospective EFL teachers, and found that microteaching was commonly trusted to be effective in relating to their self-confidence, professional development, self-assessment, material development, and teaching competencies. She also found that microteaching supports reflective practices among pre-service teachers.

There have been some researchers in other areas of EFL teacher education in the world. To describe many research studies have stated the effectiveness of microteaching on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) pre-service teachers' professional development both in Turkey (Kavanoz & Yüksel, 2010; Büyükkarcı, 2014; Savaş, 2012; Ögeyik, 2009) and in other EFL contexts (Ismail, 2011; He & Yan, 2011; Elghotmy, 2012; Rozimela, 2013; Al-Humaidi & Abu-Rahmah, 2015; Ping, 2013). The studies that have been done in Turkey, Kavanoz, and Yüksel (2010) analyze the effect of microteaching use on pre-service EFL teachers. Their instruments to gather the data were interview guide, observation sheet, self-analysis reports and peer-evaluation forms, Ismail (2011) researched the opinions of pre-service EFL teachers in the United Arab Emirates, and revealed that microteaching was deemed to be beneficial for the improvement of their teaching strategies. Investigating the positive and negative aspects of microteaching practices from the perspectives of Chinese pre-service EFL teachers, He and Yan (2011) used reflective paper writing to collect data. They found that while microteaching was beneficial for professional development, some of the participants felt that the created classroom environment for the microteaching sessions was artificial.

In Egypt, Elghotmy (2012) proved the views of pre-service EFL teachers and their instructors about a microteaching course. The questionnaire, semi-structured in-depth interviews, and a reflective journal were used to collect the data. The researcher concluded that some of the difficulties faced during the course were modeling the skills, planning the lesson, micro teaching also giving and receiving feedback. However, the course was found to be good in developing the teaching performance of pre-service teachers.

In Indonesia, on the other hand, Rozimela (2013) tried to bring out the perceived strengths and weaknesses of a microteaching course and the effects of reflective teaching on pre-service teachers' pedagogical performance. The data collected through journals, observations, and interviews indicated that the most problematic aspect of the course was confusion among participants pertaining to the teaching practice. Also, the pre-service teachers need reflective teaching and journal keeping. More recently, Al-Humaidi and Abu-Rahmah (2015) have used a microteaching model and evaluated its effectiveness in the Omani EFL context. Reflective questions raised by peer students, self-assessment forms, and the teacher's feedback were used to collect the data. The model developed for the study helped maximize the effectiveness of microteaching as their conclusion. In an experimental research study involving a pre-test and post-test, a successful application of Microteaching in the Chinese EFL teacher education context was described by Ping (2013). It was found in the study that microteaching provides a powerful context for the development of teaching skills.

The formulation of the problem in this research was formulated in the form of questions, they are: Is the Pre-service English Teacher Camp program effective in improving teaching skills of prospective English teacher students at English study program of IAIN Palopo?. The purpose of this study was to test the effectiveness of the English Teacher Camp Pre-service Program in improving the teaching skills of prospective English teacher students through experiments.

Pre-service English Teacher Camp Program is a basic teaching skill development program for prospective English Teachers and intended for students at English Study Program of IAIN Palopo who are in their final semester and still in the process of completing a thesis proposal transitioning to Teaching Practice at School and Community Service Program. This program is one of the efforts of English Study Program to improve the quality of its graduates. This program involved lecturers and graduates as mentors and facilitators. Students who involved in this program were given intensive training with the main activities namely lesson teaching models, plans to make, teaching practice and experts' feedback as main activities.

Methods

This research was conducted at the English Study Program, State Islamic Institute of Palopo. This research was experimental research. It aimed at finding out the effectiveness of the Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program on the teaching skills of prospective English teachers. The research subjects were students at the students in the academic year 2017/2018 which the total numbers of participants are 15 people. The research was conducted for 10 days. The researcher applied pre-test, treatments and post-test. The pre-test and post-test were done by observing and assessing teaching skills of prospective English teacher before for pre-test and after the Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program for post-test.

In the first step of the Pre-Service English Teacher Training Camp program, the researcher observed the students' ability in their microteaching by using the microteaching assessment rubric. The assessment instruments that have been used in assessing the microteaching ability is divided into 5 main parts which are consisted of 22 items of evaluation as follows:

The rubric of microteaching assessment

3 = Exceed Expectations

2 = Meets Expectations

1 = Needs Improvement

Preparation

1) The teacher was well-prepared and organized. Comments:	3	2	1
2) The prepared goals/objectives were apparent. Comments:	3	2	1

Presentation

3) The material was explained in an understandable way. Comments:	3	2	1
4) The lesson was smooth, sequenced, and logical Comments:	3	2	1
5) The lesson was well-paced. Comments:	3	2	1

6) Directions were clear, concise, and students were able to carry them Comments:	3	2	1
7) The teacher answered the questions carefully and satisfactorily. Comments:	3	2	1
8) The teacher showed an interest in, and enthusiasm for, the subject taught. Comments:	3	2	1
9) The teacher demonstrated an understanding of the concepts presented and provided accurate information. Comments:	3	2	1
10) Applied appropriate principles of ESL/EFL learning and teaching methodology Comments:	3	2	1

Implementation

11) The teacher was able to adapt to unanticipated situations. .Comments:	3	2	1
12) The teacher moved around the class and made eye contact with students Comments:	3	2	1
13) The teacher positively reinforced the students. Comments:	3	2	1
14) Examples and illustrations were used effectively. Comments:	3	2	1
15) Instructional aids or resources materials were used effectively Comments:	3	2	1

Personal Characteristic

16) Patience in eliciting responses .Comments:	3	2	1
17) Clarity, tone, and audibility of voice Comments:	3	2	1
18) Personal appearance. Comments:	3	2	1
19) Pronunciation, intonation, fluency, as well as an appropriate and acceptable use of language. Comments:	3	2	1
20) Communicates effectively in speech Comments:	3	2	1

Preparation

21) The teacher was able to control and direct the class. Comments:	3	2	1
22) The teacher was relaxed & matter-of-fact in voice & manner. Comments:	3	2	1

Furthermore, the treatment in this study was conducted for 10 days in the Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program. In the process of camp, there were some main daily activities from morning up tonight, such as warming up, ice-breaking activities, teacher models by some graduates and professional teachers, lesson plan activities, discussion and presentation of the planning for teaching the specific skill, practicing, feedback, review of activities.

At the final stage of the study, the researcher conducted the last examinations as a post-test for each student. The students again were asked to conduct microteaching for specific skills. An independent test was conducted to find out the ability to teach students after participating in the Pre-

service English Teacher Training Camp program. The comparison data for the pre-test and the post-test was used to test the hypothesis of the significant effect of the application of multi-discussion-simulation methods and practice on the Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program on the teaching skills of prospective English teacher students. Observation data collection instruments teaching skills after the Pre-service program English Teacher Training Camp will use the same rubric as the rubric in the initial test.

The data were obtained in the form of quantitative data, which was then analyzed by paired-sample t-test using SPSS 20. The result of the t-test was used to answer the hypothesis about the effectiveness of the Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program on teaching skills of Pre Service English language teacher students.

The hypothesis of this study was:

1. Null Hypothesis (H0): There is no significant difference between the results of observations of students' teaching skills before and after treatment through the Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp in the English education program IAIN Palopo
- 2) Alternative Hypothesis (H1): There is a significant difference between the results of observations of students' teaching skills before and after treatment through the Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp in the IAIN Palopo English education program.

Criteria for Testing acceptance and rejection of hypotheses are:

$H_0 > H_1$: Zero hypothesis is rejected

$H_0 < H_1$: Zero hypothesis is accepted

Results

The result of the research shows that there is an improvement of students' ability in teaching after the treatments through Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program. There are 4 aspects that have been evaluated in students' teaching skill namely 1. Preparation, 2. Presentation 3. Implementation/method, 4. Personal Characteristic, and 5. T-S Interaction

Table 1. Students' mean score of teaching skills in Pretest and Posttest

Pre-test	30.60
Post-test	55.53

Table 1 shows that the students' achievements in teaching skills have been improved. The students can increase their achievement in the post-test. Furthermore, the hypothesis of the research

was tested using SPSS 20. In this case, the researcher used t-test (testing of significance) for paired sample t-test, that is, a test to know the significant difference between the result of students' mean score in pretest and posttest. Assuming that the level of significance (α) = 0.05, the only thing which is needed; the degree of freedom (df) = N – 1, where df = 15, than the t-test is presented in the following table.

Table 2. The Probability Value of T-Test of the Students' Achievement

Variable	P-Value	(α)
X2 – X1	0.00	0.05

From the analysis, the researcher concludes that there was a significant difference between pretest and posttest in developing teaching skills through Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program. In other words, using the Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program can develop the teaching skills of students.

The result of statistical analysis for the level of significance 0, 05 with the degree of freedom (df) N-1, where (N) = 25, df = 24. The probability value was smaller than α (0.00<0.05). It indicated that the alternative hypothesis (H1) was accepted and the null hypothesis (H0) was rejected. It means that the Language Experience Approach (LEA) effective in increasing reading fluency ability.

In addition, the next bar chart shows the comparison between the students' achievement in five dimensions of teaching skills before and after the treatments.

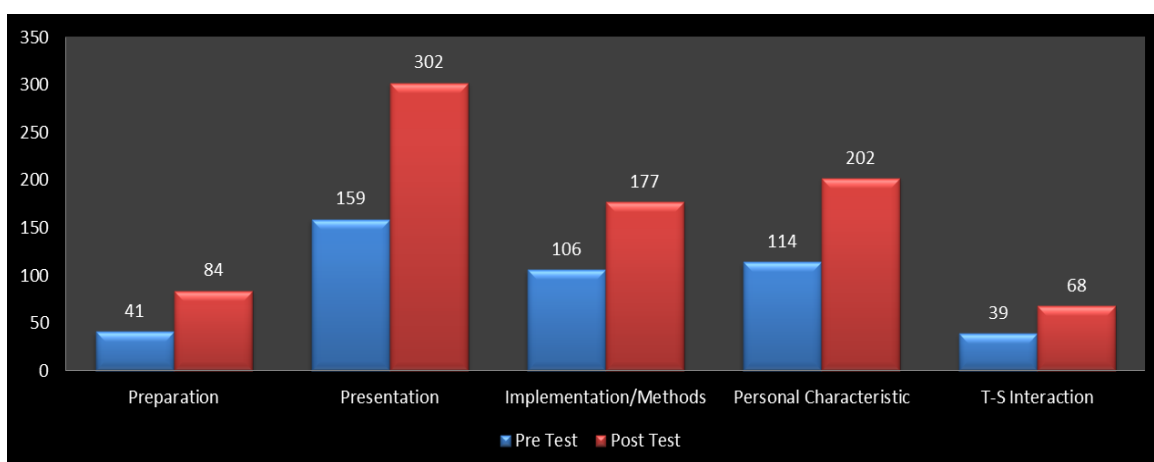


Figure 1: Students' scores in pre-test and post-test

From the previous chart, it can be seen that there was a significant difference between students' score in pre-test and post-test. The students' score in post-test was higher than their score in the pre-test. The students' teaching skills were increased significantly. In preparation from 41 into 84, presentation skill raises from 139 becomes 302, implementation raises from 106 becomes 177, personal characteristic raises from 114 becomes 202, Teacher-Student (T-S) interaction raises from 39 into 68. It means that there was an improvement of students' score from pre-test to post-test after following the training through Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program.

Discussion

Based on the result of this study, the researcher proves that developing the teaching skills of students through Pre-service English Teacher Training Camp program is effective. Based on the result of data analysis, the researcher found out that The Pre Service English Teacher Training Camp is effective in developing students' teaching skill at the sixth-semester students of IAIN Palopo especially in five aspects of teaching skills. From the result data analysis, shows that the mean score of the student's pretest was 30.60 and the mean score of posttest was 55.53. The standard deviation of pretest was 3.01 and the standard deviation of posttest was 2.85. It means that The Pre Service English Teacher Training Camp is effective in enhancing the students' teaching skills in Indonesia.

This also in line with what is explained by Sevimel & Subasi, (2018) state that English teacher candidate needs much practice and experiences. Furthermore, it was mentioned previously that training to master and improve basic teaching skills needs to be done by prospective teacher students through an approach called "microteaching". In the microteaching process, students are trained to develop certain teaching skills in a more specific and controlled (A. Pelberg, 1982) in Rusman (2010). The implementation of microteaching is carried out on a simplified scale covering the number of students, the time used, and the material presented.

In this research, the microteaching practice during the camp was beneficial since through the self and peer evaluation forms, they could develop their critical thinking skills, discover their teaching strengths and weaknesses, and reflect on the areas they need to improve. The finding of this research is similar to the results of other studies concluding that such forms paving the way for reflective practices not only raise Pre Service Teachers awareness of their strengths and weaknesses as a point of departure for improvement, but also facilitate professional growth in the long run (Britton & Anderson, 2010; Blank, 2009; Bailey, 2006; Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Microteaching is also regarded as a means of pre-service teacher development believed to enhance Pre Service Teachers

students' self-confidence and improve their instructional skills (Peker, 2009; Şen, 2009; Tsang & Wong, 1996). Another important finding of the current study is that some Pre Service Teachers students pointed out that they learned new activities from their friends, observed different classroom management procedures, and improved their language skills (e.g., pronunciation). Also, some of them claimed that they made progress in the following areas as a result of microteaching practices: lesson planning, giving instruction, preparing materials, adjusting their voices in the classroom, error correction, creative use of technology and time management. Similar benefits of the pre-service teacher camp experience for the training of prospective EFL teachers were revealed in some other studies carried out in Turkey (Ögeyik, 2009; Kavanoz & Yüksel, 2010).

In this research, the candidates of the teacher were trained with specific goals every day. The facilitator has formatted some goals for each activity. This is in line with what expert said such as Pelberg (1982) in Rusman (2010) that in the microteaching process, students are trained to develop certain teaching skills in a more specific and controlled. The implementation of microteaching is carried out on a simplified scale covering the number of students, the time used, and the material presented.

Another thing that makes this research successfully conducted is the students were enjoyable and they can reduce their anxiety in teaching. This fact is supported by Arsal (2014) who states that microteaching is a quick and enjoyable training tool offering pre-service teachers confidence, reinforcement, and feedback by giving them with chances to experiment with small parts of what they may plan to teach. Furthermore, as indicated by Arends (2000), microteaching activities are useful in reducing pre-service teachers' anxiety levels and increasing their professional competence to and awareness about the teaching profession; in addition, microteaching can help them to learn how to engage with students, have experience in assessment, integrate educational technologies into their classes, and manage their classrooms successfully. Then, Büyükkarcı (2014) came to the conclusion that the formative microteaching assessment reduced pre-service teachers' anxiety, and augmented their professional development. Regarding the effectiveness of microteaching videos on methodology courses, Savaş (2012) investigated the opinions of EFL teacher candidates and revealed that microteaching videos supported their English competence and their teaching ability

During this research, there are some weaknesses in teaching skills of the students have been improvements such as they are still lack of teaching knowledge and still have problems with teaching practice even though they have learned many lessons about teaching in the previous semester. They still lack confidence and feel embarrassed about perfume as professional teachers. They still need training and additional knowledge that focuses on teaching English. There are some students who

already have English competence but they still really need more extra teaching skills. This means that the Pre-service English Teacher Camp Program has become the solution for creating a professional teacher in the future. Related to this fact, Ho Phuong Chi (2016) explains that in order to create a professional teacher in teacher education, it is good chance to motivate them through the teaching practicum.

It was found that during the Pre-service English Teacher Camp Program activities gave the participants opportunities for self- reflection. In another study dealing with the assessment dimension of the microteaching sessions. Ögeyik (2009), on the other hand, research the significances and drawbacks of microteaching as perceived by prospective EFL teachers, and found that microteaching was commonly trusted to be effective in relating to their self-confidence, professional development, self-assessment, material development, and teaching competencies. She also found that microteaching supports reflective practices among pre-service teachers.

There have been some researchers in other areas of EFL teacher education in the world. To describe many research studies have stated the effectiveness of microteaching on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) pre-service teachers' professional development both in Turkey (Kavanoz & Yüksel, 2010; Büyükkarcı, 2014; Savaş, 2012; Ögeyik, 2009) and in other EFL contexts (Ismail, 2011; He & Yan, 2011; Elghotmy, 2012; Rozimela, 2013; Al- Humaidi & Abu-Rahmah, 2015; Ping, 2013). The studies that have been done in Turkey, Kavanoz, and Yüksel (2010) analyze the effect of microteaching use on pre-service EFL teachers. Their instruments to gather the data were interview guide, observation sheet, self-analysis reports and peer-evaluation forms, Ismail (2011) research the opinions of pre-service EFL teachers in the United Arab Emirates, and revealed that microteaching was deemed to be beneficial for the improvement of their teaching strategies. Investigating the positive and negative aspects of microteaching practices from the perspectives of Chinese pre-service EFL teachers, He and Yan (2011) used reflective paper writing to collect data. They found that while microteaching was beneficial for professional development, some of the participants felt that the created classroom environment for the microteaching sessions was artificial.

In Egypt, Elghotmy (2012) proved the views of pre-service EFL teachers and their instructors about a microteaching course. The questionnaire, semi-structured in-depth interviews, and a reflective journal were used to collect the data. The researcher concluded that some of the difficulties faced during the course were modeling the skills, planning the lesson, micro teaching also giving and receiving feedback. However, the course was found to be good in developing the teaching performance of pre-service teachers. In Indonesia, on the other hand, Rozimela (2013) tried to bring out the

perceived strengths and weaknesses of a microteaching course and the effects of reflective teaching on pre-service teachers' pedagogical performance. The data collected through journals, observations, and interviews indicated that the most problematic aspect of the course was confusion among participants pertaining to the teaching practice. Also, the pre-service teachers need reflective teaching and journal keeping. More recently, Al-Humaidi and Abu-Rahmah (2015) have used a microteaching model and evaluated its effectiveness in the Omani EFL context. Reflective questions raised by peer students, self-assessment forms, and the teacher's feedback were used to collect the data. The model developed for the study helped maximize the effectiveness of microteaching as their conclusion.

In an experimental research study involving a pre-test and post-test, a successful application of Microteaching in the Chinese EFL teacher education context was described by Ping (2013). It was found in the study that microteaching provides a powerful context for the development of teaching skills. However, similar to He and Yan (2011),

Conclusion

The Pre-Service English Teacher Training Camp program is effective in enhancing the students' teaching skills in Indonesia. It was proven by the data that there was a significant difference between the students' mean score of pretest and posttest. In the pre-test, the students' mean score is 30.60 and the students' score in posttest is 55.53. Moreover, it also can be seen by t-test of the students' reading fluency achievement was smaller than $\alpha = (0.00 < 0.05)$.

Pedagogical Implication

Based on the result of the research, it can be stated that the pre-service English teacher training camp can be used to improve the teaching basic skill of the students. The students can learn how to create an effective learning process. The candidate of teachers can create a good teaching process by increasing their students' interest and attention in learning. In addition, the pre-service English teacher training camp can sharpen the teaching skills of the candidate English teachers with regular exercises through a controlled mechanism.

Furthermore, the pre the pre-service English teacher training camp program can develop the pre-service teachers' confidence through some chances to experiment with a small part of what they may plan to teach. Then, the microteaching activities in the camp are useful in reducing pre-service

teachers' anxiety levels and developing their professional competence to and awareness about the teaching profession; in addition, microteaching can help them to understand how to involve with students, get experience in assessment, integrate educational technologies into their classes, and manage their classrooms successfully.

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Gender-Fair Language Competence of Teacher Education Faculty

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Abstract

Gender-fair language competence counts for the dynamic, responsible and sensitive eloquence and sensible language proficiency of every social being. However, though there is sensitivity in the use of language, sexism and gender discrimination are still perpetuated and reproduced which is challenged by linguistic normative in gender language as critically experienced even in the workplace. Hence, this study aimed to determine the gender-fair language competence of the Teacher Education faculty through descriptive research design. The study employed complete enumeration of Teacher Education faculty members of the college. Findings show that majority of the faculty members manifest gender-fair language competence along sex roles, non-sexist terms in social context and in identifying gender stereotype, except along formal register. Further, the faculty significantly did not differ in their gender-fair language competence when grouped according to civil status, religion, ethnicity, position or rank, college degree, sex and age. Thus, the University in coordination with Gender and Development Office needs to reinforce the use of gender-fair language in the academe.

Keywords: *Competence, gender-fair language, stereotype, teacher education*

Introduction

Language is dynamic. The changes and evolutions of language are integral components of human civilizations across times and geography. A number of gurus and philosophers of the classical yesteryears are known for their literary excerpts of hugely numerous genre and immensely thought-provoking and exceptional styles in writing. Further, a countless number of speakers and conversationalists are likewise heard of their eloquence in speaking their minds over social, economic, political and cultural issues, concerns and problems across ages. In the midst of all of these writings and expressions, there exist richly reflections about the life of great men and women in general and on how well they are equal in rights and dignity. Men and women are relatively equal in rights, opportunities and dignity as humans - whether rich or poor, educated or unschooled, young or old, in whatever race, religion, cultural orientations, and affiliations; however, gender biases still exist. These gender biases as advanced by Menegatti (2017) are seen in linguistic abstraction which is a subtle resource used to represent women in less favorable way and thus to enact gender discrimination without meaning to discriminate or even be aware that this linguistic behavior has discriminatory results. Furthermore, with reference to characteristics during hiring of applicants, men are considered dominant, more powerful and independent, while female are kind, less powerful and warm. Likewise, according to Maera, et al. (2009) as cited by Megatti (2017), gender-bias exists in “gender-stereotypes” wherein the unknown gender is usually addressed as “he”, “his” or “him”. Also, Stahlberg, et.al., (2007) asserted that masculine generics are semantically ambiguous and problematic since they can refer to men only or to a group of men and women

In the global context, gender biases in language are exemplified in various ways. Studies carried out in the USA (Schneider and Hacker, 1973 and Spender, 1985) demonstrate that when people are asked to describe what they think or when they read the word ‘man’ used in a generic sense, they tend to think male rather than female. As regards parallel terms, it is observed that university staff and students speak and write in contexts of varying formality and make stylistic choices accordingly. The conventional titles for women– *Mrs* and *Miss*– define women only in terms of their marital status. Women are therefore identified in terms of their relationship to men, whereas men are hardly ever described in terms of their relationship to women. Nevertheless, a woman has a preference for *Miss* or *Mrs*.

These language differences and gender-biases in language are alternatively addressed by the theory of normative linguistics as Silk (2015) posits: ‘language affords a variety of normative and

evaluative resources for doing so'. One resource for this norm in language is through linguistic prescription which attempts to lay down rules defining preferred or "correct" use of language. Sometimes informed by linguistic purism, such normative practices may suggest that some usages are incorrect, illogical, lack communicative effect, or are of low aesthetic value. Putting it in context, it is standard practice to use Ms. when uncertain of what a woman prefers. Actually, Ms. is the only term not linked to marital status and is now widely used by both single and married women. With work-related gender language, there is a female term that can be used to refer to a woman by adding a suffix to a masculine term, however, this does not make equality between a man and a woman but making women feel all the more that men are superior than them. This derivation of female correspondent from male is based on languages with grammatical gender, such as German, Italian, or Spanish. It is asymmetrical in form as most nouns referred to female persons are composed by adding a suffix to the corresponding masculine terms. In Italian *essa* is added to females while in English, *ess* as in *hostess* and *authoress*, and this is added to masculine words to create the derived female correspondent. Another is *professoressa* (female professor) from the masculine professor, or *studentessa* (female student) from the masculine student. It is in this asymmetrical context that Filipinos at times add a suffix to a masculine word to have the feminine correspondent. Examples of these are the titles "Professor and Doctor". "Profesor" in Filipino or Professor in English is used to address a male educator while "Profesora" to a female educator. According to Markel, et. al. as cited by Megatti, et. Al. (2017), this principle is likewise known as feminization in gender language. But with the use of the English language particularly gender-inclusive language which does not prefer one gender over the other (Beare, 2018), "Professor" is used to address both male and female educators, while "Doctor" is meant to address both male and female medical doctors.

Other legal way of looking into gender biases in language and gender stereotypes is through the International Human Rights Law which places a legal obligation on States to eliminate discrimination against women and men in all areas of their lives. This obligation requires States to take measures to address gender stereotypes both in public and private life as well as to refrain from stereotyping. The Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (United Nations Human Rights, 2015) provides in its article 5 that, "*State Parties shall take all appropriate measures to modify the social and cultural patterns of conduct of men and women, with a view to achieving the elimination of prejudices and customs and all other practices which are based on the idea of the inferiority or the superiority of either of the sexes or on stereotyped roles for men and women.*" Other human rights treaties also require States Parties to address harmful stereotypes and the practice of stereotyping. As regards stereotyping which is a social construct that describes

generalized and fixed images of either a male or a female identity or of people belonging to a particular group, the following may be certain features: sex, cultural orientations, religion, ethnicity, occupations, personal, and others. Stereotypes may reflect elements of truth; they oversimplify and underestimate individuals' lives; these are often at the root of adverse treatment of oppressed groups that can result subtle discrimination (Susan, 2015).

Addressing the issue of gender stereotype and sexist language which depict discrimination against women in the Philippines is expressed in the Civil Service Commission with its Memorandum Circular No. 12, s. 2005 (2014) which enjoins government officials and employees to use non-sexist language in all its official documents, issuances and communications purposely to avoid implicit and explicit discriminatory language against women and men. With this, there is a need to address the use of biased language which includes expressions that demean or exclude people because of age, sex, race, ethnicity, social class, or certain physical or mental traits; which insults the person or group to which it is applied; and in denigrating others. The use of biased language will surely create division and separation. Also, in using biased language about races and ethnic or cultural groups, speakers and writers risk alienating members of those groups, thus undermining the communication and shared understanding that the language should promote.

Generally, this study took the following as bases in determining the use of gender-fair language among the teacher education faculty: The Civil Service Commission (CSC) Memorandum Circular No. 12, s. 2005 (2014), Moffit (2014), the National Council of Teachers of English (2014), the Society of Music Theory (2014), Linguistic Society of America (2014), the Dominance-Subjection Dichotomy (Raful, 2014), and Politeness theory of Lakoff (2012). According to these sources, significant rules on the use of non-sexist terms include: (1) eliminating the generic use of "he, his, or him" unless the antecedent is obviously male, (2) eliminating the generic use of "man," (3) eliminating sexism in symbolic representations of gender in words, sentences, and text (4) eliminating sexual stereotyping of roles, and (5) eliminating sexism when addressing persons formally.

Since there is a problem on the use of gender-fair language among the faculty in the University as observed in the given activities and as expressed by them during their series of gender-sensitivity trainings and seminars sponsored by the University Gender and Development Office, the researchers who are at the same time proponents of the said seminars seriously considered conceptualizing a research along this line.

Thus, this research was conceptually framed to determine the gender-fair language competence of the College of Teacher Education faculty along formal register, sex-roles, non-sexist language in context, and dominant impressions on gender stereotypes. It likewise uncovered the significant

difference in the respondents' gender-fair language competence when grouped according to some select profile variables.

Objectives of the Study

Generally, this study aimed to determine the gender-fair language competence of teacher education faculty. Specifically, it ascertained a description of their gender-fair language competence along formal register, sex roles, and non-sexist language in context.

Methodology

Research Design

This study utilized the descriptive research design to determine the gender-fair language competence of the College of Teacher Education faculty of Cagayan State University along formal register, sex-roles, and non-sexist language in context.

Sampling and Participants

With total enumeration, the 58 participants were regular and part-time faculty members of the College of Teacher Education of CSU for the School Year 2016-2017 teaching various disciplines which include general education, field of specialization, and professional education.

Instrument

A self-made questionnaire, content-validated by experts and tried out to non-faculty-respondents who were not regular part-time faculty, was patterned from the *Civil Service Commission GAD framework*, the *National Council of Teachers of English on Guidelines for Gender-Fair Use of language*, the *Society for Music Theory on Non-Sexist Language*, and the *Linguistic Society of America on guidelines on non-sexist language usage*. It was used to elicit data and information covering the gender-fair language competence of the teacher education faculty along three categories: (1)-formal register, (2)-sex roles, and (3) nonsexist language in context. The faculty were instructed to choose the grammatically correct and appropriately used gender-fair language from the four choices provided in each item. The instrument underwent reliability test with the use of Cronbach Alpha and index of 0.819818 shows that the test is very good. This means that the internal consistency of the responses of the faculty is very good. Category 1 has an index reliability of 0.918814 which is very good, while category 2 and category 3 have 0.781836 and 0.758804 which are both described as good.

Collection of Data

The researchers wrote a letter of request to the University President for the administration of the questionnaire to test the gender-fair language competence of the faculty. The approved letter was

forwarded to the Dean of the College of Teacher Education to allow the researchers to personally float the test to the faculty-respondents purposely to ensure 100% retrieval.

Analysis of Data

The gender-fair language competence of the faculty was assessed through correct responses of the test administered using frequency and percentage, and with adjectival descriptions of Very Competent (85% and above), Competent (75% - 84%), and Less Competent (below 75%), along data covering gender-fair language competence in category 1-formal register, category 2-sex roles, and category 3-nonsexist language in context. The test was treated with Cronbach Alpha because there were four alternatives provided to choose from for the correct answer.

Results and Discussion

This section covers the presentation, analysis, and interpretation of data and information generated through the questionnaire. Specifically, it covers inquiries on the gender-fair language competence along formal register, non-sexist terms on sex roles, non-sexist terms in context.

Gender-Fair Language Competence of the Faculty along Formal Register, Non-sexist Terms on Sex Roles, and Non-sexist Language in Context

Table 1 shows the gender-fair language competence of the teacher education faculty along formal register. It is gleaned from the table that from the 35 items of the 14 rules on gender-fair with 58 respondents, 56.9 percent or 33 are found competent in the use of gender-fair language while 41.4 percent or 24 are less competent, and only 1.7 percent or 1 is very competent. This reveals that most of the faculty members are competent and consciously aware on the use of gender-fair language along formal register, particularly on the rules on: *substituting articles (a and the) for his and using who instead of he; using one, we, or you; eliminating sexism in symbolic representations of gender in word, sentences, and text by taking the context of the word, analyzing its meaning and eliminating sexism in the concept; treating men and women in a parallel manner; and avoiding language that reinforces stereotyping images.* This finding counters that of Talosa and Temporal's (2018) study where they found out that pre-service teachers' written discourses showed use of gendered generic words. The pronouns *he, his and him* were used as referents to noun of no specific gender. Among the gendered generic pronouns, *his* was found the most reoccurring sexist antecedent to the noun. The contradiction may be explained by the knowledge level gained by the respondents in the present study as professional teachers are expected to exhibit more awareness than do pre-service teachers.

One of the items that the faculty are found to be less competent in using gender-fair language is on the rule of *Eliminating sexism when addressing persons formally by using Ms instead of Mrs.; Dr. instead of Dra.* **Appendix A** shows that only 18% of the faculty got the answer correctly. The use of Doctora which is a Filipino term is commonly used in conversations among Filipinos in addressing a female doctor. This is accepted in addressing a female doctor in an informal gathering. However, to observe gender-neutral especially with the use of the English language, Dra is not advisable. Instead, the use of Dr. is encouraged especially on formal fora. This is supported by Beare (2018) who opined that with the use of the English language particularly gender-inclusive language which does not prefer one gender over the other “Professor” is used to address both male and female educators, while “Doctor” is meant to address both male and female doctors.

Along this context, the findings on the elimination of sexism on titles infer that there is still a need to make the faculty be aware on the” rules of the use of gender-fair language in formal register” to be very competent in its use most especially the respondents are in the academe. Using gender-fair language in the academe will certainly create much better working relationships and healthy social interactions in any forms of conversations or communications. In this manner, the educators are guided by standards and rules on the use of gender-fair language in their workplace, as stipulated for in the Civil Service Commission Memorandum Circular No. 12, s. 2005.

Table 1: Gender-fair language competence of faculty along formal register.

Score (35)	Frequency/ Percentage (n=58)	Adjectival Description
30 – 35 (85% and above)	1 (1.7%)	Very Competent
18 – 29 (75 - 84%)	33 (56.9%)	Competent
1 – 17 (less than 75%)	24 (41.4%)	Less Competent

Table 2 presents the gender-fair language competence of the respondents along non-sexist terms on sex roles.

As shown on the table, around 58.6 percent or 34 of the 58 faculty members are competent on the use of gender-fair language along sex roles, while 36.2 percent or 21 are very competent, and 5.2 percent or 93 are less competent. This reveals that most of the faculty members are competent in choosing non-sexist terms with reference to roles and functions of both men and women in the society. **Appendix B** of the non-sexist terms shows that around 90 percent and above of the faculty members

are familiar with the following non-sexist terms: Technicians (96.3%), Spokesperson (95%), Servers (92.5%), Bar Staff and Firefighters (91.3%), and Police Officers (90%). The rest of the non-sexist terms that around 50 percent or more of the faculty members are familiar with are: authors, human resources, office staff, sculptor, legislators/lawmakers, chairperson, camera operators, councilors, business executives, salesperson, poet and TV anchors, respectively. This implies that the faculty members are consciously using appropriate non-sexist terms with reference to functions and roles in the society.

On the other hand, the non-sexist terms that the respondents are not familiar with are Ushers (16.3%) and Caretakers which is 33.8%. The word *usher* refers to a person (man or woman) who walks before a person of rank, and *caretaker* refers to either man or woman who renders services with diligence, love and patience. This implies that the faculty members are yet to be informed that these are non-sexist terms especially these words are commonly used even in classroom settings.

Since it is part of teachers' role to teach the students with appropriate use of language that will bring about more humane understanding and better relationship, the teachers in their role modelling take pride in using appropriate non-sexist terms during classroom intellectual discussions, and even in their written activities and presentations as pointed out by the Linguistic Society of America (1969) for Non-Sexist Usage and the Civil Service Commission Memorandum Circular No. 12, s. 2005.

Table 2. Gender-fair language competence of faculty along sex roles.

Score (20)	Frequency/ Percentage (n=58)	Adjectival Description
17 – 20 (85% and above)	21 (36.2%)	Very Competent
11 – 16 (75 – 84%)	34 (58.6%)	Competent
1 – 10 (less than 75%)	3 (5.2%)	Less Competent

Table 3 presents the gender-fair language competence of the respondents along non-sexist terms in context.

The faculty members carefully chose the appropriate gender-fair language that develops sense of pride and not to demean a person regardless of gender, character traits, religion, cultural orientation, education, and personal relations. This is shown in the table wherein around 44.8 percent or 26 of the faculty members are competent in the use of gender-fair language in context, while around 15.5 percent or 9 are very competent, and 39.7 percent or 23 are less competent. **Appendix C** shows the gender-fair language used in context. These are ACADEMICALLY CHALLENGED (91.3%), which is a

more appropriate way to describe an academically struggling learner. This statement reveals sense of respect by using kinder words to describe a person of no offense to academic weakness. Thus, the faculty members rather choose to use academically challenged which is far better and more humane words than to describe the struggling learners as dumb which is very demeaning. Another way to express the use of gender-fair language is to use MODEST/DEMURE (78.8%) to describe the finest ethics of a lady/woman for being prim and properly behaving in public. This is a way to raise the dignity of a lady especially in public. On the other hand, the use of COURTEOUS/POLITE (73.8%) to describe the ethical sensitivity manifested by a well-behaved man is highly regarded. This is also one way to increase man's self-esteem and favorable values.

In formal conversations, the finest manner to identify or address an unmarried female person is LADY. In a wedding, say congratulations to the groom and best wishes to the bride. Never interchange for it could be demeaning on the part of those who just made their vow as husband and wife. With reference to the people in the countryside, it is better to use ECONOMICALLY MARGINALIZED rather than poor. In politics, the non-sexist terms used are POLITICAL MACHINERY and POLITICAL RIVALS. Moreover, when asked about the language of the indigenous, say CULTURAL LANGUAGE and not indigenous language. This is one way to uplift the spirit of the indigenous people because they feel that sense of belongingness with those who don't belong to their tribe. Still, majority of the respondents chose the non-sexist terms with reference to the following: Along health, a more subtle way to call a communicable disease which is tuberculosis is PULMONARY INFECTION. With gender, a more acceptable oral remark as an impression to an effeminate male is GAY and a more acceptable oral remark as impression to a known homosexual woman is LESBIAN.

The findings infer that the teachers are competent on the use of gender-fair language in context. There are also non-sexist terms that less than 50% of the faculty members are not familiar with. These are Woman, Bar Entertainer, Child out of Wedlock, and Office Head. The use of BAR ENTERTAINER (43.8%) is a more gender-fair term to use for a known sex worker, CHILD OUT OF WEDLOCK (41.3%) is used to describe a child who is born from an illicit affair, OFFICE HEAD (36.3%) is a more collegial way to describe the manager or administrator, while WOMAN (21.3%) is a more graceful way of addressing a married woman.

It is revealed that the faculty members are competent in observing appropriacy of terms used in context with reference to non-sexist language. This infers that educators carefully manifest concern on human relations and choose appropriately gender-fair language that develops sense of belongingness, integrity, honor and pride regardless of social status, cultural and educational orientations. This is an affirmation to the Civil Service Commission of the Republic of the Philippines

with its Memorandum Circular No. 12, s. 2005 (2014) which enjoined government officials and employees to use non-sexist language purposely to avoid implicit and explicit discriminatory language against women and men regardless of their races and ethnic or cultural groups.

Table 3. Gender-fair language competence of faculty along non-sexist terms in context.

Score (20)	Frequency/ Percentage (n=58)	Adjectival Description
17 – 20 (85% and above)	9 (15.5%)	Very Competent
11 – 16 (75-84%)	26 (44.8%)	Competent
1 – 10 (less than 75%)	23 (39.7%)	Less Competent

Table 4 presents the summary of the gender-fair language competence of the teacher education faculty in the three categories.

The table shows that around 74.1% or 43 of the 58 faculty members are competent in using gender fair language namely; gender-fair language in formal register, gender-fair language on sex roles, and gender-fair language in context. This stresses that the faculty members are consciously aware that there is a need to use gender-fair language in the education par lance in order to establish higher norms and standards of relating oneself to others especially in the academe. This also infers that the right choice of words is very necessary to keep harmony and peace in interpersonal relationships.

Table 4. Overall gender-fair language competence of teacher education faculty.

Score (75)	Frequency/ Percentage (n=58)	Adjectival Description
64 – 75 (85% and above)	1 (1.7%)	Very Competent
38 - 63 (75 – 84%)	43 (74.1%)	Competent
1 – 37 (less than 74%)	14 (24.2%)	Less Competent

Conclusion

The study concludes that generally, teacher education faculty are gender-fair language competent along formal register, non-sexist terms on sex roles, and non-sexist terms in context. Emphatically, most of them manifest gender-fair language competence in the context of their awareness and appropriate usage of gender-fair language particularly along non-sexist terms on sex roles and non-sexist terms in context. It is ascertained that with this competence, the teacher education faculty are aware of the gender-fair language usage with reference to their role as man and woman and the appropriate and ethical terms to be used in social context which are non-gender-bias in nature. This has significant implication on the dissemination of guidelines on the use of gender-fair language by the University administration through its Gender and Development Office especially to the college faculty who are directly involved in teaching. This action calls for a reinforcement in the application of those guidelines particularly those from the Civil Service Commission Memorandum Circular No. 12, s. 2005 (2014) which enjoins all government employees to use non-sexist terms purposely to avoid implicit and explicit discriminatory language against women and men, and for the academe to be directly involved in the advocacy of Gender and Development.

Recommendations

The administration may consider giving seminar to the faculty on the use of gender-fair language in oral and written forms to intensify the applications of the guidelines on non-sexist terms set forth, as per Circular No. 12, s. 2005 of the Civil Service Commission.

Pedagogical Implication

This study has contributed more knowledge on the use of gender-fair language particularly among the faculty members who are directly honing the value system of the learners. Its results are likewise a baseline information for teachers who are deemed responsible in the development of value-laden mind-constructs on an exceptional competence required of an educator to the present societies of millennials.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Test Question on Non-Sexist Terms in Formal Register

Gender-Fair Statements	Frequency (n=58)	Percentage
A. Using plural nouns and deleting he, his, him	25	43
B. Substituting articles (a and the) for his; using who instead of he.	30	51
C. Using one, we, or you	31	52
D. Using passive voice	26	45
E. Eliminating the use of “man.” Instead, use people, person (s), human (s), human race, human kind, humanity (Using: ordinary man, mankind, the brotherhood of man, instead of ordinary people, humanity, the human family)	19	34
F. Eliminating sexism in symbolic representations of gender in word, sentences, and text by taking the context of the word, analyzing its meaning and eliminating sexism in the concept	31	53
G. Eliminating sexual stereotyping of roles by using the same term for both genders in terms of profession and employment	14	38
H. Using gender-fair language in lexical terms	14	38
I. Treating men and women in a parallel manner	41	71
J. Avoiding language that reinforces stereotyping images	30	51
K. Avoiding language that catches attention to the sex role of men and women	12	21
L. Eliminating sexism when addressing persons formally by using Ms instead of Mrs.; Dr. instead of Dra.	10	18
M. Using a married woman’s first name instead of her husband’s	16	28
N. Using the title of the job or group in letters to unknown persons	17	29

APPENDIX - B

Test Question on Non-Sexist Terms on Sex Roles

Gender-Fair Terms on Sex Roles	Frequency (n=58)	Percentage
1. Noli de Castro and Korina Sanchez are experts in broadcast media. They are known as TV ANCHORS.	52	88.8
2. Former senator Jambie Madrigal and business tycoon Henry Sy are recognized exceptional BUSINESS EXECUTIVES in the country.	50	86.3
3. Patricia B. Licuanan was confirmed by the Commission on Appointments as CHAIRPERSON of the Commission on Higher Education.	43	75
4. The presiding officer informed the OFFICE STAFF to take the minutes of the meeting during the consultative session with the parents.	38	66.3

5. The congressional district representatives across provinces of the Philippines are otherwise politically known as LEGISLATORS/LAWMAKERS.	44	75.0
6. The political advisers to the municipal/city mayor are composed of COUNCILORS.	50	86.3
7. Behind the movie makers are CAMERA OPERATORS tasked to do documentary films.	47	82.5
8. Making the customers have a feeling of the ambiance of accommodation while on fine dining are the singing BAR STAFF on stage for some jazz numbers.	52	91.3
9. A courageous team of FIREFIGHTERS strategically crawled into the building amidst spots of blazing fire in order to save a baby.	52	91.3
10. The able-bodied members of the Philippine labor force are likewise regarded as HUMAN RESOURCES.	36	62.5
11. Walking through the dark in the middle of the night is not as easy as you think when there are no public servants on 'night watch' like the POLICE OFFICERS.	52	90.0
12. To maintain the electronic facilities of a school in functional condition, four experienced and NC II qualified TECHNICIANS were hired.	55	96.3
13. Visiting the department store, a SALESPERSON smiled at me and showed me where the ladies' gowns are displayed.	50	87.5
14. A SPOKESPERSON of the peace talk with MILF usually takes the role of delivering or negotiating for or against claims of parties in conflict.	55	95
15. During formal occasions, the USHERS humbly welcome the guests with hospitality and respect.	9	16.3
16. In the international exhibit, the carved work of the SCULPTOR is a feature of a woman.	40	70.0
17. The feminist view was stressed in the poems written by a POET.	51	88.8
18. Looking into the welfare of the students who are far from their parents are the CARETAKERS.	19	33.8
19. The food caterers of Pension Roma are amiable SERVERS.	54	92.5
20. Scholars who were tasked to write books for the K-12 program are the known AUTHORS at the national level.	29	51.2

APPENDIX - C
Test Question on Non-Sexist Terms in Context

Gender-fair Terms in Context	Frequency (n=58)	Percentage
1. In a wedding to greet the newlywed groom, say CONGRATULATIONS.	42	73.8
2. In a wedding, to greet the newly wed bride, say BEST WISHES.	39	67.5
3. During formal conversations, the finest manner to identify/address an unmarried female person is LADY.	44	77.5
4. During formal conversations, the courteous manner to identify/address a married female person is WOMAN.	12	21.3
5. When in public, MODEST/DEMURE is used to describe the finest ethics of a lady/woman for being prim and properly behaving.	45	78.8

6. When in public, COURTEOUS/POLITE is used to describe the ethical sensitivity manifested of a well-behaved man.	42	73.8
7. The tribes' ancestors who did beheading of enemies as the manifestation of success and bravery in defending one's territory and/or security are called WARRIORS.	29	50.0
8. ISLAM DEFENDERS are the indiscriminate words that can be used today to describe the Moslem ancestors having been declared by Spain's Christian elders as Church enemies.	29	50
9. A more subtle way to call a communicable disease of the lung of a person is PULMONARY INFECTION.	31	55
10. An openly known or identified sex worker is otherwise called BAR ENTERTAINER .	25	43.8
11. When a child is born from an illicit affair, that child is called CHILD OUT OF WEDLOCK.	24	41.3
12. The government uses election as the best strategy to choose the best public servants. Those who run in any positions from different parties are known POLITICAL RIVALS.	36	61.3
13. Whenever there is an election, the POLITICAL MACHINERY from the different parties manifest their all-out support to the candidate/s.	38	66.3
14. Language expresses thoughts and emotions. When asked about the language of the indigenous, say CULTURAL LANGUAGE.	38	66.3
15. A more collegial way to describe your manager or administrator is OFFICE HEAD.	21	36.3
16. A more appropriate way to describe your academically struggling learner is ACADEMICALLY CHALLENGED.	52	91.3
17. Today's poverty level of our country is alarming as indicated by the presence of ECONOMICALLY MARGINALIZED people living in the countryside.	42	72.5
18. An expression "Jesus Christ" on a ruinous, heinous, horrific or daredevil circumstance in an actual event connotes bad religious impression against the second commandment. Instead of saying it, it is better to say WHAT A MESS.	36	62.5
19. A more acceptable oral remark as an impression to an effeminate male who with him in public is a group of people of mix gender is GAY.	31	53.8
20. A more acceptable oral remark as impression to a known homosexual woman who with her in public is a group of people of mix gender is LESBIAN.	31	55.0



Pre-service Teachers' Attitudes toward the Use of Mother Tongue as Medium of Instruction

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Abstract

The study examined the attitudes of the pre-service teachers in the use of Mother Tongue as a medium of instruction in Grades 1-3 and the perceived problems associated with its use. It also determined the relationship between attitude and age, sex, and place of origin (province). Guided by the socio-educational model of Gardner (1985), the study collected data through a survey involving 150 pre-service teachers enrolled in Bachelor of Elementary Education program from Batangas, Laguna, La Union, Catanduanes, and Romblon. Data were analyzed using frequency, mean, mode, and standard deviation. Relationship between variables was determined through Chi-Square test for independence using SPSS. Results showed that most of the respondents agree that the use of Mother Tongue as a medium of instruction is good in principle. They believe it would enable teachers to express themselves clearly, and it would also make the lessons interesting to pupils. However, some problems associated with its use were also identified, such as: difficulty in translation, teacher's low proficiency in Mother Tongue, pupils' low proficiency in Mother Tongue, degradation of English proficiency, and lack of teacher's training in teaching Mother Tongue. Findings further revealed that the place of origin, not age and gender, influences the respondents' attitudes. This study, therefore, proves that the pre-service teachers, in general, have positive attitude towards the use of Mother Tongue as medium of instruction and are willing to undergo training to be able to teach using the mother tongue.

Keywords: attitude, pre-service teachers, Mother Tongue, language proficiency

1 Introduction

The “language in education” construct is not an unambiguously defined notion. Children bring to the classroom one or more languages which they speak with varying degrees of proficiency (Walter, 2008). Following Baker (2006), it is assumed that most children enter school with one dominant language though children in cities often manifest some degree of bilingualism. Teachers may or may not speak the language(s) spoken by the students in their classrooms. The curriculum may be in a language spoken well by neither the teacher nor the students or by one and not the other. Thus, the language of instruction in a classroom is a fundamental in a learner’s educational development. According to Ochs (1986), language and literacy are viewed as socially constructed, culturally-mediated practices, and these play a vital role in the act of learning. In other words, the question of which language(s) to use for instruction in schools is, therefore, a crucial one in bilingual and multilingual contexts, such as the Philippines.

One of the recent developments in the Philippine educational system is the Mother Tongue- Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE), an educational policy which uses more than one language in literacy and instruction. However, according to Nolasco (2008), changing the MOI alone is not enough for the MTB-MLE to work in the Philippine context. Nolasco (2008) cited four crucial conditions that must be achieved to ensure the successful implementation of the MTB-MLE program and one of these conditions is community support and empowerment. He also added that one of the recurring issues is the teachers’ attitude – perceptions, inclinations whether positive or negative- toward the mother tongue as the medium of instruction.

The attitudes of teachers come to the fore as they reflect upon the language that they use in teaching. Consciously or unconsciously, their attitudes play a crucial role in language’s growth or decay, restoration or destruction (Baker, 1988), and as part of their cultural orientation, influence heavily their younger students (Shameem, 2004). Moreover, the teacher’s preparation should not just be in terms of knowledge and skills in their specialization but also in their attitude towards the tools that they will use in teaching their subjects (Vizconde, 2006).

Sarnoff (1970) defined attitude as a disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects. Likewise, Bohner and Wanke (2002) even explained that attitude usually represents an evaluative response toward an object. Thus, attitude is an evaluative response to any object on

cognitive, affective and behavioural perspectives. In addition, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) proposed that attitude can trigger three types of responses. The first one is cognitive responses which refer to individual's thoughts and beliefs toward the object of an attitude. Second, affective responses which trigger feeling or emotions in relation to the object of an attitude, and third, behavioural responses that involve actions which are carried out with respect to the object of an attitude. These three responses often overlap that leads to difficulty in separating them (Zhang, 2010). However, according to Bohner and Wanke (2002), attitude is generally defined as a summary evaluation of an object of thought which may encompass only one response category, or a combination of two or of all three categories. Thus, an attitude is a hypothetical construct which is not directly observable but can be inferred from observed responses (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993). In other words, when certain stimuli, for example the use of mother tongue in teaching Grades 1 to 3 elicit responses, some mental state which can be referred to as attitude can be created.

1.2 Review of Related Literature and Studies

1.2.1 Teachers' Attitude towards the Mother Tongue Instruction

According to Haugen (1956 as cited in Grosjean, 1982), “whenever languages are in contact, one is likely to find certain prevalent attitudes of favor or disfavor towards the languages involved. These can have profound effect on the psychology of the individuals and on their use of the languages” (p.118). In the case of the Philippines, where more than 180 languages can be found, linguistic power struggle between languages is inevitable. For instance, people in regions and provinces far away from Manila have some level of resistance towards Filipino, the national language (Wa-Mbaleka, 2014), partly since probably more than 90% of Filipino words come from Tagalog and only a third of Filipino people can speak Tagalog (Smolicz & Nical, 1997). Moreover, language attitude is always one of the major factors in accounting for which languages are learned, which are used, and which are preferred by bilinguals (Grosjean, 1982). Indeed, the well-accepted notion that language is a symbol of social or group identity along with the attitude and values held by both the user and non-user is true.

The introduction of MTB-MLE policy in the Philippine educational system which highlights the use of mother tongue as the medium of instruction receives differing reactions from teachers, parents, students and other educational stakeholders. Given the importance of language in the education process, the general acceptability of mother tongue as language of instruction (LOI) posed a major issue, especially in the case of teachers who according to Shohamy (2006) are regarded as one of the

key stakeholder groups that are often forgotten in the policy process despite the fact that they hold much power for carrying out a reform. Some of the identified drawbacks of MTB-MLE that possibly contributed to teachers' mixed reactions when MTB-MLE policy is mentioned have been identified by different researchers (Malone & Paraide, 2011; Oyzon & Fullmer, 2014; Wa-Mbaleka, 2014). These challenges include the following: (1) instructional materials are not readily available in the majority of local languages; (2) teachers are not trained in the local languages used for instruction where they teach; (3) primary school teachers may not have solid training on L1 or L2 learning research and theories; (4) some local languages may not be perceived as important for formal education. Likewise, Paulson (2010a) argued that teachers may act as a barrier to effective MTB-MLE due to the following reasons: (1) deep-seated attitudes about indigenous languages and their suitability for the classroom, (2) perceived extra work in teaching the mother tongue as a third language in the classroom, (3) their own unfamiliarity with the grammatical and orthographic system of their mother tongue, and lack of confidence in teaching reading and writing in that language, (4) attitudes and beliefs about the best way to learn to read based on their own personal schooling experiences, and (5) fear of losing authoritative control in their classroom.

Such attitudes and beliefs present a barrier to MTB-MLE because teachers have direct correlation to classroom practice (Karavas-Doukas, 1996). Consequently, it is imperative to considerably take the affective attitude of primary school teachers for they play a major role in the formation of the learners' cognitive and affective language attitude formation (Kovacs, 2011) and in the successful implementation of MTB-MLE policy.

1.2.2 The Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE)

The linguistic and cultural diversity in the Philippines brings much complexity to the issue of language policy in education. With more than 7000 islands and 181 distinct languages (Lewis, Simons, & Fennig, 2013), the Philippines offers a challenging environment for implementing a language policy that can serve the whole country. Consequently, language policies for Philippines' schools are modified every now and then over the last century with a different policy for nearly every generation. Until recently, the 1974 and 1987 Bilingual Education Policies determined the language of instruction in schools to be Filipino and English. This is despite the fact that almost half of the population does not speak either of these as a first language.

In 2009, the Department of Education (DepEd) challenged the Bilingual Education Policy by issuing an order that called for institutionalization of mother tongue-based multilingual education (MTB-MLE). This order requires use of the learners' first language as the medium of instruction for all subject areas in pre-kindergarten through grade three with Filipino and English being taught as separate subjects (Philippines Department of Education, 2009). Another order was issued in 2012 that offered more specific guidelines for MTB-MLE and embedded the reform in the newly adopted —K to 12 Basic Education Program (Philippines Department of Education, 2012). This order shifted from the original mother tongue approach by specifying twelve major regional languages to be used as the languages of instruction.

In the context of education, studies of attitudes in the past years have mostly dealt with the attitudes of students, teachers, and parents toward learning a second or foreign language (Baker, 1992; Gardner and Lambert, 1972). However, more recently, the focus of language attitude studies has shifted from L2 learning to L1 or mother tongue-based teaching in the hope of understanding more about the intended language innovation and in promoting greater success in education. Although studies in this field are of significance, research particularly on students' attitude remains quite so few.

International literature shows that the wealth of information when it comes to mother tongue instruction policy points to the experiences of most countries in Africa. In 2004, Ejieh conducted a study to determine the student teachers' attitudes toward teaching in mother tongue in Nigerian primary schools and found that students showed a negative attitude towards it due to the inferior status given to the indigenous language during the British colonial era. Being the official language, English becomes advantageous as it appears to be the measure of learners' educational gains. Thus, even parents believe that early on, their children must be taught in English for it is the language that promises employment opportunities and economic mobility. Additionally, because of the many years of exposure to the English language in school, from primary to upper levels, students have made English their language, which in turn made the indigenous language unattractive. Results further showed that the problems related to insufficient teaching materials and students' textbooks were thought to have contributed to the negative attitude of the student teachers.

Chivhanga and Sylod (2014) compared the attitudes of student teachers toward the use of English and ChiShona as a medium of instruction in teaching Grade 4 Mathematics in Zimbabwe primary schools. The study revealed that parents, teachers/lecturers, and college/university learners preferred English over ChiShona as medium of instruction from primary to university level since for them, English

guarantees better job opportunities and empowerment for global competition, clearly echoing Ejieh's (2004) findings. On the other hand, indigenous languages to them are soft options as they are made rarely compulsory.

Since Shona is prescribed to Grades 1 to 3 only, Webster, Mavies, Timothy, and Cordial (2012) investigated the influence of teachers and students' language attitudes toward the use of Shona as medium of instruction if it will be adopted in secondary schools in Zimbabwe. Both the students and teachers manifested a negative attitude to Shona and opted for English as medium of instruction. The majority of the students agreed that Shona has limited use in their lives and is presumed to be inadequate for the effective teaching of science and technology. Based on these results, Webster et al. (2012) concluded that the attitudes of the users toward the language innovation negatively affects the implementation of Shona.

In Sidama Zone, Ethiopia, parents and students similarly showed a negative attitude and perception toward using mother tongue as medium of instruction (Bachure, 2014). However, unlike parents and students, teachers indicated a positive attitude and perception toward mother tongue-based instruction, although they were aware of the many challenges as regards the accessibility and availability of the learning materials in Sidama language. Apart from the perceived problems in learning materials, Sidama language being a minority language is only used in the local community, and it is noticeably problematic when the language is used by students in writing.

Another study was carried out using Gardner's (1985) Attitude and Motivation Test Battery. Magogwe and Ketsitlile (2015) found that Botswana students have a generally positive attitude toward English and Setswana. However, for them, Setswana should not be used as language of instruction, but as one of the subjects instead. The results of the study suggested that students regarded bilingualism or multilingualism as favorable and they positively viewed indigenous languages in schools.

The teachers in Kenya also recognized the many advantages that mother tongue brings in connection with the appreciation of culture, building of better relationship between learners, enabling student participation, and contributing to the smooth transition of learners from home to school among others (Khejeri, 2014). However, even with these advantages, teachers were not convinced that mother tongue should be the appropriate medium of instruction as foremost among the challenges they have foreseen was that it cannot provide sufficient vocabulary to aid the teaching and learning process.

Meanwhile, studies dealing with the relationship between language attitude and age, gender, and place of origin (province) have provided valuable insights in relation to the discussion of the shift from English to mother tongue in the classroom. Ajepe (2014) revealed that age and gender influence students' attitude toward the use of mother tongue. Students between 15 and 18 years old in his study were shown to be more interested in the use of mother tongue. Additionally, female students have more positive attitude toward mother tongue use than male students. However, in Alieto's (2018) study, gender difference on language attitude was not evident. Apart from age and gender, Assefa (2002) reported that place of origin (province) is another significant factor that can affect language attitude.

1.4 Research Questions

This study investigated the attitudes of the pre-service teachers toward the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction in Grades 1-3 and their willingness to teach in mother tongue when they graduate. Specifically, it sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the attitudes of pre-service teachers towards mother tongue-based teaching in Grades 1-3?
2. Is there a significant relationship between the attitudes of pre-service teachers towards mother tongue-based teaching and:
 - a. age,
 - b. gender, and
 - c. place of origin (province)?
3. What are the perceived problems in the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction in Grades 1 – 3?

1.5 The Socio-educational Model

This study is guided by the socio-educational model that was developed by Robert Gardner in 1985. The socio-educational model was constructed on the notion that language learning builds a learner's identity that enables him/her to adapt and operate in a new environment. The model presents four interrelated variables, such as social milieu (i.e., individual's culture and environment), individual differences (i.e., intelligence, aptitude, motivation, and anxiety), second language acquisition context (i.e., formal and informal settings), and outcomes (i.e., linguistic skills and non-linguistic skills).

In the field of social psychology, the socio-educational model puts high value on the role of the individual learners' characteristics in language learning. Hence, for language learning to occur, a learner first and foremost must want to learn, show effort to learn, and display a positive attitude to learn. Gardner (1985) implies that motivation should therefore be viewed in this tripartite complex, and that each must act as support to another.

In the model, motivation is influenced by socially and educationally relevant attitudes. These attitudinal constructs are best understood in the way the learner displays his/her attitude toward the learning situation, particularly the classroom set-up or the school environment, assessment of the modules, textbooks and other course materials for instance, and evaluation of the language teacher and the language course. This attitudinal construct acknowledges the difference that is likely to exist between a skilled teacher who has a good command of the language and a less skilled teacher who lacks the proficiency in the target language. Another attitudinal construct is the integrativeness, which reflects the willingness, interest, and openness in learning the target language in the community for socialization and for learning their culture as well (Lovato, 2011). This clearly emphasizes the ability to understand the language of a community to which the learner is unfamiliar and become cognizant of the different culture the particular community has (Lovato, 2011).

Further, the model postulates the interdependent relationship between motivation and attitude as these two variables directly or indirectly influences successful language learning both in formal settings where language acquisition is the primary objective, and informal settings where language acquisition appears to be secondary and incidental (Gardner, 1985).

2. Methodology

This descriptive-quantitative study involved 150 pre-service teachers enrolled in Bachelor of Elementary Education from Laguna, Batangas, Catanduanes, Romblon, and La Union through a survey. There were 30 respondents for each province. The respondents were composed of 39 (26%) males and 111 (74%) females. In terms of age, 75 (50%) of the respondents were between 18 to 19 years old; 54 (36%) of the respondents were 20 to 21 years old and lastly, 21 (14%) of the pre-service teachers were 22 years old and above. There were 54 (36%) of the pre-service teachers who reported that their L1 is different from the mother tongue declared by DepEd, while 96 (64%) reported no difference as to their L1 and the mother tongue identified by DepEd for their city or province.

The survey questionnaire was adapted from Ejieh (2004). Some modifications on the statements were made to fit the Philippine context. The modified questionnaire earned a reliability rating of 0.80 using Cronbach’s Alpha. Also, the researchers opted for a 4-point Likert Scale that varied from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree* instead of *yes/no response*. The survey questionnaire was divided into two parts. In Part 1, respondents were asked to provide pertinent personal information such as gender, age, province, first language, and whether or not their native language different from the mother tongue identified/declared by Department of Education for their city or province. Meanwhile, the 15 statements included in Part II are made up of three levels; Level 1 includes items one to 12 which seek the opinions of the pre-service teachers on some issues and problems related to teaching and learning in mother tongue such as the benefits of teaching and learning in mother tongue to pupils, teachers and parents, as well as the limitations of instruction in mother tongue. On the other hand, Level 2 is made up of items 13 and 14 that explore the pre-service teachers’ readiness to undergo training in mother tongue instruction and their willingness to teach in mother tongue upon graduation. As for the final level, item 15 which is an open-ended question was included. The item requires the respondents to list down problems that they foresee in teaching mother tongue in primary schools, specifically in Grades 1 to 3.

Following the research ethics procedure, the researchers sought the approval of the designated deans and administrators of the institutions involved through a communication letter prior to the administration of the survey. Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics, namely: frequency count, mean, mode and standard deviation. Chi-Square test for independence using SPSS application was used to establish the relationship between variables. Moreover, qualitative approach was employed to analyze the perceived problems in the use of mother tongue.

3. Results and Discussion

3.1 Attitude of pre-service teachers towards mother tongue-based teaching in Grades 1-3

Table 2

Attitude of Pre-service teachers towards mother tongue-based teaching in Grades 1-3

	Statement	SA	A	D	SD	Mean	DE
1	A policy on the use of mother tongue in the Philippine primary schools (Grade 1-3) is good in principle.	56	85	9	0	1.69	A

2	It is possible to teach all primary school subjects from Grade 1-3 in the mother tongue or language of the local community.	43	82	24	1	1.89	A
3	It is possible to teach my own subjects completely in mother tongue.	16	75	53	6	2.33	D
4	Teaching in mother tongue will enable teachers to express themselves clearly in class.	52	88	10	0	1.72	A
5	Teaching in mother tongue will enable pupils to understand easily.	60	80	8	2	1.69	A
6	It will make lessons interesting to pupils.	40	95	13	2	1.85	A
7	It will enable children to perform well in English language in the future.	14	83	47	6	2.31	D
8	It will enable parents to participate in the education of their children.	45	99	6	0	1.75	A
9	All technical terms and expressions in my subject area(s) can be easily translated into mother tongue.	13	71	57	9	2.41	D
10	Textbooks for teaching my own subjects can easily be produced in mother tongue.	12	78	56	4	2.35	D
11	My education and training, which have been in English, will not interfere with my teaching children in mother tongue.	7	102	38	3	2.26	D
12	Use of mother tongue in teaching will degrade the teaching profession in the Philippines	9	50	66	25	2.71	D
13	I am willing to undergo any special training that will enable me to teach in mother tongue.	64	82	4	0	1.60	A
14	I am willing to teach in mother tongue when I leave college.	41	96	10	3	1.83	A

Legend: SA – strongly agree; A – agree; D – disagree; SD – strongly disagree

DE – descriptive equivalent

Table 2 shows that statements 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 13, and 14 generated a weighted mean of 1.69, 1.89, 1.72, 1.69, 1.85, 1.75, 1.60 and 1.83 respectively or a descriptive equivalent of “AGREE.” On the contrary, statements 3, 7, 9, 10, 11, and 12 earned a weighted mean of 2.33, 2.31, 2.41, 2.35, 2.26, and 2.71 correspondingly or a descriptive equivalent of “DISAGREE.” Based on the above findings, it can

be claimed that pre-service teachers agree that the use of mother tongue in Grades 1-3 is good in principle and that its use as a medium of instruction in Grades 1 to 3 would enable teachers to express themselves clearly and would make the lessons interesting to pupils, thus allowing pupils to understand the lessons easily. Likewise, pre-service teachers view the use of mother tongue as a way to enable parents to take part in the learning of their children. However, pre-service teachers also realized that the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction in teaching all the subjects in Grades 1 to 3 is not feasible since pre-service teachers agree that it is impossible to translate in mother tongue all the technical terms and expressions in their subjects, not to mention the difficulty to produce textbooks in mother tongue that could help them in teaching. Similarly, pre-service teachers also held a negative view regarding the use of mother tongue to enable children to perform well in the English language in the future. Surprisingly, pre-service teachers also believe that their education and training which were acquired using the English language would pose a problem in their teaching of the mother tongue to the pupils, and even though this is the case, still, the majority of the respondents agree (82 out of 150) and strongly agree (64 of the pre-service teachers) to the idea of undergoing special training that will help them teach in mother tongue. The result showing the pre-service teachers' willingness to undergo training is also supported by their positive attitude toward teaching in mother tongue upon graduation.

The results of the study correlate the findings of the local study conducted by Wa-Mbaleka (2014) which revealed that English teachers believed that MTB-MLE will facilitate learning of mother tongue, but not learning the English language. Meanwhile, the pre-service teachers' negative attitude toward availability of textbooks, possibility of concrete translation and vocabulary, and compatibility of teachers' education and training is supported by the study made by Lartec et al. (2014) which revealed that lack of textbooks, vocabulary and teacher-training are the main problems encountered by teachers in implementing mother-tongue based instruction.

Along international studies, the findings of this study contradict Ejie's (2004) findings that student teachers had a generally negative attitude towards the teaching and training in mother tongue in primary schools. On the other hand, in a study conducted by Adesina and Okewole (2014) also in Nigeria which involved teachers' opinions on mother tongue instruction in nursery schools affirm results of this study showing teachers have relatively positive attitude toward the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction.

3.2 Relationship between attitude and age, gender, and province

3.2.1 Relationship between attitude and age

Table 3 presents the results of the Chi-Square test. It shows that there is no significant relationship between attitude and age since the p value (0.15) is greater than the alpha (0.05). The absence of the relationship between the two variables can be explained by the fact that the recruited respondents did not vary greatly in terms of age.

Table 3

Correlation between attitude and age

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	3.851 ^a	2	0.15

Since they have the status of pre-service teachers, most of them belong to 18-19 years old and 20-21 years old age group, with 75 and 54 students respectively. The majority of the respondents belong to the normal age group of pre-service teachers, and they relatively share, more or less, the same perspective and positive attitude as regards the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction. Thus, this indicates that age does not influence the positive attitude of the pre-service teachers toward mother tongue. However, in Ajepe's (2014) study involving undergraduate Nigerian students, age influences the use of Mother Tongue, and that the younger group of students (15-18 years old) are more interested in using the Mother Tongue than the older group of students. It was noted that the younger group are more at ease in expressing themselves in the Mother Tongue while the older group are more inclined to use English.

3.2.2 Relationship between attitude and gender

Moreover, Table 4 illustrates the findings of the correlation between attitude and gender. The Chi-Square test reveals that the $p=0.44$ and is greater than the alpha (0.05), and hence implies that there is no significant relationship between attitude and gender.

Table 4

Correlation between attitude and gender

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.592 ^a	1	0.44

Table 5

Test of homogeneity of variances

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.279	1	148	0.260

To determine if there is statistically significant difference between males and females in terms of their attitude, Levene's test was performed (Table 5). Results show that the *Sig.* value of 0.260 is greater than 0.05, and hence, at 0.05 level, the difference in mean attitude of male and female pre-service teachers toward the use of Mother Tongue is not significant. Clearly, despite the female domination in the present study, attitude toward using the Mother Tongue as a medium of instruction is not dependent on gender, implying that both male and female respondents have positive attitude toward Mother Tongue. This finding supports previous studies (Alieto, 2018; Assefa, 2002) that both male and female students find the mother tongue useful in making themselves feel more comfortable in explaining difficult concepts and expressing ideas. This result can further be viewed as a product of the early and long years of exposure of the respondents to the language, so it is understandably rooted in the individual, social, cultural, and ethnic identity (Assefa, 2002). Thus, it may not be a surprise that, regardless of gender, the positive attitude toward the use of mother tongue greatly contributes to the teaching and learning process. However, other studies still suggested that gender tends to be a function of language attitude (Bacon, 1992; Baker, 1998). Ajepe (2014), for instance, claimed that female students express a more positive attitude toward the use of Mother Tongue than male students.

3.2.3 Relationship between attitude and province

A significant relationship between attitude and province was noted in Table 6. This result may stem from the value that the respondents put on the implementation of MTB-MLE, despite some problems, since they believe that this can be mostly beneficial to the students in the provincial areas.

Table 6

Correlation between attitude and province

	Value	df	Asymptotic Significance (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	11.111 ^a	4	0.03

Their awareness of the complexity of the linguistic and cultural diversity in relation to the issue of language policy in education may have been a factor. Result shows that it is consistent with the report of Assefa (2002) in which it was discovered that rural dweller high school students of the Sidama Zone demonstrated a more positive attitude toward the use of Sidama language compared to urban dweller students. Assefa (2002) explained that urban dweller students have less positive attitude towards Sidama language as medium of instruction probably because of their exposure to multiple languages being spoken in the area. In addition to multilingual setting, the author cited “the effect of globalization, television, contact with diversified ethnic groups, loss identification with their ethnic identity, and mixed cultural exposure” could have caused the negative attitude of urban dwellers to Sidama language (p. 85). This exhibited a stark contrast to the rural dwellers as they are presumed to have limited opportunity to speak other languages; thus, they have been used to speaking in Sidama in the community and found themselves more expressive in the language. As a result, they favored Sidama as the medium of instruction over other languages and gained higher grades in Sidama language than those who disfavored the language. Similar explanation can be offered in the Philippine setting. Students from the rural areas who have not been practicing English would prefer to speak using their mother tongue inside the classroom because it is the language that give them power and higher rate of academic success. Admittedly however, the scarcity of studies along this line has posed limitations in extensively providing relationship cases involving the above variables.

3.3 Possible problems associated with teaching mother tongue

Table 7 summarizes the possible problems that pre-service teachers might encounter in teaching mother tongue in primary schools, specifically in Grades 1 to 3. As shown in the table, there are 11 problems identified. The five most common problems identified by pre-service teachers as ranked from highest to lowest are: first, *difficulty in translation* with 25.71%; second, *teacher's low proficiency in mother tongue* with 16.57%; third, *pupil's low proficiency in mother tongue* with 12.57%; fourth, *degradation of English language proficiency* with 11.43%; and fifth, *lack of teacher's training in teaching mother tongue* with 8%.

Table 7

Problems identified by pre-service teachers with regards teaching mother tongue

Problem	<i>f</i>	%	Rank
Difficulty in translation	45	25.71	1
Degradation of English language proficiency	20	11.43	4
Lack of textbooks, references and instructional materials	13	7.43	6
Lack of teachers' training in teaching mother tongue	14	8	5
Low teachers' proficiency in mother tongue	29	16.57	2
Low pupils' proficiency in mother tongue	22	12.57	3
Incompatibility of MT used by pupils and of MT assigned by DepEd	12	6.86	7
Difficulty in teaching the different varieties of MT	6	3.43	8.5
Language barrier for transferees and pupils with different L1	6	3.43	8.5
Difference in teacher's and pupils' L1	4	2.28	10
Resistance of parents in using MT as medium of instruction	3	1.71	11
TOTAL	175	100	

Based on the above findings, it appears that the primary challenge identified by the pre-service teachers is the difficulty in translation of technical terms and concepts, specifically in the subjects like Mathematics and English. The following excerpts below provide basis for the claim:

1. *Difficulty in translating in Math.*
2. *Technical terms may be difficult to translate.*
3. *Translation may be hard.*
4. *Some English terms do not have exact translation in mother tongue.*
5. *Using mother tongue in Math is difficult.*
6. *Difficulty to translate Math concepts in mother tongue.*

Following the definition of translation forwarded by Kelly (2005) as “the skill of understanding the source text and rendering it in the target language by using the register, the background knowledge, and other language resources according to the intended purpose” (p.26-27), it suggests that translation process requires the translator high level of proficiency both in subject language (English) and target language (mother tongue). Thus, it appears that the difficulty in translation can be traced to three others problems also identified by the pre-service teachers; these include: *low proficiency of teachers in the mother tongue, lack of teachers’ training in teaching mother tongue and lack of textbooks, references and instructional materials.* Not to mention that the pre-service teachers as discussed above also DISAGREE with the statement, “*My education and training, which have been in English, will NOT interfere with my teaching children in mother tongue.*” The fact that the pre-service teachers were trained and educated following the old curriculum using textbooks, references, and instructional materials written in the English language, the majority of which are written by foreign authors and where the English language served as the medium of instruction for teaching Mathematics and English subjects, it is not surprising to know that the pre-service teachers feel a relatively negative attitude towards using mother tongue in teaching Math and English subjects. Likewise, the problem with lack of training in teaching mother tongue is also seen as one of the contributory factors that could affect the effective teaching of mother tongue by the pre-service teachers. The above problems identified support the drawbacks well outlined by previous studies on MTB-MLE (Malone & Paraide, 2011; Oyzon & Fullmer, 2014; Wa-Mbaleka, 2014) showing the following challenges: (1) lack of instructional materials in local languages, (2) absence of teachers’ training in the local languages used

for instruction, (3) insufficient training on L1 or L2 learning research and theories of primary school teachers, (4) local languages may be perceived as insignificant resource for formal education, and (5) parents' resistance towards MTBE due to future employability concerns.

Moreover, findings of this study are consistent with the local studies like of Lartec et al. (2014) study which showed that teachers teaching mother tongue encountered difficulties due to absence of books written in mother tongue, lack of vocabulary, and lack of teacher-training. Likewise, the above results corroborate that of Valerio's (2015) findings which revealed teachers' uncertainty with the instructional materials they possess due to lack of localized translation of these materials. Also, of the difficulty experienced by in-service teachers in teaching pupils who are culturally unfamiliar with the same mother tongue that can be traced to the level of expertise of the teachers of the different dialects (Valerio, 2015). Moreover, Wa-Mbaleka's (2014) study which revealed the teachers' belief in the negative impact the use of mother tongue will bring to English language teaching are echoed in the above findings. The same can be seen in the results found by Cabansag (2016) where different stakeholders' perceived the benefits of the implementation of MTB-MLE to include the following: (1) expressing better ideas, (2) building self-confidence, (3) better retention, and (3) promoting friendly environment, whereas the challenges covered the following themes: (1) multilingual environment, (2) difficulty in translation, (3) inadequacy of instructional materials, and (4) mandatory compliance to the Department of Education (DepEd) order. Lastly, Cruz's (2015) study on the status of implementation of MTB-MLE in Grade 1 also highlights the results of this study. Cruz (2015) revealed that majority of the instructional objectives in the mother tongue as a subject are not being met, particularly in the areas of grammar awareness, vocabulary development, and reading comprehension. Moreover, the Grade I teachers use another language as accessory to the mother tongue and teachers encounter serious problems with the implementation of MTBMLE such as attendance to relevant trainings and the provision of evaluation instruments.

On the other hand, results presented above contradict the findings of Vizconde's (2006) study on student teachers' attitude towards the use of English as language of instruction for Science and Mathematics in the Philippines. The study found that most student teachers reported that concepts and topics taught in English are not comprehensible to students and although English should be the medium of instruction in teaching Science and Math subjects, using the English language alone is found to be not effective.

Along foreign studies, Ejieh's (2004) study in Nigeria supports findings of this study wherein Ejieh (2004) also found the following problems as ranked from highest to lowest: (1) adverse effect on English language learning; (2) mother tongue promotes weak foundation in education; (3) problem of translating some concepts in some subjects; (4) problem of teaching pupils from different ethnic backgrounds; and (5) poor development of language competence. The problems identified by Ejieh (2004) are very similar with the drawbacks outlined by the pre-service teachers in this study, however with one exception, laying of weak foundation in education.

4. Conclusion

With the implementation of the Mother Tongue Based-Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE), the current study aimed at investigating the attitudes of one of the important possible stakeholders of this policy, the pre-service teachers who will soon join the roster of full-time teachers. Likewise, this study provides empirical data on the attitude of the would-be primary school teachers toward the use of mother tongue as medium of instruction in Grades 1-3 and their willingness to teach in mother tongue when they graduate. The results of this study also provide some insights to Philippine language policy planners on the prospects of the MTB-MLE policy. Hence, in view of the above findings, the following conclusions were drawn:

First, the pre-service teachers, in general, agree on the use of Mother Tongue as a medium of instruction in Grades 1-3. This indicates that they have a positive attitude toward Mother Tongue, which can be explained by the advantages that it can bring as it is popularly believed that it creates a positive impact on students and thus enhances students' learning experience and achievement. Their willingness to be trained to teach using the Mother Tongue implies that they support the implementation of the new language in education. Further, Alieto (2018) even noted that the training and discussions provided by their institutions could have conditioned the pre-service teachers to accept the idea of teaching in mother-tongue, hence establishing a positive attitude towards its implementation.

Second, there is no relationship between age and attitude, and between gender and attitude. Attitude is not in any way dependent on age and gender. Regardless of age, both male and female respondents have positive attitude towards the use of Mother Tongue as medium of instruction. Meanwhile, a significant relationship is found between place of origin (province) and attitude, implying that attitude is influenced by place of origin. Intervening factors like limited or varying levels of exposure of the students to multiple languages, diverse social and cultural settings, or ease of expressing themselves

using the Mother Tongue in both formal and informal settings among others appear to be crucial in this case. However, these results cannot be generalized and should be considerably taken with caution as these can only be true in the current study.

Finally, the many and different problems pertaining to translation of learning materials, teachers' and pupils' proficiency in Mother Tongue and in English, trainings, and development of instructional materials as perceived by the pre-service teachers imply that the implementation poses a great challenge to the educational system and to the pre-service teachers who will be future teachers. The country's inadequate preparation for the shift to Mother Tongue can directly affect the certainty of the full and successful implementation of the language program.

5. Recommendations

Based on the conclusion, the following recommendations are hereby forwarded:

1. Training in the use of Mother Tongue as a medium of instruction must be incorporated in the education curriculum to prepare the pre-service teachers in their future role.
2. Training for teacher proficiency in the use of Mother Tongue especially in science and math subjects must be provided to assist the teachers in the transition and to clarify the ambiguities in implementing the new system.
3. Translation of textbook content and other learning materials must be prioritized to support learning.
4. Design and development of instructional materials that will cater to the specific needs of the students in the regions should be properly coordinated and evaluated by experts in the fields of education and linguistics to ensure quality instruction.
5. Future studies should explore similar research in a larger scale and with varying research designs that include but should not be limited to experimentation, interview, observation, diaries, and the like to provide a clearer picture of the learner, the teacher, and the classroom.

6. Pedagogical Implications

The practical use of the study can be applied for pedagogical purposes. First, pre-service teachers, in the process of learning to effectively teach in an MTB-MLE program, must not be taught with emphasis on theory alone. Understanding theories taught in an L2 does not guarantee learning how to

teach in the L1, let alone to expect them to do what they needed to do. Hence, application of teaching in L1 in a real-world context must be demonstrated for the pre-service teachers. Second, pre-service teachers – centered activities must also be prioritized during class time in teacher education, rather than teacher educator – centered activities. This practice will encourage them to value active learning and teaching through various group activities, simulations, and practice teaching which the MTB-MLE program demands. Lastly, pre-service teachers must acquire the familiarity with and application of theories and good practices relating to using L1 and L2 as languages of instruction. This means that pre-service teachers must be trained on how to use the L1 as a bridge to subject matter content in L2. Understanding the two interrelated yet separate concepts as language learning and concept learning will enable pre-service teachers to construct feasible and effective learning goals for language learning and for concept learning. This will eventually lead to the quality production of lesson plans and lesson materials that are challenging but not frustrating at the level of language that pupils can manage.

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Analysis of Indonesian-English Code-Switching Performed by the English Lecturers in PNUP (Politeknik Negeri Ujung Pandang)

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Abstract

This research is intended to find out the characteristics of Indonesian-English Code-Switching in the conversation of the English lecturers. The code switching performed by the English lecturers of PNUP (Politeknik Negeri Ujung Pandang) are in three aspects; the switched segments, the switched points and types of code-switching. The study also attempts to identify the reasons for the lecturers switched their codes. The method used were both qualitative and quantitative where code-switching phenomena are identified, analyzed and classified into the structure evolved by Poplack (2004) and Hoffman (1991). The data are taken from the conversations of the English lecturers when they were chit-chatting at SPUP (State Polytechnic of Ujung Pandang). The findings showed that the noun phrase and single noun as the most switched segments occurred in the conversations which comprised of 64,28 %. In terms of switch points, the points where the switches occur are Indonesian preposition and the English Noun Phrase consists of 40% of the data. Concerning with the types of code-switching, it is found intra-sentential switching as the most type occurred in the lecturers' conversations, which comprised of 43,75% of the data. Relating to the reasons for code-switching taken from questionnaires indicated that most of the lecturers switched their codes because of English is simpler and more practical as 60% of the data. Since English is more or less to be used in the environment, it affects the lecturers when communicated to each other.

Key words: Code switching, switched segments , switch points and types of code switching

Introduction

Language as a communication medium plays a very important role in human activities to communicate meaning, to exchange ideas, feeling or wishes. Using language humans can convey ideas to other people, also as one aspect of total communication behavior by which a number of societies can interact with each other. Language is always changing. It is flexible. There are many thousands of languages in this world. People used many of them to communicate among others. Of those languages, a person may acquire one or more. The acquisition of various languages, two or three or four brings out language choices to be used in a community.

In the era of globalization nowadays, English is used as one of the most important languages as well as international language which is used to communicate with people around the world to share knowledge, opinions, and ideas through the medium of the internet which provide social networking system. The acquisition of two or more languages may make a community become bilingualism and multilingualism.

One of the phenomena which are happened in bilingual community is code-switching, that is the way of speaking that combines two languages in the same sentence or discourse. It is a natural process that often occurs between multilingual speakers who share two or more languages in common. Code-switching is not a strange thing for Indonesian people now, especially in big cities. This phenomenon can be much found in an electronic medium such as in television, radios, some people like leaders or politicians, entertainers, business executives, teenagers or even housewives frequently combine Indonesian and English when they are talking.

In natural conversation among English lecturers at PNUP (Politeknik Negeri Ujung Pandang), the writer has observed this phenomenon. The lecturers frequently switch their codes in chit-chatting, without being aware of it. This seems to happen naturally because the teachers habitually speak English in teaching. That habit could be influencing their way of speaking in conversation. The following example is taken from one of the teachers' conversation observed by the writer.

1. Lecturer 1: Sis A, besok jadikah kita *visit* Pak M?

Lecturer 2: Jadi, mungkin kita bisa berangkat *after the class* yah *at 12* .

Lecturer 1: Ok, nanti kita saling *contact* saja yah.

2. Lecturer 1: Laparma! *I'm so starving*.

Lecturer 2: *Let's eat then*. Kantin Bu Acha kayanya enak disitu.

Based on the background explained previously, the researcher proposes to identify and evaluate: 1) The switched segments the lecturers' code switch, 2) The point where the switch occurs 3) The types of code-switching used by the lecturers in conversation, and, (4) the reasons for the lecturers switched their codes.

The significance of the research are; 1) The findings will give some information for Indonesian people, especially for teachers and sociolinguists in concerning the phenomenon of code-switching. 2). The findings will provide a description of the pattern of Indonesian-English code-switching, especially those who switch their code from Indonesian to English. 3). The study will reveal a natural phenomenon of language development in the society.

Literature Review

There have been several studies on bilingualism and code-switching. Arifin (2018) states that although most of the studies now have shown the bi/multilingual advantage over their monolingual counterparts, there are also studies that find no coherent evidence of this advantage.

Yusuf, Y.Q, et al.,(2018) investigated the types of code-switching between Indonesian and English and vice versa in an Indonesian novel *Antologi Rasa*. The results showed that the most frequently used code-switching type in the novel was inter-sentential switching (62.3%), followed by intra-sentential switching (20.9%), tag switching (12.4%), and establishing continuity with the previous speaker (4.4%). Inter-sentential was presumed to be used the most because this type of code-switching signals bilingual proficiency and the novel does focus on readers who are adults and live in the metropolitan area. These readers are believed to be fluent speakers of both Indonesian and English. Establishing continuity with the previous speaker was the least frequently used code-switching type in the novel. This type of switching is mostly affected by social distance whereas, in the novel, most of the characters had a close relationship with each other, perhaps explaining this low frequency.

Yassi (2003) found 20 patterns of socio-pragmatic functions of Indonesian-English code-switching, such as message repetition, desire to play with a well known English expression, quotation, lack of a set Indonesian word, message neutralization etc. Yassi (2003) also found 5 strategies, which

mainly function to harmonize the sentences and utterances whenever the speakers code switch such as: to naturalize the utterances, to avoid repetition, to transform the syntactic function, etc.

Zirker (2007) conducted research on Intrasentential Vs Intersentential Code-switching in early and late bilinguals. The result shows that 26 early and late Spanish-English bilingual speakers made acceptability judgments on intra and intersentential switches. The results also indicate that there is no statistical difference between early and late bilinguals when responding to whether a mix was good or bad, and how good or bad a mix was. There were, however, trends in the results which indicate that early bilinguals may respond faster to code switches than late bilinguals, suggesting that early and late bilinguals may process language differently.

Meanwhile, Iqbal (2011) shows the findings from Urdu/English code-switching corpus, collected from universities of Lahore city, are presented and analyzed. It is investigated that while making use of code-switching, there is frequent use of different linguistic features of code-switching between Urdu and English by university teachers. It is found that intra-sentential codeswitching (37.15%) is the leading code-switched area, and code-switching at word (31.21%), clause (21.54%), and phrase (6.42%) level, being a part of inter-sentential code-switching, are the successive areas. On the other hand, inter-sentential code-switching (3.66%) makes the least of it.

A basic concept in sociolinguistics is the speech community. It can be defined as a group of people who habitually interact with each other linguistically (Hudson 1987:25). Further explanation is given by Shridar in McKay and Hornberger (1996:49) speech community is a community sharing knowledge of the rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech. Such sharing consists of knowledge of at least form of speech and knowledge of its patterns of use.

State Polytechnic of Ujung Pandang (SPUP) is one of the famous vocational campuses in Makassar. In this institution, there are a lot of people get along together. They are coming from different backgrounds. For the English lecturers in SPUP also come from different backgrounds. They are university graduates. They also come from different areas. Some are from Bugis, Toraja, Makassar, and the others are from areas outside South Sulawesi. These different origins give an impact to their interaction through language. For instance when they are talking, sometimes they use vernaculars.

Outside the classroom, the lecturers always meet and chat with each other. At SPUP, there is no strict rule that all English Lecturers must speak English all the time. However, the lecturers possess an awareness that they teach English and it means they have to always use the language. Therefore,

when they are in a conversation, they never forget to use English. They mix it with Indonesian or even vernaculars. It happens very often. Beside this awareness, this phenomenon probably can be happened because of the frequent use of English in the classroom. When the lecturers are outside the classroom, consciously or unconsciously they use some expressions from the lesson in their classroom in their conversations.

Code-switching may be defined as follows: the use of more than one language by two people engaged in a speech act (Poplack, 1980; Lipski, 1985; Gonzales-Velásquez, 1995; Myusken, 2000 cited in Zirker, 2007. p. 7). It can occur between the speakers involved in a conversation or within a speech turn of a single speaker. Code-switching involves the alternate use of two languages or linguistic varieties within the same utterance or during the same conversation (Hoffmann, 1991, p. 110). Redlinger and Park (1980, cited in Hoffmann, 1991, p. 105) say "Language mixing refers to the combining of elements from two languages in a single utterances." According to (Wardhaugh, 1990, p. 103) code- mixing occurs when conversant uses both languages together to the extent that they change from one language to the other in the course of a single utterance.

In code-switching, one language may be more dominant than others. It happens when a speaker uses one language mostly than the other in a discourse. The dominant language is termed as "matrix language" while the subdominant one is "embedded language". Thus, for example, the speakers of Indonesian-English code-switching use Indonesian more than English, then Indonesian is the matrix language (ML) while English is the embedded language (EL). Myers Scotton, 1993, cited in Halim, (2004, p. 15) define the matrix language as "the higher frequency of morphemes in a discourse".

In terms of the grammar of code-switching. Poplack's study (2004) cited in Jacobson (1998, p. 54) proposed that a model of grammar, which is governed by two constraints, could generate Spanish/English code-switching. Firstly, the free morpheme constraint, where the switch may not occur between a bound morpheme and a lexical form unless the lexical form has been phonologically integrated. Into the morpheme. Secondly, equivalence constraint. This constraint predicts that code switches will tend to occur at points where the juxtaposition of elements from to the two languages does not violate a syntactic rule of their language. In addition to grammatical constraint of code-switching, Gumperz (1998, p. 87-89) proposed permissible switch points, syntactic relationship (Spanish-English code-switching) as in the following examples (the segments under consideration are in italics) :

1. Switching is blocked between subject-predicate construction:

- My uncle sam *is the most Americanized*
- 2. Switching is blocked between noun complement construction:
 - That's the book *the one that was lost*
- 3. Switching is blocked between verb-verb complement constructions:
 - You should *go to the field*
- 4. Conjoined phrases
 - Jhon stayed at home *because his wife was at work*
- 5. Switching is blocked between verbs of proportional attitude
 - I think he went to the field

From various study of code-switching in the world. Shoji azuma (1998, p. 117) concluded, the words that can be easily code switched are those that can meaningfully stand-alone. Among them are open class words or content words such as noun, verb, and adjective.

Other segments that easily switched are conjunctions, tags and various phrasal categories (Azuma, 1998, p. 114-6) as shown in the following examples:

1. Conjunction (lingala /French)

A-li-tu-ambia, THEN tu-ka-enda
(he told us, THEN we left)
2. Adverb (Malay/English)

Where did you go PETANG INI, Zam?
(where did you go this afternoon, Zam?)
3. Adverb and tag (Japanese/English)

Soredakara, ANYWAY, asokode smoked salmon, katta no yo
(so, anyway we bought smoked salmon there)

For Indonesian, the English language is a foreign language. Therefore, English is not widely and daily used in the community. The people still have the Indonesian language and vernaculars to be used every day. English is just used in certain situations and by certain personalities.

According to Poplack (2004) and Esen (2016) classified types of code-switching into three categories, they are Inter-Sentential code-switching, which the language switch is done at sentence boundaries. This is seen most often between fluent bilingual speakers. For example: *If you are late for the job interview, işe alınmazsın..* the second is intra-sentential code-switching, the shift is done in the

middle of a sentence, with no interruptions, hesitations or pauses indicating a shift. The speaker is usually unaware of the shift. Different types of switch occur within the clause level including within the word level. Some researchers call it also code mixing. For example: *You are sleepy coğu zaman because you spend a lot of saat in your bed.*. The last type is extra-sentential, that is there is an insertion of a tag from one language into an utterance that is in another language. For example: Turkish students use some boundary words like *ama* (but) or *yani* (I mean) while speaking English. The present study supports those studies in terms of grammatical constraints by Poplack (2004), Azuma (1998) and Gumperz (1998). Dealing with the reason for code-switching, the present study in line with Hoffman (1991, p. 116) and Halim (2004, p. 77) and Tajudin (2013, p. 106) mentioned several reasons for code-switching such as; The reasons are the need to talk about a particular topic, the necessity of quoting somebody else, being emphatic about something, the essential of using interjection, the need to use repetition for clarification, the necessity of intention in clarifying the speech context for interlocutor, and the need to express group identity, desire to use English, use popular word, show tendency to use the integrated words, to show respect, and as habitual action.

Methodology

This research used a descriptive qualitative method. In this research, the writer provides a description on Indonesian-English code-switching phenomenon in order to disclose the code-switching used in terms of grammatical categories, such as, the switch segments of switching takes place, the switch points where they occurred, the types of code-switching, and the reasons of the lecturers switched their codes in the conversations at PNUP (Politeknik Negeri Ujung Pandang). The conversations were on various topics such as daily life and career.

The subjects of this research are English Lecturers in PNUP. There are 10 (ten) English lecturers from 15 (fifteen) who are selected randomly. In order to observe the code-switching which happens around the lecturers, the researcher listens and records tentatively to the conversations carried especially when they have finished teaching and go chit-chatting, in their daily conversations with others. There are 50 samples of dialogue that contain switches, the researcher randomly draws 26 switches as the sample of the data, and 6 switches taken for explaining the reasons for the lecturers to switch their codes.

The questionnaire as another instrument is also used to investigate the reasons for the lecturers switched their codes in conversations. It is needed to support the finding which is analyzed textually. There are 15 respondents (all the English lectures) who have filled out and returned the questionnaires.

In analyzing data, the researcher presents the illustration of the general patterns of syntactic features namely switched segments, switch points and types of Indonesian-English code-switching found in the lecturers' conversation. The data were analyzed by transcribing and sorting out the code-switching discourse, then putting them in a tabulated form, consisting of switch segments, switch points and types of code-switching as well as the reason for switching the codes. The frequency of occurrences then counted and described.

Findings and Discussion

- Switched Segments of Indonesian-English Code Switching among the Lecturers in Conversation

After analyzing the data, it is found 42 switched segments employed by the lecturers in conversation. It is found ten types of switched segments indicated by the data in lectures' conversation. See table 1, the table details this feature.

Table 1. Switched Segments

No.	Switched Segments	Samples Code										Total	%
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1	Single N	3	1	1	2	0	2	0	0	1	2	12	28,57
2	NP	2	2	3	0	1	2	1	1	2	1	15	35,71
3	Indep Cl	0	1	0	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	4	9,52
4	Verb P	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	4,76
5	Dep Cl	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2,38
6	Conjunction	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2,38
7	Minor Cl	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	2	4,76
8	Adj P	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	4,76
9	Idiomatic Exp	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	2,38
10	Prep. P	0	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	4,76
Total												42	100

As can be seen from the table above, the data show that single Noun and Noun Phrase as the most frequent switched segment comprising 64,28% of the data.

1. A: Posisi HEADSTAND itu berat sekali, kak. (Headstand position is quite difficult, sis.)

B: Iya yah..... (No 1, Sp 2-9)

In this example above lecturer A is talking about a kind of sport that is yoga. The word HEADSTAND is one of the pose which becomes famous and widely known, since they became the exercise used

in yoga, breakdancing and acrobatics. Even the people who have a very limited English or not at all have used and known the word. The word is rather awkward if it is translated to Indonesian “kepala diatas”, so people prefer to use the former than use the translation.

2. A: Saya orangnya “SIMPLE” dan tidak suka menyusahkan orang lain”. (I’m a simple person and don’t like to make troubles with others)
B: AWESOME (No 2, Sp 3-4)

Here, the conversation is taking in a meeting of English Lecturer. Lecturer “A” is talking about herself to lecturer B. In example no 2 the word SIMPLE has been integrated into Indonesian. This word is written and pronounced “simple”, a little bit different from the English word. The lecturer switch their codes into English when they come to such an expression because the subjects have been familiar enough with those integrated words. The word “awesome” is then mentioned by lecturer B indicates that she feels amazed and as compliment to her friend’s personality.

3. A: Saya suka SELF CONFIDENCEnya, mau tampil ke depan kelas (I like his self confidence for coming in front of the class) (No 3, Sp 1)

In the example above lecturer A is talking about one of the student in her class, switching occurs in Noun Phrase as SELF CONFIDENCE since it is known that English is more practical rather than explain them in long word (Weinrich in Tjalla, 2003:59), therefore she probably prefers to switch them.

4. A: Ke Jepang saja (Just go to Japan)
B: Tapi kayanya mahal itu Kak, I’M AFRAID WE CAN’T AFFORD IT. (but it seems quite expensive, sis) (No 15, Sp 2-1)
5. A: JUST IN CASE dikau lupa kunci lab, ada di lemari saya simpan. (Just in case you forget the lab key, I put it in the cupboard) (No 16, Sp 5).

Code-switching then occurs in the form of clauses, i.e independent Cl, dependent Cl, and minor Cl comprising 4,76 % of the data. It is exemplified in 4 (indep Cl), and 5 (minor Cl).

In example no 4, the speakers are talking about general topic; taking vacation. Switching occurs in the form of independent clause, then followed by minor clause in example no 5. It is understandable that they are English lecturers they always use English, they sometimes forget the Indonesian version. It might be happen since they rarely use the language.

The other switched segments which also show a high of occurrences are adjective, prepositional P, and verb P. It is exemplified in sentence 6 (adj), 7 (prep P) and 8 (Verb P).

6. A: Mereka ENTHUSIASTIC banget ikut lomba,... (They are very enthusiastic in joining the competition). (No 5, Sp 7)
7. A: Kalo saya begitu metodenya, DURING THE CLASS mereka tidak hanya speaking, tapi ada listeningnya juga. (I use the kind of method, during the class they're not only speaking but also listening) (No 6, Sp 3)
8. A: Jangan makan kuenya, SMELLS BAD..... (don't eat the cake, it smells bad).(No 9, Sp 9).

The data found to support the previous researchers in which a single noun and noun phrases are the most popular switches segment (Tjalla, 2003, Halim 2004). In addition to a single noun and a noun phrase, it is also found clauses. The tendency of the speaker to switch in larger constituents such as clauses probably caused by their habits. Since the subjects of the research are English lecturers, they have a good ability of English. It is proper when they switch to clauses. Another reason for the lecturer to switch their code in smaller constituents such as noun, noun phrase, adjective, adverb, and verb phrase because they found it more convenient, much easier and free to switch rather than in large constituent like a sentence. It also shows that noun, adjective, adverb, and verb are the easiest parts to be switched since they are the basics lessons in English vocabulary. Therefore, the lecturers probably also have good ability in those word classes above.

It is also found the switch of an English idiom which is shown in the following example:

9. A: Ahhh, YOU DON'T BEAT AROUND THE BUSS lha, tak usah bertele-tele. Ada gosip apakah? (you don't beat around the buss, okay? what's the news?) (No 10, Sp 1)
- B: Ada deh! Sabar yah, nanti saya cerita detailsnya.

In this example above the conversation occurs between the two lecturers which ask about the news. She is curious about what happened so here the the code-switching occurs by using idiom, then it is translated to bahasa Indonesia, for clarifying and emphasizing on the important point she wanted to focus on.

- Switch Points of Indonesian-English Code Switching among the Lecturers in Conversation

The study has found six combinations of Indonesian-English Code-switching used by the respondents. See table 2, the table details this feature.

Table 2 Switch Points

No.	Switch Points	Samples Code										Total	%
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1	Prep+NP	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	1	0	0	6	40,00

2	Eng Free Morp+Indo	0	0	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	3	20,00
3	Prep+V	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	2	13,33
4	Verb+NP	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	2	13,33
5	Aux+verb	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	6,67
6	Tag+Interrogative Cl	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	6,67
Total												15	100

In this combination the switch occurred between Indonesian preposition and noun phrase is the most frequent switch point, comprising 40% of the data. It is shown in 10 (the segments under consideration are underlined).

10. A: Di Malino bagus UNTUK OUTDOOR (It's better to have outdoor in Malino,...)
 B: Tadi kakak bilang (No 5, Sp 2-1)

In the example above, the speaker tends to code switch only the noun rather than preposition "untuk" because it belongs to closed class items, eg determiners, quantifiers, helping verbs, auxiliaries, and tense, cannot be switched.

The other combination of switch point is between English free morpheme and Indonesian bound morpheme, and between preposition and verb, comprising 20% and 13,33%. It is shown in 11, 12, and 13.

11. A: Itu bapak SENSE OF HUMOURnya tinggi sekali, hahahha, saya ketawa terus dengar ceritanya. (that man has a high sense of humour, hahahha, I kept laughing after listening his stories). (No 7, Sp 5)
 12. A: Apa ENGLISHnya ini perkedel jagung, yah? (What do you call perkedel jagung in English?)
 B: Ohh itu kalo tidak salah corn patty, namanya. (ohh If I'm not mistaken, it's called corn patty). (No 16, Sp 5-10).
 13. B: Kayanya susah kalau suruh orang lain yang handle itu. (It's rather difficult if we asked the other person to handle it).
 C: Kenapa tidak DIORGANIZE sendiri saja, Kak. (No 14, Sp 8-9)

As can be seen from the example above the switching occurs between English free morpheme humour and Indonesian bound morpheme -nya, which functions as possessor. According to Yassi, 2003 cited in Halim, 2004, p. 17 this is called naturalizing strategy. The suffix -nya plays a crucial role in the sentence in terms of both meaningfulness and naturalness of the sentence. It is arguable that the exclusion of such a suffix from the sentence of the noun phrase will risk the meaning and the naturalness of the sentence.

There are also examples which are similar to Gumperz's study found in the data they are proposed constraint; conjunction must be in the same language as the conjoined sentence and the other proposed constraint; switching is blocked between auxiliary and verb. Gumperz in (Yassi, 2003:198-199). They are exemplified in 14 and 15 below.

14. A: Kenapa itu Jalil sudah dua hari absent dan tidak ada kabar?

B: oh iya, ibu S wali kelasnya toh?

C: Sebaiknya perhatikan kembali RULEnya, WHENEVER A STUDENT DOESN'T COME TO CLASS, HE SHOULD INFORM TO THE CHAIRMAN OR AT LEAST TEXT THE LECTURER. (No 20, Sp 1,3,7)

In the example above the switching WHENEVER functions as the subordinator conjunction. It is support Gumperz' view who states that the conjunction must be in the same code as the conjoined sentence, which means after the subordinator conjunction must be followed by the same language.

15. A: Harusnya kau bilang dulu kalau mau datang, biar kita bisa PREPARE-PREPARE makanan gitu deh...

(You should tell me first if you want to come, so that we can prepare the food) (No 19, Sp 9).

In example no 15 the switching occurs in the form of verb, the English verb is pluralized in the code-switching. This also means the matrix language is dominant in Indonesian – English code-switching. In communication strategy, this is called compromising strategy as Sebba, 1998, cited in Halim, 2004, p 82. In order to achieve the goal of communication, the switching occur although the structure is ungrammatical according to the rules of grammar of one of the languages involve in the case of Indonesian – English code-switching. Yassi (2003:230) states that the speakers to compromise the Indonesian grammatical system used in the English words regardless of the fact they infringe the grammatical system. This is because the speakers do not have many alternatives to avoid such a violation. The speakers would not switch the code of the plural marker because it belongs to segment that cannot stand alone. As Azuma 1998, cited in Halim, 2004, p. 67) explains, the segment that stand alone cannot be switched.

- Types of Code-switching

The data also shows the types of code-switching used by the lecturers at SPUP (State Polytechnic of Ujung Pandang), see table 3.

Table 3 Types of Code-switching

No.		Samples Code	Total	%
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	Types of Code-switching	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
1	Intrasentential	3	2	1	2	1	2	0	0	1	2	14	43,75
2	Intersentential	1	0	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	8	25,00
3	Tag	0	1	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	4	12,50
4	Intralexical	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	6	18,75
Total												32	100

The English lecturers mostly prefer to make intrasentential switching since it is the most dominant of other types. It comprises of 43,75% of the data. The second larger is intersentential code-switching consists of 25% of the data. It is then followed by intralexical 18,75% and tag 12,50%. The intrasentential switching is the most dominant probably because the lecturers found this is easier and more practical also they have at least good knowledge in English.

The examples of both intrasentential and intersentential code switching can be seen below in 16 and 17. (The segments under consideration are underlined).

16. A: Ayomi kita SAVE MONEY TO MAKE OUR DREAMS COME TRUE.... ayo nabung yuk yuk...(Let's save money then, to make our dream comes true). (No 18, Sp 1)

17. A: Itu di Pancious enaknya es krimnya. IT'S VERY TEMPTING. (At Pancious the ice cream is so delicious. It's very tempting)

Here the switchings occurs in the form of independent clause. According to Gumperz (1988:78) code-switching repetition is used to clarify what is said or to emphasize a point. to make it clear also to avoid misunderstanding, so she repeats the English expression in the indonesian's equivalences.

The followings are intralexical in no 18, while tag switching are exemplified in 19 and 20.

18. A: Ehh ada PRINCESSnya Kak S datang! Sama siapa nak? (Ehh here comes the princess of Kak S! With whom do you come, dear? (No 17, Sp 10)

Here the speaker uses switching in the form of Noun. In Indonesian the word princess sometimes is used for calling the daughter. The speaker tends to qualify the message and specified it by addressing her friend's daughter.

19. A: Barusan datang ke pesta makanannya habis. Pestanya petinggi di sini lagi. (I've just come to a party and they ran out of the food.

B: Ahh REALLY? ARE YOU KIDDING ME? (No 23, Sp 2-3)

The conversation in no 19 is about going to party, here the speaker seemed to be annoyed because she came to the party and did not have some meals there, the lecturer B then replied by switching at the form of idiom which referred to surprising that she could not believe the situation happened at the party.

20. A: YOU KNOW, mereka sebenarnya tahu kondisinya begitu, tapi mereka diam saja. (You know, they actually realize the condition, but they just keep silent) (No 25, Sp 10).

Here the switch occurs in the form of simple clause. The verb phrase *You know* is as filler which also means that the speaker has some kind of shared knowledge with his/her interlocutor.

- The reason for the Lecturers to code-switching

The distribution of reasons for code-switching can be seen in the following table.

Table 4. Reasons for code-switching among lecturers at PNUP

No	Reasons for code-switching	The number of respondents	Percentage
1	English is more practical and simpler	7	47
2	The good proficiency of English	8	53
3	Lack of Indonesian expression	5	33
4	Just habit	7	47

It is found several reasons for code-switching among lecturers at PNUP. The finding is based on the questionnaire given to the respondents. Most of the respondents relate to the second reason, the good ability of English because English can be said as their environment. The reasons are English is more practical and much simpler, the good proficiency of English, and the lack of Indonesia expression. The variety of reasons can be said to show every lecturer's difference with their use, target, and development in English. But, they have something in a foundation. They can overcome the problem of the limited Indonesian expression by this. Therefore, good proficiency in English is the most dominant reason.

1. English is More Practical and Simple

It is said that the use of English for the words that have on single correspondence in the matrix language is more practical than explain them in long words as Weinrich,

1998 cited in Tjalla 2003, p. 59. Therefore eight respondents consider this as their reason for code switching. They probably think that they had better express their concept in English because it is shorter and their addressees are likely to understand since they are all English lecturers. Besides, if they say in Indonesian, it would sound awkward, also it is considered that the English expressions are more explicit, as far as meaning is concerned, and simpler from the view point of the word numbers. Therefore, some lecturers prefer to switch into English when they arrived at a certain word expression. Some examples can be seen as following:

1. Kalau mau jadi pengusaha, sebaiknya punya jiwa ENTERPRENEURSHIP yang bagus (if you want to become a businessman, you should have a good ENTERPRENEURSHIP skill). (No 40, sp 5)
2. Ayo jalan-jalan ke Mall MP yuk, sudah lama tak SHOPPING (Let's go to MP mall, we haven't go shopping for a long time). (No 35, sp 6-8)
3. EVENT bagus seperti itu jangan dilewatkan. (Such a good event, shouldn't be missed). (No 34, sp 6-8)

In examples above, English expressions such as ENTERPRENEURSHIP and SHOPPING used in the code-switching belong to the words specially used in business and tourism, in other words these expression are strictly technical terms, and as such they are more explicit in specifying the things or phenomena that they refer to compared with their Indonesian equivalence. For instance, the word EVENT in 3 refers to specific events such as cultural ceremonies, dances and any other cultural performing arts that are usually performed for the sake of tourism and benefit. However, when the word is translated into Indonesian, the meaning will then indicate something in more general such as sport event, accidents, fires, robbery, and the likes, Consequently, the real actual or meaning that speaker intend to convey seems to be unclear, and such as, it may create a misunderstanding. Therefore, in order to avoid such a misunderstanding between the speakers and the addressees since the message is a bit unclear, the speaker decide to use the English expression EVENT rather than its Indonesian translation by switching their code into English.

2. The Good Proficiency of English

All the respondents are English lecturers. Moreover, some of them are teaching English at English courses. Therefore, it can be assumed that the respondents have a good proficiency in English. They show their abilities through their teaching and also their conversation. They talk in English or mix their natives languages, Indonesian or vernaculars with English. Even for the sake of variation,

they use Indonesian and English simultaneously. It also becomes an encouragement for them and their students to always use English.

4. A: Bagaimana VACATIONmu? (What about your vacation?)

B: THAT'S VERY EXCITED, bos. I WENT THERE WITH MY FRIENDS (No 44, Sp 3-6).

The conversation above sounds show off. Yet it is understandable, since all the speakers are quite good in English.

3. Lack of Indonesian Expression

For most Indonesian people, English is a foreign language. Therefore, only a few of them know English well. For an English lecturers, he/she included in the letter group. English is his/her language; he/she must prepare himself/herself with good English ability to interact to other people. Since they always use English, they sometimes forget the Indonesian version. It might be happen since they rarely use the language. Therefore, their responses within a conversation usually in English, not in Indonesian.

5. A: Siapa namanya yang tugas di FRONT OFFICE,... (Who is taking responsibility at the FRONT OFFICE?) (No 31, Sp 9-12).

The word FRONT OFFICE has equivalence in Indonesian, “kantor depan”. Yet in this conversation, it will sound awkward and uncommon if the speakers use “kantor depan” rather than FRONT OFFICE”.

6. A: berapa no HPnya Mam? (What's your phone number, mam?)

B: eh biar saya MISSCALL saja. (Let me phone you, first)
(no 38, sp 2-1).

The word MISSCALL has equivalence in Indonesian which is rather long, “panggilan tak terjawab”. But not everybody knows this. Therefore, this fact makes the word MISSCALL is known better than “panggilan tak terjawab”.

For reason number 4, it relates to the respondents' ability in English. They make English as their habits. Therefore, they code-switch between Indonesian and English also habitually.

Conclusions

First, in the discussion of the switched segments, it is found the pattern of a noun phrase, single noun, and clauses as the most frequent switched segments. The clauses are an independent clause, dependent clause, and interrogative clause. This led to the conclusion that since the subjects of this research are English lecturers, they have a good ability of the language. English is their environment, they always use to teach to the students. It is proper for them to switch to the larger constituent like clause. The more frequent the use of English will form a habitual use of English. Therefore, the speakers tend to switch words in phrases and clauses.

Second, in terms of the switch points, it is found the pattern between Indonesian preposition and English Noun Phrase and between English free morpheme and Indonesian bound morpheme. This led to the conclusion that the preposition belongs to the closed class items (structural words). This is in line with Joshi, 1985 cited in Halim, 2004, p. 69 who claims that “closed class items” eg. determiners, quantifiers, preposition, helping verbs, auxiliaries, tense etc cannot be switched.

Third, in terms of types of code-switching, it is found four types that are used by the speakers: intrasentential, intersentential, tag and intralexical switching. This led to the conclusion that probably the lecturers found this is easier and more practical. They have no doubt to use English in their conversations, especially among them. All lecturers have done code-switching, even maybe only once. It is understandable since they have to keep practicing their English and they have to encourage their students to speak English. In doing so, they can speak English all the time or they can mix English with Indonesian or even their vernaculars.

In the discussion of the reason for code-switching, it is found four reasons for code-switching; English is simpler and practical, the good proficiency of English and the lack of Indonesian expressions. This led to the conclusion that in delivering their message, the lecturers have certain purposes during the interaction. To sum up the concluding points above, the researcher synthesized that the lecturers employed Indonesian-English code-switching; they have certain grammatical features that denote certain social meaning during their interaction.

For developing the study to farther research, it strongly suggested to carry out a further study aims to find out a set of English expressions that will be classified as popular English expressions used in Indonesia. In terms of conducting a similar study in the different analysis it would be much to carry out a study on conversational code-switching by using

conversational analysis approach (CA) analysis by looking at from the analysis of conversation such as overlapping, back channel, turn taking, and adjacency pairs.

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Textual Analysis of School Graffiti

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Abstract

The study unraveled the meaning conveyed from graffiti through textual analysis. Three public schools and three private schools were used in the study. There were 125 respondents who were selected through purposive and snowball sampling. A total of 263 pictures of graffiti were collected and analyzed through thematic and textual analysis. Findings disclosed that the three dominant reasons in performing graffiti are: **to express one's emotion or self-expression; to communicate a message and to get revenge or to rebel**. Essentially, the denotative and connotative meanings reveal that students' graffiti is produced solely by gang communication and partly as a claim of territoriality and a political cry to register political dissidence. The study concluded that graffiti is a manifestation of students' aggressive assertion to speak, to fight, to love and long to be recognized. It is their way of ventilating their emotions, feelings and thoughts and a show of declaring their concept of territoriality of a public place which they cannot do in formal avenues.

Keywords: vandalism, textual analysis, connotative, denotative

Introduction

Communication is a basic need. This is the reason why people choose different and creative ways to communicate. Some use verbal and non-verbal ways like talking, yelling, and shouting some communicate with visual pictures. Still others forward a mail or text, some chat using the internet while others leave a note for others to be discovered in interesting places. In any of these forms, two things are clear. First, many people use artistic expressions to give words and visuals to their thought. Second, people have a need to let people know that they exist and that they do not want to be ignored (Ong,1990).

Graffiti is a language by itself. It is a form of visual communication that expresses manifold meaning meanings. It is usually used by youth to express themselves. It may come into a form of text or symbols like drawing, or any abstract thing. This is the reason why some artists, sociologists and writers even regard a graffiti as sophisticated form of art calling it “spray –painted art” or an artistic creativity, its stylistic symbol usually on the wall (Decker & Curry,2000).

There are formal means instituted by schools to allow the students to express themselves. Notable of which are writing in the school organ or bulletin and conducting non-violent activities through the students’ organizations. Unlike these formal vehicles of self-expression, graffiti is an informal and freer way of expressing of one’s thoughts, sentiments, aspirations, concerns, preoccupations and emotions. Its authorship is private and the writers are anonymous as well.

While graffiti maybe interpreted as a form of expression, authorities in the academe view it as a menace. It is for them a destructive form of culture and it is regarded as a common problem of teachers and school administrators. Graffiti has focused primarily upon the illegality of graffiti, how it is often associated with more violent crime, how the deviant label is assigned how the culture of graffiti provokes a reaction within society, (Williams,2007). Hence school administrators are looking means and ways to eradicate graffiti in school. The prevalence of graffiti art images publication led to the publication of books and magazines entirely devoted to graffiti art and even suggested to use graffiti wall in school or public places (Synder,2006).

In secondary schools in Tuguegarao City, graffiti is seen in restrooms, benches, walls, armchairs and fences. Despite the implementation of Department of Education Manual restricting students to be involved in this kind of subculture, there are still many students becoming graffiti art writers. Year in and year out, many students are caught and penalized by school authorities. The voices of the students are constantly etched in their graffiti art writings yet school authorities failed to listen to these voices. When these voices are properly heard, then school authorities can provide positive environment where students could properly and healthily express their thoughts, sentiments and feelings.

Objective of the Study

The fundamental purpose of this study is to interpret the meanings conveyed in school graffiti and the reasons why students write graffiti. Such is done so as to listen to the inner voice of the students who want to be heard.

Methodology

Study Design

The study used the qualitative –textual analysis research design. Textual analysis is a systematic analysis of the content rather than the structure of the communication to determine the objectives or meaning of the communication.

Respondents of the Study

The 125 respondents were students who have records of graffiti in their schools. They were taken from the Guidance Office (public schools) and Prefect of Discipline (private schools) as they keep records of students. Purposive sampling was used and the criteria for selection were as follows: (1) They are still studying in the school at the time of the study; (2) They had record of performing graffiti in the school; and (3) They had done graffiti for the span of 4 years in the school where they enrolled. The study used an interview guide as the primary data gathering instrument. The first part determined the profile of the respondents. The second part would focus on the meaning/message in the graffiti. Pictures were also made as a way of documenting the graffiti in all the schools. Basically the interview guide was pre-tested in order to determine its weaknesses and to make the necessary modifications to guarantee the accomplishment of the concerns of the study.

Data Collection Procedure

Permission was requested from the Principals of the identified schools. After the approval, the researcher sought the assistance of the Guidance Counselor for the determination of the students who have committed graffiti. An examination of the records of the students was made. These were records for the past four years from SY 2010-2014. An interview with the students either individual or group was done upon invitation with the student graffiti artists in the school place of the researcher. Pictures and videos were taken from the different places or things in the identified schools.

Analysis of Data

Textual and thematic analyses were performed. The textual analysis is done in three stages : First, analysis of the rhetorical context or determination of the characteristics of the vandals; second, analysis of the textual features of the graffiti; and third, the placing the text in a new context.

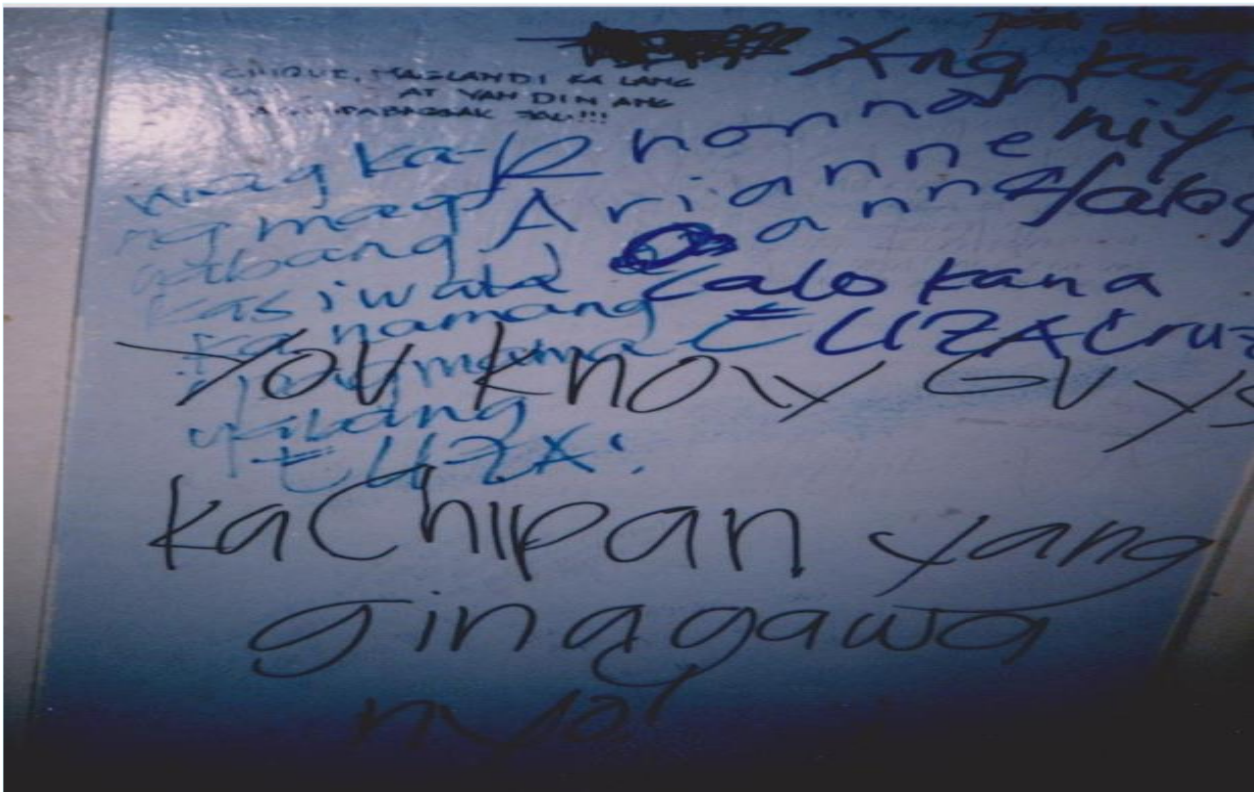
Results and Discussion

Meanings Conveyed in Performing Graffiti

Based on the interview conducted to the student graffiti writers textual features of m graffiti, the most dominant reasons for performing school graffiti are to *are to express one's emotion or self-expression* ; to *communicate a message* ; and *to be become known or famous*. Students performed graffiti as an outlet of their suppressed emotions, thought and feelings (Mcauliffe,2012). They wanted recognition of the things they do. In the results presented , men dominated the writers of graffiti. It was believed by Lomabard (2013) it is because of masculinity of men and their power in the community they belong.

To Express One's Emotions





It is through performing graffiti that students can release their state of mind, their madness, sexuality, happiness, anger, rebellion and affection. According to Wolf (2011), there are many people who feel they do not have a forum for effectively voicing their concerns and so they resort to perform graffiti or write somewhere in the school or any public places. They find graffiti as a form of relief from pressures, stresses and challenge their experience in life. The pictures of the graffiti depict the authenticity of their emotions since they did or performed the writings without reservation and with full convictions.

As a form of connection, graffiti also provides them a link with their friends, classmates, schoolmates and gangsters who are the target readers or audience of their craft. In the sense, their graffiti writings is their way of claiming their identity and belongingness. This reality is a vivid manifestation of the desire of the youth to put “personal stamp” of their school which is a part of their culture wherein to desire for recognition, search for identity and autonomy.

The presence of numerous tags among youth is a call for recognition and assertion of one’s identity. As claimed by Power (1996), the purpose of tagging is about “getting up” in as many places as possible. For the tagger recognition as a prolific writer is an important goal. Through prolificity, fame and a sense of power are acquired by how many tags a writer can complete. Power is exercised by how writers make personal claims to the surfaces they tag. The writer also feels a sense of power

by participating in an activity and culture that is so active and has such a visible effect on their physical surroundings. Taggers are also inspired to continue their exploits because of the rebellious nature of these actions. They constantly challenge the normative values of the popular culture, and as new strategies are implemented to reduce the incidences of tagging, they constantly figure new methods to counter them.

Connotative analysis of the tags in the study shows that tags are not only the externalization of the writer's identity, but in addition the only expression of their identity that is presentable in the vandalism world. Being someone in vandalism language is 'making a name'. Without the tag, the writer does not exist. Since it is strongly believed that identity is something people create rather than what people are, the tag is the identity that writers create to introduce who they are to the world.

To Communicate a Message



With this data, it can be deduced that to express one's self is the primary motive of the respondents to do writing of graffiti . This motive to write graffiti was clearly articulated by some of the respondents who said the following statements:

- *Nag-vandal ako para malaman ng mahal ko na mahal na mahal ko siya* (I performed vandalism to convey my love to my love one);
- *Nag vandal ako para malaman ng buong mundo ang feelings ko* (I did vandalism to make known to the whole world how I feel);
- *Gusto kong ipahiwatig ang aking nararamdaman sa pamamagitan ng pag vandal* (I want to express my feelings through vandalism);
- *Para maging sikat ako* (For me to be famous);

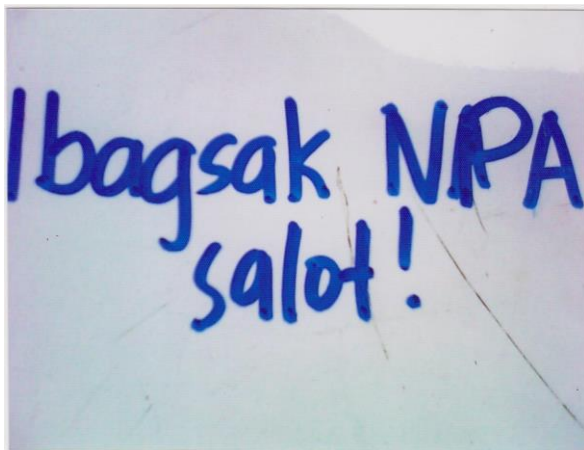
- *Gusto ko lang i- share ang aking nararamdaman* (I just want to share my feelings);
- *Para malaman ng lahat na may galit ako sa taong yun* (So people would know that I hate that person);
- *Gusto kong ilabas ang libog ko* (I just want to express my sexual desire)

The pervasiveness of school graffiti culture and its underlying reasons reveals that it is the youth's coping strategy to communicate because of the lack of less restrictive avenues for them to express themselves, be recognized and to convey the messages on a real life issues and concerns affecting them. There seems to be a need to provide avenues to develop a culture of self-expression and social environment is much desired (Moonwomon, 1992).

To Revenge or Rebel

Although the students know that performing graffiti or writing graffiti is an unacceptable behavior, they persist to do this because they are in the company of friends who allow them anything and who support them in such kind of endeavor. As substantiated by Matza (1990), the deviant behavior is legitimated or neutralized by the perpetrators or writers of graffiti. As believed by Lannert (2015), the graffiti artists do not see themselves exclusively or even primarily as a criminal. They view themselves as artists who are eager to share their craft with society or to the group they belong.

A significant facilitating factor for nurturing graffiti in this regard is the culture of silence (apathy students not to the report the writing of graffiti) among students which allow the graffiti to reside in the schools. Moreover, through an in-depth textual analysis of the denotative and connotative meanings of graffiti , it reveals that are also produce solely as means of gang communication and partly as a claim of territoriality.



The picture above underpins an example of political graffiti. This is manifested in the wall stating “ *Ibagsak ang NPA salot!* (Dismantle the New People’s Army, Menace!) This conveyed the hatred against the New People’s Army and writer is expressing a point of view to dismantle it. Perhaps, this political cry revealed the presence of the NPA movement in the province which is the underground movement in the country. It may also reveal that person had bad or tragic experience with NPA. It may also imply loose of property which the subversive movement has done to the graffiti writer either directly or indirectly.

Excellently stated by Fellows (2014), political groups take advantage of graffiti as communication because it is the safest, the most economical and highly efficient way of reaching desired audience. The message of political graffiti are fragments of truth, a hurried summary of facts that include themes associated with the labour conditions, freedom, political power, homelessness, unemployment, religious thought and civil rights.



The picture above conveys that the writer wants to oust the President of the republic. It brought to the audience a sense of dissatisfaction to the leader of the country. The dismay to the president may be accounted to the fact that there are some public pronouncements or declarations that were not realized. Dissatisfaction may spring from the lack of basic social services delivered and the poor delivery of government programs. Ousting the president may also convey that they are not politically supporting the President of the Philippines. The writer’s political belief may not be consistent with what the president was doing. It may also be that the writer is a supporter of another political party and not the party of the President

Interestingly, the study found out that the politics became also the subject of graffiti and this ignited students' deep emotions against the government and subversive groups. It basically shows the political awareness of the students. These student graffiti artists reveal the strength and depth of their convictions as regards the political reforms they want to institute in the society. Evidently, the photos shown are used to discredit the New people's Army and to impeach the President. These are political cry to register the political dissidence and express their social alienation. Long and Barke (2014) claim that political graffiti has always been inextricably linked to student protest and it may become an excuse for wanton destruction.

Generally, the recurrent themes expressed in the collected pictures of the graffiti are centered on love and sex which are expression of the concerns of the adolescents.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Graffiti is a manifestation of students' aggressive assertion to speak, to fight, to love, and long to be recognized. It is their way of ventilating their emotions, feelings, thoughts and a show of declaring their concept of territoriality of a public place which they cannot do in formal avenues. It is a way of their communication that they exist in a society where they belong.

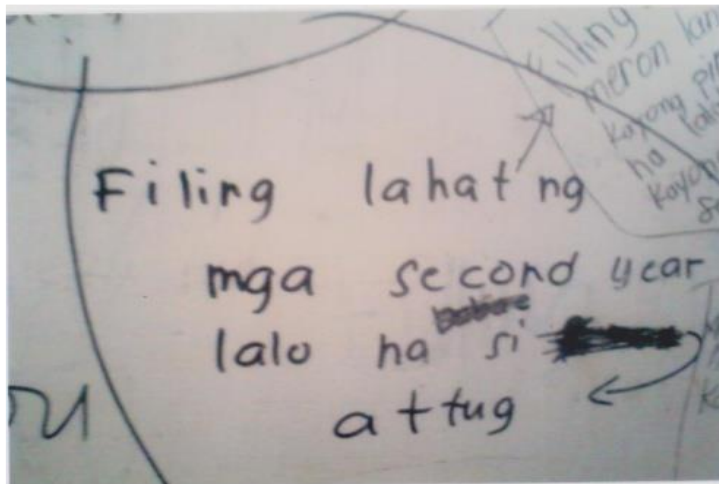
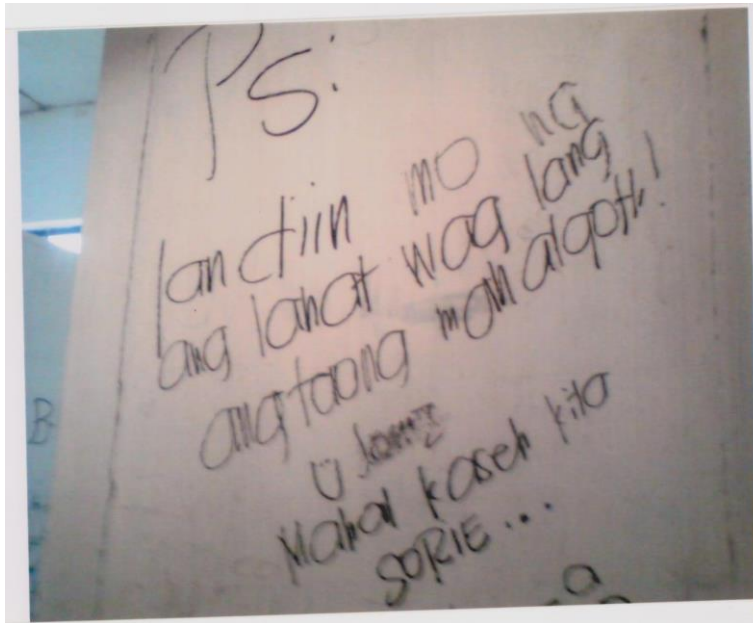
Hence, it is suggested that graffiti must be given appropriate and immediate attention by school administrators and teachers that can be formally discussed with students, teachers, parents and other stakeholders as this is a symptom of the issues, problems and concerns of the youths.

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Appendices



Jalaga aman
Eh kasi RED
ang pen ng Pentapen
Magnanakaw^{MO} From: bad
di lang mahina girl
yok iw

PAKYU KA SA
LEEG HATE
MATAY KANA





FINANCIAL MANAGEMENT STRATEGY AND ECONOMY INDEPENDENCY IN THE FISHERMEN'S HOUSEHOLDS OF BANTEN

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ABSTRACT

This research aims to know financial management in the fishermen's households of Banten. From the side of methodology, this research uses post positivistic paradigm (mixed method). The key research subjects are wives, fishermen, and other stakeholders. Meanwhile there are 135 chosen respondents, each 45 people from Teluk Village, Labuan, Pandeglang and 90 people from Karangantu, Banten Lama Village, Serang. Research time, counted since April 2016 - October

2017. The research result indicates that the role of fisherman's wife in fulfilling the household economy needs is very significant, from becoming farm workers, breeders, opening shop/stall/grocery store, becoming fish seller, process fish, sell shrimp paste, sell dried salted fish, until becoming Female Migrant Workers. From those roles done, the average of income in a month reaches 40% family needs. Meanwhile, the strategy of household financial management is done through social gathering mechanism, saving, debt, and receivables. The gathering of fisherman wives is also a momentum of education for fellow fishermen households, regarding the importance of language education, especially in English, as a catalyst for the economy of coastal communities, because capital in the form of language is believed to help the economy on the external side.

Keywords: strategy, financial management, fishermen's households, banten

1. INTRODUCTION

From 67.439 villages in Indonesia, around 9.261 villages are pesisir villages. Coastal potential and Indonesian maritime affairs per year is very abundant, reaches 6,7 million tons per year. This fact is inversely proportional with the fishermen's welfare level. The poverty in the fishermen's households become more chronic and complex. The study of Sajogyo indicates that the fishermen's households are considered poor, besides narrow farm households, farm workers, and craftsmen. Therefore, various efforts are done by the fishermen's family, one of them is by the improvement of household economic strategies which includes resource allocation efforts, especially labor in two sectors at once, which are production and non-production sector. The effort in production sector points at various household's activities in the field of production economy. Meanwhile non production effort points at the involvement of household members in various social welfare institution in society.

In poor families in villages, the involvement of all family members in earning a living is one of the efforts to survive and also is the family response to inadequate conditions. The children from poor families enter working world earlier if compared to children from well-off families. Generally, they have started working in the age of 12 years old, even can be younger than that. Besides child labor, wife's workforce is also a very helpful asset to family economy because the wives of family of fishermen workers usually have double roles, that they also work to fulfill their family living expenses.

In the previous studies, it has shown the important role of female fishermen in the survival of fishermen's households. Like Hutapea (2012) that reviews "The Role of Female Fishermen

(Fishermen's wives) Gill Nets in Improving Family Economy in Bejalen Village, Rawa Pening Swamp Waters, Ambarawa Sub-District, Semarang District". The purpose of this research is to know the income earned by female gill net fishermen in the contribution to the family income and to know the factors that affect gill net female fishermen in Bejalen Village. With descriptive method based on case study, the research result shows that the income of female fishermen averagely is able to give contribution about 37,11 percent. With lowest income detail of female fishermen are able to contribute to household's income about 26 percent. Meanwhile the highest income is able to contribute about 75,8 percent.

Other studies like what have been stated by Ekaningdyah (2005) entitled "The Role of Female in Improving the Income of Fishermen Families in Tasikagung Village, Rembang Sub-District, Rembang District, Central Java". Ekaningdyah sees the percentage of female fishermen bigger than male fishermen as a big potential to improve fishermen's income.

The position of women who had only functioned as housewives or improved as breadwinner. The result obtained from this research, that working in labor market done by fisherman's wife as a side job and also to increase income in order to fulfill daily living expenses. The contribution of female fishermen that works in fisheries sector especially fish processing workers, either scanning, drying, or making crackers in fact is quite big. This is proved from the average percentage of female fishermen contribution in family income about 38,14% - 43,47%.

Then, study of Nugraheni (2012) about "The Role and Potential of Women in Fulfilling the Economic Needs of Fishermen Families" explains that gender bias in family economic life already seems blurred because the wives are also demanded to meet family needs. By using the gender analysis approach of Harvard model and also qualitative analysis, Nugraheni sees wife participation at improving family welfare in Bedono Village (research location) is manifested in household environment, either in economy field or society. The obstacles encountered by female fishermen are less time to gather with family and take care household that also affects family harmony and children's education becomes neglected.

From some of those studies, there are some "analysis emptiness" that becomes a gap and the significance of study novelty of the important role of women in fishermen's households. Either Hutapea, Ekaningdyah, and Nugraheni, first, trapped in the woman role that is more seen as additional productive household power, so that the average research result are contribution percentage of female income for the households. Eventhough income that increases from productive business that is done by women will be in vain if not accompanied by knowledge and skill of managing household finance, then the income obtained nor can be managed well.

This is like what happened in Ponela Village (Arafah, 2013), which money that runs out for a moment and not managed properly, so that in famine season, the fishermen families are not separated from debts. Second, Hutapea, Ekaningdyah, and Nugraheni focus to see the female efforts either productive or reproductive on one level only, which is micro level. There is a bigger potential that can bring positive impact and support husband's job (male) as the main job if that financial potential can be managed well. Third, the coastal development with gender perspective becomes more important.

The majority of suggestions from previous studies are always about female fishermen productive sectors. Even though what must be considered is that female fishermen works in two functions at the same time, reproductive and productive, so that the next development plan must be really based on the needs of female fishermen. Therefore, this writing is intended to fill "the emptiness of study and analysis" about the strategy of financial management in the fishermen's households (case study of Banten fishermen).

2. METHODOLOGY

This research uses post-positivism paradigm (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000) and descriptive quantitative and qualitative approach. The research location is Teluk Village, Labuan, Pandeglang and Karangantu District, Banten Lama Village, Serang, Banten. The research time counted since April 2016 – October 2017. The main research subjects in thi research are fishermen wives and fishermen husbands (90 KK in Karangantu and 45 KK in Teluk Village). The supplementary subjects are the involved stakeholders in coastal activities.

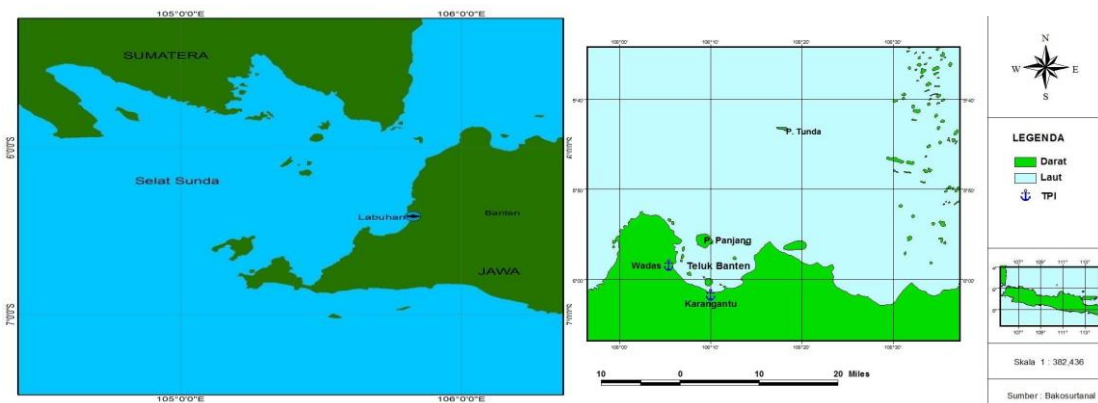
The data collection technique used are : (1) literature review: done to obtain data and information about theories and concepts about financial management of fishermen households. The documents and libraries are obtained from files, research result, books, various publications, related scientific journals with research objects. (2) in-depth interview; done in the effort to know the information about social condition, economy potential, social structure, and potential for household financial management of fishermen household in detail. (3) life history; done to obtain typical data about each ex-migrant potential; (4) FGD as a deepening form. Meanwhile, data analysis is done by using quantitative and qualitative data analysis.

3. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

3.1 General Description of Bay and Karangantu Fishermen

Teluk Village, Labuan and Karangantu, Banten Lama Village, Serang are two coastal villages in South and North Banten. Both of them are one of the biggest fishing base, especially Karangantu fishermen have historical strength with the history of Banten journey.

Figure 1 and 2. The Map of Teluk Labuan Village and Banten Serang Village



Source: Documentation, 2016-2017.

Teluk Village has an area 1,97 km² or about 12,59% from the sub district area. The total population of Teluk Village, Labuan is based on population monograph data about 5.920 lives, consisted of 2.973 men and 2.947 women. The majority of the population works as fishermen. There are two fishermen categories in Teluk village, which are local and immigrant fishermen. The immigrant fishermen generally come from the areas of Central Java Surabaya, Dadap, and Tegal.

The income of Teluk village fishermen is determined from fishing result. Besides that, the income specification is also determined by the role and total catch obtained. Therefore, it is hard to estimate their monthly income for sure. However, if roughly calculated, the monthly income of fishermen in this village are estimated to be around Rp. 1.500.000,00 – 3.000.000,00. Meanwhile, the expenditure per day are Rp. 50.000,00 – 100.000,00. Seen from education level, the majority of education of fishermen's households in Teluk village is still low. On average they only graduate from Primary School, with a very high dependency to fraud.

Figure 3 and 4. Portrait of Teluk Village Fishermen



Source: Documentation, 2016-2017.

The condition that is not much different from what had been experienced by the majority fishermen of Karangantu Banten Lama Village. Based on the data obtained, that the education level of Karangantu fishermen families are still considered low (only graduated from Primary School). Meanwhile, the daily expenses are about Rp. 50.000,00 – 100.000,00.

Table 1. Characteristic of Respondents

No.	Characteristic of Respondents	Category	f	%
1.	Education Level	Primary School	106	78,52
		Junior High School	29	21,48
2.	Total Family Members	1-3 people	54	40,00
		Above 4	81	60,00
3.	Length of Stay	15 – 40	57	42,22
		Above 40	78	57,78
4.	Length of Becoming a Fisherman	1-14 years	11	8,15
		15 – 40	51	37,78
		Above 40	73	54,07
5.	Income Level	500.000,00 – 1.499.000,00	23	17,04
		1.500.000,00 – 3.000.000,00	107	79,26

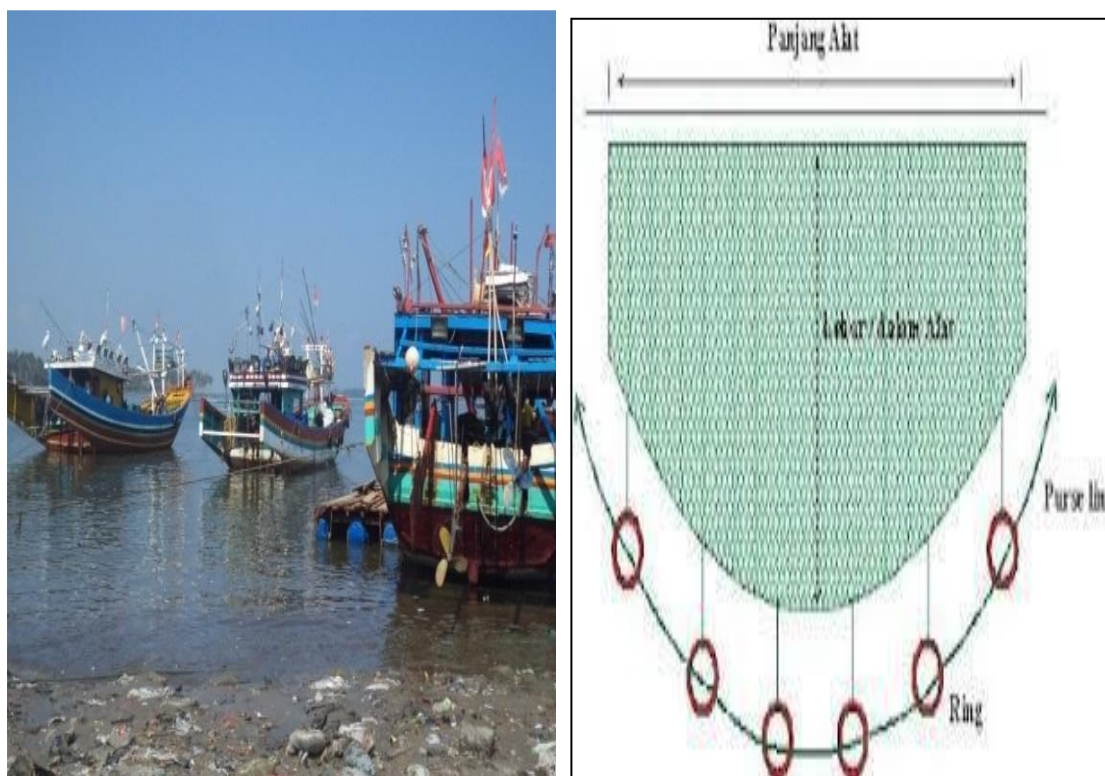
Source: Processed from field data, 2016-2017.

High and low income of fishermen families, as explained above, is very influenced by the weather condition and fishing season. There are three fishing seasons such as:

1. Peak season or east season, on this season the fishing activity reaches the highest frequency, so that it causes fish landing peak season that usually occurs in around May until August. The fishermen call it *rejuh* (the season when many fish are acquired).
2. Normal season or transitional season, on this season fishing activity done by the fishermen are at normal frequency and produce normal fish production volumes occur twice a year, which are early transition season that happens in around March until April and final transition season that happens in around September until October.
3. Famine season or west season, on this season the weather is in a bad condition so that the fishermen rarely or almost never go to sea due to safety and security so that this causes low frequency of fish landing it usually happens in around November until February. The fishermen call it *paila* season (the season when less fish are acquired).

Regarding to capture zoning, the fishing catchment area are Sunda strait waters, Java Sea, Panaitan Cape, Well, Thousand Islands, Krakatau, Rompang, Pucang Island, Kalianda, Kelapa Koneng, Karang Bawah Cypress, Item Stone. The fish type produced from catch results in those catchment areas are cobs, mackerels, red snappers, and squids. Meanwhile, the catching tool used are umbrellas, purse seine, gillnet, dogol, fishing rod, and chart.

Figure 4 and 5 Fleet and Purse Seine Fishing Gear



Source: Documentation, 2016-2017.

Box 1. Description of Purse seine Catching Tool

***Purse seine* Catching Tool**

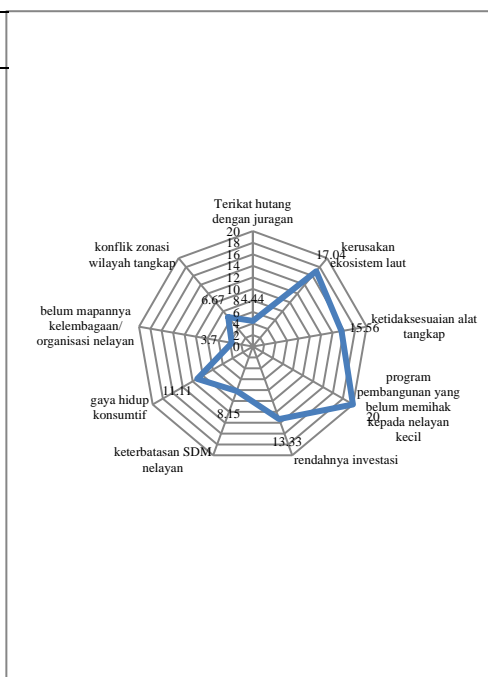
A *purse seine* ship has 25-30 labor fishermen. *Purse seine* or trawl ring is considered the type of circular net, which the operation way is by wrapping around the net to a group of fish in a waters and then pulled to the ship. The *Purse seine* used in PPN Karangantu and PPP Labuan Banten are the type of *purse seine* with the size of length 400 – 700 m² with the depth of 40 – 70 m². The mesh size used is 1 – 1,25 inch. *Purse seine* is able to survive for seven months. *Purse seine* is pulled by using the type of motor boat with the weight of 10 – 30 GT. The size of small *purse seine* operating boat kecil has the length size of 5 – 15 m²; width of 3,5 – 4,3 m²; and height of 1,5 – 4,25 m². The size of *purse seine* big size starts from the length of 16 – 23 m², width of 4,5 – 5,7 m², and height of 4,25 – 6 m². The endurance of *purse seine* operating boat is around 5 – 25 years.

Source: Processed from field data, 2016

The problem of fishermen with average low income, of course, has implications for their daily lives, which is “Two wrong don’t make a right”. Greater expenditure than income. This becomes one of the signs of fisherman poverty. In addition, other factors that also contribute to fishermen’s households poverty in those two locations such as: (1) debt bondage with the skipper; (2) damage to marine ecosystems that have a significant effect on catches; (3) incompatibility of fishing gear; (4) development programs that have not taken sides with small fishermen; (5) low investment (6) limited human resources for fishermen, and (7) consumptive lifestyle; (8) fishermen institutions / organizations are not yet established; (9) capture zone zoning conflicts. See table 2 and figure 6 below.

Tabel 2. and Figure 6. Nine Poverty Causative Factors in the Fishermen’s Households (Teluk and Karangantu)

No.	Category	f	%
1.	Tied to debt with skipper	6	4,44
2.	Damage to marine ecosystem	23	17,04
3.	Incompatibility of fishing gear	21	15,56
4.	Development programs that have not sided with small fishermen	27	20,00
5.	Low investation	18	13,33
6.	Limited fishermen human resources	11	8,15
7.	Consumptive life style	15	11,11
8.	Not yet institutionally established / fishermen organization	5	3,70



9.	Capture zone zoning conflict	9	6,67
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Σ		135	100
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Source: Processed from field data, 2016-2017.

3.2 The Role of Fishermen's Wives in Arranging Household Economic Needs

The husband's income from fishing for fishermen's households in Teluk and Karangantu Villages, Banten Lama Village ago felt to be lacking, let alone the needs of each of their families issued every day differently. This situation demands the role of the wife to work side-by-side to improve the fishermen's household economy. The activity of the fisherman's wife in working every day has become a habit, because the additional work can cover the shortage of household needs. The following are presented in table form, regarding the roles of fishermen's wives in sustaining fishermen's households economy.

Table 3. The Role of Fishermen's Wives in Helping Family Economy

No.	The Role of Fishermen's Wives	
	Teluk Village	Karangantu, Banten Lama Village
1.	Farm workers	Opening shop/stall/store in long-time tourist area of Banten Lama pilgrimage
2.	Livestock	Selling fresh fish
3.	Fish seller	Processing fresh fish
4.	Processing salted fish, <i>pindang</i> , and fish crackers	Selling dried salted fish
5.	Making and Selling shrimp paste	Making and Sellig shrimp paste
6.	Dried salted fish seller	Migration (Female Migrant Workers)

Source: Processed from field data, 2016-2017.

Outpouring of working hours of fishermen's wives per day between 10-12 hours. This time is outside the time of parenting and other domestic spheres. In addition to actively supporting the family's economic endeavors, they are also active in community activities such as pengajian, arisan, and PKK. From the roles performed, the average monthly income reaches 40% of the family's needs. Here, the

wives of fishermen have worked productively in increasing their income and the economic sustainability of the fishermen's households.

3.3 Household Financial Management Strategies Conducted by Fishermen's Wives

Governance strategies are carried out in order to maintain the stability of life in fisherman households. In this context, the wives of the fishermen play an important role in managing household finances. The financial arrangements are focused on the cost of fishing (including fuel, renewing fishing gear, and boat maintenance), children's education, the cost of eating (the need for rice a day reaches 2 kg at a price of Rp. 10,000 - 12,000 per / kg), the cost of clothing, family members' health costs, household furniture costs, assistance or donations.

For this purpose, Teluk and Karangantu fishermen rely on savings and savings mechanisms. Both of them are the main foundation for meeting the fishermen's household needs. In addition, they also rely on deposits in the form of gold, debt and receivables.

Figure 7. Financial Management Strategy



Source : Processed from field data, 2016.

The financial management strategy, first carried out through social gathering. The fishermen's wives followed the social gathering held through the Moslem Reciting Communities Institution, a group of women's organizations, and the like. The size of the social gathering varies, between Rp. 100,000.00 - 500,000.00 per month with participants between 50-70 people.

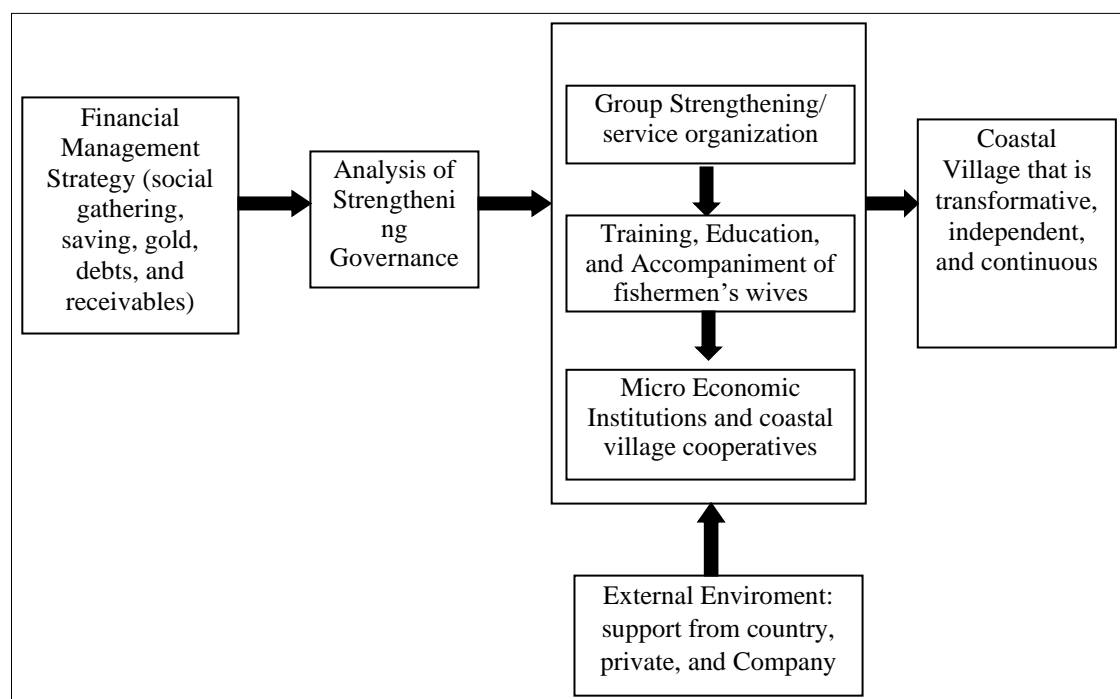
Second, saving money. Most of the fishermen in Teluk and Karangantu Village, Banten Village are reluctant to deviate their money from the Bank, only a small portion of them save their money at the Bank. The wives of fishermen in both villages are saving money in their homes (buying household appliances, etc.) and traditional institutions around them. Third, buy gold. Gold is a financial governance mechanism that is very much carried out by the wives of fishermen. As with buying household appliances, buying gold is often translated as saving money for the future. They bought gold jewelry when the harvest season arrived, while during the famine they pawned the gold jewelry to the pawnshop.

Finally, the debts between ship owners / skipper and fisherman laborers. In general, the ship owner deducts money from the fishermen's labor from the sale of the catch, and so on until the debt is paid off. There are also those who choose debts to the nearest neighbors, because the needs are increasing. However, most of the families of fishermen in the two villages carry out debts at the fishing cooperatives and shops / kiosks around the fishing settlements.

3.4 English Education Strategy of Fishermen's Household Empowerment in Conducting Financial Management

Seeing the persistence of the spirit of fishermen's wives in managing finances, maintaining stability, and the sustainability of household life, it is necessary to have the right empowerment to carry out financial management in fishermen households. this is important as an effort to encourage the development of transformative, independent and sustainable coastal villages.

Figure 8. Strategy for Empowering Fishermen's Households



Source: Processed from field data, 2016.

To realize the strategy above, after knowing the financial management carried out by the wives of fishermen, the next step is strengthening the group / organization of services; training, education, and assistance; and finally build economic development & coastal rural cooperatives. Training and education provided by the government as an effort to empower fisherman households is in the form of language education and training, specifically in English. This is the empowerment of the wives of

fishermen on the coast who are believed to be the catalyst for economic growth on the external side in order to realize a transformative, independent and sustainable Coastal Village.

Forms of education in the field of training and English language education, namely by inviting non-governmental organizations incorporated in the “Indonesian Teachers Room” community. Although the teaching method process still uses two languages between participants and teachers, this is done so that English in the community of fishermen's wives is easy to understand and continues to be effective. In a subject where the medium of instruction is English, and both teachers and learners are bilingual, a switch from the first language to the target language or vice versa can be very common and may automatically occur (Dela Cruz, 2018, p. 39). Teaching is done two meetings in one week, with the simplification of the English language competency curriculum, including:

- a. Conversation & Writing in English
- b. Vocabulary and Grammar
- c. English Business

Vocabulary acquisition is a crucial factor in foreign language learning. In general, as vocabulary skills develop, the totality of a learner’s capability to fluently speak the language increases (Pamintuan, Mallari, *et al*, 2018, p. 33). Three indicators are multi-language that will be used daily, and use an approach to the competitiveness of seafood products for the production and exports selling to overseas. So it will be easier for fishermen to sell seafood in the domestic and overseas market. It is expected that the wives of fishermen who can use dual languages can realize trading creation of export and import, through seafood products. And one of the pattern to supports Indonesian Government's program that continues to promote exports in order to improve the living standards of urban and rural communities.

4. CONCLUSION

The wife of fishermen as economic actors should not be ignored, because their potential and participation in supporting the family's economic needs is very significant. He also has a strategic position in developing the welfare of fishermen households, both in Teluk Village and in Karangantu, Banten Lama Village. Its productive efforts support the family economy which ultimately can strengthen and promote the economy of coastal communities. However, the access of fishermen's wives in business development is often hampered by gender inequalities constructed and enforced by the government. In fact, the assistance program for empowering coastal communities is more for male fishermen.

Specifically, it is necessary to empower fishermen's wives in carrying out financial management in their households. This is important, because fishermen's wives have a significant role in supporting family life. Furthermore, there is a need for fisherman financial governance institutions based on local wisdom of the local area. Meanwhile, in general, to develop a prosperous coastal community, several strategic programs need to be formulated, namely: 1) increasing the productivity of fishermen; strengthening the role of fishermen's institutionalization; 3) conservation of fish resources. Besides that, education in the field of training and English language education by “Indonesian Teachers Room” community will be held two meetings in one week, with simplification of the English language competency curriculum, including:

- a. Conversation & Writing in English
- b. Grammar
- c. English Business

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DIFFICULTIES OF ENGLISH MAJOR STUDENTS IN DEALING WITH FIGURATIVE LANGUAGE IN POETRY

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Abstract

This research aimed at determining the difficulties encountered by the third-year English major students in dealing with poetry. It also determined the prevalent figures of speech they find difficult to understand in a poetic text, their self-assessment learning in figurative language, the importance of learning figures of speech and the strategies they believe to be effective in teaching and learning figurative language in poetry. The study involved 75 third year English major students attending literature classes in the first semester. A survey questionnaire was used as main instrument. Data analysis showed that 100% of the respondents encountered difficulties in poetry and 83% said that it is due to language style. They have positive attitudes towards the importance of figurative language to develop their mental, verbal, and writing skills and to understand literature and diversity. Students process figurative language through dictionary use and contextual clues.

Key words – Figurative language, difficulty,

Introduction

What poses a real handicap for the learners is not poetry itself, but it is likely to be the figurative language chunks in poetry (Bouali, 2014). Because figurative language is replete with connotative meaning, it becomes doubly hard for the learners to understand the text if the differences of these are not clear.

To thresh out these difficulties encountered by students vis-à-vis the understanding of poetry, the study was conceived to give light to these complications.

1. What are the difficulties encountered by the English major students in dealing with poetry?
2. What are the prevalent figures of speech do they find difficult to understand?
3. How do the students assess their ability in dealing with figurative language in poetry?
4. What learning skills do the respondents develop in studying figurative language?
5. What relevant strategies do students employ to help them understand figurative language?
6. In the perspective of students, what are the effective strategies to be used by their teachers when dealing with poetry?

METHODOLOGY

The researchers used descriptive method to describe the difficulties of the students in dealing with figurative language in poetry through a survey questionnaire. The questionnaire used was adopted from Amina Boauli (2014) where the researcher has given the priority to the use of a structured questionnaire “in which there are definite, concrete and pre-determined questions.” The questions presented were modified and localized to make it relative to the students. Hence, the questionnaire sheet consisted of open-ended questions, close-ended questions and mixed questions and has been designed in a structured format. It consists of 14 questions modified and aligned accordingly with the objectives of the study. The questionnaire was pilot tested to the Senior High School students of Cagayan National High School, where it was validated and critiqued by the Master Teachers of said school.

RESULTS and DISCUSSION

Difficulties respondents encounter in poetry

Starting from the least, 12 respondents or 16% assert that they hardly understand poetry because of inappropriate selection of the poems. One factor could be because the length of the text

where Duff and Maley (1990) found in their study that students feel frightened to have to work with long texts yet there are also some who find shorter texts more difficult to handle with since shorter texts provide a limited contextual support which can help them understand it better. This implies that although selection of literary pieces is already in the syllabi, teachers have the great part to cater to the needs of their students through asking them what literary pieces the students want to add aside from the designed course outline. Cross-cultural differences ranked second where 29 respondents or 39% admit that such difficulty is propped to their incapability to assimilate the cross-cultural divergence between their own culture and the target language. It strengthens the study of Duff and Maley (1990) that cultural factors might present difficulties to the point of making it clearly impossible for an outsider to fully understand and share the scope of references of an insider. This denotes that setting or presenting a brief background about a certain literary piece is of great help for the learners to fathom its meaning.

Language difficult style is on top among the perceived difficulty where 62 respondents or 83% agreed that it is the chief difficulty that they encounter since some poems are characterized by tough poetic style, words polysemy and the linguistic deviation of the figurative languages. This corroborates the study of Savvidou (2014) that the reason

Language difficult style is on top among the perceived difficulty where 62 respondents or 83% agreed that it is the chief difficulty that they encounter since some poems are characterized by tough poetic style, words polysemy and the linguistic deviation of the figurative languages. This corroborates the study of Savvidou (2014) that the reason why students often feel that literary language exploits and even distorts the language is because its creative use is far from the conventions of Standard English.

Table 1. Difficulties of the Respondents in Understanding Poetic Genres

Difficulties in Dealing with Poetry	Frequency	Percentage	Rank
Language Difficult Style	62	83%	1
Cross-cultural differences	29	39%	2
Inappropriate selection of the poem	12	16%	3

n.b. Multiple responses

Bar Graph 1. Difficulties of the Respondents in Understanding Poetic Genres

Prevalent figures of speech that are difficult for the respondents

Knowing that they consider figurative language as the premier factor that hinders them to understand the poetry, Table 2 below shows the prevalent figures of speech that respondents find difficult.

Table 2. Prevalent Figures of Speech Learners Found Difficult

Figures of Speech	Frequency	Rank
Chiasmus	39	1
litotes	34	2
paradox	32	3
Pun	28	4.5
antithesis	28	4.5
synecdoche	25	6.5
allusion	25	6.5
oxymoron	23	8
euphemism	22	9
metonymy	20	10
anaphora	16	11
rhetorical question	13	12
understatement	11	13
Irony	8	14.5
apostrophe	8	14.5
Climax	4	16
personification	3	17
hyperbole	2	18
metaphor	1	19
Simile	0	20

n.b. Multiple responses

Bar Graph 2. The Prevalent Figures of Speech t

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n.b. Multiple responses

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metaphor	1	19
Simile	0	20

n.b. Multiple responses

Interestingly, chiasmus can be the most difficult because only few poets use this device whereas in the study of Brad McCoy- “*Chiasmus: An Important Structural Device Commonly Found in Biblical Literature*”, one scholar noted there that “On [both] micro and macro levels chiasmus has been shown to be a basic element in the formal structure of biblical literature.” In an important work on biblical interpretation entitled *The Hermeneutical Spiral*, Osborne affirms the strategic importance of chiasmus in biblical literature: “[A] technique that highlights major themes [in the Old Testament writings] is

chiasm, which reverses words or events in successive parallel clauses or sections.” He goes on to affirm, “Chiasm is also found frequently in the New Testament.” An example of this is Matthew 6:24:

A *No one can serve two masters;*
 B *for either he will hate the one*
 C *and love the other,*
 C’ *or he will be devoted to one*
 B’ *and despise the other.*
 A’ *You cannot serve God and wealth.*

With this information, it can be inferred that the reason why students fail to identify this is because this is unfamiliar to them especially to those who do not read much their bible.

Students’ self-assessment of their figurative learn ability

With the data provided below, the srespondents were asked to assess their ability in dealing with the poetic figurative devices. The result is as follows:

Table 3. Students’ Self-Assessment of the Figurative Learn-ability

Self-assessment	Frequency
Poor (1)	0
Very Bad (2)	0
Bad (3)	2
Average (4)	35
Good (5)	31
Very good (6)	7
Excellent (7)	0
TOTAL	75
Over-all mean	4.57 (Good)

Pie Graph 1. Students' Self-Assessment of the Figurative Learn-ability

In the self-assessment, a scale was used to describe their abilities having 1 as Poor, 2 as Very Bad, 3 as Bad, 4 as Average, 5 as Good, 6 as Very Good and 7 as Excellent. 2 respondents assessed themselves bad; 35 average; 31 good; and 7 very good. Furthermore, Pie Graph 3 shows that most of the respondents or 47% of them said that they are average learners, 41% good learners, 9% very good learners while 3% being weak learners.

Going back to Table 3, it yielded an over-all mean of 4.57. Based on the scale, the mean 4.57 falls under Good. Therefore, English major students believe that they are good in figurative language in poetry. Contradicting to the study of Boauli (2014) where the respondents are average, it can be because it depends to the level of her respondents wherein they are the students taking Literary Studies in their first year at University of Tlemcen compared to the respondents of this study who are already in third year earning much units of literature subjects.

Skills developed by learning figurative language

According to their responses, figurative language in general aids them in enhancing their language and literary skills as shown in the table and bar graph below:

Skills developed by learning figurative language	Frequency	Rank
Understanding of literary texts	71	1
Writing skills	60	2
Verbal skills and fluency	52	3
Mental skills	51	4
Cross-cultural understanding	28	5

n.b. Multiple responses

Bar Graph 3. Skills Developed by Learning Figurative Language

Table 4 and Bar Graph 4 clearly show the effectual benefits of learning figures of speech of the third year English major students of Cagayan State University –Andrews Campus. Through learning figures of speech, they can foster their mental skills, writing skills, verbal skills and fluency, understanding of literary texts, and cross- cultural understanding. Based on the survey, top on the list is it develops one's understanding of literary texts with 71 out of 75 respondents. This bolters the idea of Boers (2000) in his text "*Enhancing metaphoric awareness and vocabulary retention*" that figures of speech is the map that guides the readers to better understanding. Apparently, Waggoner et. al.

(1985) and Doan Ha (2015) both agreed to the idea that metaphoric awareness can be a way of sharpening basic reading skills as well.

Not far from this, respondents also believe that learning figures of speech will mold them to be proficient in using the language in honing their writing skills wherein 60 respondents agreed to it while 52 respondents noted that learning figurative language is an avenue for the betterment of communication- verbal skills and fluency. This settles to the response of a student in Devet’s (1988) study saying he found the literary piece more helpful because it made him see the effect of such writing tools on the piece that will enhance his writing skills. This sustains the conclusions of Phillips (1986) which was also cited by Bush (1993) that literature was extremely beneficial, particularly with regard to technique, sentence length, and sophistication, and also suggested that literary materials be used regularly to further student language development.

Interestingly, 51 informants asserted that the study of figurative language develop mental skills. Boauli (2014) emphasized that poetic languages require metacognitive skills because of the puzzles need to be solved to completely visualize its possible meanings. The implication is that the increased use of figurative language skills will generate a stronger thinking ability among learners.

Lastly, 28 respondents affirmed that learning figures of speech is also an eye opener to understand different cultures. Hence, this support the stand of Boers (2004) that figurative language awareness as the ability to recognize the underlying themes and cross-linguistic variety in the linguistic instantiations of figurative expressions. Above all, the benefits that figurative language can give is important not only because they are English majors but because they need these skills to become a well-molded English intellects who will also mold English learners in the near future.

Strategies helpful in learning figurative language

Learning figurative language involves important processes that will help the learners understand figurative expressions.

Table 5. Learners’ Strategies to Understand the Figurative Language

Strategies	Frequency	Rank
Using dictionary meaning of words	68	1
Depending on the context of the poem	56	2
Using mental skills	35	3
Translating to first language (L1)	30	4
Negotiating the meaning with the teacher	25	5

n.b. Multiple responses

Bar Graph 4. Learners' Strategies to Understand the Figurative Language

Table 5 and Bar Graph 5 show the strategies of the learners to understand figurative languages. Sixty eight (68) respondents use dictionaries, 56 respondents depend on the context of the poem, 35 respondents use their mental skills, 30 respondents translate in their first or native language and 25 respondents negotiate with the teacher to know the meaning of it. Their understanding of figurative language relies primarily in the use of dictionaries as it ranked first in the list. It can be perceived that to understand the meaning of it, learner's vocabulary is important and looking through the meaning of the unfamiliar words that constitute the figurative language can aid understanding as Wang (2014) averred. It is also useful for the students to look for the contextual clues that may help them which also supports the study of (Suleiman, et. al. 1995) that this is an important concept because language is not used in vacuum; it is used in a sociocultural context that determines meaningful and mutual understanding among participants in the communicative situation.

However, the least strategy that the respondents use is negotiating it outspokenly with the teacher .

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Table 6. Learners' Suggestion to Overcome Difficulties

	Frequency
Read more	11
Paraphrase poems	4
Use figures of speech in writing literary pieces	3

To enumerate, students should not stop reading because it will widen their horizons in learning not only literally but figuratively, paraphrase poems to easier words to understand them especially if

poems are in English of the older versions, and use figures of speech in writing literary pieces this way, they will be able to master the figurative language by applying it.

Effective strategies to be used by teachers from respondents’ perspective

The respondents believe that there are customary strategies that their teachers should do which are timely and relevant to their needs as 21st century learners. The table and graph below show the strategies they believe to be beneficial in teaching and learning poetry:

Table 7. Effective Strategies in Teaching Poetry as perceived by students

Strategies	Frequency	Rank
Talk it out	48	1
Group collaborative work	45	2
Different activities and exercises	43	3
Providing visual aids	18	4

n.b. Multiple responses

Bar Graph 5. Effective Strategies in Teaching Poetry as perceived by students

The suggested strategies were talking it out, providing visual aids, group collaborative work, and different activities and exercises. Students are allowed to choose more than one. The most preferred strategy by the students is talking it out with 48 students responding to it. This backs Bouali’s (2014) findings that a more student-centered method in learning where the teacher initiates verbal interaction within the class create more opportunities to further discussion and for negotiating the meaning of the poetic text. That is, they are comfortable discussing it with their teacher in a conversational manner in explaining the words or phrases that are figurative in form. For example, the teacher doesn’t immediately reveal the meaning of it to let his students think then he will elicit ideas from them. The teacher as the moderator will guide the students in the point of generalizing it so that they can come to a point of understanding. Collaborative work came in second, with 45 respondents acceding, which allows them to work in group or discover things through their concerted efforts. Forty three of them enjoy different activities and exercises that the teacher is introducing. Klippel (1984) as cited by Dalton (2006) came up with the statement “The students’ curiosity leads can be aroused by texts or pictures containing missing pieces which lead them to find out, to put right or to complete.” Group works and differentiated instructions are the characteristics of Outcomes-Based Education and

this is what the curriculum has designed: to create an interaction within the class while learning in the most conducive and free-willing atmosphere.

Table 8. Other Suggested Strategies for Teachers (accdg. to the respondents)

	Frequency
Cite more examples	15
Use songs as springboard	6

Respondents also added that citing more examples and integrating songs or making it as springboard are of great help as well.

CONCLUSION and RECOMMENDATIONS

Learning figures of speech helps students easily grasp the main or central idea of the texts as well as it serves as their avenue to be competent in using the language and hone their writing and communicative language. It is also their way to enhance their mental skills as well as understanding and exploring diverse cultures.

Based on the findings and conclusion, the researchers posit the following recommendations:

1. Different pedagogical figurative oriented activities and figurative-based tasks such as integrating songs as springboard that are best appropriate in teaching poetry and figures of speech will help teachers in capturing the interest of their learners to make the teaching –learning process more engaging.
2. Students should not just acquaint themselves in learning the commonly used figurative languages such as simile, metaphor and hyperbole but they should also endeavor themselves to learn and use the more difficult ones such as chiasmus, litotes, paradox etc.
4. Engaging in reading literary texts will widen their vocabulary for it is one of the emphasis of poetry. The wider the vocabulary the more the students understand the in depth meaning of the poem.
3. Students should engage themselves in reading literary texts for it is one avenues in improving Higher Order Thinking Skills.

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