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Demotivating Factors in English Language Learning: The Case of Pakistani Undergraduate Level Students

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Keywords: *Motivation, demotivation, Pakistani English language learners, first language interference*

Abstract

Research in various contexts has established that motivation plays a key role in foreign/second language learning. On the other hand, demotivation has detrimental effects on language learning process. Xie (2020) and Bower (2017) state that a major portion of relevant literature has examined language learning in relation to motivation. Likewise, Addison & Brundrett (2008) lament that the relationship between demotivation and language learning has not been given that much attention. In other words, far less attention has been paid to this topic at national and international contexts. An understanding of the interaction between motivation and language learning alone may not thoroughly explain the language learning process. Thus, it seems pertinent to study demotivation and language learning. Thus, this study intends to contribute to the research by exploring the perceptions of Pakistani undergraduate EFL university students about the factors that may be responsible for their demotivation in terms of English language learning. The study employed semi-structured interviews to collect comprehensive and in-depth data. Interviews were conducted with 18 EFL students. The data were analyzed through exploratory content analysis. On the basis of data analysis, contributors to students' demotivation have been divided into five main areas: learner-related factors, teacher-related factors, classroom-related factors, linguistic-related factors, and socio-cultural-related factors. The findings suggest some factors responsible for students' demotivation such as: negative attitude towards native speakers, lack of educational facilities, L1 interference, home environment, value in society, mixed-gender classrooms, previous English education,

and students' parents, all of which, to the best of my knowledge, appear new in this field. Moreover, the study highlights that only personal and classroom-related factors may not lead students to demotivation but rather socio-cultural factors may also affect students' motivation levels. Additionally, a model of demotivating factors has been proposed. Theoretical and pedagogical implications are discussed and suggestions for future studies are offered.

Introduction

Proficiency in English is crucial for securing a good job in Pakistan. Consequently, parents invest a lot in the English education of their children. Hence, teachers, policy-makers, material developers and other stakeholders try to investigate the factors (e.g. motivation) that affect English learning positively and factors that have negative impacts (such as demotivation) on students' language learning. I think motivation could be one of the strongest predictors of students' success in language while demotivation may seriously hamper students' progress in studies.

Motivation has always been having vital importance in the field of language learning and teaching. That's why many teachers strive to have motivated students who show strong willingness to achieve their targets. Many researchers such as Kim & Kim (2016) concluded that it is very important for the teachers, students and parents to have an understanding of motivational and demotivational processes regarding language learning. It could be because of the complimentary nature and role of these two factors in a classroom setting. It appears that students who are more motivated could have a better willingness and more participation in learning tasks and positive attitudes towards language than those who are demotivated.

Likewise, Masgoret & Gardner (2003) found that motivated students are committed, persistent, attentive to learning tasks, have reinforcement from success, use various techniques to achieve aims and enjoy the learning activities. In order to highlight the importance of this issue Haryanto & Mukminin (2012) state that motivated students have strong and mature outlook towards language learning than demotivated individuals. Dornyei (2003) states that a motivated student maintains a positive environment in the class while a demotivated student can affect his/her classmates and can influence the overall persona of a classroom. Keeping in view the above description, an understanding of these two factors is necessary for an effective and productive language learning. Since motivation has been studied quite at length (Kim & Kim 2016; Xie, 2020), the current work will study the darker side of motivation i.e. demotivation.

Rationale of Choosing this Topic

A review of literature suggests that most of the studies of language learning pay attention to language students' motivation. In the words of Dornyei (1994), major portion of literature has solely focused on the relationship between motivation and language learning. However, an understanding of motivation alone may not adequately explain foreign language learning and teaching problems and their treatment therefore, it seems pertinent that demotivation as a possible cause for poor language learning needs to be explained, investigated, described, and understood. Thus, the current work attempts to fulfill this aim. Another reason for attempting this topic is that although students learn English as a compulsory subject at various academic levels, many students do not seem very much interested and motivated to learn English. Even some students state that their interest in English has been lost. It means that they have turned demotivated. Thus, it is evident that demotivating factors have a key role in language learning contexts. Nonetheless, some researchers such as Addison & Brundrett (2008) lament that demotivation as a possible factor affecting language studies has not been given that much attention. This suggests that literature in terms of demotivation is scarce, hence there appears a need to have a critical look at this factor. Finally, most of the studies in this field have focused on postgraduate students while the current study investigated the perspectives of undergraduate level students.

Research Question

What are the possible factors that demotivate Pakistani Undergraduate Level Students in English language learning?

Significance of the Current Work

Keeping in view the lack of research in the field of demotivation, it is hoped that the current work can be helpful for language teachers and students. Moreover, the current work may offer implications that could give insights to policy makers and material developers and in turn, the steps could be taken to eliminate or at least minimize demotivating factors so that more productive learning may occur. Finally, this study could contribute to literature by offering certain theoretical implications.

Since my context is Pakistan, all of the procedures such as importance and rationale of the topic, a review of literature and implications…etc will be highlighted keeping in view the context. For example, review of studies will be connected to Pakistani context and those studies will be reviewed whose findings may be generalized to our context. Likewise, recommendation

for further studies will be presented keeping in view the context. Finally, implication will be offered in light of the academic, pedagogical, and behavioral practices and trends in Pakistan.

Literature Review

Motivation or demotivation are affective factors. These factors are basically part of an individual's personality and have strong effects on students' language learning. In the 1960's, research in the field of motivation started and researchers such as Dornyei, Lambert and Gardner played a key role in this field. It is also noteworthy that researcher are divided over the definition of motivation because of the complex and multifaceted nature of this variable.

Definitions of Motivation, Demotivation and Amotivation

Longman dictionary (2007) defines motivation as "Eagerness and willingness to do something without needing to be told or forced to do it." This definition seems quite general thus I prefer to provide a definition of motivation in terms of language learning. According to Dornyei (2003), motivation is a driving force behind carrying out any activity or task wholeheartedly and with great interest and willingness.

On the other hand, Dornyei (2001) defines demotivation as "specific forces that reduce or diminish the motivation basis of a behavioral intention or an ongoing action" (p. 143). Likewise, some other researchers have their own definitions of this factor. we think demotivation could be defined as a factor that has negative effects on students and prevents them from achieving desired goals. Some researchers (such as Falout & Maruyama, 2004) argue that demotivation is not caused simply by external forces but there could be certain internal factors (e.g. anxiety, lack of confidence) as well.

Another similar term is called 'amotivation' that means "the relative absence of motivation that is not caused by a lack of initial interest but rather by the individual's experiencing feelings of incompetence and helplessness when face with the activity" (Deci and Ryan,1985:144).

Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model explains the relation between motivation and other individual differences in language acquisition. He highlights three factors: integrativeness, attitude towards the learning context and motivation to learn second language. On the other hand, Deci and Ryan (1985) argue that motivation is of two types: intrinsic and extrinsic.

It implies that motivation is a force that pushes the learner to go ahead, accept challenges willingly, achieve the expected outcomes and enjoy success. While demotivation reduces students' willingness and drags them back. We also state that there could be certain internal (e.g. attitude, self-esteem…etc) and external factors (such as course related stuff, teaching

methodologies, environment…etc) that may demotivate the students and in turn, their motivation goes down and that can eventually affect their accomplishment. There seems a difference between demotivation and amotivation. It appears that amotivation may not refer to lack of interest but to feelings of incompetence and helplessness in any activity. we think demotivation means that students' motivation reduces while amotivation may mean a complete absence of motivation. If a student was initially motivated but he/she lost his/her motivation due to any factors, it means he/she is now demotivated. In turn, he/she might lose his/her commitment, can't understand lessons and eventually fail to achieve desired objectives. However, it is noteworthy that even still some positive factors may be present as still the student may consider learning of English important to future. Nonetheless, a student with amotivation may think that there is no benefit at all.

Review of Studies in International Contexts

As mentioned above, the focus of most of the studies has been on motivation and there is a scarcity of research in the field of demotivation. However, I have gleaned various studies from the literature to review. For example, Falouta et al., (2009) aimed to investigate the causes of demotivation through administering a questionnaire to 150 Maxican university students. The findings of this study offered two categories as sources of demotivation: external factors related to learning context and internal factors related to the learner. This study contributed to the literature because it not only highlighted external but also internal factors that may influence demotivation of students.

Another more comprehensive quantitative study was conducted by Trang & Baldauf (2007) with 500 Vietnamese university students. This aimed to investigate the reasons and degree of demotivation and also the strategies of the students to overcome their feelings of demotivation. The study found that some of the sources of demotivation were related to language learning context, some to teacher teaching methodologies, some to teacher behavior and some to students' personality. Also, the study found that one of the major techniques used by students to overcome demotivation is to inform themselves that they are capable and have the ability to overcome their demotivation. Similarly, Zhang (2007) undertook a qualitative study in the USA and reported that teachers' incompetence, boring lectures, unfair evaluation, and confusing information led students to demotivation.In the same vein, Keblawi's (2005) study with Arab English students concluded that major cause of students' demotivation was teacher's faulty teaching style, authoritative personality, scoring system and impractical teaching

material. Similarly, Takako (2005) found that teachers have a strong effect on the students' feelings of motivation and demotivation.

Another interesting study was conducted by Kojima (2004) with 198 school level learners in Japan. The study was qualitative. It concluded that students' irrational beliefs about themselves, difficulties in terms of grammar and vocabulary, discouraging attitude from the teacher and other class fellows and feelings of insecurity led students towards demotivation. Similar findings were highlighted by another study conducted by Kikuchi and Sakai (2009). This study conducted interviews with 5 students and administered an open ended questionnaire to 47 students. The research reported that uninteresting content, unfair scoring, non-communicating language teaching methodologies, teacher's incompetence, and authoritative style, and lack of educational facilities created the feelings of demotivation in students. Another qualitative study was carried out by Hasegawa (2004) by interviewing 125 high school and 98 intermediate level students. This study is particular in a way that it specifically asked a question whether the students were demotivated or not. One of the major demotivator was reported as unkind teacher behavior.

Another different study was conducted by Maruyama (2004) with 64 college students of English. This study is interesting because it divided participants into two categories: higher and lower proficiency students. The data was collected through a questionnaire that showed that both groups reported lack of confidence and negative attitude towards learning English as the main sources of students' demotivation. Another comprehensive and groundbreaking study was conducted by Dornyei (2001). The researcher interviewed L2 students and reported nine factors responsible for students' demotivation: English as a compulsory subject, instructor, lack of self-confidence, negative attitude towards L2, L1 interference, attitude towards native speakers, course contents and academic facilities. There are various other studies on demotivation such as Chambers (1993), Oxford (1998) and Ushioda (1998). These studies collected data through interviews and questionnaires and highlighted instructor-related factors as a major cause of students' demotivation. Chambers (1993) administered a questionnaire to 500 undergraduate students in the UK and reported that students' lack of trust in their capabilities, laziness, and unwillingness to study lead students to demotivation.

Likewise, Gorham and Christophel (1992) interviewed 20 students and concluded that reasons for students' demotivation include boring content, less interesting method of teaching, dislike for the subject, anxiety, negative and discouraging classroom environment, negative behavior from the teacher, negative attitude of classmates, threating classroom environment, and old methods of language teaching. Sharififar and Akbarzadeh (2011) administered a questionnaire

to 53 Irani university students and found that three major factors were responsible for learners' demotivation: instructor related, student related and learning context related.

Review of Studies in Studies in the National (Pakistani) Context

Some studies on the topic of demotivation have been carried out in Pakistan. For example, an important and interesting study was conducted by Ali (2016). An overall aim of this study was to investigate the ESL student' motivation and attitudes towards English. The study used a mixed-method research design. The questionnaire was administered to 500 students while 26 students were interviewed. One of the major strengths of this study was using factor analysis. The study reported three main causes of students' demotivation namely learner-related variables (such as anxiety), teacher-related factors (e.g. teacher behavior) and classroom-related factors (e.g. classroom environment).

Ahmad et al., (2011) conducted an exhaustive study in Pakistan. The sample of this study represented provincial government schools and eight federal government schools of Abbotabad, Haripur, Kohat, Mansehra, Malakand, Mardan, Nosherha and Peshawar recruiting 654 students of class 10. This study is interesting because it highlighted language related factors that were found responsible for students' demotivation. The study found that short vocabulary and difficulties faced during vocabulary learning, differences between the grammar rules of L1 and L2 (such as in narration, conjunction, prepositions, articles, sentence structure). grammar translation method and lack of speaking practices caused demotivation in students.

Contribution of the Above Reviewed Studies to the Existing Body of Knowledge

One of the main contributions of these studies is that these enhance our understanding of motivation and demotivation. Secondly, although results of these studies could be somewhat different, they highlight the complex nature and role of these variables in language classroom. Thirdly, they refer to the point that demotivation is context-bound and could be affected by various social and cultural factors and thus it should be investigated in various contexts to understand it comprehensively. Similarly, the above studies highlight that on one hand, motivation plays a vital role in successful language acquisition, demotivation may hamper students' progress and it should, therefore, be given a due attention. Another insight gained through the above studies is that a solid framework is needed to understand the causes for demotivation and factors that could motivate students. Finally, review of literature suggests that teacher is one of the major contributors to students' demotivation. Thus, it is up to the teachers to take required steps to boost students' motivation.

Research Design

Instrument

The study utilized semi-structured interviews to collect the data. Since this study aims to investigate the perceptions and views of the students regarding the topic in hand, interviews appear the most suitable tool. In other words, interviews help the researcher explore the participants' subjective feelings and provide a more comprehensive and thorough account of the problem. The interview guide was informed by previous literature, relevant tools, and aims of the study. Moreover, interview protocol was piloted before conducting actual interviews.

Sample and data collection procedures

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with 18 undergraduate students. All of the ethical considerations were taken into account when collecting the data. The interviews were tape-recorded with the consent of the interviewees.

Analysis of the Data

Exploratory content analysis technique was used to analyse the data. I followed three steps: data reduction, data display, and conclusion highlighted by Miles and Huberman (1994) regarding the analysis of qualitative data.

Analysis and Discussion

The findings highlighted five main areas representing various factors that may demotivate students: namely, learner-related factors, teacher-related factors, classroom-related factors, linguistic-related factors, and socio-cultural-related factors (c.f. fig. 1)

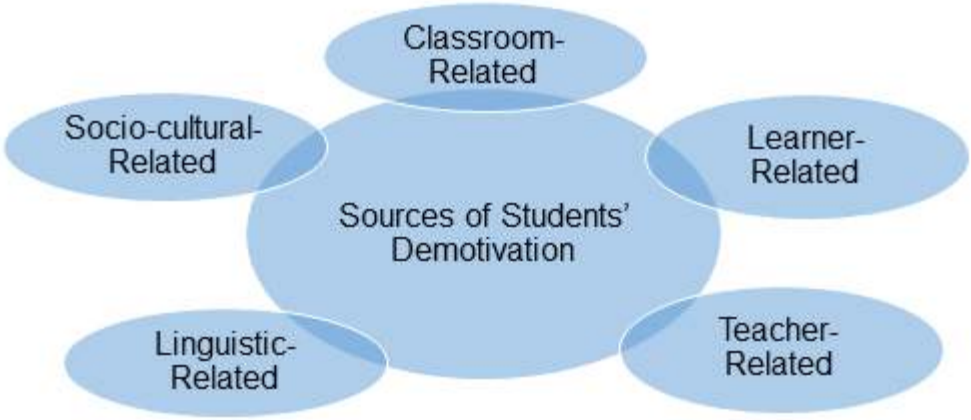


Figure 1 Sources of Students' Demotivation

Learner-Related Factors

The analysis of the data suggests that this category includes seven sub-themes: anxiety, personality, irrational beliefs, lack of confidence, negative attitude towards learning English, negative attitude towards native speakers, and unwillingness to study. These findings agree with a number of studies such as Haryanto & Mukminin (2012), Falouta et al., (2009), Trang & Baldauf, (2007), and Zhang (2007). The majority of students in this study stated during their interviews that they experience nervousness, fear, and anxiety during various classroom activities. They clearly stated that they feel more anxiety during oral tasks. This anxiety discourages their classroom participation and in turn, they improve less. Eventually, they feel less interested and demotivated. Likewise, interviews suggested that students' personality plays a vital role in terms of motivation or demotivation. Students who are introverts participate less in class, take less risks, and do not have open and frank relations with their classmates. All of these factors lessen their interests in English class and eventually they feel demotivated. Lack of confidence was also found a demotivating factor. Students who lack confidence try to avoid classroom activities, do not ask questions or answer to the teacher's questions, make a big deal out of mistakes, and tremble during oral tasks. Eventually, they feel demotivated and

hate English class. Moreover, some of the students believed that they feel frustration and demotivation when they do not come up to their expectations. They believed that one can learn English within two years, native-like proficiency and accent and a good mind are essential for a foreign language learner. They felt demotivated when these things turned against these irrational beliefs. Furthermore, negative attitudes towards English language and towards native speakers also affected students' willingness and interest for learning English. This lack of interest demotivates students. Finally, some of the students stated during their interviews that they do not like English class. In other words, they are not willing to get English education. In turn, this unwillingness demotivates them. It appears that all of the above mentioned factors lead to negative attitude towards English language learning. In turn, students feel demotivated.

Teacher-Related Factors

Keeping in view the analysis of the data, teacher-related factors include six sub themes including unkind, authoritative and discouraging attitude of the teacher, faulty teaching methodology, teachers' incompetence, uninteresting content, unfair evaluation, and confusing information. These findings lend their support from studies such as Kojima (2004), Kikuchi and Sakai (2009), Keblawi (2005) and Hasegawa (2004). Interviewees unanimously stated that their teacher is a big source of their demotivation. It was quite clear in the interviews that due to the teacher's unkind and discouraging attitude, students' willingness to participate decreases, they feel less interested in the class, and try to avoid English class. Some of the students stated that they want to abandon their studies due to the negative attitude of the teacher. Similarly, some students feel demotivated if the teacher's methodology is not effective. If he/she keeps the class formal and extremely disciplined and his/her lecture is not interesting, students feel demotivated. Likewise, students feel demotivated if the teacher fails to clearly explain the academic stuff. Some of the interviewees stated that they feel demotivated when their teacher is biased in terms of marking. They stated that their teacher gives better grades to students he/she likes. They clearly highlighted that the teachers pay less attention to capability and more attention to personal relations. They themselves spotlighted that such attitude discourages them and leads them to demotivation. Another important source of students' demotivation that was highlighted in interviews was teacher's incompetence. Interviewees believed that they learn English because it is important to their future. On the other hand, they feel frustrated and discouraged if their teacher is not competent. They feel that they are not learning well and thus wasting their time. Eventually, they feel demotivated. It appears that teachers can play a vital role in motivating students for learning English. Hence,

it is suggested that teachers should have positive, friendly and open relations with students. Eventually, students will, hopefully, feel more motivated.

Classroom-Related Factors

Interviews identified various classroom-related factors such as discouraging classroom environment, lack of educational facilities, negative attitude of the classmates, and teacher's harsh error correction. These findings concur with Maruyama (2004), Sharififar and Akbarzadeh (2011), Falouta et al., (2009) and Trang & Baldauf (2007). Students believed that negative, discouraging, strict, and formal classroom environment affects their interest and motivation. Some of the students stated that formal classroom environment leads to anxiety. That, in turn, leads to demotivation. Moreover, interviews suggested that a strict classroom environment discourages their willingness to participate in classroom activities. All of these factors create frustration and demotivation. Similarly, students highlighted that lack of educational facilities affected their language learning. The feelings that they are not learning well demotivated them. Moreover, students experience demotivation if a teacher makes a big deal out of students' mistakes and corrects their mistakes harshly. Students highlighted that they do not want to speak in class because they are afraid of making mistakes. They further stated that their classmates laugh at them if they make mistakes. Some students told their stories when they were ridiculed by their teacher and classmates due to their mistakes. It was quite evident in the interviews that students feel demotivated if a teacher has a negative attitude towards students' mistakes. It is suggested that teachers should inform students that making mistakes is normal and this process is important to improve. Moreover, teacher should correct students' mistakes gently. Modeling could also be helpful when correcting students' language mistakes.

Linguistic-Related Factors

Data analysis revealed three linguistic-related factors responsible for students' demotivation regarding learning English: namely, difficulties about grammar, difficulties in terms of vocabulary, and L1 interference. These findings agree with Keblawi (2005), Hasegawa (2004) and Maruyama (2004). Some of the participants believed that there are too many rules of English grammar, too many exceptions, and English grammar is complex. Since mastery of English grammar is essential to speak and learn English well, they cannot participate due to poor grammar knowledge. Eventually, they feel demotivated. Likewise, they believed that they cannot speak well because of their scanty vocabulary. Some of the students believed that they

have ideas but they cannot speak because they don't have appropriate words of English. Consequently, they feel discouraged and demotivated. Finally, first language interference also demotivated some of the interviewees as they believed that L1 interference affects their confidence and learning.

Socio-cultural-related Factors

This last category includes home environment, value in society, mixed gender classrooms, students' parents, and previous education as factors responsible for students' demotivation. Some of the students stated that their home environment does not encourage their English learning. They believed that their parents and elder siblings do not pay due attention to their English education. They, particularly, highlighted the role of their parents. The data analysis suggested that if the students' home environment and their parents do not encourage students to learn English, they may feel demotivated. Some of the students stated that their parents do not ask them about their performance in English, do not arrange home tuition for them and involve them in domestic affairs. They believed that such attitude from parents demotivates them. Similarly, they feel demotivated when they realise that they will not have good status and value in the society because of their poor English education. Another aspect of this finding was that some of the students feel demotivated when they are not given much attention by their family members and other members in the society. Moreover, during their interviews, some of the students stated that their previous English education is from Urdu-medium institutions (known for poor quality English education in Pakistan). Therefore, their base in English is weak. Thus, they feel that their performance in their current class in the subject of English will not be good. These feelings frustrate and demotivate them. It appears that previous English education may also be a factor that could demotivate some of the students. Finally, some of the interviewees believed that they are not used to study in co-education system. Therefore, they feel demotivated due to the presence of female students in their class.

Implications of the Study

Implications are divided into two parts: theoretical implications and pedagogical implications.

Theoretical implications

On the basis of the findings of my study, of the studies reviewed above and of my own understanding, the following theoretical implications are offered. First, there seems a dire need in the field of demotivation to develop a valid, solid and a reliable questionnaire that should be

comprehensive in a way that it should include items about various variables such as home environment, personality, classroom environment, teacher behavior, teaching methodologies, false beliefs, individual's personality characteristics such as self-esteem, confidence, introversion...etc. such type of questionnaire will hopefully yield deeper and better understanding about the topic. Similarly, a theoretical framework or a demotivation model or type of battery could be developed to investigate the unexpected trends and aspects regarding demotivation.

It seems important that Dornyei's (2001) definition of demotivating factors could be revised or widened in order to include both internal and external variables as causes of students'' demotivation. Since demotivation is a complex factor, utilizing new instruments such as diaries and personal journals could be helpful in getting a comprehensive information about demotivation. Moreover, human personality is complex. It is not essential that all of the demotivating factors might be related to teaching, classroom or learning but rather students come to the class from various social and cultural backgrounds. Therefore, it seems important to develop new theories of demotivation that may include variables such as society and culture. Moreover, this study contributes to the literature by proposing a model of factors that may contribute to students' demotivation. This model (8.1 below) is based on the findings of the current study.

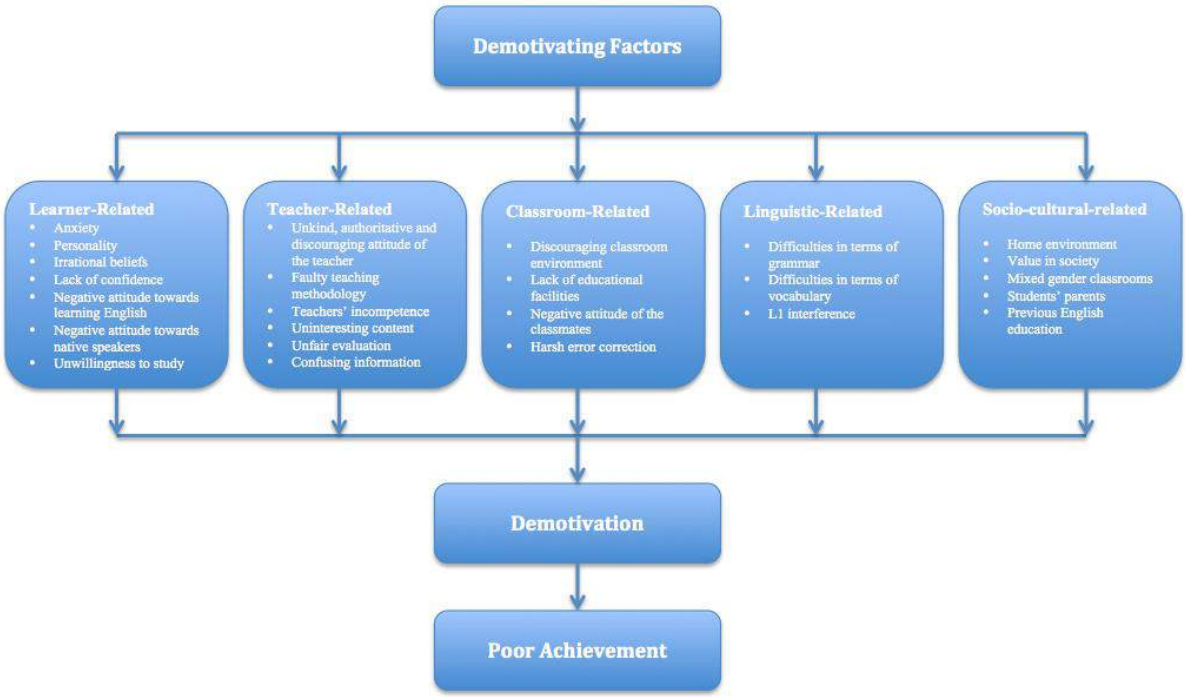


Figure 8.1: Samad et al.'s proposed model for demotivating factors

Pedagogical Implications

First, lack of preparation may lead students to lack of trust in their capabilities and these feelings may lead them to demotivation. Thus, it seems very important that students should be well prepared for their studies and also, they should take the responsibility of their learning.

Secondly, Krashen (1987) stated that students' motivation is mainly dependent on the teacher. Therefore, teachers should have positive and pleasant attitude towards their students. They should avoid dictatorial or authoritative role and should offer themselves as facilitators. The positive, comfortable and relaxed environment of the classroom motivates the students. Thus, teachers should strive to maintain such an environment in the classroom. In short, teachers should improve their teaching style. Thirdly, teachers should try to make their lessons as interesting as possible. They can teach students with the help of games and other interesting activities. They should switch to modern language teaching methods such as community language learning. Such pedagogical approaches incorporate more and more involvement of the students and in turn students feel more interested and motivated.

Similarly, since students' motivation is affected by their negative attitudes towards English, it is suggested that teachers may inform the students that English is a language and its main aim is to enable you to communicate. Moreover, it is a strong instrument for better future, thus, they should have positive attitude towards English. The research shows that anxiety and lack of confidence may lead students to demotivation. Teachers may play a role of counsellor and he/she should listen to students' problems and address them accordingly. Various strategies could be used to lessen students' anxiety and increase their confidence.

Findings indicate that instructor and society have an important role in demotivating students. Therefore, another implication could be for policy makers and material developers that they may design the syllabus in a way that it is interesting so that students may feel more motivated. Likewise, the institution should provide interesting course books to enhance students' interest.

Recommendations for Further Studies

We offer following recommendations for further studies. First, since many studies believe that demotivation is a complex issue, further studies may recruit larger sample to get in depth understanding of this topic. Another important suggestion is that students come with their sociocultural baggage, thus I suggest that further studies should take into account the factors outside of the classroom to better understand demotivation. Similarly, future studies could be experimental to compare the outcomes of students who are motivated and those who are demotivated. Moreover, studies with various academic levels and age groups could be

conducted to better understand this issue. Fourthly, more than one instruments should be employed by further studies to have a deeper investigation of this issue. It could also be interesting if demotivation is explored across gender such as what are the views of males and of females. Finally, since teachers are major source of students' demotivation, it could be interesting to investigate teachers' motivation for teaching English and also an investigation of the strategies they use to motivate their demotivated students.

Conclusion

This work highlighted that although motivation plays a key role in students' successful language learning, the darker side (demotivation) of this factor must be given due attention. It was clearly noted that demotivation has detrimental effects on language studies. It appears that causes of demotivation could be of various types such as teacher-related, learner related, classroom-related and socio-cultural-related. However, studies highlight that teacher is the main contributor to students' demotivation therefore, he/she should improvise the teaching style and behavior with students. Moreover, a relaxed classroom environment, interesting classroom activities, giving positive feedback, and students' involvement in the class could remotivate them.

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Factors Affecting the English Language Proficiency of Filipinos

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Abstract

English is one of the official languages in the Philippines, which are being officially used in different sectors such as in education, business, and even in the constitution. Despite the high proficiency rating in the English Proficiency Index and its wide usage all over the country, Philippines have the lowest score in reading comprehension, and this is due to their struggle with the mode of instruction used in class. This paper discussed the history and development of the English language in the Philippines. Then it will also discuss the factors that affect the Filipinos Proficiency in the English language, namely the multilingual education, Tagalog-English code switching, also known as Taglish, and the English Language Anxiety.

Keywords: *English language proficiency, English language anxiety, Taglish*

Introduction

Widely known is the fact that English has become the language of international communication (Baguio & Eijansantos, 2021); and, as a colonial language, it keeps its grasp among previous colonies and notably recognized as an official language (Olivier, 2021) which holds true in the case of the Philippines (Parangan & Buslon, 2020) . For the Filipinos, English is a second language (Buslon & Alieto, 2019; Jacinto & Alieto, 2020; Tan et al., 2020; Robles & Torres, 2020; Torres, 2010), and the Philippines is one of the largest English-speaking countries in the

world (Abdon, et al., 2019; Rillo & Alieto, 2018). This suggests not only the wide use of the language in different dimensions most especialy in education (Alieto, 2019; Alieto, Devanadera, & Buslon, 2019; Barredo, 2019; Barredo, 2020; Ella, 2020; Ricohermoso, Abequibel & Alieto, 2019; Tanpoco, Rillo, & Alieto, 2019; Torres, 2019; Torres & Flores, 2017; Torres & Santos, 2021; Torres et al., 2021), but also implies the existence of penchant for it (Alieto, 2018; Lim-Ramos, et al., 2020; Perez & Alieto, 2018; Torres & Alieto, 2019a). Supportive of this, scholars have noted the preference for learning English over other languages, be it international or indigenous (Go Silk et al., 2020; Rosales, 2020; Somblingo & Alieto, 2019; Torres & Alieto, 2019b). Therefore, it is common to find Filipinos conversing and making discourses in English, including using it in a social media platform like Facebook as alluded by Eijansantos (2018) and twitter (Sebastian, Ponce, & Alieto, 2019) even in e-government websites (Bajar, 2020).

Thus, it is far from being surprising that the English language has become a huge part and has played an important role in the lives of the Filipinos. As Berowa (2018) argues, "…*English language which is considered as the language of power and of progress in the country that has played a major role in the lives of the Filipinos in improving their socio-economic status and in achieving a much better life*" (p. 118). In fact, it is even utilized as an eliciting language in an attempt to analyze a Philippine –type language which is evident in a study carried out by Eijansantos (2017). The seen reason explaining both the interest and proficiency of the Filipino in English is the American colonization from 1898 to 1946 (Alieto & Rillo, 2018; Antonio, Bacang, Rillo, Alieto, & Caspillo, 2019). Thus, "… *English proficiency is a very important factor in hiring, retention and promotion in any organization around the globe*" (Berowa, 2017, p. 42).

However, despite the wide usage of the English language in the country, Filipinos seem to struggle in the said language. Even university students find it challenging as the use of English takes much of their time aside from the fact they are not really comfortable in the use of English language (Berowa, 2016). English proficiency in the Philippines is, unfortunately, declining. As discussed by Saavedra & Barredo (2020), recent study shows that the Philippines is no longer considered to be the top one English-speaking countries. Consequently, it was noted by Eijansantos, Alieto, Morgia, and Ricohermoso (2020) that several concerns have to be considered especially those that relate to education. With this in mind, the Department of Education is trying to strengthen its effort in dealing with the said concern. This includes the consideration of many factors that affect the learners' proficiency. These factors may include linguistic variables such as self-confidence, motivation, attitude, and personality (Berowa,

2012). Though, "...the efforts of the Philippine education system are said to be insufficient to deal with the concern of Filipino students. Educators are also expected to become competitive in using the target language, for they are the ones interacting with the learners, which could be a way of honing the students' knowledge – especially in communicating with the use of the English language" (Saavedra & Barredo 2020, pp. 1092). To be also competitive in utilizing the objective language in other large scale abilities like reading and writing and in the coming of advanced innovation, it is likewise anticipated from the Teachers to utilize various advances in moving information (Dealagdon, Teves, Tanpoco, & Estigoy, 2020). In the last quarter of 2019, a global survey revealed that Filipinos ranked the lowest in reading comprehension and second lowest in science and mathematics among 79 countries (CNN Philippines 2019).[1] English is the medium used in the subjects mentioned and despite being active in the digital world globally, they were not able to reach the average score in the subjects and most students cannot accomplish a basic reading task. As such, the "*affective factors are important, along with the support from the peers, the environment and the people around, to facilitate the target language learning and success*" (Berowa, 2016, p. 75).

This study aimed to know the factors affecting the proficiency of the Filipino in the English language. It will first enlighten how the English language developed in the country. Following that, there are three possible factors that will be discussed in the paper and these are 1) Philippines as a multilingual country, 2) Tagalog-English code switching, and 3) English language anxiety. The three possible factors will give light on why Filipinos seem to struggle in English despite its wide usage in the country.

The Development of English in the Philippines

Before English and Filipino, the language used in the country was Spanish. This is because prior to the Americans, the Spaniards colonized the Philippines for more than three hundred (300) years. It took a long time for the English and Filipino language to replace Spanish. According to Sibayan (1991), English and Filipino took 90 years (1898-1988) to completely replace Spanish in the domain of higher education. He further explained that:

> "When English was introduced in the Philippines in 1898, there was no Filipino English-speaking Community. English was already an

[1] The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) tested around 600,000 15-year-old students in 79 countries through the 2018 Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA). Results showed that one in four students is unable to complete even the most basic reading tasks. OECD said that this could mean these students may struggle in their lives while living in a digital world (CNN Philippines 2019).

> intellectualized language during that time.[2] It was the Filipinos who had to be intellectualized in it. Teaching the Filipino people through it was accomplished by declaring it äs the sole medium of instruction in the schools and the language of government. Fortunately, English is a flexible language; it accommodated many vocabulary items and expressions to take care of Philippine realities. By 1935, in the short span of 37 years, English was the main language used in the controlling domains of government administration (the bureaucracy), legislation, the judiciary, business, commerce and industry, education from the primary grades to the university, the important professions, science and technology, and the mass media. Popularly modernized and intellectually modernized English had taken hold of the Filipino. English had become the language of aspiration, prestige, and power" (Sibayan 1991, p. 73).

In the study of Mahboob and Cruz (2013), they mentioned that American colonialism first paved this link between language and economic opportunities, but history tells us that Philippine government policies of business and labor have continued to support this status quo through its prioritizing of global labor needs, whether by offering English-speaking Filipinos as overseas workers or as local customer service workers for overseas firms. The linguistic divide between the rich and the poor that was seen during the Spanish colonization is still around in a revised form. Now, the idea is if you do not know English, you remain poor. The stable diglossia between English, Filipino, and other local languages is even more visible as English is now, more than ever, packaged as the language of opportunity and power. In the present, English and Filipino are the two official languages of the Philippines according to the constitution and it shall be used as the medium of instruction starting in the elementary level. This explains why Filipinos can read and write using both languages. "It was in 1974 that the Bilingual Education Policy (BEP) was established through Department Order no. 52. It was recommended by the Soriano Committee to use both English and Filipino languages as mediums of instruction in both elementary and high school, depending on the subjects" (Saavedra 2020, pp. 1091). This means that subjects like English Communication Arts, Mathematics, and Science would use English as the mode of instruction. Whereas for Filipino

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[2] Intellectualization of language is based on Havranek's concept of the intellectualization of a language, quoted and elucidated by Garvin and Mathiot (1968), Ferguson's (1968) modernization, and Haugen's (1972) cultivation, concepts which we shall extend and elaborate on under the cover term intellectualization (Sibayan 1991, pp. 70-71).

Communication Arts, Social Studies, and History subjects, the Filipino language will be used. With the adaptation of the culture, constitution, and language of the Americans by the Filipinos, they were even regarded as the “little brown brothers” of America. It is no longer new to people to see Filipino children, especially in the middle and upper class, who can speak in English. Before they enter school, they already learned and acquired a vocabulary of English that includes body parts, names of animals and objects, action verbs, simple adjectives (dirty, good, bad), polite expressions (please, thank you, I'm sorry), nursery rhymes, and simple questions such as “What's your name?” and “How old are you?” (Espinoza 1997, p. 2).

Philippines as a Multilingual Country

Philippines is a multilingual country (Alieto, 2018). “Multilingualism refers to the presence in a geographical area, large or small, of more than one ‘variety of language’ i.e. the mode of speaking of a social group whether it is formally recognized as a language or not; in such an area individuals may be monolingual, speaking only their own variety” (King 2017, pp. 8). Aside from English and Filipino, there are a total of one hundred eighty-two (182) languages in the Philippines.[3] In some regions, their first language is their indigenous language, followed by English, and then lastly Filipino. It is common to have citizens who can speak three languages and is practiced at a young age. Below are some of the languages that many use in the Philippines.

Language	Location	Number of Speakers
National[4]		
English	National	50,028,700
Filipino	National	45,000,000 (L2 users)
Wider Communication[5]		
Bikol, Central	Camarines Norte and 4 other provinces	3,890,000
Cebuano	Cebu Province and 4 other areas	15,900,000
Hiligaynon	Iloilo and 4 other provinces	6,240,000

3 2010 Philippine Statistics Authority Census - Ethnicity and Language/Dialect Generally Spoken at Home.

4 National - The language is used in education, work, mass media, and government at the national level (Eberhard, Simons, and Fennig 2020).

5 Wider Communication - The language is used in work and mass media without official status to transcend language differences across a region (Eberhard, Simons, and Fennig 2020).

Ilocano	North Luzon	6,370,000
Kapampangan	Pampanga and 2 other provinces	2,040,000
Masbatenyo	Masbate Province	724,000
Pangasinan	Pangasinan Province	1,240,000
Tagalog	De facto national working language	20,000,000
Tausug	Sulu and Tawi-Tawi provinces	784,000
Waray-Waray	Samar, Leyte islands	2,610,000
	Educational[6]	
Aklanon	Aklan and Capiz provinces	526,000
Balangao	Not specified	11,500
Chavacano	Not specified	431,000
Ibanag	Cagayan and Isabela provinces	277,000
Ifugao, Mayoyao	Ifugao	30,000
Ifugao, Tuwali	Ifugao	30,000
Ivatan	Batanes province	35,000
Maranao	Lanao del Sur	866,000
Yakan	Basilan province	130,000

Figure 1. Languages in the Philippines from National, Wider Communication, and Educational language status.[7]

There are other more languages which are in the other language status (developing, vigorous, threatened, shifting, moribund, nearly extinct, dormant, and extinct). The languages in the table are the ones with the most speakers in the country. Many students find it hard to keep up in their classes because the language used or mode of instruction in class is English. Although students have built a vocabulary from what they hear in their environment (television, music, mass media), most of the students especially pre-school to elementary students hardly speak in English since they were exposed in another language. This gave light for the mother tongue-based multilingual education (MTB-MLE) in the Philippines.

6 Educational - The language is in vigorous use, with standardization and literature being sustained through a widespread system of institutionally supported education (Eberhard, Simons, and Fennig 2020).

7 Eberhard, Simons, and Fennig 2020. *Ethnologue: Languages of the World*. Retrieved from: https://www.ethnologue.com/country/PH

A hearing was conducted on the year 2008 in the Philippine House of Representatives by the committee on basic education and culture with some stakeholders in the education sector to change the mode of instruction from English to their mother tongue, specifically for the primary level students (Nolasco 2008, p. 1). A lot has happened after that and it was successfully implemented after the campaigns in support for this. Gaylo (2020) further discussed how MTB-MLE was implemented in the Philippines:

> "In 2009, MTB-MLE was formally institutionalized by the Department of Education (DepEd) along with its DepEd Order No. 74 series of 2009 during the time of Department of Education Secretary Jesli A. Lapus. In this order piloting of MTB-MLE policy was continued in the school year 2010-2011 in selected pilot schools (DepEd Develops Learning Supplements Using Mother Tongue, 2011; Martin, 2011) and school year 2011-2012 in 921 pioneer schools all over the country. Ocampo (2006) stated that the new policy of learning the language helped establish a strong foundation for education and literacy development. In 2013, the K to 12 Program became a law through Republic Act No. 10533 known as "The Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013". The K to 12 basic education program has salient features. The first is to strengthen early childhood education. The second is to build proficiency through language. Lastly, to provide specialized upper secondary education (Lim, 2014). This lifts the condition of MTB-MLE and also connects it with other significant reforms. Since then, the mother tongue as part of the curriculum was widely implemented across the nation" (Gaylo 2020, pp. 153-154).

Despite of the benefits aimed by the Department of Education for the mother tongue based multilingual education (MTB-MLE), there are still many challenges faced by the students and teachers. One of these is the lack of vocabulary both on the side of the teachers and students. Gayo (2020) explained that the teachers' and pupils' vocabulary was insufficient because they were not familiar with those other words in the mother tongue. They may be able to understand some, but they could not converse fully in the language used. Another thing is that there are words of Filipino and English that have no equal words in their mother tongue language. This challenge hindered teachers' capability of teaching the mother tongue.

Being multilingual can be considered as a factor that affects the Filipino's proficiency, but not as a hindrance because the languages should not be at war with each other, but must complement with one another. "The objective of language learning is also different for

multilinguals. They do not aim to master a language for all purposes and functions. They master the codes that are sufficient for the functions they want that language to perform. There is no need to develop proficiency in all the languages for the same purposes—or the same language for all purposes. Multilinguals adopt different codes for different contexts and objectives. From this perspective, the objective of their acquisition is repertoire building rather than total competence in individual languages. Multilinguals prefer to develop a range of codes for a range of purposes." (Suresh & Wurr 2011, pp. 4).

Tagalog-English Code Switching

Aside from being a multilingual country, Filipinos (especially those who live in Luzon), tend to use both Tagalog and English in the same sentence. They code switch from one language to another naturally.[8] This is commonly known as Taglish, or Tagalog-English code switching or Tagalog-English mix-mix. This is the alternation of Tagalog and English in the same discourse or conversation. They usually make use of Tagalog words, phrases, clauses, and sentences in English discourse, or vice-versa. (Bautista 2004, pp 226).[9] This has been a huge part of the casual conversation in the everyday lives of the Filipinos. Taglish is often associated with colloquialism particularly to *conyo* language. Nocon, Kho, & Arroyo (2018) defined *conyo* language as a colloquialism exhibiting distinction between the upper middle class and masses has also been used in the present day. It is normally used by those that are classified as *sosyal* (classy and wealthy people), as this expression has been used by Spaniards during the colonial period.[10] Why has this been widely used by the Filipinos?

Bautista (2004) gathered an analysis on why code switching was commonly used in conversations. "Among educated Tagalogs, mixing is considered the normal acceptable conversational style of speaking and writing. The bilingual uses borrowings generously, shifts from one language to another easily and does not resist the adoption of loans" (Goulet 1971,

8 "Code-switching is the discourse practice of being able to alternate the use of two languages, or two registers or dialects of the same language, usually in conversation rather than in writing" (King 2017, pp. 27).

9 "The term is also occasionally used when the switching of language involved are Philippine language (not necessarily Tagalog) and English. Taglish goes beyond the borrowing of words or ready-made phrases; it involves switching between languages. It is not Singlish or Colloquial Singapore English, which is the basilectal form of Standard Singapore English" (Bautista 2004, pp. 226).

10 '*Conyo*' (from the Spanish coño meaning cunt) is one of the many words and phrases that had taken on new meaning in the Philippines. Aside from its original meaning, *coño* is also an interjection, and according to several anecdotes told through time, Spaniards used to finish their sentences with this word. In Philippine context 'conyo' has no natural connection with the signified, that is, the object it is understood to represent originally (Garvida 2013, pp23).

as stated by Bautista 2004, pp. 228). The following were the specified reasons mentioned by Bautista (2004) for why code-switching take place: for precision, for transition, for comic effect, or atmosphere, for bridging or creating social distance, for snob appeal, and for secrecy. She also mentioned a different study where short stories in the Tagalog magazine "Liwayway" showed that people there employed code switching at random especially during friendly discussions of informal topics, and code switching was used primarily for the following reasons: for ease in understanding, for brevity, for lack of indigenous terms, for precision, for emphasis and clarity.

Basically, the use of Taglish or code-switching was for convenience and is used informally. This has not much been a problem since it was commonly used in everyday conversations and messaging. Through time people have been dependent with the usage of the Taglish since it is easier to borrow words from one language. Taglish has served as a bridge for two languages. However, this may have caused for the Filipinos to struggle not only in English but also in Filipino language alone. They are now used to naturally code switch that when they have to use only one language, they find it hard to communicate fluently. The reason for this is that Filipinos are largely liberal when it comes to linguistic identity. "Language choices evidently play a vital role in Philippine society and personal expression. This feature of the Philippine language situation is important to our understanding of Tagalog-English code switching. By keeping in mind this idea, we can extract that Taglish is one of many realizations of the notion of linguistic fluidity[11]" (Lesada 2017, pp. 17-18).

English Language Anxiety

English has become the language that equates to your status in life. It has also become a symbol for power. The desire to learn and become fluent in this language caused anxiety to many Filipinos. Marcial (2016) revealed a study of Matsuda and Gobel (2004) that there are possible relationships between language anxiety and learner variables and the results say that learners who experienced living in overseas and with higher confidence in using English tend to have lower levels of anxiety; this explains demonstrating better classroom performance. Anxiety also shows the negative influence in the student's cognitive processing, thus making it a serious

11 Linguistic fluidity is when a group is inclined towards widespread linguistic pluralism and language change as a result of factors such as geography, colonialism, religious conversion, cultural imperialism, and mass media. A central result of this phenomenon is a cultural trend toward linguistic flexibility in Filipinos' day-to-day conversations (Lesada 2017)

barrier for learners (Trang, Moni, & Baldauf 2012; Park & French 2013 as stated from Marcial 2016). To understand more about the language anxiety:

> "According to Horwitz et al. (1986), language anxiety manifests itself when students avoid conveying complex messages in the foreign language, when they display a lack of confidence or freeze up in role-play activities, and when they forget previously learned vocabulary or grammar in evaluative situations. Anxious students are less likely to volunteer answers or to participate in oral classroom activities (Ely, 1986). Mac-Intyre and Gardner (1989) found that high anxious students take more time to learn vocabulary items and experience more difficulty in recalling them. Indeed, although language-anxious students study more than their low-anxious counterparts, their level of achievement often does not reflect that effort (Horwitz et al., 1986; Price, 1991). These students often report that the pace of the class is too rapid and that they feel left behind (Mac-Intyre & Gardner, 1991a)" (Onwuegbuzie, Bailey, & Daley 1999, pp. 219).

Filipinos, especially students, give great importance when it comes to the English language. They make a huge deal when it comes to grammar, punctuation, proper choice of words, and other factors that could reflect their proficiency. In Marcial's (2016) study, the learners are enrolled in a course which requires them to use English as they participate in pair work, group discussions, and as they write and deliver speeches to the group. Another variable can be seen that could possibly be one of the sources of the learner's anxiety, is their past experiences. These past experiences are specifically the negative ones in using the language. They may have made an error in language that they could not forget about it.

Gatcho and Hajan (2019) conducted a study by surveying college student regarding their anxiety in their English class. They aimed to know what is the level of anxiety of the college students and what contributes to it. Below is the summarized result of the survey.

Factors	**Strongly Agree (5)**	**Agree (4)**	**Neutral (3)**	**Disagree (2)**	**Strongly Disagree (1)**
Fear of Negative Evaluation	229	320	433	226	142
Communication Apprehension	212	256	434	186	112
Fear of Test	220	172	201	129	26

Anxiety of English Classes	364	243	307	198	88

Figure 2. Level of frequency distribution of factors of language anxiety[12]

A total number of one hundred fifty college students participated in the study. The table above is the summarized level of frequency distribution of factors affecting language anxiety of the students. Gatcho and Hajan (2019) were able to get the result that indicates that fear of negative evaluation and communication apprehension is more likely to cause English language learning anxiety of students. Also, the fear of negative evaluations such as having to answer questions in English that they have not prepared for and minding that their classmates' English is what students are afraid about in their English classroom. In addition, such comprehension apprehensions as speaking about a certain topic to be discussed without preparations and being shy of speaking in front of others constitute causes of students' English anxiety in learning the language. In contrast, fear of test and anxiety of English classes do not have much of an effect in students' English language learning anxiety in the classroom. They are not that nervous in taking and exam in English. Furthermore, they do not bother about taking more English classes and that they do not feel tensed or have no pressure about being in English classes. With what they have gathered, it is still important to take note of the anxiety of the students when it comes to the English language.

Conclusion

English has a huge role in the Philippines since it is the language used in the law, academe, work, and other professional matters. This has been the consequence of the long history of American colonization. Though Filipinos are expected to be very fluent in the language, many are still struggling with the said language. The factors that affect the Filipino's proficiency in English are 1) being a multilingual country, 2) the Tagalog-English code switching or Taglish, and 3) English language anxiety.

The first factor acknowledges the existence of more than one hundred eighty (180) languages other than English and Filipino. This factor addresses students struggling in English as the mode of instruction grew up in an environment where their mother tongue language is not consistent with the mode of instruction. Hence, this paved way for the implementation of the mother tongue based multilingual education (MTB-MLE). Despite its aim to connect with the students and to be able to preserve the languages, there were many flaws to the implementation

12 Gatcho and Hajan (2019, pp. 136)

of it. The second factor, the Taglish, where it provided comfort and convenience to the speakers to casually talk to one another, resulted in many Filipinos struggling in using a single language in formal occasions. The last factor, the English language anxiety, has been a manifestation of how the English language can reflect a person's status. That is why many give great importance to the language to the point that they become anxious about what they are about to say.

The factors mentioned affect but do not entirely hinder Filipinos in being more proficient in the English language. As mentioned in the earlier part, the other languages do not compete with one another but rather they are complementing with each other. The strong influence of the English and the many languages in the Philippines will not fade, and it will continue to co-exist and evolve with the other languages as time passes.

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Digital Argument Mapping within Metacognitive Approach: Its Effects on EFL Learners' Writing Achievement and Self-Regulation of Learning

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Abstract

Metacognitive and self-regulatory processes need to be clearly intertwined with methods designed to develop them. Digital argument mapping is a method that assists learners to have more engagement in their process of writing and provides students with a basic set of schemas with which to understand argument structures. The cultivation of learners' metacognition is advantageous since it concerns the individual conscious control of cognitive activities and is helpful to empower self-regulated learning abilities. The current study investigated the effect of using digital argument mapping called Computer-Aided Argument Mapping (CAAM) within metacognitive approach on Thai English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' argumentative writing performance and their self-regulation of learning. A total of 25 freshman students were purposively selected as the subject of the study. The researcher employed an exploratory case study specifically a mixed-mode method type of research involving a pre- and post-test design. Data was collected while the respondents participated in the eight sessions of instructing them on how to use CAAM in their writing processes. A Self-Regulation of Learning Scale (SRS) was utilized to identify students' self-regulation of learning across its six components. The results reveal that the CAAM method within metacognitive approach

used by the respondents helped improve their argumentative writing performance across task achievement, coherence-cohesion, lexical resource and grammatical range and accuracy as indicated by a significant difference between their pre- and post- test results. Interestingly, five out of six components of SRS reveal a significant relationship with their writing performance indicative that the respondents have become more cognizant of their self-regulation in terms of planning, self-monitoring, evaluation, effort, and self-efficacy. On the other hand, qualitative findings reveal that respondents have positive responses in using CAAM on their writing processes and enhance their awareness of their self-regulation of learning. In conclusion, the findings of this study provide thoughtful insights into utilizing digital mapping within the metacognitive approach to improve learners' argumentative writing skill and their self-regulation of learning and revolutionize language learning classrooms in this technological era.

Keywords: *Computer-Aided Argument Mapping (CAAM); Digital argument mapping; EFL argumentative writing; Self-Regulation of Learning (SRL)*

Introduction

Writing has always been a necessary requirement for learners in their undergraduate studies; however, developing an effective writing competency is a tough undertaking for them (Malmir & Khosravi, 2018). Battala and De Vera (2019) reported that writing a composition in English is viewed as one of the main problems amongst second language learners. Malmir and Khosravi (2018) supported this notion as they described and enumerated various writing difficulties, including knowledge of the task and content, lexical complexity, coherence and cohesion, and fluency of ideas. These challenges are just some of the problems relating to the development of an effective writing ability (Malmir & Khosravi, 2018) and are always observed in Thai schools and universities (Robillos & Phantharakphong, 2020). These difficulties and challenges get even more complex when different genres of writing are taught (Hyland, 2013).

According to Weigle (2013), writing genres add to the inherent complexity involved in second language writing because of their special lexical and syntactic grammar apart from its structural organizations. These difficulties are overburdening the learners' cognitive load and need to be reduced to acquire new information. In order to assist the acquisition of new schemas which are representations of either concepts or problem-solution procedures, Sweller (1994) recommends reducing the extraneous mental load during the learning process. One common

method of reducing unimportant cognitive load is by using graphic organizers such as maps and diagrams, to help supplement regular reading and instruction (Harrel & Wetzel, 2013). Mapping assists learners to have more engagement in their process of writing. Humans are highly visual (van Gelder, 2007) and mapping may provide students with a basic set of schemas with which to understand argument structures.

The current study is interested in the effectiveness of alternative teaching method that incorporates digital argument mapping to improve learners' argumentative writing. Furthermore, in Thai EFL context, however, no studies to date have been investigated on the use of CAAM within metacognitive approach that involves planning, monitoring and evaluation stages to help aid EFL learners' argumentative writing processes as well as for promoting their self-regulation of learning; therefore, the researcher would like to investigate this gap in EFL writing literature to further determine the role of CAAM within metacognitive approach on EFL learners' argumentative writing performance across writing components such as task achievement, coherence-cohesion, lexical resource, and grammatical range and accuracy and on their self-regulation of learning.

Literature Review

Self-Regulation of Learning

A number of studies that have been conducted, viewed SRL as an important new construct in the field of education (Pintrich & Schunk, 2002; Boekaerts & Cascallar, 2006; Zimmerman, 2008; Soureshjani, 2013 ; Taghizadeh, 2016; Robillos, 2020). For example, Pintrich (2000) described SRL as an active process where learners can self-regulate by setting goals for their learning, monitoring their learning processes, self-control and regulating their own thinking, and evaluating and reflecting their learning. Added to this is Zimmerman's (2008) view asserting that self-regulated learners systematically used metacognitive, motivational and behavioral strategies and proactively participate in their own learning processes. Studies reported that individual differences such as personality traits, learning styles and strategies, motivation, beliefs and self-regulation, could predict success in language learning (Dornyei, 2005; Magno, 2009; Wang, Kim, Bong, & Ahn, 2013; Robillos, 2020) increasingly directing their research efforts towards the important role of learners' thoughts, beliefs, and cognitive/metacognitive behaviors to learn different second language skills.

Ertmer and Newby (1996) underscored that individuals who self-regulate their learning must strategically plan how to approach a task prior to actions, monitor their own progress while performing the task, evaluate the process and outcome after completing the plan, reflect what

have they accomplished and unaccomplished and further increase the number of strategies they can use, which gives them more possibilities to face and perform tasks to be completed the next time. However, apart from understanding what aspects to improve and how to improve such aspects, self-regulated learners, must be motivated to improve (Zimmerman, 2006). Ericson et al. (1993) claimed that learners must be willing to invest extra efforts to improve and sustain efforts over years for them to be able to reach highest level of performance.

Pahlavani and Maftoon (2015) describe that the self-regulatory capacity can interact with cognitive factors since, according to Robillos (2020), self-regulated learners can establish goals for their learning, can monitor, can assess and can self-reflect their learning. Thus, self-regulated learners are likely to become more able to interpret the signs of changes continuously. The processes involved in argument mapping are designed by well-planning and well-monitoring during the process which helps raise students' self-reflection. With their critical thinking, reflection can optimize learners' self-regulated learning abilities because self-regulated leaners have already known their position in the task.

Argument Mapping and the CAAM

Argument mapping (AM) is a way of diagramming the logical structure of an argument to explicitly and concisely represent reasoning (Davies, Barnett, & van Gelder, 2021). It is a visual diagram that organizes a text-based argument into a hierarchical representation, with propositions arranged in a coloured boxes and connected by arrows that highlights the relations (i.e. *because, but, however*) between propositions (Dwyer, Hogan, Stewart, 2012; van Gelder, 2007). Recent studies have revealed the instructive benefits of AM using groups of tertiary students and analysts as subjects and by comparing argument mapping interventions with data from comparison groups or benchmarks from meta-analytic reviews (Davies et al., 2021).

AM has been used for language teaching method in general and in EFL writing in particular (Davies, 2009: Harrell and Wetzel, 2013). Harrel and Wetzel (2013) supported the efficacy of using argument mapping method for EFL text comprehension. Results of their study reveal that a well-designed argument diagrams (AD) can both improve L2 learners' critical thinking and writing performance among First Year language learners, stressing that argument maps ignite learners' schemas which are necessary in argumentative writing. Argument mapping method assists EFL learners produce more developed and coherent written outputs (Dwyer et al., 2011). Gray (2012) backed up Dwyer et al's, (2012) view and stated that argument maps can trigger L2/ EFL learners' critical thinking and problem solving abilities and therefore optimize their writing performance. Added to this is the study conducted by Pinkwart et al.,

(2009) reporting that the use of AMs enhance second language learners' writing. van Gelder (2015) reported that argument mapping courses improve critical thinking scores by around 0.8 of a standard deviation which is more than double of the typical effect size for standard critical thinking courses. This only manifests that argument mapping is a very effective way to teach critical thinking.

The process of making an argument map is beneficial because it encourages students to construct or reconstruct their arguments with a level of clarity and rigor (Davies et al., 2021). They further described that argument maps when separated from written prose, often goes unobserved. Arguments are followed by supporting claims with linkers in the map with different colors. The end of the argument tree is composed by basic boxes which provide defense for the main claims. Figure 1 presents a short argument showing the main conventions used in argument mapping.

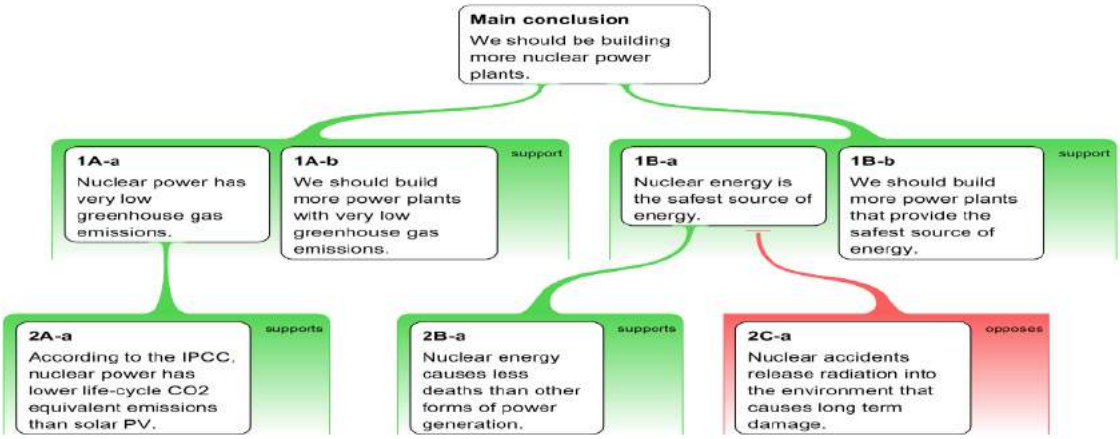


Figure 1 A short argument showing the main conventions used in AM (Davies et. al., 2021)

The mapping describes a short argument showing the main conventions in argument mapping. The main conclusion is positioned at the top most part of the map. The reasons for the main conclusion are identified by green shaded areas connected by lines to the main conclusion. The main conclusion in the example has two reasons and labelled as 1A and 1B. Inside the green shaded areas white claim boxes are used to display individual premises. Premises are placed in separate premise boxes because each premise needs its own justification. The surrounding green reason envelop groups together linked premises working together to form a reason for the conclusion. Further, objections to claims are identified by a red shaded color. Writers designate reasons and objections, *i.e*. the words such as *"supports"* or *"opposes"* (Davies et al., (2021).

Meanwhile, the development of software programs has facilitated the process of constructing maps for the users. Computer-aided argument mapping or CAAM uses software programs specifically designed to quickly represent views and reasons using box and line diagrams (Davies et al., 2021; van Gelder, 2007; van Gelder, 2015). Mapping your views and reasons in software is much easier because students can get better at argument analysis and evaluation. Figure 2 presents the editor page in CAAM by *Rationale* ™ (van Gelder, 2007).

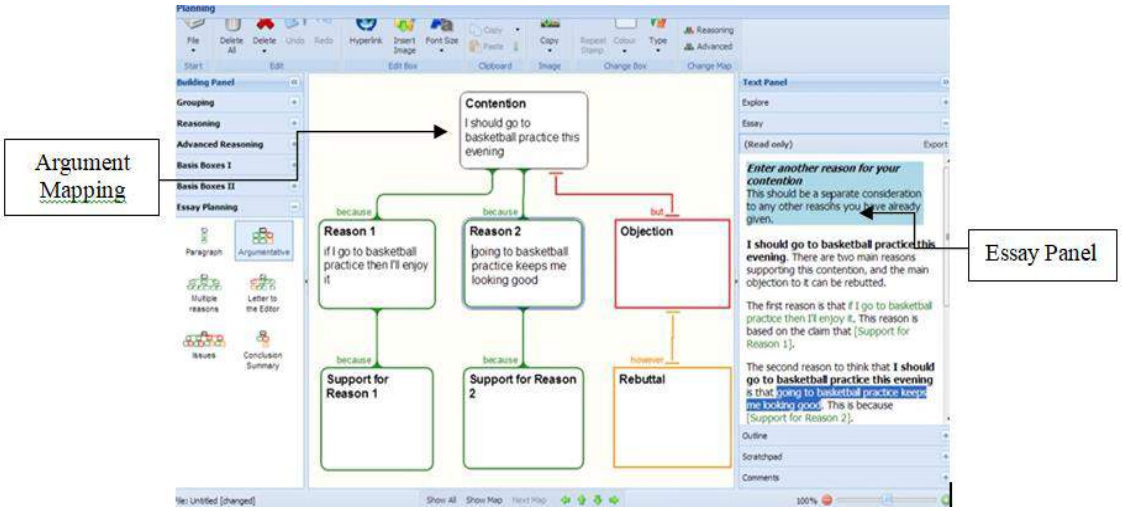


Figure 2. The editor page in CAAM by *Rationale* ™ (van Gelder, 2007)

A student using CAAM in accomplishing his argument map in the panel provided for him can possibly check his composition in another panel simultaneously as well as aiding him to be conscious of coherence and cohesion during his mapping process. As emphasized by Davies et al., (2021), argument mapping software makes building argument maps easy so teachers can provide their students with many practical drills to work on since the software allows the students to edit their maps freely and can engage in self-regulated and self-directed exploratory learning as they try out various argument structures to fit what works best on them.

Metacognition and Metacognitive Approach to Learning

Metacognition is a term coined by Flavell (1979) and defined as cognition about one's own cognition. In short, metacognition refers to knowledge about and regulation of one's cognitive activities in learning processes (Flavell, 1979). This term is popularly known as "thinking of one's thinking". In the context of learning, metacognition is the knowledge about and regulation of the cognitive processes during learning and thus can be referred to as "learning

about learning". It plays an important part in optimizing self-regulation if we are to consider learners' psychological state. Benson (2007, p.23) describes the idea that the capacity to manage one's own learning depends upon certain underlying psychological capacities. Thus, metacognition can be considered a building block of self-regulation, since self-regulated learners display great engagement in planning, monitoring, and evaluating their learning. In fact, metacognition in the form of conscious reflection initiates the "growth and exercise of autonomy in formal learning" (Little, 2009, p.28)

In the research study conducted by Ismael (2015), she reports that metacognition creates the foundation of self-regulation and claims that the premise of language success demands two important mental processes. They are (a) becoming self-conscious about what to do, where to go, or how to undertake the proper action to improve one's learning and (b) becoming independent, self-reliant, and accountable for one's own learning.

Metacognitive strategies, on the other hand, are "higher order executive skills that may entail of planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of activity" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990, p. 44). A great number of studies proved that metacognitive strategies provide learners the proper guidance in EFL learning and can be acquired by instruction (Oxford, 1993; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990; Chen, 2009; Tavakoli et al., 2012**;** Krishnan & Kepol, 2013; Zheng, 2018). For example, the writing skill which is a considered as a complex skill to teach as reported by many Second Language Acquisition researchers. It requires a strategic approach (*e.g.* metacognitive approach) which proposed by the past SLA researchers (Flavell, 1979; O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). All the strategic models had been proved to increase control, confidence, and eventually proficiency to EFL learners. On this line of reasoning, teachers have to provide sufficient opportunities to act upon the set of rules that already devised (Robillos, 2019). Therefore, the current study utilized metacognitive procedures and strategies which aimed to assist EFL writers to plan, monitor and evaluate their writing process.

The approach involves three main stages through which the writer progresses linearly: (i) Planning stage which guides the student through the metacognitive process of planning and the related strategies of advance organization, predicting and schema building; (ii) Monitoring which includes collaboration with a peer, in which comparisons of argument maps are made, AM concepts (*e.g.* conclusions, premises, counter-arguments are verified or altered), differences are discussed, problems are identified and plans are made for the subsequent writing process; and (iii) Evaluation stage, in which it involves the metacognitive process of evaluation and reflection, identification of strategies used and the like.

Training these metacognitive strategies is useful for the empowerment of learners' self-regulated learning abilities. Metacognitive strategies concern the individual conscious control of cognitive activities and are helpful to empower self-regulated learning abilities. Learners who have the ability to think analytically and to learn independently are purposeful, strategic and persistent in learning as well as possessing more adaptive strategic and cognitive processes and willing to take charge of their learning (Zimmerman, 2008).This is one main role of metacognition in empowering self-regulation across domains.

Some significance is noticeably attached to this study by looking into this important topic in the Thai context where most of the time teaching writing is influenced by traditional teaching mode where students lack of aiding themselves with technological writing methods that might improve their writing skill. Furthermore, there is also an issue regarding the relationship between the success of EFL learners in using digital argument mapping within metacognitive approach in improving their argumentative writing ability and self-regulatory abilities in the university level; however, these issues to date have not been sufficiently investigated in Thailand. Thus, the study attempts to address this gap to investigate the role of Computer-Aided Argument Mapping (CAAM) within metacognitive approach on EFL learners' argumentative writing skill and on their self-regulation of learning.

Method

Research design and samples

The researcher employed an exploratory case study specifically a mixed-mode method design to explore the effect of using computer-aided argument mapping on the students' argumentative writing performance across four writing components namely: task achievement, coherence-cohesion, lexical resource, as well as grammatical range and accuracy. The researcher utilized a time series design to monitor students' progress in writing performance and awareness of their self-regulation of learning. This includes monitoring the students' progress during 10-sessions which constituted eight sessions for the implementation of the CAAM as the intervention; one session each for the pre-test and post-test. A single intact group constituted of 25 freshman college students majoring in the TESOL program at the study-university was purposively selected as samples consisting of 7 males and 18 females with ages ranging from 18 to 19 years old. The rationale of targeting this group is because they have been exposed to different strategies in writing during their previous semesters, the researcher would like them to continuously practice and be able to use CAAM as another helpful method to improve their writing compositions in their succeeding semesters where they

will still take two more writing courses that would cover various writing genres including expository and argumentative types. Employment of CAAM in their writing course has not been in practice for the learners in their regular classroom.

Research instruments and data collection

There are four methods of data collection employed to capture quality evidence that leads to the formulation of credible data to achieve the aims of the study that have been posed above. They are as follows:

First is the writing Pre-test. This was used to measure the relationship between the use of CAAM as an intervention and the respondents' argumentative writing performance. During this phase, the respondents would be developing a writing topic which is in line with the topics they are studying in Academic Writing subject in their regular classroom. They were given at least 60 minutes to finish their writing composition using at least 200 words. Before they write, there were activities to be done first such as activating their prior knowledge towards the topic and a short reading text to comprehend to further develop their schemas towards the topic they are going to develop. This took them at least an hour. Moreover, the writing compositions of the respondents were corrected by two inter raters (both English / TESOL Lecturers in the study university) based from the guidelines used in IELTS writing Task 2 scoring rubric provided by IDP IELTS Australia. This writing rubric constituted of 4 components namely: task achievement, coherence-cohesion, lexical resource, as well as grammatical range and accuracy. The highest mark is 9 and the lowest mark is 1. For the purpose of inter-rater reliability, all written compositions were read by two raters, and the correlation among scores marked by each rater was calculated. The inter-rater reliability of the first and second raters are .759 and .753 respectively indicating a strong agreement to each other.

Secondly, the Self-Regulation of Learning Scale (SRS) which was administered to the participants before and after the strategy intervention was also used. This questionnaire was first formulated by Toering (2011) and was examined for its validity and reliability (Toering, Elferink-Gemser, Marieke, van Heuvelen, & Visscher, 2012). This questionnaire is composed of 46 items divided into six components namely: planning, self-monitoring, evaluation, reflection, effort and self-efficacy. The Self-Regulation of Learning Scale or SRS is intended to measure self-regulation as a relatively stable attribute in multiple learning domains. Originally, the subscales of planning (9 items), self-monitoring (8 items), effort (10 items), and self-efficacy (10 items) were scored on a 4-point Likert rating scale: (1) never to (4) always; however, in the present study, the scale was revised into a 5-likert scale with reliability values

of 0.78, 0.73, 0.78, and 0.69 respectively to conform with the subscales of evaluation (8 items) and reflection (5 items) which were scored on a 5-point Likert rating scale. In accordance with the original scales, evaluation ranged from (1) never to (5) always, and reflection ranged from (1) strongly agree to (5) strongly disagree. Before data analysis, reflection scores were reversed to make them correspond to the scores on the other five subscales.

Third is the writing post-test. This consisted of the argumentative writing test. The writing topic was selected from among the topics that normally appear in the IELTS writing task 2 which are also relative to the topics they are studying in the classroom; however, checked for their sociocultural and cognitive appropriateness by three experts before they were administered to the respondents. They were given at least 60 minutes to finish their composition using at least 200 words.

Finally, interviews were conducted after a week of intervention. This is to gather more details about how often and when the respondents would use the CAAM after the intervention as well as how the CAAM would assist them to further understand writing processes and be aware of their self-regulation of learning strategies.

Treatment

Table 1 presents the plan of activities with its corresponding number of sessions and main parts:

Table 1 The Intervention Programme

Session	**Metacognitive Stages**	**Sub-stages**	**Activities**
1st Session	Introduction Part		-demystification of argumentative type of writing -discussion of different concepts of argument mapping such as conclusion, premises, counter-arguments, markers of coherence and the like.

2nd session to 8th sessions	Planning Stage	Advance Organization / schema building	-students brainstorm the topic to set the scene before attending to the writing topic. -A short text that is related to the writing topic would be provided and students are given time to read and comprehend the short text and make some notes what they expect to write. This is to further build their schemas towards the writing topic. -Learners share their ideas (from the short text) for several minutes to gain more ideas from their peers.
	Monitoring Stage	Writing Part	-introduce to students the writing topic to be developed asking them to brainstorm by writing all the ideas and thoughts as they could. They may write whatever comes in their mind which they think have something to do with the topic. -students are asked to share their ideas in pairs or in groups in several minutes. The listeners may add some ideas for its development.
		The Map creation via CAAM	-students create their argument maps through CAAM -students share their argument maps to their peers/ groupmates to further help shape their essay and to further solve issues regarding mismatched premises, incorrect counter-arguments and logical connections as well as improper use of markers of coherence. -teacher may provide advice to those students who had encountered problems in their work.

	Evaluation Stage	Writing and Submission parts	-students would create their draft after their peers suggestion and comments to shape their work and send their essay to the teacher through CAAM. -teacher can do indirect corrective feedback and had the chance to monitor and evaluate their writing process via CAAM editor page.
		Discovery/ Reflection part	-After the teacher sends back the students' essays, learners evaluate their performance and discuss to their peers how successful their writing process is and share possible insights (*e.g.* strategies) that they can try in the future to help them deal with problems they may encounter.

Data from questions in the interview protocol were subjected to frequency counts and were analyzed using the process of thematic coding (Cresswell, 2008). Table 2 presents the following themes that emerged after analyzing the interviewees' responses from semi-structured interviews that were conducted:

Table 2 *Emerged themes from the respondents' responses*

Theme 1	*Sub-themes*
The CAAM Method and its usability and problems in Writing argumentative composition	• Useful in composing argumentative type of writing
	• coherent connections and links
	• uses more time to finish one writing product
Theme 2	*Sub-themes*
Provided quality exercises and drills	• offers eventual support
	• It runs from simple to more complex practice/s and drills
	• Assists learners to the next level
Theme 3	*Sub-themes*
Awareness of their Self-Regulation of Learning and metacognitive strategies towards writing	• Planning
	• Self-Monitoring
	• Self-Evaluation
	• Reflection

Findings

Quantitative Findings

Overall test of difference on respondents' argumentative writing performance

The results from the overall t-test analysis showed that there was a significant difference on the respondents' argumentative writing performance across task achievement, coherence-cohesion, lexical resource and grammatical range and accuracy before and after the implementation of CAAM. As shown from table 3, the overall mean scores before the intervention (7.12) and after the intervention (12.87) show that when compared statistically, the differences between the two results were significant with a t-computed value of -16.90 compared to the p-value of 0.000. Therefore, the research hypothesis that claimed the use of CAAM had no significant difference on the respondents' writing performance before and after the strategy intervention, was rejected indicative that CAAM helps facilitate students writing process successfully.

Table 3 *Overall test of difference on the respondents' argumentative writing performance*

Variables	Mean	SD	t-computed value	p-value
Before the Intervention	7.12	1.01	-16.90	0.000
After the Intervention	12.87			

Test of relationship between respondents' argumentative writing performance and self-regulation of learning awareness after the implementation of CAAM

As revealed from Table 4, there were four out of six components that showed significant relationships with the aforesaid variables. The components on planning, self-monitoring, evaluation, effort, and self-efficacy which yielded t-computed values of 2.27, 2.19, 2.29, 5.09 and 2.07 respectively and are higher than the *t*-critical value of 2.06. This means that there was a significant relationship between the respondents' argumentative writing performance and the aforesaid SRS components. However, the component on reflection yielding *t*-computed value of 1.79 found lower than the *t*-critical value of 2.06 indicating that there was no significant relationship between the respondents' argumentative writing performance and the aforementioned component. The CAAM, in overall, used as an intervention to enhance to improve respondents' argumentative writing performance showed a significant relationship to

that of their self-regulation of learning since the t-computed value of 2.09 is higher than the t-critical value of 2.06. This might be attributed to CAAM which help improve students in their argumentative writing abilities and make them more conscious and active in dealing with their writing difficulties rather than simply accepting their writing problems.

Table 4 *Test of relationship between the respondents' argumentative writing performance and self-regulation of learning awareness after the implementation of CAAM*

Components of SRS	Pearson r-value	t-computed value	t-critical value
Planning	0.40	2.27	2.06
Self-Monitoring	0.27	2.19	2.06
Evaluation	0.23	2.29	2.06
Reflection	0.28	1.79	2.06
Effort	0.70	5.09	2.06
Self-Efficacy	0.37	2.07	2.06
Overall	0.32	2.09	2.06

Qualitative Analysis

The impact and challenges of using CAAM in EFL writing

There were 21 out of 25 respondents from the initial stage involved in the semi-structured interviews. The interview results revealed that the importance of using CAAM is able to help respondents to have a visual representation of the argument which helps them to understand the argument. When respondents were asked to express their comments on the impact and challenges of the method, one student contributed her opinion regarding it.

> *"The use of CAAM in argumentative writing is helpful to me. It helps to me create a visual representation that help me break down complicated arguments into simple manageable parts and consequently aided me to write a composition."*

Moreover, Respondents 1 and 2 maximized the effectiveness of CAAM in argumentative writing for it helped them to regulate their writing performances. They stated that because of

the editor page in CAAM, they were able to come up with a complete grasp of their theses, reasons and contentions and achieve a coherent writing product.

> *"The steps in CAAM helped me in dealing with arguments and make me perform better in displaying my arguments. With the CAAM editor page, it makes me my writing more coherent and more meaningful." (R1)*

> *"With the help of those coherent markers such as "because, although, however, moreover", which are available in the CAAM editor page, it helps assist my ideas flow smoothly from the beginning to the finished product." (R2)*

However, there were also respondents who felt that there was not enough time to complete the AM assessment task due to lack of knowledge of argument mapping. Respondent 3 expressed her opinion regarding unsuccessful writing performance due to insufficient knowledge in CAAM.

> *"In CAAM, I learnt how to write but I was not able to use them very efficiently because of lack of knowledge following its steps. Maybe I am just not exposed to this kind of software in writing. I felt that I wasted my time. Or maybe, I am a bit ignorant in using technology like CAAM in writing." (R3)*

Quality practice and drills

Since CAAM requires practice (hands-on tutorials), majority or 19 (91%) of the participants enjoyed the activities and exercises. Since the goal is both to provide plenty of practice and plenty of feedback. One participant (R18) felt motivated in doing those various activities since she was guided in using CAAM to map her arguments and successfully wrote down her arguments into paper.

> *"It is true that there is plenty of practices to accomplish, but by CAAM assistance, it is not a problem because it provides scaffolding steps. Actually, in CAAM, everything is in there, it helps us to improve our skill because we practice deliberately. We even tag our work to our peers and teacher if we would like to seek comments for improvement. It also guides us what to do next and the scaffolding step is directing us what to do and what activity to prevent. Finally, what I like the most in CAAM is, the complexity of the tasks is flowing gradually apart from telling whether a particular activity was successful or appropriate." (R18)*

Self-Regulated Learning Awareness

Regarding self-regulated learning, it is noticeable that all of the respondents (21 or 100%) utilized CAAM in argument mapping and thus assist them to achieve a successful argumentative writing composition. Verbatim transcript from R12 and R15 were found to be consistent. R15 stated her insight regarding self- monitoring while using CAAM in her writing processes:

> *"To check if I understood the thesis, arguments and contention towards the text before writing, I try to check everything together and I try to understand one thing which I believe will lead to understanding another. Actually, CAAM has been assisting and guiding me to do these activities." (R12)*

R15 also maximized the effective use of CAAM by trying to self-monitor her arguments by going back twice or thrice around.

> *"Since using CAAM allow us to go back even how many times we wanted to carefully check our arguments, I am still trying my best to double check if my thesis, contention and conclusions are right and free from mismatches and errors. CAAM aids me to edit throughout my writing process." (R15)*

With regard to self-evaluation and self-reflection, R13 stated her feeling regarding the effective use of CAAM in her argumentative writing process. She said that evaluating one's writing performance whether the correct arguments and evidences, or not, makes her more driven to continue writing and do her best to get correct answers. It also helps her to trace her performance.

> *"As I map my arguments, I see to it that I am right there. I am following my performance, whether I did get the right arguments and evidences or not. I always say, I am almost there! This attitude helps me think positively. Actually, I can go back and change my arguments, premises, and evidences, that easy. Moreover, after seeking suggestions from my peers regarding my work, I am trying to self-evaluate and reflect by weighing the arguments they suggested to my paper." (R13)*

The above qualitative results from the interviews indicated the significant impacts of the use of CAAM on learners' argumentative writing as well as their self-regulation of learning awareness.

Discussion

Study results revealed that the learners' use of argument mapping method made improvements on their argumentative writing performance across task achievement, coherence-cohesion,

lexical resource and grammatical range and accuracy. The improvement on the argumentative writing performance with yielded mean score of $\bar{x}$=12.87 (after the intervention) is far greater as compared to the obtained mean score of $\bar{x}$=7.12 (before the intervention). This indicates that the improvement the researcher measured was at least partly due to the strategy intervention provided on them rather than simply to maturation. It suggests that some of the improvement is in fact might be due to the argument mapping exercises. Harrell and Wetzel (2013) claim that the use of a well-designed argument maps or argument diagrams (ADs) can improve second language learners' writing performance and further highlighted that Ads help ignite learners' schemas which are vital in argumentative writing.

The effectiveness of employing argument mapping method on respondents' writing process can be attributed to the helpful features of argument mapping such as stating of thesis and premises, developing schemas, planning the essay structures, locating links and relationships, developing subclasses, sorting information and giving supports to the reasons, which are considered important factors of a successful argumentative writing. Using CAAM is much more flexible since it allows students to put any text at all into argument map boxes rather than to select a segment of text. Furthermore, the learners are also allowed to edit the structure of their maps as they create them by dragging boxes into its new place, that is, they can create their maps in any way or order they like such as starting to map their conclusion and following it with their promises or vice versa, incorporating evaluations of premises and inferences into their maps. Noticeably, CAAM allows students to be flexible and flexibility makes a difference to how students can learn from mapping drills and exercises. The aforementioned factors are essentially vital, which are necessary steps in the process of writing, as advocated by many researchers of L2/ EFL writing (Hyland, 2013; Robillos & Phantharakphong, 2020; Davies et al., 2021).

The findings also revealed that there is a significant improvement on respondents' argumentative writing product in terms of the development of writing content since (basing from the study findings) they were able to distinguish their argument conclusion and able to provide a number of different premises to support the thesis; They were also able to offer evidence/s and counter-arguments supporting the premise/s and thesis. The findings also showed a positive change on students' writing coherence. They were able to provide discussion on their reasons by logically linking their premises to the conclusion and between premises as well as the use of their "linguistic signposts" as noticed in their written output reflected from their writing post-test. The efficacy of AM assists to promote EFL learners' literacy skills which help them to produce more coherent and cohesive essays (Davies, 2010). This is backed

up by Pinkwart et al., (2009), claiming that the use of AMs foster L2 learners' argumentative writing. Congruent to this view is the study findings conducted by Malmir & Khosravi (2018), where they reported the efficacy of using AMs on both descriptive and expository tasks in the Iranian EFL context and found out that AM could improve these two tasks in terms of grammar, coherence, cohesion and task achievement but not beneficial in improving vocabulary of participant's writing. However, the present study concentrated on how the students develop the content of their writing with emphasis on the statement of conclusion and how it is being supported by evidence as well counter-arguments. It also focused on how students use markers of coherence to determine if they can be able to logically connect their premises to the conclusion and between premises.

Interestingly, the implementation of CAAM within metacognitive approach might also be a part of the reason why students improved their writing performance. Exercises in CAAM allow students to work on it on their own; however, the present study implemented the intervention within metacognitive approach involving three stages such as planning, monitoring and evaluation. With those stages, the students are guided to collaborate and interact together as they plan, monitor and evaluate their work. This might have provided them a significant boost to the power of the CAAM.

From the present study, results showed that the students became more cognizant of their self-regulation of learning. Motivation and attitude can have key impacts on students' academic outcomes (Zimmerman, 2008). The findings of this study showed that CAAM within the aforementioned approach aided the learners enhance their interests for accomplishing writing tasks, managing their own learning, and involving themselves to active and constructive procedures. It was revealed further that those who worked in groups during the strategy intervention affected significantly their writing performance as manifested in the interviews conducted. This is in line with previous studies which found the positive impact of collaborative learning in the classroom (Bayat, 2014; Onozawa, 2010).

However, one of the seven components of writing self-regulation did not show significant relationship with the learners' written composition performance. This component is on "reflection". This is expected to them because in the traditional EFL classroom, the students are not given the chance or allotted time to evaluate the strategies and methods they have been using to improve their written works and to self-reflect the mistakes they had in their drafts. They were not also given the opportunity to share their difficulties and accomplishments to their peers and friends which is a potential activity to enhance improvement on their written drafts. Zimmerman (2000) and Zimmerman and Kitsantas (2002) highlighted that self-

reflection as one of the phases of self-regulation which consisted of monitoring the adequacy of the content, organization, and form of one's written product, were not only cognitive but often affective processes whereby writers make different self-evaluative judgments about the text they produce. It should be noted that self-regulation does not occur automatically, and the factor of age does not develop self-regulated ability, as well (Lapan, 2010). Thus, self-regulated learning strategies can be taught which can lead to increase in students' performance (Tseng et al., 2006).

Conclusion

The use of CAAM can improve students' argumentative writing performance across task achievement, coherence-cohesion, lexical resource and grammatical range and accuracy. CAAM guides learners over the new content to be learnt which in turn enhances their writing performance. Furthermore, CAAM which is implemented within metacognitive approach fosters students' self-regulation of learning as to planning, self-monitoring, evaluation, reflection, effort, and self-efficacy. As the CAAM within planning, monitoring and evaluation stages appeared to be effective in learning, it can strengthen and foster students' self-regulation of learning. Pahlavani & Maftoon (2015) emphasized that engaging students' interest in the nature of the teaching materials through working on them in some ways like using CAAM, a greater degree of commitment and sense of purposeful activity will be generated. Sophisticated technology (*e.g.* CAAM) could considerably affect learners' task performances (van Gelder, 2007; Davies, 2011; Malmir & Khosravi, 2018; Robillos & Phantharakphong, 2020; Davies et al., 2021).

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of this study have pedagogical implications for EFL materials development which contributes to improvement of learners' writing skill and better understanding of the learners towards self-regulation of learning in the process of EFL writing in particular. By engaging students' interest in the nature of the teaching materials through working on them in some ways like using CAAM, a greater degree of commitment and sense of purposeful activity will be generated. Moreover, as learners' personality traits could be considered as important predictors in their success in language processing, identifying these traits and providing facilities to enhance them would be a great accomplishment in EFL teaching and learning. CAAM used as a method would provide opportunities for the teachers and learners to improve some of these personality traits, such as monitoring and evaluating skills, critical thinking skills, and

awareness towards self-regulation. Interestingly, the findings of this study also indicate that supplementing one's teaching with argument mapping does not require major revision of the syllabus, course readings, and/or assignments.

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When classrooms become virtual: Challenges and coping mechanisms of prospective teachers

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Abstract

Online education has served as a panacea of learning amidst the global health crisis. This technology-driven initiative has become the new norm and is the only possible way to resume the educational platforms. However, the massive change in the educational practices did not escape from the possibilities of encountering challenges that might restrain learning. This qualitative descriptive study among seven prospective language teachers was conducted to achieve its two primary objectives: (1) to determine the challenges faced by the prospective language teachers in online learning, and (2) to explore the coping mechanisms employed by the prospective language teachers in managing the challenges encountered in online learning. The data collected from the respondents were analyzed and categorized into themes. The result of the study yielded six classified recurring challenges encountered which can be summarized as slow internet, online multi-tasking, procrastination, noise distractions, power cut frustrations, and online learning difficulty. Further, it unearthed a total of six coping mechanisms employed in handling the challenges brought by online learning which can be abridged into the following: locating spaces with better internet connectivity, doing activities in advance and preparing a checklist, motivating oneself, focusing or concentrating, and switching to mobile data during power cuts. Thus, this is suggestive of the current educational platform, though the optimal option at hand, being fraught with hurdles that need immediate and serious addressing.

Keywords: *online learning, challenges, coping mechanisms, synchronous, internet*

Introduction

The issue of the sudden transition from traditional face-to-face to online learning in most higher education institutions worldwide has gained ground among scholars (Besser, Gordon, & Zeigler-Hill, 2020) which has led the conduct of various investigations (e.g. Antonio et al., 2020; Jacinto & Alieto, 2020; Mumbing et al., 2021), suggesting that alterations and innovations in the field of education attract the interests of scholars.

On another note, the complete disruption of the daily routines in the educational system was mandated when COVID 19 began to spread and has become seemingly uncontrollable. Due to this global health crisis, most educational institutions and establishments at all levels had been forced to close (Simamora, 2020; dela Rama et al., 2020; Cabangcala et al., 2021). Thus, teaching-learning processes are not allowed to be executed face to face, and the stakeholders are restricted to go to schools as an adherence to the guidelines or protocols imposed by the Inter-Agency Task Force.

Despite this global health dilemma, the government adopted online learning, a technology-driven platform designed to continue schooling despite the conflicts brought by distance and time. In this mode of delivery, technology plays an important role which supports the claim that technology is reshaping the educational landscape (Abequibel et al., 2021; Alieto et al., 2020; Eijansantos et al., 2020; Ramos, 2019)

Relative to this, it has been presumed that the elimination of barriers of time and distance will make lifelong learning viable. In a similar vein, the ever-evolving education landscape across universities and colleges considers technology intervention (Swan, 2017). Furthermore, through the concept of online education, teaching and learning will be possible regardless of time and distance (Alaugab, 2007). It is believed that distance learning or online learning is a panacea for educational dilemmas in this time of pandemic since there is no certainty of going back to the traditional full-packed face-to-face classes (Dhawan, 2020). It can be assumed that online learning is a technology-driven initiative that allows distance learning to become accessible among students. Moreover, students are allowed to study anytime and anywhere and with any means. Volery and Lord (2000) asserted that the internet is the prime technological advancement in remodeling schools throughout the world. Hence, the transition of the educational system takes place to meet the demand of the evolving society and to maintain competitiveness in the field of education (Keengwe & Kidd, 2010).

Through the passing years, online education has developed numerous models to have a greater understanding of how the teaching and learning process in the new academic paradigm would be relevant and productive (Harasim, 2000). While some scholars discovered the advantages

of online learning, it was perceived differently that there are prevailing challenges that continuously arise in terms of the learning process, technology, and learning environment from the course of online learning (Dhawan, 2020). It was emphasized that some of the technical issues that most online learners suffer from include log-in problems, difficulty in installation, and video and audio inconveniences. Also, he argued that the opportunity to learn online is limited due to less interaction and student engagement in the learning process. More so, online learners are less prepared and are unable to balance studies, family, etc. in an informal setting. With the additional hustle such as workloads, students have to become more responsible and liable for their success in online learning.

However, despite these controversies on the challenges encountered, there can always be strategies and solutions that can be employed for successful online learning. To fix technical difficulties, Dhawan (2020) suggested that pre-recording of videos and audios can be provided to students that they can access anytime. He also asserted that solving learning process issues can be done by employing dynamic, interactive, and interesting virtual class strategies to maximize the engagement of the online learners. Online education should be implemented and designed with the qualities that encourage creativity, relevance, and student-centeredness (Partlow & Gibbs, 2003).

This study is primarily conducted to explore the challenges encountered by the prospective language teachers in the course of online learning, and how they cope with these challenges. Furthermore, this study sought to carry out unique data about challenges experienced by language students and to discover the coping mechanisms they have employed in handling the challenges brought by online learning.

Literature Review

Online-Based Education

With the emergence of the digital era that has brought convenience and accessibility to the homes of everybody, the continuous development of technology has reached the field of education. Online education pertains to e-learning, online-based learning, internet-based instructions, or virtual classes (Urdan & Weggen, 2000 in Keengwe & Kidd, 2010). With this, a paradigm shift in the curriculum took place in 21st-century education (Harasim, 2000). Furthermore, the change from traditional to online-based learning has gained approval from different sectors of education and is likely to augment in the future (Oliver & Herrington, 2001). In a similar vein, the advancement in ICT gave educators excellent chances to enhance

the pedagogical practices from traditional to a bigger scale of learning through online education (Keengwe & Kidd, 2010).

Harasim (2000) found out that in a week, 75% of the learners logged in 10 times, and 88% logged in 5 times to check their emails and to access the resources available online. Hence, the researchers suggested that a virtual environment encourages students' active participation in online-based learning. Moreover, the study of Su, Bonk, Magjuka, Liu, and Lee (2005) revealed that some learners would prefer more audio and video instructional materials in online classes. Furthermore, the interaction between learners and educators showed a reasonable level of communication by which "often" or "very often" garnered 66%, and 4% of the respondents answered "sometimes"(Robinson & Hullinger, 2008).

The results of the different studies exhibited a justified remark toward online education. However, the paradigm shift of the educational system is critical for educators. Teachers would not only learn the usage of different technological tools, but they also need to alter and make a transformation on their pedagogical approaches in teaching to meet the learners' demands (Johnson, 2008; Nelson & Thompson, 2005). Besides, barriers in online education also exist and serve as a hindrance to the success of online-based education (Nkonge & Gueldenzolph, 2006).

Challenges in Online Learning

Online learning environments involve distinct pedagogical practices characterized by student-centered pedagogical content (Browne, 2005). Furthermore, its focus is also on the methods of delivery, media, format, genre, simulations, and platforms across disciplines (Keengwe & Kidd, 2010). The transformation initiated by technology in education is a topical concern that educational sectors must study. In today's educational context, the students are vulnerable to particular challenges (Bozkurt & Sharma, 2020). The transition to online learning is inconvenient for some students who are living in an area that is not conducive to learning. The fact that online learning has an extreme dependency on technology, numerous technical challenges are inevitable for students to experience. Similarly, following this new model, barriers and challenges in online education emerged and served as hindrances to the success of online-based education (Nkonge & Gueldenzolph, 2006).

In the study of Muilenberg and Berge (2005), there are major perceived challenges documented in online education that include the issues on academic skills, social interaction, technical skills, learning motivation, time allotment for studies, cost, and internet access. Similarly, in the study of Agustina et al. (2020), it was revealed that technological skill deficit is not a new

issue related to the challenges that restrain learning among students who take virtual classes. It can be extrapolated from the findings that students who are not techno-savvy tend to get left behind in their studies in the context of online learning. In the survey carried out by Adedoyin and Soykan (2020), students and teachers are discovered to have an erratic internet connection and are seemingly unable to get full access to online learning. Moreover, with the fact that distance learning is entirely dependent on technology, there are online learners who struggle to cope with technical challenges on the account of web-based learning. Socio-economic status is also one of the factors that affect online learning for the reason that there are students who cannot withhold the essential expenses in this new paradigm of learning (Demirbilek. 2014). In a similar study conducted by Ferrari (2012), where digital competence was emphasized in online learning, Bennett et al. (2008) addressed that there are digital natives who do not acquire the same level of digital competence as others. Consequently, students who do not possess the necessary skills in ICT are not equipped in pursuing online courses. A similar study has shown six common challenges that students complain about in the course of online learning, which include lack of digital skills, platform security, school support, ICT resources, motivation to learn online, and the context of online learning itself (Munero et al., 2016).

Regardless of how undesirable online education seemed for the students due to the challenges it brought, this new paradigm of education should be accepted and put into practice. The teachers as the implementers of the curriculum are obliged to assist the students in knowing the significance of learning and integrate blended discussions to balance the participation of the students despite the possible challenges brought by online learning (Han and Ellis, 2019). Moreover, the teachers' role in the course of online learning is crucial because the success of the learning process of the students is dependent on the employment of teaching strategies of the teachers with the help of other stakeholders.

Research Questions

This paper explored the challenges and coping mechanisms of prospective language teachers in online learning. Specifically, it sought to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the challenges faced by the prospective teachers in online learning?
2. How do prospective teachers cope with the challenges brought by online learning?

Methodology

Research Design

This study utilized a qualitative descriptive research design which, according to Nasajji (2015), is a method of an in-depth analysis conducted to understand how individuals learn, behave and perceive their experiences. This qualitative design is used to study and examine the challenges experienced, and coping mechanisms of prospective language teachers in online learning. In this study, one-on-one interviews utilizing open-ended questions for the respondents had been conducted over the phone. Similar with what Torres (2020) and Robles and Torres (2020) did, participants' responses in the open-ended questions were coded for taxonomic and componential analysis to come up with themes. Furthermore, this study provides detailed information about the two variables of the study, the challenges, and the coping mechanisms of the respondents.

Thematic analysis has been also utilized as a common practice employed in qualitative research studies. Wherein, the data collected with similar meanings were clustered into sets of themes. The themes were carefully analyzed and reviewed based on the unique answers and perspectives of the respondents (Torres et al., 2020, 2021).

Participants of the Study

A total of seven respondents participated in the study and underwent a one-on-one interview with the researchers. The sample size of the respondents was considered sufficient for the analysis of the study which was supported by the contention of Speziale and Carpenter (2002) that five to 10 respondents are ideal if one aims to carry out rich information about a particular phenomenon. This also supports Arndt's (1987 in Torres & Flores, 2017) stance on the number of participants required for qualitative studies. The sampling technique used in this study to select qualified respondents is purposive sampling. All seven respondents were female. Inclusion criteria were strictly followed to carry out accurate data from the respondents, viz: (a) an education student specializing in English or Filipino, and (b) having / attending online classes.

Data Collection

Semi-structured type of interview questions had been employed in this study. Before the interview was executed, interview questions were made sure to coincide with the research interview to obtain the reliability and validity of the data. Moreover, during the interview, the researchers did not show any biases towards the responses of the participants. At the end of

the interview, the audio-recorded interviews were kept strictly confidential and were not shared with anyone who is not associated with the study.

Results and Discussions

In the first part of the interview, the respondents were asked about their experiences in learning online. All of them shared common negative experiences but with varying factors that affect learning. Furthermore, the respondents find online learning as challenging due to the difficulty in time management, technical issues, etc.

The following are extracts from the interview:

> *It's challenging…because it's hard to manage your time when you are learning at home, and it's exhausting because every day we have classes and sometimes these classes take up most time of the day. (Participant 1)*
>
> *It is very challenging on my part technically because… I lack in gadget used in this new mode of learning. (Participant 5)*
>
> *I find it challenging because there are actually a lot of barriers in learning when we are having that virtual classes. (Participant 7)*

The data extracted from the conducted interviews given above provide the notion that the respondents find online learning challenging because this learning modality is new to them. This has happened when the pandemic began. There have been a lot of unexpected changes in educational practices including the shift from face-to-face to online learning. Moreover, the teachers and students were compelled to adopt a colossal change without regard of their readiness or otherwise (Agustina et al., 2020). Due to this circumstance, the participants have addressed major concerns specifically the challenges that affect their learning.

Prospective Language Teachers Challenges and Coping Mechanisms in Online Learning

In this research, two categories are identified and discussed, which include: (1) Prospective language teachers' challenges and (2) coping mechanisms employed in handling challenges in online learning. These two categories are presented in tables 1 and 2 to illustrate the themes analyzed from the interview.

Table 1 shows the various challenges encountered by the prospective language teachers in learning online. While table 2 illustrates the data on coping mechanisms employed by the respondents in handling challenges brought by online learning.

Table 1.

Challenges encountered by the prospective language teachers in online learning

THEMES	EXCERPTS	PERCENTAGE
1. Enduring slow internet speed during synchronous classes	*…I'm currently situated in a rural area and the connection here is not really well. Sometimes it goes off without notice. And then for example when I am attending classes I get disconnected or sometimes, I cannot hear the discussion, it becomes choppy because the signal just goes off. -P1* *…Another problem is the constant internet connectivity issues. Especially here in our area, most of the time the internet is actually very slow and its really frustrating…." -P2* *"…the most difficult part is having unstable internet connection. Since classes are done online, I need to have a good internet connection for me to be able to attend classes and participate well…- P3* *…I have experienced challenges when it comes to my internet connection whenever the signal is very slow making it difficult for me to join the class. -P4* *…I experience weak connectivity since I am in the rural area. If it is still weak. I cannot do anything about it anymore. If I cannot really enter the class, or the teacher gets choppy at*	6 out of 7 or 85.7%

	my end due to poor internet connectivity, I don't end the meet, I standby. -P6 *…when I experience slow internet connectivity in our area maybe due to the service maintenance undergoing with our PLDT network and as well as the poor internet connection brought about the heavy rains, so, that results to me not being able to attend my classes or I miss some important updates in my virtual classes….-P7*	
2. Managing multiple online task priorities and deadlines	*…it's exhausting because every day we have classes and sometimes these classes take up most time of the day… even if the class is already done, I still have to do my assignments or I have to answer activities and I have to read…. - P1* *…At times activities bombard us at a single time and it somehow frustrates me to find time to pass and to make the activities…. -P3* *…Everyday there are lot of activities needed to do and deadlines to chase. So, it's really draining, to the point that doing requirements is really frustrating for me. -P4* *…we are provided with a lot of individual activities and requirements so when it comes to time management, sometimes I feel*	4 out of 7 or 57.1%

	pressured because some teachers require us to submit a requirement within a short period of time and considering that I still have other pending requirements…. P7	
3. Controlling the urge to procrastinate in complying with online requirements	*…one of the challenges I experience in online class or even not in online classes is that I procrastinate. I like to do things when the deadline is near. And I think it's a bit hard to do things properly because of my attitude in procrastinating. -P1*	1 out of 7 or 14.3%
4. Preventing distractions brought by the noise in the environment during synchronous sessions	*…the distraction like when you study at home you have many people around you, many things that can distract you. For example, the tv. When you hear the tv or when you hear some people watching movie you get distracted and you tend to just watch the movie instead of doing you home works. Number 2, the people around you talking or some kids around you like you hear them laughing or just like playing around. -P1*	2 out of 7 or 28.6%
	…what I have experienced in this online learning modality is that the environment which can also cause distractions when I am attending my online classes. At times, I can hear a disturbing noise coming from our neighbors such as the noise of the vehicles exhaust and also the dogs that are barking. These noises distract my focus on my online	

	class, causing a disturbance whenever I am trying to listen to what my teacher is discussing during the online class session. -P7	
5. Handling frustration caused by the frequent power outage that affects WIFI connectivity	*...So, every time we have online classes and then there will be power interruption in class, it's actually frustrating because the teacher will be discussing something and then suddenly the power gets cut and then I get to...I will be leaving the meeting right away because of the power interruption, since I am using WIFI. -P2* *...power interruption happens not all the time. But sometimes it happens suddenly without any advisory from the ZAMCELCO and it actually hinders me as well to join my online class sessions. Just like what I had experienced last week. I am supposed to attend one of my classes online but because of this power interruption, I found it really difficult to attend because I am just depending on our WIFI network and my mobile data has a really poor connectivity. -P7*	2 out of 7 or 28.6%
6. Difficulty to learn and engage in online classes due to limited discussions and instruction	*...Teachers tend to give so many reading materials and would want us to read those files and answer the questions they prepared. So, imagine, reading a file with so many pages and there are times where in you needed an*	2 out of 7 or 28.6%

	explanation coming from them but unfortunately, they cannot provide you that. -P4
	…My concern is that some teachers no longer discuss or explain the lessons comprehensively and some are just giving activities without a thorough discussion of the lesson. I do not find this modality engaging and it gives me less motivation to learn compared to the traditional learning set-up considering that learning is only limited in an online modality. There is less student participation and less engagement with the teacher. -P7

Table 1 shows the challenges experienced by the prospective language teachers in online learning. There are six common themes analyzed from the data gathered through interview. This indicates that there are also six recurring challenges encountered by the respondents in online classes.

Enduring Slow Internet Speed During Synchronous Classes

Six out of seven or 85.7% of the respondents complained about internet issues. These respondents continuously endure slow internet speed during synchronous classes. According to them, poor signal affects them, especially when classes are going on through video conferences. When the internet issues arise, the discussant gets choppy on the other line making it hard to comprehend the lectures delivered. The worst scenario is when they get disconnected from the virtual meetings.

The following are some of the extracted excerpts:

> *…I'm currently situated in a rural area and the connection here is not really well. Sometimes it goes off without notice. And then for example when I am attending classes*

I get disconnected or sometimes, I cannot hear the discussion, it becomes choppy because the signal just goes off. (Participant 1)

…Another problem is the constant internet connectivity issues. Especially here in our area, most of the time the internet is actually very slow and it's really frustrating…. (Participant 2)

This implies that whenever there is an unstable internet connection, the student fails to hear the discussions during the synchronous sessions. Moreover, students' internet access affects the lecturing process (Yusuf & Ahmad, 2020). This notion implies that when the internet is less satisfactory among the students, synchronous classes might be disrupted. To support the claim of the respondents, Muilenberg and Berge (2005) conducted a study in a developing country where the internet connectivity is weak, it was found out that the internet accessibility issue is common among the students due to inaccessibility to portable devices. Additionally, Ahmed and Nwagnu (2006) supported the findings that the telecommunication issue is one of the challenges that affect online learning, most especially in developing countries.

Managing Multiple Online Task Priorities And Deadlines

Second is the challenge of managing multiple online task priorities and deadlines. There are four out of seven or 57.1% of respondents who shared common challenges in terms of task and deadline management. They concluded that online classes cause troubles in doing school works and chasing deadlines. The excerpt…

…we are provided with a lot of individual activities and requirements so when it comes to time management, sometimes I feel pressured because some teachers require us to submit a requirement within a short period of time and considering that I still have other pending requirements…. (Participant 7)

Respondent 7 stated that heavy workloads can cause pressure due to the urge of submitting activities on time. As supported by the study of Agustina et al. (2020), it was revealed that there are more assignments or tasks given to students online than face to face. Doing heavy tasks is one of the common challenges encountered by students in online learning. The students consider these assignments as burdens because they usually come from different teachers at the same time.

Controlling The Urge To Procrastinate In Complying With Online Requirements

One of the respondents also said in the interview that procrastination is one of the challenges that affect online learning. Moreover, it affects the respondents' willingness to comply with the requirements.

Excerpt:

> *...one of the challenges I experience in online class or even not in online classes is that I procrastinate. I like to do things when the deadline is near. And I think it's a bit hard to do things properly because of my attitude in procrastinating. (Participant 1)*

This notion suggests that online learning does not encourage students to work with school tasks actively, but rather drives the students to procrastinate. This implies that students do not have the interest to do home works probably due to the absence of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Students' low motivation towards online classes affects their performance to comply with the requirements and participate (Agustina et al., 2020). Moreover, it was found out that boredom usually strikes when there are activities to be done at home resulting in not doing it anymore.

Preventing Distractions Brought By The Noise In The Environment During Synchronous Sessions

Inevitable distractions from the surrounding during synchronous classes is also one of the challenges that 2 out of 7 or 28.6% of the respondents reported. When studying at home, there are unavoidable disturbances that might be experienced such as noise from the family members, television, outside noise (e.g. vehicles passing, dog barks). These can distract the learners' focus on online classes (synchronous classes).

The following are the excerpts:

> *...the distraction like when you study at home you have many people around you, many things that can distract you. For example, the tv. When you hear the tv or when you hear some people watching movie you get distracted and you tend to just watch the movie instead of doing you home works. Number 2, the people around you talking or some kids around you like you hear them laughing or just like playing around. (Participant 1)*

> *...what I have experienced in this online learning modality is that the environment which can also cause distractions when I am attending my online classes. At times, I can hear a disturbing noise coming from our neighbors such as the noise of the vehicles exhaust and also the dogs that are barking. These noises distract my focus on my online*

class, causing a disturbance whenever I am trying to listen to what my teacher is discussing during the online class session. (Participant 7)

The respondents complain about the physical distractions they experience whenever their online classes are going on. Respondent 1 stated that television and the noise coming from their home are some of the major distractions experienced in learning online. In the study of Agustina et al. (2020), it was revealed that an unsupportive environment is a major challenge to online learning that is hard to handle.

Handling Frustration Caused By The Frequent Power Outage That Affects WIFI Connectivity

Another challenge pointed out by 2 out 0f 7 or 28. 6% of the respondents is the frustration caused by frequent power interruptions while having virtual classes. The respondents reported that power interruption often happens whenever the classes are going on since they are depending on WIFI networks. When the power gets off, the internet also gets off.

The following are the excerpts:

...So, every time we have online classes and then there will be power interruption in class, it's actually frustrating because the teacher will be discussing something and then suddenly the power gets cut and then I get to…I will be leaving the meeting right away because of the power interruption, since I am using WIFI. (Participant 2)

...power interruption happens not all the time. But sometimes it happens suddenly without any advisory from the ZAMCELCO (the electric company provider) and it actually hinders me as well to join my online class sessions. Just like what I had experienced last week. I am supposed to attend one of my classes online but because of this power interruption, I found it really difficult to attend because I am just depending on our WIFI network and my mobile data has a really poor connectivity. (Participant 7)

What happens when there is a power outage, some students cannot connect to the virtual meetings because the WIFI connection also gets disrupted. When the WIFI is not available, the students are not able to attend classes and are marked as absent from the class discussion.

Difficulty to learn and engage in online classes due to limited discussions and instruction

`Learning and engaging oneself to online classes seemed to be very challenging for some students due to limited discussions and instruction provided by the online teachers. Two out of

seven or 28.6% of the respondents reported that they do not find online learning as motivating due to the teachers' performance in delivering lectures. The excerpts…

> *…Teachers tend to give so many reading materials and would want us to read those files and answer the questions they prepared. So, imagine, reading a file with so many pages and there are times where in you needed an explanation coming from them but unfortunately, they cannot provide you that." (Participant 4)*
>
> *…My concern is that some teachers no longer discuss or explain the lessons comprehensively and some are just giving activities without a thorough discussion of the lesson. I do not find this modality engaging and it gives me less motivation to learn compared to the traditional learning set-up considering that learning is only limited in an online modality. There is less student participation and less engagement with the teacher. (Participant 7)*

These excerpts provide the data that the researchers solicited from the respondents of the study. These notions imply that the teachers' strategy of bombarding students with numerous reading tasks without providing further explanations makes the students lose their motivation to get engaged with the online classes. In the study of Steinmayr and Spinath (2009), it was revealed that motivation plays an important role in online learning because this contributes to the students learning success. Moreover, if students happen to be unready to embrace online education, the implication is that they are not motivated to learn. As a support to this, some researchers had documented failed online learning process due to unpreparedness (Aydin & Tasci, 2005).

Table 2

Coping mechanisms employed by the prospective language teachers in handling challenges brought by online learning

THEMES	EXCERPTS	PERCENTAGE
1. Changing current location to increase internet speed or switching to better network	*…one thing that I do when I have poor internet connection is to relocate to find good signal I have to go to other houses. I go there just to attend online classes or just to have good signal. Number 2, I also try to change sim cards when the smart*	4 out of 7 or 57.1%

	signal is at its poor rate I go to globe and try to find good connection. -R1 *…I go to higher places in our area to be able to use mobile data because mobile data here in our area is also slow. -R2* *…the signal is weak here in our area. Sometimes I go to places that have strong signals so that I can still manage to join the class. R4* *…sometimes I experience slow connection down here in our area. I relocate sometimes. I go to higher places. - R6*	
2. Doing activities in advance and preparing a checklist of tasks to manage meeting the deadlines	*…I try really hard to list down what I have to do so that I don't really forget and I try my hardest to concentrate or to direct myself to do these things so that I can do another thing. -R1* *…when there are assignments and activities that were given, I am that kind of person if I can do it right now, I'll immediately do it. For this day I need to finish two activities, the other days I'd finish another two activities. Because I am somehow lazy, so, I want to make*	4 out of 7 or 57.1%

	things a head of time so I could rest for the next day. -R3 *…I mange my time strictly. For example, I do a checklist of a task that I should complete within the day or within the week. -R4* *…Given that that we are provided with a lot of individual activities and requirements in this online modality, I try my best to manage my time and be productive as much as possible so I will be able to accomplish my tasks ahead of time. Also, by multi-tasking wherein I do not only focus on accomplishing one task but I try to work on more than one task simultaneously. -R7*	
3. Motivating one's self	*…I think of good thoughts. I think of graduation. That's all. That's how I overcome procrastination. I think of the time that I will graduate and then I get inspired and then I do my activities. That's how I cope with procrastination. R1*	1 out of 7 or 14.2%
4. Trying to concentrate and transferring to an area with less noise and distractions during video conferences	*…concentrate or to direct myself to do these things so that I can do another thing. -R1*	2 out of 7 or 28.6%

	…Since the noises coming from our surroundings are inevitable, the only thing that I can do is to look for an area where there is less noise and distraction…. R7	
5. Switching to mobile data when there is power outage	*…if there is power interruption in our area, what I do is that I buy a load and then I get to use my mobile data. So, instead of using the WIFI, I use my mobile data instead…. -R2*	1 out of 7 or 14.28%
6. Browsing through the internet to extend the understanding about a topic introduced	*By searching on the internet, I manage to find answers on my questions and understand the topic even better. -R4*	2 out of 7 or 28.6%
	Since some teachers lack some thorough discussion or explanation of the lessons, I try to look for some other references from the internet such as articles and journals that can be of great help for me to understand the lesson very well…. -R7	

Table 2 shows the data on the coping mechanisms employed and suggested by the respondents when encountering recurring challenges in online learning. In this table, there are six themes analyzed. This means that there are also six coping mechanisms shared by the respondents in the interview. These include:

Changing the current location to increase internet speed and switching to better network

One of the ways to cope with poor internet is to relocate to places known to have a better connection. Another is switching to another network to compare which has better access to the

internet. Respondents who reside in rural areas are most likely to experience slow internet speed causing them inconvenience in attending synchronous and asynchronous classes. It can be derived from the responses of the respondents that when intermittent internet connection problems arise, they are forced to move from one place to another to find better connections since they cannot attend classes or submit written tasks without the internet.

The following are the excerpts:

> *...one thing that I do when I have poor internet connection is to relocate to find good signal I have to go to other houses. I go there just to attend online classes or just to have good signal. Number 2, I also try to change sim cards when the smart signal is at its poor rate I go to globe and try to find good connection. (Participant 1)*
>
> *...I go to higher places in our area to be able to use mobile data because mobile data here in our area is also slow. (Participant 2)*
>
> *...the signal is weak here in our area. Sometimes I go to places that have strong signals so that I can still manage to join the class. (Participant 4)*
>
> *...sometimes I experience slow connection down here in our area. I relocate sometimes. I go to higher places. (Participant 6)*

The respondents' responses are common to one another. This implies that students exert effort in finding ways to get better internet speed even if it seems impossible. All of them relocate or go to places with higher altitudes to manage attending class on time. Due to this finding, it can be assumed that students suffer from attending class especially those in remote areas who can hardly get connected to the internet.

Doing Activities In Advance And Preparing A Checklist Of Tasks To Manage Meeting The Deadlines

In managing the challenge brought by multiple online task priorities and deadlines, the respondents overcome this challenge by doing activities in advance and preparing a checklist of tasks to manage meeting the deadlines. The respondents believe that when tasks are done days before their submission date, the deadlines are met.

The *following are the excerpts:*

> *...I try really hard to list down what I have to do so that I don't really forget and I try my hardest to concentrate or to direct myself to do these things so that I can do another thing. (Participant 1)*
>
> *...when there are assignments and activities that were given, I am that kind of person if I can do it right now, I'll immediately do it. For this day I need to finish two activities,*

the other days I'd finish another two activities. Because I am somehow lazy, so, I want to make things a head of time so I could rest for the next day. (Participant 3)

...I mange my time strictly. For example, I do a checklist of a task that I should complete within the day or within the week. (Participant 4)

...Given that that we are provided with a lot of individual activities and requirements in this online modality, I try my best to manage my time and be productive as much as possible so I will be able to accomplish my tasks ahead of time. Also, by multi-tasking wherein I do not only focus on accomplishing one task but I try to work on more than one task simultaneously. (Participant 7)

These ideas coming from the respondents suggest that preparation to do a task is an effective way to be productive in performing a task on time. Preparation can be done by creating a checklist to know what should be done first and what follows depending on the deadlines set by the teachers. Moreover, doing home works ahead of time will decrease worries among students when the deadline is near.

Motivating Oneself

Motivation is one of the driving forces that make people pursue a goal and overcome obstacles (Ersanli, 2015 in Torres & Alieto, 2019). Motivating one's self is emotional self-support that can stimulate the willingness of the student to go further in learning. In this new mode of learning, one of the respondents reported that online class stimulates laziness to perform school task on time or before deadlines. To get through with this challenge, the respondent thinks about motivations to stop procrastination. In the case of respondent 1, procrastination became a personality trait but to overcome this the respondent tends to find motivation.

The following is the extracted excerpt:

...I think of good thoughts. I think of graduation. That's all. That's how I overcome procrastination. I think of the time that I will graduate and then I get inspired and then I do my activities. That's how I cope with procrastination. (Participant 1)

This suggests that motivating oneself in such a way of envisioning future goals will help reduce the chances of procrastinating. Moreover, getting inspired is effective in getting away with laziness. In an online learning environment, motivation is one of the important factors considered to have an impact on learning. In a study conducted, it was shown that student motivation is linked to significant learning results such as achievement and course satisfaction (Chung-Cheng & Jong Jang, 2010). It can be extrapolated from this argument that motivation should be given greater attention to making sure that students are manifesting a willingness to

learn and finish a course online. And in order to enliven the motivation aspect of the teachers, Elipane et al. (2013) stressed that sustainability and support from the institution is one remarkable thing that should be considered so that most, if not everyone, of the teachers will continue to embrace the challenges.

Trying To Concentrate And Transferring To An Area With Less Noise And Distractions During Video Conferences

Concentrating and transferring to an area with less noise and distractions during video conferences is another coping mechanism employed by some of the respondents in dealing with noise and distractions. Accordingly, noises are inevitable, especially when at home. Moreover, this noise could become a disturbance when occurs frequently.

The following are the excerpts:

> *…concentrate or to direct myself to do these things so that I can do another thing. (Participant 1)*
>
> *…Since the noises coming from our surroundings are inevitable, the only thing that I can do is to look for an area where there is less noise and distraction… (Participant 7)*

Concentration can help learning take place despite how busy the environment is and how noisy it is. Since it is inevitable, the only thing that can be possibly done is to adjust your workplace by finding a quiet place away from possible distractions.

Switching To Mobile Data When There Is Power Outage

When the power gets off during synchronous classes, the students' device automatically disconnects from the WIFI. Due to this, some classes are missed. The only way to prevent missed classes is by regaining internet connection by switching to the use of mobile data. Take the case of respondent 2.

The following is the excerpt:

> *…if there is power interruption in our area, what I do is that I buy a load and then I get to use my mobile data. So, instead of using the WIFI, I use my mobile data instead… (Participant 2)*

This shows that the respondent is resourceful. Moreover, the respondent does not only rely on one source, but finds an alternative way to solve inevitable issues like a power outage. Since WIFI solely depends on electricity, switching to mobile data is the last resort of online learners.

Browsing Through The Internet To Extend The Understanding About A Topic Introduced

There are teachers in online classes who fail to engage students fully during discussions. This leads to the dilemma of acquiring learning issues. When students are not motivated to listen to teachers, synchronous classes are only wasting the time and resources of both teacher and students. In the case of respondents 4 and 7, they said during the interview that whenever they choose to neglect synchronous discussions, they opt to extend their understanding of a particular topic by browsing on the internet.

The following are the excerpts:

> *By searching on the internet, I manage to find answers on my questions and understand the topic even better. (Participant 4)*
>
> *Since some teachers lack some thorough discussion or explanation of the lessons, I try to look for some other references from the internet such as articles and journals that can be of great help for me to understand the lesson very well…. (Participant 7)*

The student's engagement and motivation to learn simply rely on the capability of the teacher to employ interactive, creative, and dynamic strategies for online learning. Since some of the teachers fail to engage their students to participate in online activities especially during synchronous classes, the students fill the gap of the teachers' responsibility by doing independent study. They look for available resources online to extend their understanding of a particular topic. In the study of Agustina et al. (2020), teachers' poor performance was also found as one of the students' challenges due to failure in utilizing appropriate teaching methods and strategies in the context of online learning.

Conclusion

In the course of online learning, it is not deniable that learning is susceptible to many dilemmas including challenges brought by technology, heavy workloads, noise intrusion, lack of motivation, etc. Given the fact that the Philippines is not ready for a technology-driven modality of executing the teaching-learning process, the viability of online education is at risk. In this study, it was found out that students experienced challenges in terms of school work and management, internet connection, power interruptions, procrastination, noise in the environment, and difficulty engaging themselves in online learning. However, these recurring challenges have been handled by the respondents with some of the coping mechanisms such as strict time management to meet the deadlines of activities required, switching to better internet network when internet issues arise, switching to mobile data when WIFI is not

available, motivating oneself when procrastination attacks, and doing self-study when not satisfied with online lecturing. Hence, this study has carried out the answers to the queries in line with online learning.

Implications

Based on the findings from the investigation conducted, it can be assumed that the paradigm shift from face-to-face to online learning stemmed from various challenging concerns among online learners due to unpreparedness. This suggests that the new learning modality is found to be flawed to a certain extent. The participants disclosed some of their undesirable experiences in learning online that include: internet issues, lack of motivation, distractions, heavy tasks, and difficulty in engaging oneself during synchronous classes. The fact that these students were left with no other choice but to have their classes virtually creates a risky scenario wherein the viability of online education is unpredicted. Besides, most of the challenges found fault with is inevitable or beyond the students' control.

The study has a few functional ramifications for distance schooling executives, experts, and policymakers just as hypothetical ramifications for the scientists. Each challenge looked by the students and instructors may be individual and contextual. Consequently, the distance training overseers are needed to get input as far as the adequacy of their distance learning experience as well as finding out about entrance qualities. Different difficulties show that imminent instructors' interest and their perseverance in distance training courses and programs can be expanded with the arrangement of some direction. This direction can be centered on compelling using time productively and learning techniques just as how to deal with regularly dealt with specialized issues. It tends to be as direction programs, educators' aides, and continuous direction and backing. These difficulties can be overwhelmed by giving adaptable course and program necessities as well as creating relevant answers for each challenge depending on the qualities of the students and instructors.

There were coping mechanisms applied to overcome the above-mentioned challenges such as relocating to find better signals, strict time management, motivating oneself, and finding good space to avoid disturbances or distractions. However, the students cannot always depend on these temporary strategies especially when the students are in the autonomy of their success in learning.

Moreover, teacher orientation and peer mentoring can likewise be helpful in defeating the recognized difficulties and proceeding with personnel proficient turn of events and execution improvement are fundamental. The investigation discoveries likewise underline the

significance of workforce's andragogical and instructive skills notwithstanding their technological education. This should be possible through such staff proficient improvement procedures as student input, networks of practice, continuous help, electronic execution supportive networks, and others.

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A Comparison of Female and Male English Lecturers' Working Performance and Competence: A Research-Based on Students' Perspective

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Abstract

This study is a report on a comparison of female and male English lecturers' working performance and competency. It was aimed to find out a comparison of female and male English lecturers' working performance and competence. It is a mix method study with qualitative and quantitative design, and it was conducted at a private university in East Jakarta. The subjects of this study were the English education students who were consisted of 50 students. The instruments of this study were two sets of questionnaire, and these questionnaires are used to measure lecturer performance (consisting of 28 statements) and to measure lecturer competency (consisting of 28 statements). Likert Scale was used to analyze the data taken through the questionnaire after the data were analyzed, then they were described descriptively. The finding of this research was drawn that the majority of senior high school students said that female and male English lecturers' language instruction is very different and they prefer males' language instruction rather than females' language instructions. So it is concluded that the profession of lecturers should be more cover by male or female language instruction should be more specific and more precise as males' language instruction.

Keywords: *female, male, comparison, language instruction*

Introduction

Male and female also have the same rights in education, for example, male and female students have the same right to be able to attend education up to certain formal education levels (Nadeem et al., 2011). Indeed, it is not fair if in this global era, females tend to be at the second compared to males in getting the education, especially if females have intelligence or ability. In essence, education is also a right for every individual of the nation's children to be able to enjoy it. Education is a conscious effort made by humans to develop their potential through the learning process of learning. The existence of this essential education has been recognized and at the same time has very strong legality, which states that "Every citizen has the right to education" (Yphantides, 2019).

The history of the development and development of nations teaches us that advanced, modern, prosperous and prosperous countries are countries that have quality education systems and practices. Meanwhile, quality education is highly dependent on the existence of qualified lecturers, namely lecturers who are professional, prosperous, and dignified. The lecturer is one of the human element in the education process. In the process of education in schools, lecturers hold a dual-task that is as a lecturer and educator. As a lecturer, the lecturer is tasked with pouring several learning materials into the brains of students, educating as educators, the lecturer is tasked with guiding and fostering students to become capable, active, creative, and independent human beings.

Lecturers are a profession whose progress is always demanded along with the changing times. Therefore lecturers are jobs that require particular expertise in the field of education. So the task carried out by a lecturer is not light because they have to be responsible for the next generation of young people. It shows that the ability or professional competence of a lecturer dramatically determines the quality of education. Lecturers are needed to manage the environment that leads to better behaviour change for students because lecturers play the primary role. The role of the lecturer is vital, so the lecturer is required to have a standard of quality ability and professionalism to conduct quality learning.

Lecturer quality can be viewed from two aspects, namely the element of the process and terms of results. Lecturers are said to be successful if they can actively involve most students both physically, mentally, socially as well as passion and enthusiasm in teaching. Whereas in terms of results if the learning that is carried out can change the behaviour of most students towards better mastery of essential competencies (Nadeak & Lamhot, 2019). Therefore lecturers must

be able to create learning that is creative, professional, and fun. The current teaching conditions of lecturers are quite sufficient to show excellent performance and quality (Nadeak et al., 2019; Alsalem et al., 2017). The quality of teaching of female lecturers is no less useful than that of male lecturers. However, some facts show that there are some striking differences between male and female English lecturers. Psychomotorally, male lecturers are more agile, fast, and have more energy compared to female lecturers. It is due to the anatomical structure of a woman's body, which influences why women's space is more limited compared to men (Asio, 2019; Batang, Dayag & Medriano, 2018).

This research, of course, is inseparable from the problems so, these problems must be studied, analyzed and solved. After knowing and understanding the background of the problem, the problem in the study are arranged in the form of questions as follows: "How are the differences between female and male English lecturers' working performance and competence" (Leong & Ahmadi, 2017; Wu, 2011). With the aim of the research is to find out in-depth female and male English lecturers' working performance and competence (Igberadja, 2016; Shahzadi et al., 2014).

Theoretical Review

Management system of students still uses conventional methods and emphasizes the development of intelligence in the narrow sense and does not pay attention to the development of students' creative talents. Marmah (2014) argues that there are some characters that prospective educators need to know or for someone who is just an educator about the quality of lecturers. The characters meant are as follows: a) positive thinking; b) communicative; c) can be trusted; d) attractive personality; e) organized; f) firmly keep promises; g) motivated; h) generous; i) flexible; j) astute; k) relies on value; l) broad-minded; m) patient; and n) has a sense of humour. Lecturer performance determines success in the learning process. Learning is an activity carried out consciously and intentionally. Thus the learning objectives will be achieved, the purpose of learning itself is to help students gain various experiences and with that experience students increase, both quality and quantity (Olufemi et al., 2018; N. G & Feldman, 2009).

Besides, the lecturer's performance can also be seen from the implementation of his primary duties. The lecturers' primary responsibility is compiling a teaching program, presenting teaching programs, evaluating learning, analyzing learning outcomes, and arranging improvement programs. Besides, lectures are also responsible in organizing, implementing, evaluating and analyzing the guidance programs (Sanyal & Hisam, 2018; Nadeak, at al., 2019;

Al-Mzary et al., 2015; Sultan & Shafi, 2014). So that lecturer performance can be done well and always be improved and reach a standard, it requires performance management. “Performance management is a process of continuous communication and is carried out in partnership between an employee and a direct appraiser” (Terrazas, 2018). So the leading lecturer performance management related to the principal's task to always carry out continuous communication, through the fabric of partnerships with all lecturers in the school. “Competence is a set of smart and responsible actions that a person has as a condition to be considered capable by the community in carrying out tasks in specific fields of work” (Olatunji, 2013). Lecturer competence is an effort that is done to advance and improve the quality, expertise, abilities, and skills of lecturers for the perfection of their work assignments. Qualified and professional lecturers are the demands of society, and so far, the lecturer has given the best to their students (Gee, 2018). Professional lecturers should have four competencies, namely:

Pedagogic Competence - Pedagogic competence is the ability to understand students. “Understanding of students includes an understanding of insight or the foundation of leadership, knowledge of students and the psychology of child development while learning that consists of the ability to design learning, implement learning, assess the learning process and outcomes, and make improvements continuously” (Long, Ibrahim & Kowang, 2014). The lecturers should be aware of “the level of intelligence, creativity, physical disabilities and cognitive development, learning planning, learning implementation, learning which educates and dialogues, utilizes learning technology, evaluates learning outcomes and develops students” (Polnaya, Nirwanto & Triatmanto, 2018). From some of these opinions, it was concluded that pedagogical ability is the ability of lecturers in managing and organizing the student learning, such as, the understanding of students, planning and implementing learning, evaluating learning outcomes and developing students to actualize the various potentials they have.

Personality Competencies - Lecturers have a reliable and authoritative personality competency, but still wise, their personality must be stable, must not be angry, let alone emotional (Bin & Rinanti, 2016). Objectively able to evaluate their performance and develop themselves independently and sustainably. Lecturers as educators whose main task is to teach have personality characteristics that are very influential on the success of human resource development. A stable personality of the figure of a lecturer will provide a good role model for children and society so that the lecturer will appear as a figure who should be innocent and emulated (Vo, 2017). That personality will determine whether he becomes an excellent

educator and coach for his students, or will be a destroyer or destroyer for the future of his students. From these descriptions, the authors conclude that personality abilities are attitudes and behaviours (morals) possessed by a lecturer so that they can set an example for students and the community is also the most crucial factor for students' successful learning. With a good personality, noble character, wisdom and authority, it becomes a role model for students and outside the community.

Professional Competence - Professional competence "is the ability of lecturers in mastering broad and in-depth learning material that enables them to guide students in mastering subject matter" (Dafouz, 2014; Asemanyi, 2015). Professional competencies include: a) professional development (Mah & Ifenthaler, 2018); b) understanding insight; and c) mastery of academic study materials (Puncreobutr, 2016).

Social Competence - Social competence is "the ability of lecturers as part of the community at least to communicate and interact effectively with students and the surrounding community" (Studer, 2015). To be able to carry out social roles, the lecturer must have: a) The normative aspect of education, that is not only to be dependent on talent, intelligence, and skills but must also have good intentions so that this is related to norms that are used as the basis for implementing as expected; b) considerations before choosing the position of lecturer; and c) has a program that leads to improving the progress of society and the progress of Education (Anari, 2012). Social competence include the ability to adapt to the demands of work and the environment when carrying out his tasks as a lecturer. The social competence requires that lecturers have excellent social communication skills with students, fellow lecturers, principals, and administrative staff and even with community members. The teaching and learning process is a combination of two activities, namely teaching activities and learning activities. Teaching activity involves the role of a lecturer in the context of trying to create a fabric of harmonious communication between the instructor himself and the student. Learning is a form of growth, changes in a person expressed in new ways of behaviour thanks to experience and training (Clifford, 2015).

Methodology

The design of the study used in this research was quantitative with comparative design; it is used to examine the symptoms of a group or individual behaviour. The variable in this study is the quality of teaching male and female English lecturers. The quality of teaching referred to two aspects assessed in this research, namely aspects of lecturer competency quality and aspects of performance quality. The aspects of lecturer competency quality that must be

possessed by English lecturers, namely: personality competence, pedagogical competence, professional competence, and social competence. While for the aspect of performance quality consists of seven aspects, namely: preparation of teaching, ability to open lessons, ability to ask questions, ability to hold variations of learning, clarity in delivering material, ability to manage classes, ability to close lessons, and accuracy between time and subject matter. The population of this study was 50 students who were also used as samples in this study. The sampling technique used is cluster sampling; it is done due to the limited number of the students, so all the students were directly taken as the sample of the study. The instruments used to collect research data were two sets of the questionnaire. One set of questionnaire was used to measure lecturer performance, and the other set was used to measure lecturer competency. Each questionnaire consists of 28 statements with three alternative answers. These questionnaires were analyzed by using Likert Scale. After the results are analyzed, the scores obtained were interpreted by referring to the following Interpretation Value Score:

Tabel 1. Score Interpretation Value

Score Range	Interpretation
80 – 100	Very high
60 - 79	High
40 - 59	Neutral
20 – 39	Low
0 - 19	Very low

Result and Discussion

Data processing of research results from students' answers to the questions contained in the questionnaire about differences in performance and competence between male and female lecturers is processed quantitatively, and the results are described qualitatively. The results that have been found have been described as follows. As explained in the "theoretical review" section of this paper, lecturer competency consists of 4 parts: professional, pedagogic, personality, and social. The results of the questionnaire data processing that measures the competence of male and female English lecturers are described as follows:

Table 2. Female and Male English Lecturers' Personality Competency

No	Interval	Personality Competence	Male Lecturer		Female Lecturer	
			f	%	F	%
1	80 - 100	Very good	44	88	45	90
2	50 – 79	Good	6	12	1	2
3	30 – 49	Poor	0	0	4	8
	Total		50	100	50	

The data shows that male and female English lecturers are: a) having outstanding personalities, namely discipline; b) acting following agreed norms; c) being polite in speaking; d) behaving politely; e) behaving appropriately according to situations and conditions; f) being respected by students; g) having the authority as an educator, and h) having the commitment.

Table 3. Male and Female English Lecturers' Pedagogic Competency

No	Interval	Pedagogic Competence	Male Lecturer		Female Lecturer	
			f	%	F	%
1	80 - 100	Very good	45	90	40	80
2	50 – 79	Good	3	6	18	16
3	30 – 49	Poor	2	4	2	4
	Total		50	100	50	

The data shows that male and female English lecturers are: a) having excellent pedagogical skills because they can make the students become more enthusiast during teaching and learning; b) learning is done on time in carrying out and submitting the results of the evaluation of learning; c) opening up to establish familiarity with students; d) being able to act wisely, and e) overcoming the juvenile delinquency.

Tabel 4. Male and Female English Lecturers' Professionalism Competency

No	Interval	Professionalism Competence	Male Lecturer		Female Lecturer	
			f	%	F	%
1	80 - 100	Very good	44	88	40	80
2	50 – 79	Good	4	8	8	16
3	30 – 49	Poor	2	4	2	4
	Total		50	100	50	

The data shows that male and female English lecturers are: a) having excellent professionalism because they can be role model for the students; b) learning is done through exciting ways; c) having the ability to manage the class; d) having the ability to motivate students.

Table 5. Male and Female English Lecturers' Social Competency

No	Interval	Social Competence	Male Lecturer		Female Lecturer	
			F	%	F	%
1	80 - 100	Very good	48	96	38	76
2	50 – 79	Good	2	4	10	20
3	30 – 49	Poor	0	0	2	4
	Total		50	100	50	

The data shows that the male English lecturer is more capable of cooperating with the students, communicating ideas/thoughts with clear sentences, being more actively involved in social activities at school than female English lecturers. Then, the questionnaire data that measured the working performance of male and female English lecturers was described as follows.

Table 6. Differences between Male and Female English Lecturer Working Performance

Aspects	G	Mean	Criteria	Questionnaire Answer Alternative Frequency (%)				D
				VG	G	B	VB	
Preparation in teaching	MT	93	VG	37 (74%)	11 (22%)	1 (2%)	1(1%)	3
	FT	90	VG	35 (70%)	12 (24%)	2(4%)	1(1%)	
Opening activity	MT	90	VG	35 (70%)	13 (26%)	2 (4%)	0 (0%)	2
	FT	88	VG	34 (68%)	12 (24%)	3 (6%)	1 (1%)	
questioning	MT	89	VG	38 (76%)	11 (22%)	1 (2%)	0 (0%)	9
	FT	80	VG	30 (60%)	16 (32%)	4 (8%)	0 (0%)	
Variation in learning	MT	72	VG	30 (60%)	14 (28%)	4 (8%)	2 (4)	-6
	FT	78	VG	37 (74%)	11 (22%)	1 (2%)	1 (1%)	
Explanation and Presentation Clarity	MT	95	VG	38 (76%)	10 (20%)	2 (4%)	0 (0%)	7
	FT	88	VG	29 (58%)	11 (22%)	6(12 %)	4 (4%)	
Class management	MT	78	VG	27 (54%)	13 (26%)	6(12 %)	4 (8%)	-7
	FT	85	VG	29 (58%)	11 (22%)	6(12 %)	4 (8%)	

Closing activity	MT	86	VG	28 (56%)	12 (24%)	7(14 %)	3 (6%)	4
	FT	82	VG	26 (52%)	14 (28%)	7(14 %)	3 (6%)	
Time and topics accuracy	MT	88	VG	28 (56%)	12 (24%)	8(16 %)	2(4%)	8
	FT	80	VG	26 (52%)	14 (28%)	7(14 %)	3 (6%)	
Totality	MT	85	VG	29 (58%)	11 (22%)	6(12 %)	4 (8%)	10
	FT	75	good	25 (50%)	15 (30%)	7(14 %)	3(6%)	

Description: G (gender) MT (male teachers), FT (female teachers), VG (very good), G (good), B (bad), and VB (very bad), D (description)

The table shows that 74% of the students said that the male lecturer made an excellent preparation in teaching English, 22% of the students said that lecturer made a proper preparation in teaching English, and 2% of the students said that the male lecturer made an inadequate preparation in teaching English and the last, 1% of the students said that a male lecturer made a poor teaching preparation. While 70% of the students said that the female lecturer made an excellent teaching preparation, 24% of the students said that female lecturer made proper teaching preparation, 4% of the students said that female lecturer made an inadequate teaching preparation and the rest, 1% of the students said that female lecturer made a poor teaching preparation.

There are 70% of the students said that the male lecturer made an excellent opening activity in teaching English, 26% of the students said that lecturer made a good opening activity in teaching English, and 4% of the students said that the male lecturer made a weak opening activity in teaching English. The last, 0% of the students said that a male lecturer made a weak teaching opening activity. While 68% of the students said that the female lecturer made an excellent opening activity in teaching English, 24% of the students said that female lecturer made good opening activity in teaching English, 6% of the students said that female lecturer

made weak opening activity in teaching English and the rest, 1% of the students said that female lecturer made a weak opening activity in teaching English.

There are 76% of the students said that the male lecturer made an excellent questioning in teaching English, 22% of the students said that lecturer made a good questioning in teaching English, and 6% of the students said that the male lecturer made a wrong questioning in teaching English and the last, 0% of the students said that a male lecturer made a very bad questioning in teaching English. While 68% of the students said that the female lecturer made an excellent questioning in teaching English, 24% of the students said that female lecturer made good teaching questioning, 6% of the students said that female lecturer made a wrong questioning in teaching English and the rest, 1% of the students said that female lecturer made a very bad questioning in teaching English.

There are 60% of the students said that the male lecturer made a significant variation in learning in teaching English, 28% of the students said that lecturer made a unique variation in learning in teaching English, and 8% of the students said that the male lecturer made a bad variation in learning in teaching English. The last, 4% of the students said that a male lecturer made a weak variation in learning in teaching English. While 74% of the students said that the female lecturer made a significant variation in learning in teaching English, 22% of the students said that female lecturer made good teaching variation in learning, 2% of the students said that female lecturer made a bad variation in learning in teaching English and the rest, 1% of the students said that female lecturer made poor variation in learning in teaching English.

There are 76% of the students said that the male lecturer made an excellent explanation and presentation in teaching English, 20% of the students said that lecturer made a good explanation and presentation in teaching English, and 4% of the students said that the male lecturer made a lousy explanation and presentation in teaching English and the last, 0% of the students said that a male lecturer made a weak explanation and presentation in teaching English. At the same time, 58% of the students said that the female lecturer made an excellent explanation and presentation in teaching English, 22% of the students said that female lecturer made good teaching explanation and presentation, 12% of the students said that female lecturer made an inadequate explanation and presentation in teaching English and the rest, 8% of the students said that female lecturer made inadequate explanation and presentation in teaching English.

There are 54% of the students said that the male lecturer made excellent class management in teaching English, 26% of the students said that lecturer made proper class management in teaching English, and 12% of the students said that the male lecturer made bad class

management in teaching English and the last, 8% of the students said that a male lecturer made poor class management in teaching English. While 58% of the students said that the female lecturer made excellent class management in teaching English, 22% of the students said that female lecturer made proper teaching class management, 12% of the students said that female lecturer made bad class management in teaching English and the rest, 8% of the students said that female lecturer made poor class management in teaching English.

There are 56% of the students said that the male lecturer made an excellent closing activity in teaching English, 24% of the students said that lecturer made an excellent closing activity in teaching English, and 14% of the students said that the male lecturer made a weak closing activity in teaching English. The last, 6% of the students said that a male lecturer made a weak closing activity in teaching English. While 52% of the students said that the female lecturer made an excellent closing activity in teaching English, 28% of the students said that female lecturer made good teaching closing activity, 12% of the students said that female lecturer made a weak closing activity in teaching English and the rest, 6% of the students said that female lecturer made a poor closing activity in teaching English.

There are 56% of the students said that the male lecturer has a perfect time and topics accuracy in teaching English, 24% of the students said that lecturer has a good time and topics accuracy in teaching English, and 16% of the students said that the male lecturer has a lousy time and topics accuracy in teaching English and the last, 4% of the students said that a male lecturer has a poor time and topics accuracy in teaching English. In contrast, 52% of the students said that the female lecturer has a perfect time and topics accuracy in teaching English, 28% of the students said that female lecturer has good teaching time. Topics accuracy, 14% of the students said that female lecturer has a poor time, and topics accuracy in teaching English and the rest, 6% of the students said that female lecturer has poor time and topics accuracy in teaching English.

There are 58% of the students said that the male lecturer has a perfect totality in teaching English, 22% of the students said that lecturer has a good totality in teaching English, and 12% of the students said that the male lecturer has a bad totality in teaching English and the last, 8% of the students said that a male lecturer has a very bad totality in teaching English. While 50% of the students said that the female lecturer has a perfect totality in teaching English, 30% of the students said that female lecturer has good teaching totality, 14% of the students said that female lecturer has a bad totality in teaching English and the rest, 6% of the students said that female lecturer has a very bad totality in teaching English.

To make the comparison of female and male English lecturers' working performance more understandable, look at the following diagrams:

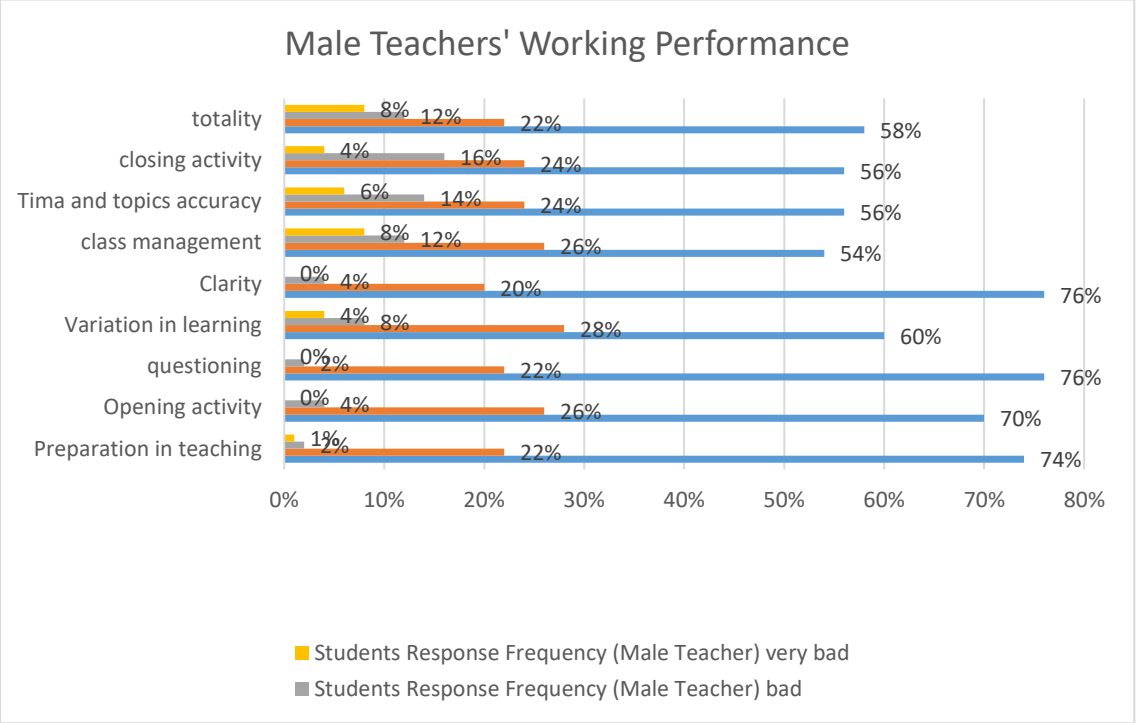


Diagram 1. Male Lecturers' Working Performance

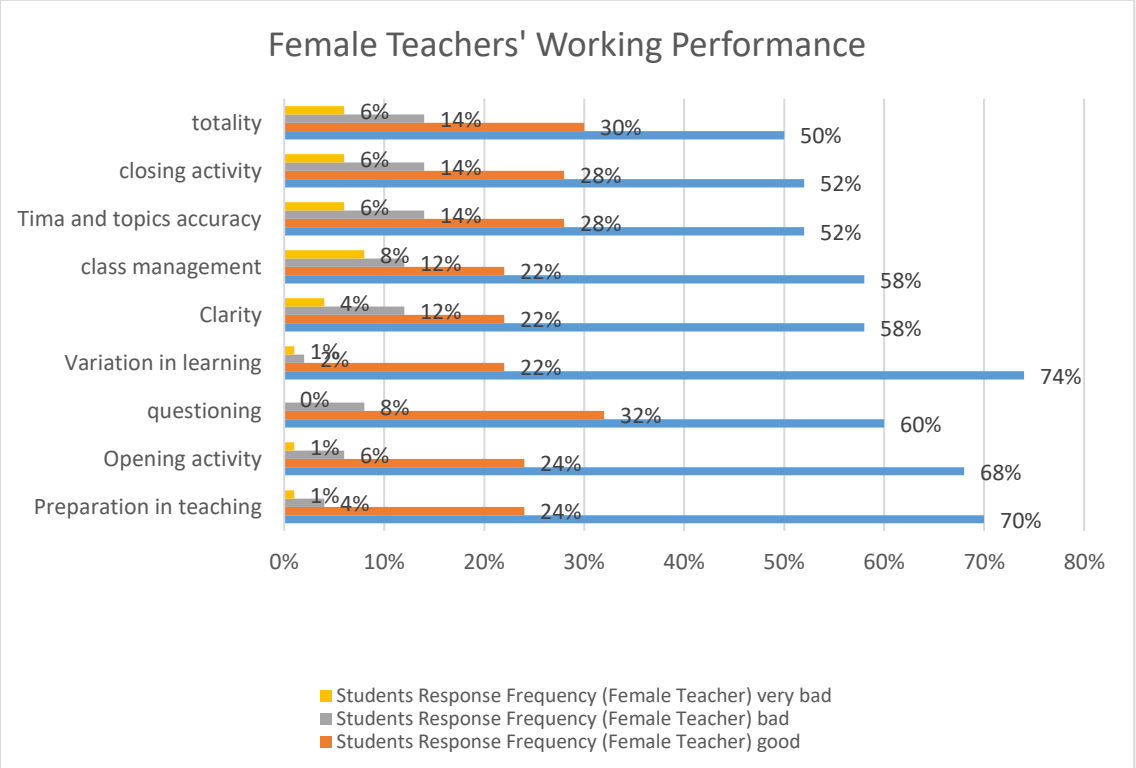


Diagram 2. Female Lecturers' Working Performance

From the diagrams above, it can be concluded that: a) in terms of preparing teaching material, and male English lecturers are more thorough and organized than female English lecturers. The male English lecturer is superior in terms of preparing the lesson plan program that is sourced from the syllabus, adjusted to the abilities of students, includes the form of assessment procedures used, determine the time allocation for each part of the lesson; b) English lecturers both male and female can open lessons in an excellent way because they do greetings, pray, checking the attendance, reviewing the last lesson, explained the standard competence objectives, explained the primary competence objective and warm up before the lesson starts; c) English lecturer encourage the students to ask questions and to express an opinion about the material delivered by the lecturer; d) female English lecturer can do more significant variation in learning than male English lecturers. Empirical evidence, if there are incomplete facilities and infrastructure, the lecturer looks for alternative ways to deliver the material to be taught. Female lecturers are also able to modify tools if school equipment is inadequate, modify rules if actual rules cannot be applied. Submission of the material provided is based on the sourcebook and provide explanations and practice all material to be taught; e) male and female English lecturers can explain material in a loud and clear voice, easily understood by students; f) the classroom management of female English lecturers is much better than male English lecturer; g) male English lecturer has a better ability to end the class compared to female English lecturers because the male English lecturer provides remedial for students who get low average grades, correcting student mistake is done individually, and conducting a post-test at the end of the class; and h) male English lecturer is better in managing time and material compared to female English lecturer.

Conclusion

Based on the results of research and discussion, then conclusions are drawn, that there is no difference in the quality of female and male English lecturer competence (in terms of personality, pedagogical, social, professionalism) in learning to teach English. Nevertheless, in terms of working performances in teaching English, there are significant differences between female and male English lecturer. The working performance of male English lecturer is better than female lecturers in terms of learning planning, asking questions, learning variations and ending the class. So, it is suggested that there should be better management on organizing the human resources that should be improved by the university in terms of improving the working performance of the female English lecturers by giving training,

attending conferences, or attending workshops that might improve their working performances.

Pedagogical Implication

This research gives theoretical and practical significances. Theoretically, this research contributes to the development of teaching English theories that are proven scientifically. Practically, this research contributes to the lecturers' development to improve their competences and working performances. Besides, the result of this research also encourages the universities to improve their English lecturers' ability by facilitating them to attend the training, conferences, and workshops**.**

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Developing a Communicative Competence Assessment Packet for Student-Nurses

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Abstract

For numerous years, standardized assessments were used to assess students' communicative competence, whether they were language majors or not. In accordance with this, this study concentrated on the development of valid and reliable assessment tools tailored exclusively for nursing students, due to a dearth of such tools. This study used an exploratory sequential mixed-method strategy to collect the necessary data. As a result of the interview, instruments for assessing communicative competence in linguistics, discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategic skills were established. Additionally, the findings indicated that the created tools were valid and reliable and suitable for assessing Filipino nursing students' communicative ability. The study's findings also demonstrated that in order to pass the assessment, student nurses must have a broad knowledge base in their field, a high level of communicative competence, and the ability to effectively practice professional, technical, and soft skills associated with the world of quality nursing care.

Keywords: *Language and testing, communication competence, mixed-methods design, nursing students.*

Introduction

Numerous studies throughout the years have established that communication is critical in nursing and all other spheres of action, including prevention, treatment, rehabilitation, education, and health promotion (Papadantonaki, 2006; Kourkouta & Papathanasiou, 2014; Shafakhah et al., 2015). If nurses truly desire to provide their patients with high-quality care and service, they must communicate effectively with their patients, doctors, and other healthcare teams (Shafakhah et al., 2015). Ineffective communication with their patients may contribute to their ineffectiveness.

Additionally, published papers demonstrated that effective communication, both oral and written, can boost patient satisfaction and trust in their nurses, patients, and family members, as well as reduce patients' fear and suffering (Shafakhah et al., 2015). On the other hand, a nurse's failure to communicate effectively with a patient can result in stress, diagnostic errors, decreased patient engagement in care planning and information sharing, poor results, and even death. Additionally, recent research revealed that the majority of medical errors were not caused by flaws in medical technologies or negligence on the part of healthcare personnel; rather, they were entirely caused by inefficient communication between patients and clinicians (Xie et al., 2013). Thus, it is necessary to monitor healthcare personnel' communicative competence levels, particularly those of prospective nurses, by testing and assessment utilizing valid and reliable communicative competence methods.

Developing relevant and effective techniques for assessing the communicative competence of student nurses will identify their strengths and areas for growth. The assessment results will be used by teachers, curriculum implementers, and stakeholders to build an intervention program to improve their students' communicative skills. Similarly, the assessment results may serve as the foundation for curricular enhancements that are tailored to the learners' and 21st century learning environment's demands.

The Philippine educational curriculum is aimed toward contextualization and glocalization of materials and assessment activities; as a result, the teaching-learning-assessment paradigm must work cooperatively to ensure that the specific aims of the courses presented are accomplished completely. Thus, the development of contextualized but glocal assessment tools helps to sustain these curriculum advancements and reforms while also addressing the specific

needs of students, making a contribution not only to the field of English for Specific Purposes, but also to linguistics and language education.

Over the years, research in the domains of linguistics and language education has concentrated on an individual's aptitude and ability to interact with the social world successfully and responsibly (Wilson & Sabee, 2003; Butler, 2005; Remache, 2016; Tuan, 2017). Hymes (1972) coined the term "competence" to refer to these so-called talents and capacities. From macro-skills such as listening, speaking, writing, reading, and viewing to so-called competency-based evaluations, these areas have been the subject of intense debate and concern among authorities in the fields of linguistics and language education (Powers, 2010; Batang, 2019; Barrot, 2016; Nguyen, 2016).

Thus, until recently, linguists and educators alike concentrated not only on the learners' ability to speak, but also on their capacity to share their thoughts with their interlocutors.

Hymes (1972) defined communicative competence as learners' capacity to connect successfully and appropriately with the social world through communication. Additionally, Hymes maintained that a communicatively competent individual understands when to speak and when not to speak, what to discuss with whom, when, where, and how. Canale and Swain (1980) used this to create a theory based on Hymes' findings. Their approach emphasized an individual's potential and capability for effective communication. They emphasized the importance of possessing the following competences to be communicatively competent: grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic. Canale (1983) offered a revised paradigm three years later, incorporating discourse competence with grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence.

Thus, in this study, communicative competence refers to the portion of an individual's competence that enables him or her to send and understand messages and negotiate meaning interpersonally within a particular environment. With these assertions regarding the current study in mind, communicative competence is defined as the student nurses' knowledge and ability to explain and elaborate medical conditions through oral and written therapeutic communication, while respecting their interlocutor's culture and social perspectives and taking into account the situation's context (Panagopoulou & Benos, 2004; Papagiannis, 2010; Kourkouta & Papathanasiou, 2014).

Johnson et al. (2015) created a self-assessment measure for the improvement of communication and interpersonal competency in telenursing. Budeng (2019) created techniques to assess Filipino ESL learners' pragmatic competency in terms of speech act comprehension and production. This dearth of published publications on the development of

communicative competence tools motivates scholars in the fields of language education and linguistics to study the subject.

Additionally, by assisting students in developing their skills in hearing, speaking, reading, and writing, and linguistics, discourse, sociolinguistics, and strategic competencies, they will be able to provide superior health care to their patients and family members.

In general, this research discussed the creation of methods for assessing communicative skills in student nurses. As a result, it addressed the following issues:

1. What assessment instruments may be developed to assess the communicative ability of student nurses along the following dimensions:
    a. Linguistic Competence;
    b. Discourse Competence;
    c. Sociolinguistic Competence; and
    d. Strategic Competence?
2. What is the validity and reliability of the evaluation methods created to assess student nurses' communicative competence?

Methodology

Design

The study used a mixed-methods approach, especially an exploratory sequential design, which entails the collection of both qualitative and quantitative data, as Creswell describes (2014).

Participants

Qualitative data were gathered through interviews with three physicians, seven nurses, two patients, and four caregivers. To ensure the tools' validity and reliability, they were validated by three professional language teachers, three psychometricians, and three clinical instructors. Similarly, the tools were pre-tested and delivered to twenty nursing students.

Instruments

The study began with the collection of qualitative data. Interview guide with one central question and several follow-up questions were developed and prepared. A voice recorder was also used as a tool to record and capture the responses of the participants during the interview. A construct validity questionnaire was provided to the designated professions. The questionnaire has 160 items that correspond to the components of the produced tools. The

respondents were asked to validate the tools for assessing communicative skills by picking the best feasible response to each item.

Additionally, the generated tools were subjected to an internal consistency test by administering them to twenty (20) respondents who were not identified as part of the study's respondents, resulting in a reliability test. The reliability test result was 0.89, indicating that the established communicative competency evaluation instruments are reliable.

Treatment of Data

The study began with the collection of qualitative data and then moved on to the collection of quantitative data. The examination of qualitative data entailed elucidating the phenomena and its significance. Additionally, it entailed recognizing the phenomenon's meanings to the study's participants and its similarities and differences to relevant literatures. Excerpts were included in the analysis to aid in the comprehension of the phenomenon's meaning. The extensive texts that resulted from the transcription of the interviews and observations were reduced phenomenologically via the establishment of a repertory grid or coding. Coding was used to organize and evaluate the massive amount of data gathered (Hahn, 2008). The cool analysis consisted in identifying each respondent's noteworthy statements. The noteworthy statements were used as a foundation for conducting the warm analysis stage, which resulted in the formulation and categorization of data categories. Themes that arose from the noteworthy statements were noted as a result of the cold and warm analyses done.

Themes derived from noteworthy statements made during the interview served as the foundation for developing the communicative competency evaluation tools. Their components and question kinds were chosen to correspond to the qualitative data acquired. To confirm the reliability of the acquired data and to ascertain its credibility, the significant assertions elicited by the primary questions were subjected to a member verification method using the correspondence technique (Birt et al., 2016). Each participant was approached individually and the data were returned to them to ensure accuracy and congruence with their personal experiences.

Validity and reliability tests were conducted on the communication competency assessment instruments, which included linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic tools. A content validity evaluation form was distributed to professionals in the fields of language, testing and assessment, and healthcare practice.

The table below summarizes the scale used to assess the validity of the newly created communicative competence assessment tools.

Table 1

Level of Validity Scale

Scale	Level of Validity
3.26-4.0	Very Relevant
2.51- 3.25	Quite Relevant
1.76-2.50	Somewhat Relevant
1.0-1.75	Not Relevant

Kappa statistics were also employed to verify the quality of the items by comparing the content validity index of each item in the created communicative competence assessment tools.

The table below summarizes the scale used to assess the level of validity of the created tools for communicative skills.

Table 2

Level of Content Validity Index Scale

Scale	Level
0.75 - 1.0	Very Relevant/Valid
0.60 - 0.74	Valid
0.40 - 0.59	Not Relevant/Valid

Ethical Approval

This paper has been reviewed and approved by Saint Louis University- Research Ethics Committee (SLU-REC) on February 28, 2020.

Results and Discussion

Developed Communicative Competence Assessment Tools

The developed linguistic competency instrument is based on Canale and Swain's (1980) framework, which defines linguistic competence as knowledge of grammar, lexis, morphology, syntax, semantics, and phonology. This section of the created tool emphasizes textual and lexical units over intersentential components. Similarly, the tool's components are mostly based on the responses of the study's participants during the conducted interview.

The linguistic competency tool is divided into four (4) sections: (I) Synonyms, (2) Sentence Completion, (3) Lexical Semantics, and (4) Phonology. These components of the evaluation tools were cited as necessary or vital by doctors, nurses, patients, and caregivers interviewed, particularly during times when patients and caregivers need to clarify or be clarified about their true health status. With this assertion of being required and crucial, it can be observed that these folks believe that in order for patients and other individuals to comprehend what doctors

and nurses are saying, they must utilize alternative phrases to clarify the meaning of the medical term used or said.

Numerous physicians and nurses also emphasized the significance of synonyms and antonyms. "Carer 2" stated, "Yes, it is vital for them to communicate their opinions or to clarify the patients' demands." Similarly, "Nurse 1" stated that "it is critical to employ synonyms and antonyms, especially when I am required to convey a great deal of information to patients in a concise yet comprehensible manner."

Nurse 2: It is vital to employ synonyms and antonyms in utterances and medical abstracts in order to accurately assess and describe a patient's health status. It is critical to clearly explain the diagnosis or therapy chosen; only then will caring occur.

Doctor 3: The use of synonyms and antonyms in medical abstracts aids the reader in comprehending the doctor's message. By utilizing connectors and linkers, the physician can organize the thoughts contained inside the write-up. As a result, the paper becomes more logical and organized.

Additionally, two caregivers underlined the need of several assessment procedures. “For me, it is preferable if there is only one sentence; that way, the correct term will be entered in the space provided.” The other caregiver, dubbed "Carer 3," stated, "It is likewise OK if options are provided. Students may then select the appropriate term to finish the supplied sentence.”

Additionally, the developed tools incorporated student nurses' understanding of medical language. It demonstrated their familiarity with and knowledge of terms used in their field of specialization. This section was also identified by participants as a critical component in evaluating the student-nurses' linguistic proficiency. "Doctor 1" stated, "I believe it is ideal if our future nurses define medical terms. If they are unable to describe the term, it indicates that their understanding of the medical profession is insufficient.” Similarly, "Doctor 3" noted, "I believe it would be preferable if, in addition to measuring their linguistic abilities through the use of synonyms, antonyms, and others, an identification examination or definition of terms is also appropriate."

The Phonology section was not conducted orally since participants stated at the outset of the interview that it is more appropriate to assess the overall communicative ability of the soon-to-be nurses in written form. During the interview, "Doctor 3" stated, "Because I rarely deal with emergency situations, I talk slowly and appropriately." By doing so, I am confident that my patients will comprehend the procedures and treatment they will receive.” Additionally, "Patient 1" stated, "I prefer that doctors and nurses speak slowly and clearly with the suitable stress or accent form so that I can follow their explanation."

Additionally, they emphasized the importance of properly pronouncing words and emphasizing syllables:

Doctor 2: I typically speak with my patients at a normal pace, but I also take a slow approach with an emphasis on proper pronunciation of words, particularly when instructing or providing delicate information such as medication dosage and frequency, adverse effects, and when to refer to a doctor when explaining invasive, special, or surgical procedures or procedures that require or require considerable attention.

The responses of the study's participants indicated that one approach to demonstrate linguistic competence is for participants to be able to not only employ different terminologies in the medical field but also to relate these terms to the language spoken or read by their listeners or readers. Their responses to the interview questions indicate that there is a significant issue not just for English or language professors, but also for clinical instructors of student nurses.

Additionally, patients and caregivers preferred that their doctors and nurses continue to utilize medical jargon in certain instances to ensure that the individual communicating with them is truly knowledgeable in their field of interest. This may contribute to the patient's and caregiver's building trust in the medical team. Similarly, the doctors and nurses indicated that there were times when they were forced to use such terminology in order to get their patients to examine and analyze their treatment procedures more closely. With these arguments advanced by the study's participants, it can be concluded that these individuals defined linguistic competence as the ability of individuals in the medical field to not only use medical jargon expertly in their interactions with patients and their caregivers, but also to translate or associate those terminologies to a more understandable one.

In general, the developed language competency tool focused on the student nurses' capacity to use synonyms, complete sentences, understand lexical semantics, and speak phonology. It is anticipated that these student nurses will be able to communicate effectively in all settings if they have mastered all grammar rules and hence are adept in all facets of linguistic competency.

Discourse Competence is the second tool. Throughout the conversation with the doctors and nurses, they stressed the critical nature of using the correct verb form, regardless of whether their patients are grammar conscientious or not. They emphasized that adopting the exact and correct form of the verb in their spoken and written medical documents demonstrates not only their awareness of its specific usage, but also their extensive expertise in their field of specialization.

One of the nurses, "Nurse 5," responded, "Yes, since improper use of verbs, parts of speech, prepositions, or conjunctions can be misread by patients, particularly when the entire

discussion between the patient and the doctor is critical." The other nurse, "Nurse 3," added, "As nurses, we really need be cautious with all nouns, verbs, prepositions, and conjunctions, particularly when writing nursing interventions and properly documenting them." Similarly, one of the caregivers, "Carer 1," observed that "Doctors and nurses should be conversant with the usage of names, language, and others." Because if we do not, how would we know if what they say about our illness is accurate?"

Additionally, their verbal comments throughout the interview demonstrate that, as professional nurses or physicians, they should be well trained in proper word usage:

Doctor 3: Communicate clearly and professionally to avoid miscommunications between patients and clinicians. By carefully selecting verbs, prepositions, conjunctions, and transitional devices, you may ensure that the patient feels respected and is not offended. If unsuitable language is utilized, incorrect diagnosis and misunderstandings may result.

Doctor 2: When dealing with patients, I prefer to make quick, succinct, and direct statements when explaining and instructing them. Additionally, I employ prepositions, conjunctions, and or transitional devices sparingly since too much information, along with the client's preoccupation with his or her ailment and or severity of condition, can obstruct successful communication.

The interviewers' statements demonstrate that simply knowing the norms of subject-verb agreement is insufficient. Medical professionals should also be familiar with how to use it in their utterances and writings so that their patients are not confused, particularly when numbers are involved. The doctors and nurses' verbatim responses indicate that in order for a student-nurse to be considered competent in the field of discourse, he or she should be able to apply sentence construction rules correctly not only in sentence-level utterances and writings, but also in larger groups of sentences.

Without a doubt, based on the responses of the interviewees, it is critical for student nurses to be able to provide exact meaning or explanations for their future patients' medical conditions. Their abilities and skills in this regard are substantially correlated with discourse competency. It is for the reason that being able to combine sentences together to create a consistent meaning and provide appropriate explanations for other people's medical issues constitutes being competent in terms of discourse. Their vocal responses imply that in order to be effective in discourse, physicians must meet their patients' demands by informing them clearly and attentively on their health statuses.

This section of the instrument assesses student-nurses' ability to mix and merge language and sentence patterns into a single cohesive composition. They will be expected to communicate

with or engage in constant discourse with their patients, patients' caregivers, head nurse, doctors, and other employees and medical professionals in their future workplace. They will initiate or initiate talks and will terminate them as necessary or when the information they require from their patient is obtained. It is more a matter of employing intersentential principles in order to generate and then maintain lengthier spoken turns or written texts. Thus, it is regarded acceptable to test the discourse competencies of student nurses who possess the components described in the tool in order to precisely and thoroughly assess their needs in this competency before to their deployment to various hospitals and clinics.

Sociolinguistic Competence is the third component of the exam. During the interview, it was revealed that it is critical for nurses to provide exceptional care and respect to their patients and coworkers regardless of their age, gender, socioeconomic class, profession, religion, belief, or culture. During the conversation, the physicians and nurses made it clear that regardless of whether their patients are wealthy or impoverished, professionals or not, believers or not, they should be treated similarly and decently.

They also emphasized the value of therapeutic communication, a form of face-to-face doctor-patient or nurse-patient communication that focuses on advancing the patient's emotional and physical health through attentive and active listening, the use of open-ended questions, clarification, and restating, among other strategies. As "Doctor 2" stated, "the most effective method of communication is definitely therapeutic conversation." Similarly, "Nurse 6" stated, "Always convey your opinions therapeutically and with empathy for the patient."

Additionally, the nurses discussed their perspectives on their patients and patients' family members who have varying social backgrounds and medical opinions. “Doctor 1” stated, “Not for me. Social status is only that: it is a status. As long as you are aware that you are not abusing or coercing a patient.” “Somehow, if the patient is in the medical field, it will be simpler to communicate with them,” the other nurse, “Nurse 5,” stated. I receive the same treatment regardless of their social level or job when I speak with them.” Regarding religion, the second nurse, "Nurse 2," stated, "Yes, similar to Muslims." I will always show them respect whatever. Respect one another and cultivate empathy.”

Additionally, during the interview, attention was placed on intonation. The participants stressed the importance of considering the loudness and softness of the voice, as well as the rise and fall of the voice, when doctors and nurses talk with their patients. Additionally, they said that students interested in joining them in the medical area should be well informed in the proper use of their voice so that their future patients do not misunderstand how they speak. Their responses, verbatim, are as follows:

Doctor 2: Altering one's tone, stress, or intonation when communicating with patients enables the message to be communicated more successfully by stressing key features and ideas. Additionally, it aids in the conviction of the notion and results in a more authentic representation and compelling impression.

Nurse 2: To begin, it is more critical to listen to another person's feelings and connect with their emotions in order to earn their trust and confidence. Recognize their anguish and demonstrate your affection for them. Gently and smoothly converse with the sufferer. Maintain eye contact with her patient when appropriate and assist her in feeling comfortable, as her patient may be brimming with emotions and anxiety at times.

These responses from doctors, nurses, patients, and caregivers demonstrate how they require everyone to remain professional while also practicing empathy in such situations. It is self-evident that in order to demonstrate expertise in this area, student nurses must always remember the critical role of empathy in health care practice. As a result of these responses, the sociolinguistic competence tool developed added Intonation as the second component.

The way people speak reveals a lot about their personalities and thought processes. Changing the pitch of one's voice can convey affection, astonishment, fear, or hatred, among other emotions that its listeners may misinterpret. As previously stated, the manner they communicate with their patients can make or break their health status. If these medical professionals speak softly, their patients may feel more secure, safe, and inspired to adhere to their treatment methods. Effective verbal communication is a well-established fact that results in high-quality, patient-centered care. The verbal responses of the interviewees demonstrate their depth of knowledge in this area of communicative ability. They are fully aware that competence does not always imply the ability to say or write faultless sentences; rather, communicative competence entails the ability to comprehend verbal and non-verbal information. Non-Verbal Cues are added to this section of the sociolinguistic competence instrument as a result of these remarks.

The final competency assessed by the created methodology is the student-nurses' Strategic Competence. This instrument will assess the student nurses' abilities to paraphrase, ask questions, clarify unclear remarks, accurately repeat what has been stated, avoid sensitive situations, and switch between languages or styles as required by their patients. Using Palliative Language is the first section of the created strategic competency instrument. During the interview, doctors and nurses described how they convey devastating news to their patients and their families:

Doctor 3: As a physician, providing comfort to patients is of the utmost importance. Delivering news should be done professionally and succinctly, but with as much gentleness as possible to provide the patient with some measure of consolation. It is critical to note that the patient will undoubtedly recall the manner in which he or she learned of his or her disease and will recollect it for the remainder of his or her life. Empathy is critical in patient care.

Nurse 3: To begin, when we interact with a patient, we normally keep eye contact, as acceptable for the client's culture. Then, we must be active listeners, as this is the mechanism through which we receive information from our client.

The doctors' and nurses' reactions provide patients, their family members, and caregivers with a vivid picture of what occurs when these medical professionals reveal their illness. They are extremely cautious when presenting sensitive information to their patients since, as previously said, it may exacerbate their anxiety and maybe cause depression. Communicating their disease in a relaxing, indirect, and empathetic manner will assist them in accepting their current state. The researcher includes Use of Palliative Language in this section of the communicative competency tools as a result of these findings.

Each component in the designed tool complies with patients' rights to quality and humane care. Using euphemisms, indirect comments, or palliative language in the preliminary section of the strategic competency tool aligns to what has been repeatedly mentioned in this study, the tenets of therapeutic communication. The primary goal of therapeutic communication is to ensure that patients and family members feel cared for and secure in the hands of nurses and doctors. Additionally, the use of communication techniques enables the nurse and doctor to discuss the patient's health status with him or her not only when they forget the phrase or statement to say, but also when the patient or a colleague need additional explanation in any situation or condition. The use of communication tactics in nursing care can encourage someone who is suffering from a serious illness or has an unpleasant attitude to take their medications or continue their treatment. Possessing mastery of these communication tactics will simplify the nurse's and doctor's job of persuading patients to continue taking their medicine and receiving treatment. Thus, the established strategic competence tool refutes the widespread belief that this ability represents just imprecise information on the part of test takers and not totally their skill.

Validity and Reliability of the Developed Communicative Competence Assessment Tools

Table 1

Level of Validity of the Developed Communicative Competence Assessment Tools

Competency	Content Validity Mean	Level of Validity
Linguistic Competence	3.66	Very relevant/ valid
Discourse Competence	3.71	Very relevant/ valid
Sociolinguistic Competence	3.87	Very relevant/ valid
Strategic Competence	3.89	Very relevant/ valid
Overall	3.94	Very relevant/ valid

The table indicates that the overall validity of the generated tools was determined to be very relevant/valid, with a mean of 3.49. This suggests that the devised instruments were, on the whole, valid and trustworthy assessment methods for evaluating the communicative competence of student nurses. Additionally, the results indicated that it was very relevant/valid in terms of linguistic skill, with a mean of 3.66. Discourse competency also resulted in a high level of relevance/validity, with a mean of 3.71. In terms of sociolinguistic skill, it provided again another highly relevant/valid result, this time with a mean of 3.87. Finally, a mean of 3.89 was determined for strategic competency, indicating a very relevant/valid degree of content validity.

Additionally, the content validity index was used to verify the facts supplied. The data shows that all of the items are legitimate using Kappa Statistics. The acknowledged validity level is 0.78 or greater, and all of the questions in the produced tool scored higher than 0.78, while several scored as low as 0.78, indicating that these items are extremely relevant/valid.

The reliability of the established communicative competence evaluation tools is verified using Chronbach's Alpha, which is used to determine the tools' internal consistency. The created measures for assessing communicative skills are trustworthy, with an overall Chronbach's Alpha value of 0.89 indicating a very high level of dependability. Overall dependability and degree of reliability of the developed communicative competence evaluation instruments demonstrated an approved Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.89 and a very dependable level of reliability. This indicates that the created communication competence assessment instruments are consistent and stable in assessing the degree of communicative competence of student nurses across linguistic, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic abilities.

The produced tools are deemed genuine and trustworthy. This indicates that all of the items in the assessment tools investigated all of the aspects that needed to be assessed and identified

the student nurses' knowledge and skills in the areas that needed to be determined. The created instruments' validity result indicates that they are very relevant to their specific task and effectively assess the level of communicative ability of student nurses. These findings indicate that the instruments used to test and evaluate the communicative ability of student nurses were consistent, unbiased, valid, reliable, and ethical. After that, the instruments capture the multidimensional nature of the competences examined.

Conclusion

The research discovered that professional nurses' and physicians' perceptions and experiences aided significantly in the development of accurate, valid, and reliable assessment instruments for student nurses. Additionally, it was discovered that assessing the validity and reliability of produced instruments prior to administering them to students would significantly aid in obtaining accurate results. As a result of these findings, it can be argued that examinations are critical in determining students' communicative competency levels. Authentic assessments assist teachers and curriculum planners in identifying strategies to assist students who receive poor or inadequate outcomes.

Furthermore, the results pedagogically imply that as the focus of classroom instruction has shifted from language forms to functional language within communicative contexts, the student-nurses gained enough knowledge for them to be ready in the workplace.

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Counting boys and girls in pages: A Critical Discourse Analysis of gender representations in Science and Mathematics Textbooks

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Abstract

Language and gender scholars across the world usually use story books and other language learning materials as primary data sources. Their works allow us to examine societal conventions and how gender roles are presented. On the other hand, the present study aims to investigate how gender interacts in content disciplines such as Science and Math using textbooks. Thus, this paper investigates the various gender representations in Grade Five science and mathematics textbooks in both public and private schools. Its goal is to discover how language and images are utilized in the classroom to convey gender portrayal. This paper is anchored on Critical Discourse Analysis framework of van Dijk's (2008b) discourse levels: *macro-level* and *micro-level*, and Fairclough's (1989) three-dimensional model: *description*, *interpretation* and *explanation*. In analyzing the data, a content/textual analysis is utilized and divided in two parts. The first part used quasi statistics to determine the quantity, visibility, and firstness per gender. The second section uses the Critical Image Study tool to qualitatively analyze lexical features and images. The results of the analysis indicate that males are dominant among the characters found in the textbooks and females are less visible in the learning materials. It is also evident that the images and lexical features connote stereotypical gender roles. In the end, the study presents some pedagogical implications and recommendations on how to use gender fair language and equal representations in language teaching and in preparing learning materials in the classroom.

Keywords: *Gender representation, Critical Discourse Analysis, Gender-fair language, Language and gender*

Introduction

Both within (and beyond) the classroom, textbooks have been an integral element of the teaching and learning process. They are important instructional tools for passing on fundamental knowledge to children all across the world. According to Gilbert (1988), these print works are vital cultural resources for children during their formative years. In addition to functioning as a tool for studying fundamental or difficult subjects, textbooks can be a source

of delight and enlightenment for both learners and writers. To enhance instruction, these instructional materials use language in which ideas are given in pages. In other words, authors use language in textbooks to accomplish what they intend to develop or express.

Language is in every manner, place and time as part of people's social lives (Kress, 1988). It is of great importance in the realization of most of man's activity such as education (Alieto, 2018; Perez & Alieto, 2018; Ricohermoso, Abequibel & Alieto, 2019; Somblingo & Alieto, 2019). Moreover, according to Berowa (2019), thoughts, ideas, feelings, and emotions can be easily expressed through the use language. Its function is not only to convey thoughts and ideas but also as a means of representing the world and people's experiences. Language, therefore (Bloor & Bloor, 1995), plays a significant and formative role in our holistic development as human beings since encoding our experiences contributes to the way we view ourselves and other entities. These experiences may happen either in the actual world around us or confines in our minds or internal consciousness.

Considering the above arguments, it appears that language is a system of alternatives that the writer or speaker may or may not choose deliberately. The way we use language is influenced by factors such as gender, race, and social background. Our decisions reflect how we see ourselves in relation to others, as well as how others influence how we are built as individuals. As Van Dijk (2011) stressed, "gender stereotypes will often form part of the way power relations are constructed" (p. 224). Language, then, can be seen as a powerful medium capable of controlling people. Language can be viewed as a potent tool for manipulating people. Depending on their exposure to the type of society they are confronted with, these power dynamics may have an impact on children's thinking. As a result, the inclusion of so-called "gender-fair language" in textbooks is critical because what students see and believe can influence their worldviews and limit their ability to understand and respect alternative viewpoints.

Textbooks as teaching tools for children

It's important to pay attention to a child's cognitive growth during his or her formative years since it has the ability to influence his or her way of thinking, particularly regarding gender orientation. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), infancy development happens during the transition from childhood to adulthood (i.e. ages 10-19). In his study on the appropriation of language in textbooks, Mahboob (2017) believes that students' access to linguistic or semiotic skills is essential for them to read and engage with other internationally

focused works. As a result, linguistic and pragmatic aspects of the language should be contextualized to ensure that the learner is comfortable with the language.

In addition to being crucial instructional aids in imparting basic knowledge in the classroom, textbooks serve as instruments to make knowledge available for a given age range, in a particular subject, for standard learning and shared culture. Textbooks must transmit basic information in a subject matter since "language acquisition is necessarily a culture-learning process" (Tarrayo, 2014, p.27). They can impact a child's upbringing directly (or indirectly) through communicating acceptable and appropriate social behavior models, as well as norms and values (UNESCO, 2009).

Literature also informs that as early as four years old, children can understand the basic component of the self and the gender roles as a social product (Aydinoglu, 2014 cited in Bacang, Rillo & Alieto, 2019). During these times, children are exposed to the different images and texts when they read. When children read, they are exposed to a variety of visuals and texts. Furthermore, many male and feminine features are socially acquired rather than biological. The gender schema theory (Bem, 1981; Eagly & Wood, 1999), for example, explains how children develop a feeling of femaleness and maleness based on gender stereotypes and adjust their behavior to their surroundings. As a result, children's books could be a source of gender stereotypes that kids use to organize their gendered behavior. Furthermore, instilling in young learners the belief that men and women should be treated equally may positively impact their conceptions of men and women, leading to a more balanced and open-minded society.

Previous studies on gender representations

The existence of different social media platforms and mobile applications gives us a picture of a sophisticated world where young learners, according to Giroux (1999), are bombarded with diverse messages, images and representations of gender, constructing a dreamlike world of childhood innocence. Previous studies on gender representations show empirical evidence of how children’s environment and routine influence their way of thinking, particularly how they view gender roles. For instance, Fischer’s (2010) work on gender images in children’s animated film says that characters' physical appearance on the movie screen and their social roles and positions in society have shaped the children’s view of gender unconsciously.

In 2010, Prieler and Centeno (2013) did an interesting study on gender representation on television screens looking at gender discrepancies in primetime Philippine television commercials. Based on the study, it shows that gender inequalities and stereotypes are

prevalent in Philippine television commercials. It was also found out that more males are visible in the workplace, while more females are seen at home. In terms of clothing, males are generally seen fully clothed, while females are often suggestively dressed. Also, males are offered with more narrations than females in the advertising' voiceovers. The study concludes that certain product categories are stereotypically connected with certain types of people.

However, Sumalatha (2004) argues that the major range that contributes to the child's learning experience in molding a significant model on gender roles happened in school. It is because the learning materials found in the classroom are among the most necessary means to develop "desirable attitudes in children" (p. 57). But in some cases, these teaching tools do not help promote gender equality and social equilibrium in the classroom. The prevalence of girls to perform traditional roles is seemingly common in the education system. Gender bias in textbooks remains difficult to reverse and is present in far more countries.

Textbooks have been used by many scholars as data for study throughout the years because they serve as main materials in the teaching and learning process. Since most of the time, children use books in the classroom, a considerable amount of knowledge is expected to be gained by them. As Chung (2014) stressed, to young learners, textbooks contain infallible information. Therefore, they tend to follow the lessons and values embedded therein. It is then suggested that gender awareness should be given emphasis in the textbooks for children because lacking this desirable component reinforces discriminatory tendencies and undermining the self-esteem of the girls (The World Conference on Women, 1995).

One notable study on gender representation is the work of Moser and Hannover (2013) using German schoolbooks (i.e. Mathematics and German). It revealed that although there were almost balanced depictions of girls and boys in the books, males outnumbered females in general. Furthermore, in both types of books, both genders were engaged in different activities but male characters were more often described in their profession than the female characters. In terms of linguistic features, the use of gender-fair language has found to be visible but was not used consistently as German books were more gender-fair than in Mathematics.

In terms of gender attributes, men are depicted as having more desirable characteristics than women in the majority of children's textbooks. When Bhattacharya (2017) investigated gender representation in English textbooks used in India's Grade Eight, she found this to be true. In her research, she discovered that males dominate the studied textbooks in terms of authorships, characters, topic focus, and firstness of characters. The study also discovered that photographs of male characters depicted a wide range of physical strength depictions.

Gender representation studies in the Philippines

Gender in this study refers to male and female. Although gender is not synonymous with sex, as the former is socially constructed (Tannen, 1990) while the latter is genetically determined (Lubaale, 2020), this paper operationalized using gender to refer to the binary biological classification male and female. It should be noted that the present study followed the same frame with the works cited in this paper in which they examine gender representation in the data to either male or female (boy or girl). Interestingly, several research have also maintained the semantic definition of gender with the biological classification of male and female (Rosales, 2020).

For gender representations in the learning materials, Tarrayo (2014) used Philippine preschool English language textbooks to investigate the topic of sexism in the language. In analyzing the data, he categorized themes such as gender visibility (through illustrations), “firstness” (or the order in which the noun paired for sex is mentioned, such as mother and father, brother and sister, and so on), occupational-roles, character attributes, and the characters' interests and lifestyles. Males appeared more frequently in textbook images than females, according to the findings of the study. The same is true for "firstness," with males being mentioned first more often than females. In terms of occupational roles, women were significantly less visible than men. Males, on the other hand, were characterized by aggression and dominance, while females were characterized by their (good) looks and passivity. Moreover, females had a higher number of interests and lifestyles than those of males.

Another interesting study on gender representation was conducted by Mante-Estacio, Dumalay, and Rentillo (2018). They analyzed the gender portrayal in the bilingual storybooks for children written by Filipino authors. By using the verb taxonomy of Johnson and Young (2002) framework, the study informed that traditionally, there was unequal portrayal as regards the use of verb elements and naming system. Surprisingly, contrary to earlier research, the most regularly used category for both male and female characters was limited verb type. In addition, both genders displayed non-aggressive/destructive conduct, which is believed to be appropriate for young children. It is also worth noting that the names of both female and male characters had a two-syllabic structure, which gave the characters an easy-to-remember appearance for young readers.

The classroom, according to our predecessors in this study, is the ideal place for campaigning for gender equality. Language textbooks and children's storybooks have been regularly used as data in past studies to investigate gender-related concerns. The researchers of the present

study, on the other hand, were inspired to produce this work and use Mathematics and Science textbooks to supplement existing literature on gender representation.

The Present Study

The cognitive development of a child during the formative years of his or her life is something to pay attention to because there is a propensity to affect children's way of thinking, particularly regarding gender orientation, at this period. Since young children are expected to be in school in their childhood, the researchers are interested in investigating gender representation in the Grade Five Mathematics and Science Textbooks used in the public and private elementary schools.

The researchers also believe that content subjects such as Science and Math play a vital role in a child’s cognitive development and that the language and images reflected in these textbooks have influenced their social and psychological growth.

The researchers follow Bhattacharya's (2017) study on gender portrayals in Indian English textbooks. However, in order to broaden the scope of the study, they use textbooks in content courses (such as Science and Mathematics) as well as a comparison of textbooks used in public and private schools. The objective for choosing public and private schools is not to compare the academic cultures of both institutions or their students' performance, but because of the idea that private schools use more recent editions of textbooks than public schools. This situation was at least true when the data for this research was gathered.

The paper looks at how gender is represented in the four Grade 5 textbooks, as well as how language and visuals are presented in Grade School Mathematics 5 and Science for Daily Use 5, for the public school and Math for the 21st Century Learners and The New Science Links, for private school. This research may scrape the surface of prospective areas to emphasize in In-Service Training (INSET) for teachers particularly those who teach content topics, and for textbook writers to explore gender roles in language.

This research is also significant since it will contribute to the current literature in the fields of applied linguistics and Science and Mathematics education. This study will complement previous studies that used language books and tale books as data by employing Science and Math and textbooks. This study aims to look into gender representation in Grade Five textbooks because the learners at this time are between the ages of 10 and 11 years old (on average), a time when the transition from childhood to adulthood occurs and is considered a critical stage in a child's life because physical and psychological changes occur.

The researchers want to know how the language and imagery in the aforementioned learning resources are utilized to depict gender by answering the following questions:

1. How is gender represented based on the quantity, visibility and firstness of males and females in Grade Five public and private schools Science and Math textbooks?
2. How is gender represented based on the lexical features and images commonly associated with males and females in Science and Math textbooks?

Theoretical Framework

The study is anchored on van Dijk's (2008) Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) perspective, which focuses on two discourse levels: the macro-level, which encompasses language use, verbal interactions, and communication, and the micro-level, which includes inequality, power play, and dominance. To put it another way, the macro-level refers to the medium of communication as it is framed by wider social and political settings, whilst the micro-level refers to the impact of the language's context on the society in which it circulates.

The CDA varies depending on the genre and text being studied (Fairclough et al., 2011; Huckin et al, 2012; Patton, 2014). As a result, there is no standardized technique, which is why the researchers used and adapted Fairclough's (1989) three-dimensional (Three-D) model to complete this paper. The Three-D model is a widely used approach for examining gender representation in language textbooks, and the researchers hope to apply it to science and math textbooks as well. This three-dimensional framework for text and discourse analysis consists of (1) a linguistic description of the text's formal characteristics, (2) a linguistic interpretation of the text's formal characteristics, and (3) a linguistic interpretation of the text's formal characteristics. This three-dimensional framework for the analysis of text and discourse consist of – (1) the *description* from the linguistic viewpoint of the formal characteristics of the text, (2) the *interpretation* of the connection between the discursive process/interaction and the text and (3) the *explanation* of the link in-between discourse and social and cultural reality. The description employs the following: *schema*, *frame* and *script.*

According to Fairclough (1898, in Bhattacharya, 2017) *schemas* represent various types of activities; *frames* represent various topics and subject matter or referent within the activity; and *scripts* are those which are associated with the activities" (pp. 158-159).

Methodology

The researchers opine that sexism is present in children's learning materials, and what they read in textbooks may have an impact on their own identities and gender roles. This content descriptive-exploratory study aims to investigate gender representation in public and private school Grade Five Science and Math textbooks in order to examine the interplay of power in printed teaching materials through the use of language and images. The study is described as descriptive because it used frequency counts and percentages, as in Rillo and Alieto's investigation (2018).

Corpus

The researchers established the following inclusion criteria for the materials to be used because the data sample in this study does not represent the total textbooks used in all schools:

1. The private and public elementary schools are located in the same town;
2. The target schools used the textbooks during the 2017-2018 academic year;
3. The books were used by Grade Five students; and
4. The textbooks should be Science and Mathematics textbooks.

It is worth noting that there is a larger difference between the release dates of textbooks in public and private schools, with the former being 2002 and 2003 and the latter being 2015 and 2016. This is because, unlike public schools, private schools have complete control over the books used in their classrooms for each subject, grade, and year.

Procedures

The researchers purposively chose two elementary schools in a specific town in the Province of Antique where the textbooks are utilized for the data in this study. These schools met the researchers criteria set for the research locale. The town in which the schools are located is one of the most populous municipalities in the province. The aforementioned factors are highlighted in order to maintain "balance" while selecting data to be evaluated.

One prevalent criticism of utilizing CDA as a framework (van Dijk, 2011) is the concept of "cherry-picking," or the inclination to just get a certain item/figure/word of personal interest to utilize as data, thereby making the researcher "subjective." To avoid this misconception, one should collect the research sample in a “balanced” manner. In order to attain the desired result, those things are clearly stated in this paper.

The four books were assigned to all three researchers to answer the first research question, How is gender portrayed in Grade Five public and private school Science and Math textbooks

based on the quantity, visibility, and firstness of males and females? In order to calculate the overall number of male and female characters, as well as the imagery and “firstness” of gender in the four textbooks, a frequency count was used. Following that, an interpretation was made based on the findings. To answer the second research question, How is gender represented in Science and Math textbooks based on lexical features and images commonly associated with males and females, the researchers identified generic nouns, addressed characters, and further analyzed images in order to have a thorough discussion of the assigned gender roles to the characters in the textbook. The findings of this study, as well as those of prior works on gender representation, were assessed in the discussion of the results.

Gender representation in textbooks was classified using content analysis. This method is defined by Berger (1991) as "a research technique based on measuring the amount of something in a representative sampling" (p. 25). A mixed methodology was used to analyze the data. The first portion, which employed a quantitative (quasi statistics) method, looked at the number, visibility, and *firstness* of male and female characters in the Science problem set and word problem in Math, as well as dialogues, captions, and labels in the four textbooks.

Coding

The three authors, who also served as inter-coders, received 100% of the data (i.e. four textbooks, two Science, and two Mathematics). All of the authors have a master's degree, with two of them majoring in languages and the other in Science education. When the researchers/inter-coders become perplexed by situations such as frequency count and picture interpretation, they (1) talked, (2) re-examined the data, and (3) agreed on the proper and acceptable technique of labeling or identifying the categories to reach consensus.

Results And Discussion

After a thorough analysis has been conducted from the collected data, the following are the results of the study:

1. *How is gender represented based on the quantity, visibility and firstness of males and females in Grade Five public and private schools Science and Math textbooks?*

Frequency of characters

Table 1 presents the frequency of characters per gender in science textbooks for public and private schools. Out of the five characters in the public school science textbook, three of them are females (60.00%), and two are males (40.00%). For the private school, out of six characters,

two are females (33.33%) and four are males (66.67%). The results indicate that females outnumbered males in terms of gender quantity in the public school science textbook. While the results are the opposite in private schools, because males are more than females in gender quantity.

Table 1. *Total frequency of characters per gender in Science textbooks*

Public	Gender	*f*	%	Private	Gender	*f*	%
	Female	3	60.00		Female	2	33.33
	Male	2	40.00		Male	4	66.6.7
	Neutral/Unknown	0	-		Neutral/Unknown	0	-
	Total	5	100.00		Total	6	100.00

Table 2 presents the frequency of characters per gender in the math textbooks of public and private schools. For public schools, it shows that there are 125 females (44.17%), and 122 males (41.11%) out of the 283 total characters. Out of a total of 246 characters, 78 females (31.71%) and 133 males (54.07%) in private school. To put it another way, the public school Math textbook has more female characters than male characters, whereas the private school textbook shows the opposite.

Table 2. *Total frequency of characters per gender in Mathematics textbooks*

Public	Gender	*f*	%	Private	Gender	*f*	%
	Female	125	44.17		Female	78	31.71
	Male	122	41.11		Male	133	54.07

Neutral/Unknown	36	12.72		Neutral/Unknown	35	14.23
Total	283	100.00		Total	246	100.00

Although the private school math textbook has been published recently, there is a big gap between the number of male and female characters, with males as dominant. One may think that new editions of books have a gender-equal quality because of the rise of feminism, gender and development programs lately, and the volume of gender studies nowadays, but the results of this study do not seem to agree with the idea. It should be noted that the private school science textbook was published in 2015, while the one in public schools was in 2002.

The Math textbook in the public school has interesting results for there are more females The math textbook in public schools has interesting results because there are more females than males. Although the discrepancy between the two numbers is very small, the results in the math textbooks for public schools are remarkable because they defy the results of other studies. One example is the work of Moser and Hannover (2013) on German schoolbooks, which revealed that males outnumbered females in their Math textbook.

Meanwhile, if we consider the perspective that the gender of the author may influence the number of female and male characters, the data in Table 2 does not conform to the said tenet because it was found that the authors of the Math textbook for private school are mostly women (3 out of 4), yet the percentage of male characters in the textbook is more than half (54%) of the female characters.

On page 39 of a private school math textbook, an example of unequal gender representation is found. In a table that contains an array of names with corresponding grades as data for problem solving, it shows that all of them are male students when it could have been presented with female representatives. In relation to gender equality orientation/awareness, such an illustration should at least present an equal opportunity to both genders by having the same frequency of genders, as example.

Visibility

Table 3 shows the frequency of characters per visibility in Science textbooks for public and private schools. There are 19 female images (29.69%) that are visible, while male images are counted 38 times (59.38%) in the public school Science textbook. There are 64 characters in all, of which seven are ascribed as neutral or unknown as they are presented either as shadows

or just a part of a human body and their gender cannot be identified. The images of males also dominate the science textbooks of the private schools. Out of 131 characters, 42 of them are female (32.06%), and 70 characters, or 53.44%, are of male images. In summary, both Science textbooks for public and private schools have more male images, and females are described as less visible.

Table 3. *Total frequency of characters per visibility in Science textbooks*

Public	Gender	*f*	%	Private	Gender	*f*	%
	Female	19	29.69		Female	42	32.06
	Male	38	59.38		Male	70	53.44
	Neutral/Unknown	7	10.94		Neutral/Unknown	19	14.50
	Total	64	100.00		Total	131	100.00

Table 4 reflects the frequency of characters per visibility in mathematics textbooks for public and private schools. Both the Math textbooks for public and private schools are dominated by males in terms of visibility. For public schools, out of 280 characters, 128 (45.71%) are males, 124 (44.29%) are females, and 28 (10%) are neutral/unknown in the pages. Males also have a disproportionate amount of visibility in private school textbooks. Of the 170 characters, 90 (52.94%) are males, 74 (43.53%) are females, and six (3.53%) are considered as unknown or neutral.

Table 4. *Total frequency of characters per visibility in Mathematics textbooks*

Public	Gender	*f*	%	Private	Gender	*f*	%
	Female	124	44.29		Female	74	43.53

	Male	128	45.71		Male	90
52.94						
	Neutral/Unknown	28	10.00		Neutral/Unknown	6
3.53						
	Total	280	100.00		Total	170
100.00						

Based on the analysis, males outnumber females in both science and math textbooks used in public and private schools. A majority of the male characters are more visible than females, based on the images inside the textbooks. It seemingly implies that male characters also dominate the characters' portrayal in the content subjects. Female characters, on the other hand, are sparingly presented based on the images. It therefore shows that females' visibility in terms of image portrayal is considerably low. These results are comparably the same with Bhattacharya's (2017) study on visibility of gender in the textbooks.

Firstness

Females in public school Science textbooks are more than males in terms of frequency in "firstness". Out of nine characters, there are six females (66.69%) mentioned first followed by males in some of the selections in the textbook of the public school. In the same textbook, three males (3.33%) are mentioned first followed by female characters. In the case of private school, six males (85.71%) have been identified to occupy the firstness of gender frequency in the selection, and there is only one event (14.29%) when a female gender was mentioned first followed by male in the order of gender, out of 7 characters in the selection. Table 5 supports the said figure.

Table 5. *Total frequency of characters per firstness in Science textbooks*

Public	Gender	*f*	%	Private	Gender	*f*	%
	Female	6	66.69		Female	1	
14.29							
	Male	3	33.33		Male	6	
85.71							

	Total	9	100.00		Total	7
	100.00					

Table 6 reveals the frequency of characters per *firstness* in public and private school mathematics textbooks. The results for *firstness* are still consistent in the public school Math textbook in terms of the visibility of females. There are six females (54.55%) and one male (45.45%) involved in the frequency of firstness of characters in Math textbooks in public schools. Meanwhile, the math textbook in the private school has different results. Out of nine characters, only twice (22.32%) are females mentioned first compared to males, which are mentioned seven times (77.78%).

Table 6. *Total frequency of characters per firstness in Mathematics textbooks*

Public	Gender	*f*	%	Private	Gender	*f*	%
	Female	6	54.55		Female	2	
	22.22						
	Male	5	45.45		Male	7	
	77.78						
	Total	11	100.00		Total	9	
100.00							

The data in Table 6 reveals that there is a positive representation of females in the Science textbook of the public school. On the other hand, in the private school Science textbook, evidence shows that males out-numbered females in firstness. There is only a single instance where female character occurred first in the order of genders. According to Bhattacharya's (2017), "these examples highlight the stereotypical gender roles where the females or the wives are mentioned in reference to the male character" (p 420). She added that in many societies, women are always mentioned in reference to the husband, father, brother or son and the like. The positive representation of females in terms of *firstness in characters* is still consistent in a Math textbook for public school. In Table 6, it reveals that there is positive representation of females in terms of firstness in Math textbook of public school. There are a few instances that a female character is being mentioned first in a sentence or the first character to occur

among the order of genders in the said textbook. For instance, in the selection or word problem, the reference of the female cousin comes first followed by the male niece, and a mother reference followed by a male son.

2. *How is gender represented based on the lexical features and images commonly associated with males and females in Science and Math textbooks?*

For the *lexical features* and *images*, the following sections provide the findings and discussion.

Lexical features

In the private school Math textbook, the generic noun "men" has been used repetitively (p. 187). Fortunately, the use of generic nouns like "man" or "men" has not been used in the other three textbooks. This lexical feature in the tenets of language and gender is considered politically sexist. In the traditional way of writing (and also speaking), it is used as a suffix for professional designations such as fisherman (men), which should be fisherfolk; policeman (men), which should be police officer; fireman (men), which should be fire fighter, and the like.

However, gender-inclusive feature is found in private school science textbooks, where the dual gender noun "human" is used in place of masculine nouns and generic "man," which is a positive development in terms of gender-fair language.

Furthermore, the public school Science textbook contains gender-fair words such as:

‘male/female’	‘him/her’	‘he/she’
‘boy/girl’	‘his/her’	

Meanwhile, there are several cases in the public school math textbook where professional designations in the form of addresses, like "Atty Perez" and "Dr. Gonzaga" are found in pages. But this form of address, which entails positive representation for the profession, is attributed to a male in the said book because the term is coupled with an image of a man, although not necessarily close to it, but one can actually say that "Atty Perez" is a male as it is found on the same page.

The names of famous scientists and mathematicians are also found in the textbooks. These names are the following:

Science (Public School):	Johannes Kepler
	Tycho Brahe
Math (Private School):	Simon Stevin
	Rene Descartes

	Leonard Euler
	Daniel Grabriel Fahrenheit
Science (Private School):	Galileo Galilei
	Sir Isaac Newton
	Gregorio Zara
	Paulo Campos
	Hans Christian Oersted

Since the content concentrates solely on male mathematicians and scientists, there appears to be an unequal representation of gender in the pages of the book. One might argue that this unequal representation analysis is problematic because the people mentioned were pioneers in their fields, and we cannot erase history, but then again, information about women in the field is something to consider when producing textbooks because there are also female scientists as well.

Images

In the four textbooks, a wide range of activities can be found in the images and vary among types of gender. These images show the roles they portray, either as family members or as members of society. Just like in the previous studies, males, unlike females, are often mirrored in their profession. A majority of activities/roles based on the images are presented below:

Female Professions:	*tutor*	Female Activities:	*drinking*
	vendor		*studying*
	factory worker		*teaching*
	dressmaker		*shopping*
	salesclerk		*gardening*
	dentist		*running*
	babysitter		*buying flowers and balloons*
			baking
			cooking
			house keeping

			sleeping
Male Professions:	*store helper*	Male Activities:	*playing basketball*
	taxi driver		*surfing*
	carpenter		*farming*
	construction worker		*biking*
	scientist		*hiking*
	mason		*studying*
	garbage collector		*diving*
	hunter		
	fisher folk		
	traffic enforcer		
	police officer		
	engineer		
	boy scout		
	mechanic		
	lawyer		
	courier		
	doctor		

Clothing

Males are portrayed wearing a wide range of clothes from casual to formal depending on the activities they do and professions they portray. In the same manner, women are dressed based on the roles they also portray, but more in a conventional way. In most cases, these females are dressed in settings like inside the house and/or on the farm.

Philippine society keeps on changing and the roles of men and women in the community also change. Nevertheless, textbooks, which are considered an essential part of the teaching and learning process, play a big role in educating society. To educate young learners about gender roles, it should start by looking at the different teaching materials that schools are using.

As Fischer (2010) stressed, "the development of identity is one of the most important features of childhood" (p. 72). The images, stories, and values that youngsters are exposed to will have a negative impact on them if they are not properly guided. According to Ella, Casalan, and Lucas (2019, p. 39), mind conditioning is essential in teaching because "auditory or visual cues are important for a learner to access words, using their long term memories." Hence, proper stimulus and appropriate gender roles using language and images help the children shape their own unique personality.

Conclusion

This study aimed to explore the gender representations in the Science and Math textbooks of the young learners. Based on the findings, a clear picture of unequal gender representation in “some aspects” of the four textbooks used by Grade Five Pupils in the public and private schools is evident. This study provides empirical evidence that like other previous studies, some textbooks are considered gender bias. However, the present study revealed different results particularly in the frequency of characters in Science and Math textbooks of the public school. It is noted that females are more than males in the number of characters, and in the frequency of *firstness.* The books in the private schools, although published recently, have shown the other way. One may say that the reason behind is perhaps authors of the books themselves, who are dominantly women. Ironically, that concept does not support the results. In fact, three of the four authors of the said textbook are females, but the frequency of male characters is more than a half of the female characters.

Meanwhile, in some aspects of gender representation in this study, it shows that males are more dominant than females. The depiction of gender roles in textbooks also demonstrates that males are stronger than females.This is because the images portrayed by males are in a variety of strong character roles, while women are presented in conventional roles. The textbooks' activities, clothing, and portrayal of female characters all imply that women are the weaker sexes.

The presence of a "generic noun" which favors men, although considered as an unmarked term for both sexes, in the textbook would support the CDA's claim that power and dominance interplay in the language. The images in the textbooks connote that women are subordinate to

men and this presupposition would change in the mindset of the learners if gender issues are tackled and answered by the language and images used in textbooks to avoid or prevent learners from imitating "negative" gender roles.

Lastly, if Grade Five Science and Math textbooks of public and private schools are to be compared in regard to gender representation, the results of the study revealed that the recent books have more males than females in characters, images, and *firstness.* Thus, the private school Science and Math textbooks have “unequal” gender representation.

Pedagogical Implication

In order to begin critical thinking and challenge the stereotyped concepts and representations of the texts in the classroom, courses may include a practical and realistic orientation with gender roles and responsibilities as described in textbooks. The Global Education Monitoring Report (UNESCO, 2009) stressed the need to revise textbook content, restore gender balance, and encourage children to question gender stereotypes in society. The results of the paper are also deemed beneficial for curriculum makers so that they may integrate some considerations into the (pre) in-service teachers’ training. Also, to the textbook writers, that they may consider equal representation of gender in their works.

For meaningful learning in the classroom, gender-stereotyping has to be reduced in the teaching and learning process. It can be achieved if young learners are offered a gender-fair picture of male and female characters in the learning materials. Since gender-stereotyping has to be avoided in the classroom, teachers should choose their teaching materials. If in any case, a particular learning reveals gender discrimination, the teacher may provide the learners with a pedagogical strategy that employs positive change and improves the position of women and men in society. For instance, the teacher could orient learners by saying that a particular role or profession is not assigned to a specific gender.

Recommendations

Language is a very powerful tool. We have to use this tool with more caution and a lot of care to reinforce gender-fair views in our society. Through this study, using four textbooks as data, it revealed that the existence of gender stereotypes and unequal representation of gender are existing and a reality. Textbooks, therefore, should implicitly convey ideas and notions about social norms and values in order to have a positive impact on the minds of learners as the epitome of acceptable and appropriate gender roles in society. Furthermore, the results of this research project may be used as data for further studies. Teachers need to be aware of the

materials, especially, the textbooks and the notions and beliefs embedded therein which get conveyed to the learners. The issue of how gender is represented in textbooks can be used to educate young learners, and this needs to be combated with immediacy since these textbooks serve as a tool for change as they propagate social norms and ideas of gender roles and duties. To make this study even more interesting, the researchers suggest that other scholars will consider studying more textbooks and learning modules authored by women and/or by men for substantial and interesting results.

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Inclusive Education: Perceptions and attitudes among Filipino high school teachers

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Abstract

The growing population of students brought the opportunity to welcome diversity inside the classroom, which put 'inclusive education' (IE) into implementation in many parts of the world. However, despite the diversity, abilities and disabilities inside the learning environment, teachers and students shared a common goal in education and that is to learn. Thus, educational institutions have delved into implementing programs that would cater each learner's needs regardless of his abilities and disabilities. Studies regarding successful implementation of inclusive education have been conducted mostly in Middle East countries while in the Philippines; research in this aspect is limited. Hence, this paper was conceptualized to determine the perception and attitude among Filipino High School teachers which takes a huge part in the successful implementation of the program. Moreover, methodology of this study utilized a qualitative descriptive research design among 7 high school teachers which according to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), is a method that involves interpretation of phenomena in order for the researcher to clearly understand on how the respondents make meaning from their past experience. Furthermore, regarding with the results, it is found that teachers were revealed to have moderately defined inclusive education despite the lack of professional training they possess. Additionally, teachers' attitude towards IE is also investigated and favourable attitudes were revealed by Filipino high school teachers.

Keywords: *inclusive, inclusive education, Philippines, perceptions, attitudes, Filipino high school teachers.*

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Introduction

In the year 2009, the Department of Education in the Philippines issued DepEd Order 72, s. 2009 which states that no child should be left behind in terms of education, according to a millennium objective set for 2015 (DepEd, 2009). This means that students should exercise their rights to an appropriate education in a normal or inclusive classroom which is guaranteed by the Department of Education. With the help of the whole educational system and stakeholders, the Department of School's Inclusive Education Program ensures that every child, regardless of their skills or impairments, has an equal opportunity to attend formal education. In support to this movement and for the aimed progress in the Philippine education landscape, 10 years after, DepEd announced the revised basic education requirements for grades K through 12 (DepEd, 2019), and in line with this, inclusive education is the newly added component.

In response to the growing diversity of students in the school community, learners with special educational needs (SEN) are welcomed in the learning environment as a full member (De Silva, 2013). Inferable from this reality, Savić (2009) stated that "responding to diversity and considering individual needs of learners is a requirement of contemporary education at any level p. 19". Therefore, instructional material, methods of teaching should be customized to assure that regardless of students' abilities, they can successfully partake in a regular classroom (Mittler, 1995). In addition, its main purpose is to provide classroom experiences for the growing diverse group of students and to eradicate further values and attitudes that seek to discriminate and exclude (UNESCO, 1994).

It has been argued that attitude is an important factor in the success or failure of educational programs and policies (Alieto, 2018; Alieto & Rillo, 2018; Alieto, Abequibel, & Ricohermoso, 2020; Buslon, Alieto, Pahulaya & Reyes, 2020; Berowa, 2016a; Berowa, 2016b; Berowa, Devanadera & David, 2018; Cabangacala, Alieto, Estigoy, Delos Santos, & Torres, 2021; De La Rama, Sabasales, Antonio, Ricohermoso, Torres, Devanadera, Tulio, & Alieto, 2020; Go Silk, Medriano, Dela Cruz, Deran, Alieto, Abdon, Rillo, & Lucas, 2020; Mumbing, Abequibel, Buslon, & Alieto, 2021; Ricohermoso, Abequibel, & Alieto, 2021; Somblingo, & Alieto, 2019). Evidently, research on inclusive education has identified essential variables for effective inclusion, such as teachers' perceptions and teachers' favourable attitudes toward mainstreaming students with disabilities. As Berowa and Agbayani (2019) maintain, "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" (p. 124). Teachers play a pivotal part in the educational system and have been dealing with students of different backgrounds, disabilities and abilities. If classroom teachers have negative attitudes toward handling children with SEN, the success of inclusive programs may be jeopardized. As classroom teachers strive to incorporate students with SEN, negative attitudes about inclusion in education may become roadblocks. With that being said, teachers have an essential part in carrying out an open and comprehensive environment for all inside the classroom (Costello & Boyle, 2013). Therefore, the need to educate teachers about this complex component is critical to students' progress.

However, success of students in an inclusive classroom does not only depend on their abilities but the attitudes and perceptions of the people that surround the learner counts as well. According to authors (Cawley, Hayden, Cade, & Baker- Kroczynski, 2002; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Van Reysen et al., 2001), teachers' perspectives are critical to the success of inclusive programs because they are crucial in incorporating students with disabilities into

regular classes. It's crucial to look into people's perspectives. Teachers must include students with SEN in a regular mainstream as much as possible. Additionally, their attitudes toward and acceptance of others may be influenced by their perceptions. Teachers' attitude has found vital to students' as well (Savić & Prošić-Santovac, 2017). Corroborating to what O'Gorman and Drudy (2011) have claimed that "positive attitudes on the part of teachers facilitate more successful inclusion p.10".

Inclusive education is continuously gaining attention and focus not only in the Philippines but in other countries as well (Potts, 2000). That is to say that, countries have been considering and welcoming IE to help address students with SEN. Inclusion is more than just a student's presence. It may be demanding to some, but this can only be achieved when appreciation and understanding present and each one is valued. However, the majority of the high school teachers are not fully equipped to teach students with SEN in inclusive classes which make the teaching and learning process more challenging (Aksu Ataç & Taşçı, 2020). Thus, as the researcher has noticed, it is noteworthy to measure the teachers' perceptions on inclusive education, more so their attitudes towards its implementation.

Furthermore, the purposed of this research was to reveal the teachers' attitudes with the diversity of students in the regular classroom and to unveil their perspectives on inclusive education, which led to a good number of recommendations for its successful implementation.

Literature Review

Inclusive Education in the Philippines

The word 'inclusive' has been defined as involvement of learners in a regular classroom no matter their abilities. Meaning, whatever the student's condition may be, he should be included in a regular classroom (UNESCO, 1994). It is a new concept teaching students with SENS in a regular classroom because in the past, these students were not accommodated in regular schools for some reasons. According to Aksu Ataç and Taşçı (2020), because students with SEN are different from other students; there is an urge that they should be taught by a teacher who is fully equipped and trained in inclusive education. That means to say, learning could be better if they are taught exclusively. However, with the nature of inclusivity, it should be noted that diverse students must be accommodated regardless of their abilities and disabilities. As stated by Carrington and Elkin (2002), to be valued and to be respected is the philosophy of inclusive education regardless of students' disabilities, abilities and diverse learning styles. Thus, there is really a need to provide equal support and enough encouragement for students to be motivated in participating in the different learning activities in school.

In the Philippine educational landscape, implementation of Inclusive Special Education started in S.Y, 1997-1998 through mainstreaming or integration of special learners in the regular education program. In order to educate as many children as possible, and due to a lack of funds to build a separate special education infrastructure to meet the needs of children with disabilities, the Philippine Department of Education officially adopted inclusive education as a viable educational alternative in 1997. As a matter of fact, the notion of 'Silahis Centres' (a school within a school) is proposed as a practical model for implementing and promoting the inclusion of students with disabilities in normal schools across the Philippines (Inciong & Quijano, 2009).

Subsequently, in the year 1999, the Bureau of Elementary Education, Department of Education Culture and Sports through the Special Education Division developed a "Handbook on Inclusive Education" to develop and facilitate the most effective planning and programming for learners with special needs who were formerly segregated can now be integrated by modifying instruction and providing additional support services. To sustain inclusiveness in the Department of Education the Bureau of Secondary Education of the Department of Education in 2005 conducted national training for secondary teachers in order to accommodate learners with special needs in general education programs. Moreover, despite the achievement of the Philippines achieving its milestone as a signatory of the international policies regarding inclusive education, Mori (2015) contended that many Filipinos still do not get the chance to go to school because of financial scarcity and some lack access to educational facilities.

Furthermore, with the embrace of inclusion of learners with SEN in the regular learning environment, policies have been implemented as well. In fact, the Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013, also known as the Republic Act 10533, was implemented to provide programs that would cater and address the learning needs of diverse learners including students with SEN. That is to say that K to 12 basic education programs indeed support the IE implementation which in fact provides quality, inclusive and of course welcoming education to over 20 million of learners in the Philippines (Albert, 2016). Additionally, according to the Department of Education (2015), among these learners, over 300,000 learners with SEN are assisted by 173 normal schools with Special Education (SpEd) classes and 448 acknowledged Special Education centers.

However, government financed schools in the country where the majority of the population of Filipino students are enrolled, are confronted with mediocre outcomes, overpopulated class sizes, shortage of well-trained teachers, insufficiency of resources, and disputable perspectives of legislators (Alegado, 2018). The Philippines consequently battles in the execution of IE

because of the intensified misinterpretations on what the IE is all about, insufficient resources, perceptions and especially the attitudes of teachers as a whole (Muega, 2016). Thus, to guarantee good conveyance of the inclusive programs for students, intensive preparation on comprehensive instructional methods has been organized to help teachers viably address the issues of students with SEN (Department of Education, 2015). More so, Mina and Agbon (2017), maintained that school interest among students with SEN is commonly low. Plans toward the fulfilment of IE are assumed; and Villamero and Kamenopoulou (2014), contended that if there is a shortage of resources in a country, may it manpower or instructional materials, IE turns into a troublesome endeavour.

Teachers' Perceptions and Attitudes toward Mainstreamed Special Learners

In the previous years, below average attitudes of teachers have been shown in previous studies (Barco, 2007; Dupoux, Wolman, & Estrada, 2005; Loreman, Forlin & Sharma, 2007) towards learners with SEN and their inclusion in the regular classes. Considerable number of studies as well have shown that teachers share the same perceptions regarding IE; some positive and some negative (Barco, 2007; Dupoux, Wolman, & Estrada, 2005; Ross-Hill, 2009). But despite the variation of perceptions among teachers, Wiggins (2012) argued that there is a significant relationship between a successful inclusion and the teachers' perceptions regarding inclusion in education. As a result, it may be stated that teachers who have experience teaching in an inclusive classroom have more favourable judgments on IE than those who have never taught in an inclusive environment. Over the past decades, views of teachers remain the same. Actually in the study of Dev (2014), it was revealed that teachers prefer and appreciate mainstreaming more than just inclusion.

Evidently, as stated by Sharma and Desai (2003), teacher training has found to lessen concerns of pre-service teachers in dealing toward IE. In support of the previous author's statement, Subban and Sharma (2006), also found out that teachers held favourable perceptions for the reason that of course they have attended training and gained knowledge regarding inclusive education. This means that if a teacher is well-equipped and has enough knowledge regarding IE, a successful inclusion is really achievable. However the following authors (Ali, Mustapha & Jelas, 2006), also found in their study that there are teachers that were impacted negatively by training related to IE. But overall, according to Ali, Mustapha, and Jelas (2006), the majority of the population of teachers see IE positively. Meaning, despite loopholes regarding the program, the majority still sees the potential of what IE can do to help learners with SEN.

Research Questions

The purpose of this paper is to find out how Filipino high school teachers perceive and feel about inclusive education. Specifically, this research aimed to answer the following questions:

1. What are the Filipino high school teachers' perceptions about inclusive education?
2. What are the Filipino high school teachers' attitudes towards mainstreamed special learners?

Methodology

Research Design

This paper aims to find out of how Filipino high school teachers perceived and feel about inclusive education and the methodology necessarily calls to utilize the qualitative descriptive research design which according to Denzin and Lincoln (1994), is a method that involves interpretation of phenomena in order for the researcher to clearly understand on how the respondents make meaning from their past experiences. Moreover, a qualitative approach is specifically utilized to investigate how Filipino high school teachers perceive and their attitudes toward inclusive education. According to Creswell (2013), this method is appropriate for this research since it allows the researcher to do a one-on-one or focus group interview (FGD). The researcher may ask the respondents open-ended questions in order to get the most important responses. The approach used in this study is the best fit for the researcher to provide a comprehensive presentation of Filipino high school teachers' perceptions and attitudes about inclusive education.

Participants

Seven Filipino high school teachers working in a public school in Zamboanga del Sur were interviewed for this study. Furthermore, convenience sampling was employed because according to Andrews and Frankel (2010), is a sampling technique which is a best fit since the world is facing a global pandemic, and teachers are very busy at the moment because of the current situation, the researcher only interviewed respondents that were available and just reachable. A considerable number of possible respondents (*n=8)* were invited but unfortunately, one teacher declined at the last minute because of some personal reason. Therefore, out of 8, 7 respondents were selected possessing the following inclusion criteria: 1) employed as a high school teacher in the Philippines and; 2) must have an experience handling students with SEN. Additionally, before they participated in the study, they were also informed

about the confidentiality of the interview, in compliance with Republic Act 10173 or the Data Privacy Law.

Instruments and Data Collection

To obtain the genuine data, the current study used semi-structured interviews. Because activities during the global pandemic are limited, a virtual interview was done instead of a face-to-face interview. Alternatively, the interview was done through a phone call since video call or audio call through messenger and other platforms online might just be disrupted because of an intermittent connection. The interview was just about 15-30 minutes and was of course recorded to be transcribed for the data analysis. During the course of the interview, it's not just the main questions that were asked, there were also follow up questions which is an advantage in the utilization of semi-structured interview, where the researcher can add and ask questions depending on the respondents' response (Harding, 2018). The researcher also took down notes for the smooth flow of follow-up questions and to ensure validity of the responses. Lastly, consent was requested as well from the respondents before the actual interview happened.

Data Analysis Procedure

After the data collection, responses have been transcribed. Since there were 2 respondents who answered not in the English language, the researcher translated it and then sent it to an expert for a validation. The transcribed data were categorized and were thematically analysed to answer the research questions. The researcher went over the data from the recorded interviews several times to review and confirm its reliability. From there on, several phases were conducted to attain the consensus of the data results. The most pertinent excerpts in the responses of the respondents of this research were presented in the findings and discussion section.

Result and Discussion

This section presents a description of the findings in order to provide a response to the study's two research questions. The most represented excerpts from the responses are presented below to provide support to the findings description.

In the first part of the interview, after the warm-up questions, the respondents were asked if they had undergone training or taken up subjects regarding inclusive education before their encounter with students with SEN.

Participant 1

"Actually none because before there were really none. And supposed to be, students with learning disabilities should be handled by SPED teachers"

Participant 7

"Yes. I studied long before in HANGUP kabataan for sign language. I've also had a seminar focusing on the blind students. It's a regional seminar but I never had the chance to apply for it because it's just 5 days and I think that it's just so superficial.

Participant 4

"*No I didn't have training but I just have ideas regarding inclusive education."*

The data reveals that participants of the study are not trained but they still handled students with learning disabilities in their classes. Despite lack of training, teachers are given responsibility to attend students with special needs. Moreover, regardless if they have proper training or none, still the researcher aims to explore the Filipino High School teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards IE to help the government in giving action to improve the implementation of this program in the educational landscape here in the Philippines.

Filipino High School Teachers' Perceptions toward Inclusive Education

The researcher was able to classify themes from the data collected which is presented in the following tables. Table 1 presents the perceptions of teachers regarding inclusive education.

Table 1.

Teachers' Perceptions regarding Inclusive Education

Themes	Excerpts	Percentage
1. Development of skills and talents	*"I tried to facilitate him and also mainly focus on the strengths and the talents he has. Not only addressing his differences, I also helped him discover and develop his talents because he is good at singing…'* (P1) *"Special ones are allowed to develop their strengths in the regular classes and they are*	*28.5%*

		treated fairly and this becomes their opportunity to showcase as well their talents and skills that the regular students don't have" (P7)	
2.	**Minimized discrimination**	*"…because of this inclusive education, discrimination to students with learning disability is minimized…'* (P1) *"*	*14.3%*
3.	**Building confidence and determination**	*"We are building the confidence and determination of students with learning disabilities."* (P2)	*14.3%.*
4.	**Learning opportunities**	*"Real learning opportunities for all students not because a student has this condition, he wouldn't be included in education."* (P1) *"With inclusive education, opportunities for them are non-stop and their needs will be really addressed in this program…'* (P4) *"It provides better opportunities for learning. Children with varying abilities are better motivated when they learn in classes surrounded by other children also."* (P6)	*42.9%*

Table 1 shows perceptions of the participants regarding IE in the country. Moreover, the four recurring themes are presented in the table. There were four perceptions that were provided by Filipino High School teachers regarding inclusion in education.

The primary identified perception is that inclusive education is about the development of skills and talents among students. Among the seven participants, there were two who provided the

same perceptions. The excerpt "*...I tried to facilitate him and also mainly focusing on the strengths and the talents he has. Not only addressing his differences, I also helped him discover and develop his talents because his good in singing…"* is evidence that teachers are facilitative in developing the students' skills and talents which gives the student confidence to show more of what he got. Additionally, participant 7 stated, *"…special ones are allowed to develop their strengths in the regular classes and they are treated fairly and this becomes their opportunity to showcase as well their talents and skills that the regular students don't have."* Clearly proves that teachers' treatment of students is where the students get their confidence in showcasing what they got. If they feel like they are treated equally, that's the time they do more.

Additionally, a participant also perceived that inclusive education is equals to minimal discrimination of students with learning disabilities. Participant 1 stated "*…because of this inclusive education, discrimination to students with learning disability is minimized…"* In this participant's case, he handled a dyslexic student. Before enrolling, the student admitted that he was bullied because of his condition but after enrolling, he was noticed as a good singer and has other skills and talents as well. The teacher observed that because of inclusive education, it resulted to minimized discrimination to students with learning disabilities.

Moreover, a participant also responded that he perceived inclusive education as the building of confidence and determination of students with learning disabilities. This means that inclusive education isn't just about meeting the needs of children with learning difficulties for some. It is also building students' confidence and determination despite any condition they have.

Finally, for the last theme, there were 4 participants who responded that they perceived inclusive education as a learning opportunity to all students regardless of disability.

This idea is drawn from the following excerpts:

> *"Inclusive education is a real learning opportunity for all students not because a student has this condition; he wouldn't be included in education."* (P1)
>
> *"With inclusive education, opportunities for them are non-stop and their needs will be really addressed in this program."* (P4)
>
> *"It provides better opportunities for learning. Children with varying abilities are better motivated when they learn in classes surrounded by other children also."* (P6)

Findings of the current study show the perceptions and the attitudes of Filipino High School teachers toward IE. Despite the fact that teachers have no proper training regarding IE, they only have a little knowledge since there were no IE subjects in the teaching curriculum before.

Moreover, it is important to note that almost all of them correctly defined IE even though there were some that answered limitedly. Just like in the study of Nketsia and Saloviita (2013), teachers were revealed to clearly define inclusive education despite the lack of professional training.

It was found out that respondents are not well-equipped to teach students with SEN in a regular classroom. Just like in Thailand, Agbenyega and Klinthong (2014), it was revealed that teachers teach students with SEN with just a little amount of background about it. In a similar vein, Sukbum Pant et. al. (2013) also contended that because there is a lack of knowledge on the teachers' end, they become less confident to teach already. However, the researcher of this study concludes that it is not just all about the knowledge about IE, it is also the passion and love of work of the teachers. Lack of expertise does not mean inability to teach at all but it would be better if there is proper training for teachers regarding IE. In fact, according to Hemmings and Woodcock (2011), in order for an inclusion to be successful, teacher-qualities are essential. In the Philippine context, the program is already implemented; we just need well-equipped teachers to execute.

Filipino High School Teachers' Attitudes towards Mainstreamed Special Learners

All of the respondents were found to have positive attitudes towards inclusion of special learners in the regular mainstream (n = 7). The participants were very buoyant to students with learning disabilities in the regular learning environment which adheres to the aim of the inclusive education implementation that teachers should welcome and accept as if every individual difference of special students is natural; that they should focus on the students' strengths rather than their inabilities.

They highlighted the need of teachers to be more patient and understanding with students with learning difficulties in regular classes. Some participants, on the other hand, stated that it's a little bit challenging but despite the challenge they face, their passion in teaching students prevails. The following statements in table 2 presented below exemplify these points of view.

Table 2 presents the attitudes of the participants regarding inclusive education in the Philippines. There were 9 attitudes elicited from the data.

Table 2.

Teachers' Attitudes towards Mainstreamed Special Learners

Themes	Excerpts	Percentage
1. Understanding	*"Then that dyslexic student, I now understands why he can't easily read because of his condition, where letters are not steady from his point of view."*(P1)	*14.2%*
2. Helpful	*"I personally invest time to help him. We do reading and so on… And to develop his confidence, I always encourage him to help him know his worth…I also help him discover and develop his talents because he is good at singing."* (P1) *"They are also humans like us. For humanitarian purposes, we need to cater, we need to love, we need to sustain the needs of these learners."* (P5)	*28.5%*
3. Facilitative	*"I tried to facilitate him and also mainly focus on the strengths and the talents he has."* (P1) *"I just gave time for him to understand lessons that are quite hard for him to understand. But I do it when we're just the two of us. One on one."* (P4)	*28.5%*

4. Glad and Hopeful	*"Basically, I'm glad and hopeful because at last there is action already. Because of this inclusive education, discrimination to students with learning disability is minimized because they feel belong through inclusive education… I'm happy about that because it's very nice to hear and I'm hopeful because those families who can't afford to enroll their child in private schools have a chance already."* (P1)	*14.2%*
5. Patient	*"For me it is not easy to teach them so our patience, love and care for the students will be doubled at this point of time."* (P3) *"It is not easy to deal with these students with special needs so that's the reason why teachers who are engaging in this kind of teaching must have the patience and the love for teaching."* (P5)	*28.5%*
6. Appreciative	*"You cannot scold them because they have special needs but you will just appreciate whatever they do, whatever their actions be regardless if it's a positive or negative action but you have to really appreciate everything that they do."* (P5)	*14.2%*
7. Likeness	*"I like inclusive education because the special ones are allowed to develop their*	*14.2%*

	strengths in the regular classes and they are treated fairly and this becomes their opportunity to showcase as well their talents and skills." (P7)

Among the seven participants, one of them stated that in order to attain successful inclusion, a teacher must be understanding, "*…then that dyslexic student, I now understands why he can't easily read because of his condition, where letters are not steady on his point of view…"* he said. Aside from being understanding, two participants represented teachers also on being helpful. This idea came from the following excerpts:

> *"I personally invest time to help him. We do reading and so on… And to develop his confidence, I always encourage him to help him know his worth…I also help him discover and develop his talents because he is good at singing."* (P1)
>
> *"They are also humans like us. For humanitarian purposes, we need to cater, we need to love, we need to sustain the needs of these learners."* (P5)

Moreover, two participants showed the attitude of being facilitative toward students of inclusive education. This contention is from the data elicited from the respondents and the statements are as follows;

> *"I tried to facilitate him and also mainly focusing on the strengths and the talents he has"* (P1)
>
> *"I just gave time for him to understand lessons that are quite hard for him to understand. But I do it when we're just the two of us. One on one"* (P4)

Participant 1 also responded that he is glad and hopeful towards inclusive education because accordingly, there is less discrimination already. Students feel they belong through IE and participant 1 is glad about that. He is happy as well because those families who can't afford to enroll their child in private schools have a chance already. Two participants also stated how they become patient when tested by circumstance through inclusive education. P3 states *"…for me it is not easy to teach them so our patience, love and care for the students will be doubled at this point of time".* While P5 said that, "*…It is not easy to deal with these students with special needs so that's the reason why teachers who are engaging in this kind of teaching must have the patience and the love for teaching".*

Being appreciative as an attitude was stated by a participant as well, "*…you cannot scold them because they have special needs but you will just appreciate whatever they do, whatever their*

actions be regardless if it's a positive or negative action but you have to really appreciate everything that they do…" (P5). And finally, the likeness of teachers towards the implementation of IE was mentioned by a participant. "*I like inclusive education because the special ones are allowed to develop their strengths in the regular classes and they are treated fairly and this becomes their opportunity to showcase as well their talents and skills…"* (P7).

According to the data, the majority of Filipino high school teachers (n=7) have a favourable attitude regarding IE. Along with their favourable responses, the respondents thought that in handling students with SEN, a teacher must possess understanding and patience and more. They emphasized the role of a teacher to be appreciative as well no matter how slow the progress of the student would be and the importance to include and welcome students regardless of their ability and disability in a regular classroom.

Similarly, the longitudinal investigation of Costello and Boyle (2013) also yielded positive attitudes among teachers regarding IE. However, in other countries such as Germany, Ghana and Spain, teachers' attitude towards IE is just average unlike previous studies that have been presented (Mónico et al., 2020). This means that the attitudes of the teacher may differ of course depending on how long it has been implemented in the country and depending on the practices, training they have been through. Additionally, in a study in Turkey by Rakap and Kaczmarek (2010), negative attitude toward IE was found, which can be concluded that they do not like the IE implementation because of the lack of teachers training. However, Seçer (2010) argued that if teachers are provided opportunities to have training, implementation of IE in a country will surely succeed.

Furthermore, findings of this study revealed a necessity for the government to take action in training teachers for IE implementation. This suggests adding inclusion lessons in teacher-training before pre-service teachers will be assigned in the field. In the study of Aksu Ataç and Taşçı (2020), the author also suggests training would-be teachers to have students with learning difficulties or disabilities in their practicum to improve inclusive training of teachers in the country.

Conclusion and Recommendation

This research project aims to find out how Filipino high school teachers feel about inclusive education in the Philippines. Findings showed that although teachers have limited training regarding inclusive education, they remain to have favourable perceptions and attitudes towards it. However, positive perceptions and attitudes towards inclusive education are not enough. Successful implementation calls for proper training for teachers, which could be

achieved if and only if the government would take action. Possible training must include communication with learners with disabilities, effective teaching methods and strategies, and adaptation of materials for teaching students with SEN. This study revealed that classroom teachers have not yet had enough training to teach and that they are not well-equipped to handle students with SEN. Thus, a call for the inclusive programs recommended in the teaching curriculum is needed to provide adequate training for would-be teachers to be ready for inclusive teaching in the field.

Implication

Findings of this study bear implication that although teachers have limited training regarding inclusive education; they remain to have favourable perceptions and attitudes towards it. However, positive perceptions and attitudes towards inclusive education are not enough. Curriculum specialists must also prioritize the integration of a unique curriculum to ensure that the scholastic needs of the diverse students are met (Rosales, 2020). Also, successful implementation calls for a necessity of proper training for teachers and this could be achieved if and only if the government would take action. Moreover, communication with learners with disabilities, effective teaching methods and strategies, and customization of materials for educating students with impairments are all possible training options. Teachers have not yet received adequate training to educate, and they are ill-equipped to deal with students with SEN, according to the data provided. Thus, a call for the inclusive programs recommended in the teaching curriculum is needed and that is to provide adequate training for would-be teachers, for them to be ready for inclusive teaching in the field. More so, if teachers are prepared with the appropriate qualities for inclusion, inclusive education will be effective and responsive to the requirements of students. This could be accomplished by separating materials and tasks. As a result, in order to properly integrate inclusion in their classes, prospective instructors will need training or even teachers that are already in the teaching field. These workshops should include material adaptation for teaching purposes Do’s and don’ts in handling learners with SEN.

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Pedagogic Code-Switching in a Multilingual Classroom: Perceptions and Reasons of ESL Teachers

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Abstract

The use of code-switching is considered to be a common language phenomenon in bilingual and multilingual settings. Evidently, it has become a subject of controversies and contradicting views among scholars in the field of research, particularly in the Philippine context. However, most of the studies conducted have been directed to the *Tagalog-English* code-switching practices of language teachers. Seemingly, explorations on the teachers' perspectives toward this practice remain largely under-researched. Hence, this study employed a qualitative research design and conducted in-depth interviews to investigate the perceptions of ESL teachers on the utilization of code-switching in classroom discussions. Moreover, the present research sought to explore their reasons on why they code-switch to the student's native tongue. Based on the findings, the respondents believe that code-switching facilitates better comprehension, its use depends on the students' level of comprehension and learning objectives, encourages student participation, a teaching strategy, hinders students' language development, and becomes ineffective when the teacher has limited background on the students' MT. Also, it was found that the reasons for code-switching include translation, comprehension, identification, contextualization, student engagement, and communication.

Keywords: *code-switching, language teaching, perceptions, pedagogic reasons, multilingual classroom*

Introduction

Language processing is a dynamic process for it involves just one language at one point, and at some other instances involve several languages (Grosjean & Li in Torres & Flores, 2017). In the Philippine setting, code-switching has become an area of interest among notable scholars, particularly in the context of education. In fact, this language phenomenon has been found to be an inevitable practice due to the diverse linguistic landscape of the country wherein the students can speak two or more languages (Martin, 2006). The country, which is highly diverse in terms of language, culture and religion, is said to be the home of more than 180 languages (Berowa, 2016; Berowa; 2018; Berowa & Regala-Flores; 2020). For this reason, learners are more favorable to bilingualism and multilingualism. Hence, the use of the second language alongside the predominant native tongue is nothing alien anymore among the teacher and the learners in classroom discourse.

In view of this, explorations that center around the prevalent use of code-switching in classroom settings abound. Bravo-Sotelo (2020) conducted a study on the utilization of Tagalog-English code-switching as it is perceived to be instrumental for the learners to get a full extent of their comprehension on the lessons instead of using either pure English or Tagalog in the entire classroom discourse. In a similar vein, Liwanag and Labor (2016) explored the code-switching practices of selected Tagalog-English speakers and discussed the discursive and pragmatic effects of this practice in content-based classes. The same authors noted that the use of the student's first language inside the classroom essentially facilitates active involvement between the teacher and the learner in so far as language learning is accounted for. Relative to this, Berowa and Agbayani (2019) maintained that "the use of mother tongue encourages children to become more expressive, more active and more participative in the learning process" (p. 124). This implies that when the concepts and lessons are presented to the students in a way that their native tongue is included could immensely draw more engagement among them.

In addition, Borlongan (2009) contributed to the existing literature and observed the Tagalog-English code-switching acts of the teachers and the learners in selected English language classes in Metro Manila. The analysis of the study centered on the frequency of the participants' practice of language alternation in the classroom discourse as well as its forms and functions in the teaching and learning process. Moreover, Valerio (2015) determined the attitudes of university students toward the use of code-switching and assessed the relationship of the respondents' attitudes to their language development and academic performances.

However, it is evident that most of the presented studies have been directed to the teaching practices of the teachers and the learners in English as a Second Language (ESL) classrooms and the effects and pedagogic functions of code-switching in language learning. Seemingly, the exploration of the teachers' perceptions toward this practice remains largely under-researched and insubstantial. In addition, the majority of the research mainly focused on the use of Tagalog-English and it can be observed that minimal investigations have been undertaken concerning other varieties of code-switching in the country. Abastillas (2015) conducted an investigation on the utilization of Cebuano-English, but the study only determined the respondents' practices. Similarly, Mangila (2018) explored the same subject in a classroom setting, but only investigated the acts of two bilingual teachers during their discussions. Interestingly, the same author suggested that in-depth interviews should be undertaken to know the perspectives of the teachers regarding this subject.

Hence, the present study conducted a novel investigation on the perceptions of the teachers toward the utilization of code-switching in language discussions, more specifically in the context of multilingual classrooms with students who are *Bisaya*, *Tagalog*, *Tausug*, *Samal*, and *Chavacano* speakers. Moreover, the paper determined the reasons of the teachers on why they code-switch to the student's L1 and the positive contributions of this practice on language learning.

Review of Related Literature

Code-Switching

It is with no doubt that a surge of interest persists among scholars on the utilization of code-switching over the past years. This significant interest has occupied bodies of literature and has resulted in chains of controversies and contradicting views. According to Sakaria and Priyana (2018), code-switching has gained currency in the field of research due to the fact that this practice has undeniably permeated various domains such as mass media and education. Zainil and Arsyad (2021) defined code-switching as the act of shifting between two or more languages in a conversation and is deemed to be an inevitable language phenomenon in a multilingual context. This means that using the second language (L2) alongside the native tongue is no longer alien, particularly in a setting wherein the speakers have proficiency in more than two languages.

From a classroom perspective, some researchers like Norrish (2007 cited in Mangila, 2018) termed this as pedagogic code-switching, which is essentially used to bridge communication gaps and achieve a smooth continuity of classroom instructions. With this, there is a higher

probability of acquiring intended educational goals. In addition, Bullock and Toribio (2009) stressed that code-switching, if used potently, may fill linguistic gaps and meet particular discursive aims. Hence, it is part of the expectation that for code-switching to function effectively, the teacher should possess a moderate to a high level of communicative competence among the languages involved in the alternation.

In comparison, studies that have been documented in the past differ from the approach observed at present. Early investigations regarding code-switching were mostly quantitative in nature and centered on bilingual education programs for minority students alone (Martin-Jones, 1995). The investigation sought to determine the effects of this practice on the learners' language development. However, it can be noted that these studies were limited to a particular scope and type. Meanwhile, Milk (1981) and Guthrie (1984) departed from a quantitative study to the use of audio recordings and descriptive analysis. This has changed the approach used in the conduct of various explorations over the years. At present, most of the recent studies are qualitative in nature undertaken through classroom observations and in-depth interviews.

Considering the number of studies that have been done regarding this subject, there are a handful of scholars that have supported the practice of code-switching for pedagogic purposes. Bhatti et al. (2018) disclosed in their study that although English is a supposed dominant language inside the classroom, both the teacher and the learners often code-switch as it is found to be a bridge for communication gap and is a functional strategy to aid students with low proficiency in the English language. Similarly, King and Chetty (2014) highlighted this as a cross-lingual pedagogical technique and further discussed that the utilization of the student's L1 contributes to the success of the L2 development, thus should be integrated into ESL classrooms. This indicates that the students tend to be more active when they are allowed to code-switch to the language that they are most comfortable with, especially if they are struggling with the second language.

However, although highly regarded by many, there are researchers who have raised their opposing sides on code-switching as they are not desired by this practice for it is deemed to possibly crowd out the target second language (Sert, 2005; Bista, 2010; Palmer, 2009). As a result, the student's language development might be consequently affected and the use of code-switching may become a probable barrier to learning that hinders students in the pursuit of achieving fluency in their second language. In a similar vein, Payawal-Gabriel and Reyes-Otero (2006) stated that the act of mixing languages does not encourage student achievement, rather creates confusion on the end of the learners and negatively impacts their aimed understanding. It is speculated that the teachers' frequent use of code-switching without

considering if it is essential or not may become a disabling factor in the students' optimization of English and they may find it hard to comprehend and digest necessary concepts.

Moreover, Bista (2010) posited that code-switching does greatly affect the linguistic ability of the learners and further emphasized that the lack of competence in their L2 now becomes the underlying cause of this practice. Simply put, the use of code-switching in language learning is usually frowned upon as it is regarded to be a sign of linguistic deficiency. In addition, Adebola (2011) argued that in ESL classrooms, English should be used both for instruction and communication. Therefore, the switch to the native tongue is highly discouraged. The same author further supported this argument claiming that the monolingual approach in teaching substantially facilitates extensive exposure to the second language. This denotes that the frequent use of the learner's L1 becomes an obstacle for the students to gain proficiency in English and when learning has lesser disruptions, higher achievement is more likely to be obtained.

Apparently, there are responses from the affirmatives on the criticisms thrown towards code-switching. Widdowson (2003) argued that even though exposure to the language may ascertain proficiency and accuracy, this may not be applicable to every classroom. This means that language learning is not a 'one-size-fits-all' situation. The same author stated that the English-only policy may become a frustrating experience to the learners since the input seems to be incomprehensible to some of them. Furthermore, Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) pointed out that this language phenomenon should be seen more as a teaching strategy employed in particular learning situations rather than being considered as a sign of defect.

Undeniably, the concept of code-switching remains to be a debatable subject among scholars revealing the sides of its pros and cons. Nevertheless, Sakaria and Priyana (2018) affirmed that the utilization of code-switching should be seen as a means to bridge communication gaps rather than its deemed inefficacy. Supportive of this, Nurhamidah et al., (2018) affirmed that the inclusion of the first language in an ESL classroom creates a non-threatening environment for language learning and significantly builds confidence and motivation among the students. With that, it is worthy to note that the use of code-switching for pedagogic purposes could be an integral part of education.

Perceptions on Code-Switching

Studies reveal that teachers are considered to significantly influence the students' language development and achievement (Whittle et al., 2018). In this sense, their perceptions and cognitions heavily affect their teaching practices. Thus, scholars have conducted studies

involving the teachers' thoughts and perspectives that may become a direct or indirect factor on their approaches in teaching, particularly on the utilization of code-switching for pedagogic purposes. However, perceptions regarding this subject have always been debatable even among the teachers who are regarded to be the managers of delivering content and instructions to the learners.

Viewed differently, Littlewood and Yu (2011) stressed in their study that some teachers are not desired by this practice as it has detrimental effects on the students' process of language learning. It is supposed that when the teacher is frequent in this practice, students may find it hard to develop their competencies in the target language. In addition, Macaro (2005) summarized the arguments raised by teachers against code-switching into several aspects. First, the incorporation of L1 is undesirable as it is regarded to be inessential since the goal in language learning is to expand the L2 input and output. Second, it is perceived that when code-switching is avoided in the classroom, there is an absence of negative interference and the comprehensible input is being maximized. Third, it should be discouraged due to the established English-only policy in language teaching. The mentioned arguments prove why some teachers are negative towards code-switching.

Nonetheless, there are findings from several studies wherein the teachers shared positive insights on the inclusion of L1 in ESL classrooms. Ibrahim et al. (2013) revealed in their study that the teachers are positive towards this practice only when used for educational purposes. It is supposed that the teachers are advised to switch to L1 when it is required by the learning objectives. In a similar vein, Abdel-Magid and Mugaddam (2013) concluded that the teachers believe that the use of code-switching is an unavoidable practice particularly in EFL or ESL context. This is due to the fact that it is more convenient to communicate with others who have the same native tongue.

A similar finding was found by Songxaba et al. (2017) in which the teachers thought that the best way to help the students broaden their comprehension of the lessons provided is through translating it into their mother tongue. However, it is further elaborated that this approach should only be allowed at classes with lower levels of proficiency, and if possible, be avoided at higher level classes. Moreover, the same author revealed that most of the teachers agree on the perception that code-switching stands as an aid in the English language discussions and it makes difficult concepts easier to be digested. However, few participants in the study were of the thought that there is no value found in mixing languages as it consequently weakens the second language and retards learning, more so, it does not significantly improve students' communicative competence. Furthermore, Nurhamidah et al. (2018) emphasized the teachers'

perspective on the advantages and benefits that code-switching may provide to the classroom in the pursuit of delivering digestible instructions to the learners. Also, they further expressed that as educators whose aim is to address the needs in learning, they have to fit in with their student's level of proficiency. Hence, code-switching is practiced.

Several arguments and standpoints on whether the use of L1 alongside the target language is effective or not were raised by teachers on various studies and investigations. According to many, the idea of code-switching as an enabling factor in language learning is indisputable, albeit contested by some. The perceptions held by the teachers were based on different views and factors and could be influential that may directly or indirectly impact their teaching practices.

Reasons for Code-Switching

The use of code-switching has diverse functions and roles in language learning. Thus, learning objectives should be considered to know if it is essential or not. For this reason, practices of pedagogic code-switching have been extensively studied by a handful of scholars to investigate the reasons why it is widely utilized. As pointed out by Zainil and Arsyad (2021) in their study, the main reasons expressed by the teachers were pedagogic purposes. This is when they teach grammar, put emphasis on particular concepts, translate new vocabulary that is unfamiliar to the learners and facilitate comprehension from time to time.

Relatively, Zainuddin (2016) conducted a study on the learners' perspective and found that most Indonesian students switch back to their L1 when they could hardly find the exact equivalence of the word in English. In doing so, they can be able to converse fluently without communication breakdowns. In a study conducted at a Turkish University, Ustunel and Seedhouse (2005) were able to identify three significant categories that encapsulated the teachers' reasons of switching to the learner's L1 in the ESL classroom. First, it is carried out for curriculum access. Second, it is used for classroom management with an aim to discipline the learners and keep them motivated and participative in every class discussion. And the third one is for interpersonal relations.

Moreover, Sakaria and Priyana (2018) highlighted in their study that teachers ideally employed code-switching as a way to prevent breakdowns and gaps in the learners' extent of comprehension regarding the lessons. This is to strategically widen the students' use of L2 through the efficient direction of activities and instructions utilizing the native tongue. Also, Tang (2002) maintained that this approach in language teaching is less time-consuming when compared to the exclusive use of the target language. This is further supported by Tudor (1987

cited in Zainil & Arsyad, 2021) claiming that the integration of L1 is often determined as productive, efficient and time-saving.

Code-switching is not only practiced for the mentioned reasons, Littlewood and Yu (2011) asserted that other than for communication purposes and classroom management, it is also used as a scaffold for learning and as means of making cognitively difficult concepts easier to be understood. This suggests that code-switching would keep the discourse flowing through the translation of new words that may be unfamiliar to the students and by repeating the concept or sentence from L1 to L2 and vice versa. Apart from that, the same author added that students normally switch to their native tongue to use equivalence due to the insufficient linguistic ability that they have in their second language. This defensive technique helped them in some ways to still be engaged in continued communication.

The practice of code-switching is linked to varied reasons and functions according to several studies. But evidently, it is mostly used for pedagogic intentions such as to translate difficult vocabulary, to ease communication and make difficult concepts easier to digest. Based on the mentioned findings, it is supposed that code-switching appears to be beneficial to both the teacher and the learner and could be a potent tool in the enhancement of language teaching and learning.

Research Questions

1. How do teachers' perceive the use of code-switching in classroom discussions?
2. Why do the teachers code-switch?

Methodology

Research Design

The present investigation purposefully employed a qualitative research design. Yang and Cornelius (2004) described this as a method that takes the experiences and stories of people to create an understanding and interpretation of a particular phenomenon. Particularly, this is an approach used when the aim is to delve into the teachers' perception in relation to classroom practices and language phenomena. Hence, qualitative research is the appropriate method to be utilized since the present investigation deals with the perceptions and reasons of ESL teachers regarding the use of code-switching for pedagogic intentions.

Participants

There are 7 ESL teachers enlisted as respondents of this investigation comprised of 6 females and 1 male with ages ranging from 24 to 56. The participants were selected through the employment of purposive sampling method. According to Kelly (2010), purposive sampling technique is applied when the participants who are well-informed with the subject and are most likely to yield appropriate information are identified and determined as they have particular characteristics and knowledge needed for the investigation. For this reason, the researcher established the following inclusion criteria in the identification of potential participants of the study: (1) the teacher must have specialization in English and (2) the teacher must have handled ESL classrooms for at least two years, either secondary or tertiary level as this becomes the concrete reference of their shared thoughts and experiences during the interview.

Research Instrument

To determine the perceptions and reasons of ESL teachers on the use of code-switching in classroom discussions, a semi-structured interview was conducted. Adams (2018) discussed that semi-structured interview pertains to the blend of closed and open-ended questions and often accompanied by follow up and probing questions. By that definition, this type of structure was utilized intended to solicit in-depth responses from the participants. Basically, there are two main open-ended questions for the interview, however, follow-ups were made for further elaborations and exemplifications of their thoughts regarding code-switching.

Data Gathering Procedure

After the development of the interview questions, data collection followed suit. Since face-to-face interviews are not possible due to the restrictions of the current situation, the researcher utilized online platforms as an alternative. Invitation letters were sent to the prospective respondents through email and messenger. When the participants gave their consent to willingly participate, dates were scheduled for the semi-structured interview which was done through phone calls. Ethical considerations were emphasized during the interview and the researcher asked the participants' consent to record the call for validation purposes. Then, the gathered responses were analyzed through the development of themes.

Method of Analysis

Thematic analysis was employed in analyzing the qualitative data of the study. Braun and Clarke (2006) stated that thematic analysis requires the transcription of interview recording in

the process of identifying potential themes. More elaborately, Maguire and Delahunt (2017) emphasized that the goal of this approach in the analysis is to identify themes and patterns based on the data gathered that are significant to address the research problems. Hence, the research employed this method of analysis as it is deemed to be appropriate for the present investigation.

Results and Discussion

In the first part of the interview, the respondents were asked about the background they have on code-switching. Excerpts from the interview are indicated:

Respondent 2

> *"Being in the teaching profession for 18 years now, code-switching is often used especially since we are in Zamboanga City, and we actually cater to multilingual learners… … for the number of years that I have been in the profession, it's nothing alien anymore to the second language teachers."*

Respondent 4

> *"Code switching is very much popular and well-utilized in a classroom, especially in the context of Philippine education simply because we have English as our second language. And I think that also supports the implementation of the MTB-MLE regarding the enhancement or pacifying the foundation before proceeding with the second language…"*

The responses on the interviews indicate that the participants regarded code-switching as a popular and widely utilized practice in multilingual classrooms. This is due to the fact that most classroom settings in the country have bilingual or multilingual backgrounds with learners who can speak two or more languages. Hence, code-switching becomes an inevitable occurrence in a discourse (Liu, 2010). Also, it is evident in the data that one of the participants considered this as a support to the implemented MTB-MLE program that aims to maximize the student's competence in their L2 through the cultivation of the L1 in basic education, as Eijansantos (2017) puts it, its utilization in the acquisition of knowledge.

Teachers' Perceptions on Code-Switching

The researcher was able to develop recurring themes based on the data from the qualitative interview which include the perceptions and reasons of ESL teachers on the use of code-switching in classroom discussions. Table 1 presents the thoughts of the teachers regarding this practice while table 2 shows the reasons on why they are using it.

Table 1

Perceptions of Teachers on Code-Switching

Themes	Percentage	Excerpts
1. Code-switching facilitates better comprehension.	5 out of 7 or 71% of the respondents	**"**…the items or terminologies during the lesson become clear enough for them to understand, and by then they will be able to actually get the ideas even better than when it was presented to them using the English language…" *(Respondent 2)* "...when you handle students who are generally speaking in *Tausug*, you try to use their language so that they would understand…" *(Respondent 4)*
2. The use of code-switching depends on the student's level of comprehension and learning objectives.	6 out of 7 or 86% of the respondents	"In a slow learner classroom situation, it is important because not all of them can understand English… …they could hardly speak simple sentences. But for the star class, you don't need to code switch because most of the students can understand the lesson well and they can also speak English fluently..." *(Respondent 1)* "…if your objective focuses on the accuracy in using the language, then code-switching should be minimal…" *(Respondent 4)* "When the class has really high proficiency, there is little to no need to apply the code-switching. However, there are classes with lower proficiency and need a lot of guidance especially in a multilingual class... ...that's when code switching comes in..." *(Respondent 7)*

3.	Code-switching encourages student participation.	3 out of 7 or 43% of the respondents	"…they can also share what they have understood with regards to the lesson…" *(Respondent 1)* "…that encourages the learners to participate and at the same time, express themselves especially in the classroom interaction…" *(Respondent 4)* "They could really express more and I really see the value that they give to the literary piece. Therefore I would say it's so useful..." *(Respondent 6)*
4.	Code switching is a teaching strategy.	2 out of 7 or 29% of the respondents	"It's an approach on how you're going to teach… …it's a strategy in the sense that we use it in order to accommodate the students..." *(Respondent 7)* "I consider it as a teaching strategy especially when you encourage discussions with your students…" *(Respondent 4)*
5.	Code-switching hinders language practice and proficiency.	3 out of 7 or 43% of the respondents	"…they will not develop their skills in speaking English, because they are used to the vernacular, they are depending on the translation of the vernacular language…" *(Respondent 1)* "Sometimes, the students will just use their dialect. They will not go back to English…" *(Respondent 4)*

6. Code switching becomes ineffective when the teacher has limited proficiency on the students' MT.	2 out of 7 or 29% of the respondents	"…maybe the language that I actually know of in terms of the native language of the student may also be limited… …so I may not necessarily be able to give the exact translation in their native tongue thus, it may become ineffective at times…" *(Respondent 2)* "...when the teacher is not aware of the language, like the teacher is a native *Chavacano* speaker like me, I don't know how to speak *Tausug*, I am not well-versed in *Bisaya*, I can speak a little but not articulately, so that's the problem..." *(Respondent 7)*

Table 1 shows the perceptions of the teachers toward the use of code-switching for pedagogic purposes. There are six themes provided. The data reveals that the respondents provided six perceptions regarding code-switching.

Firstly, five out of seven or 71% of the participants believe that code-switching facilitates better comprehension. The excerpt *"they will be able to actually get the ideas even better than when it was presented to them using the English language…"* proves the respondents' view that when difficult concepts are presented in a way that the students' L1 is included, they would have a better grasp of what is being discussed. This thought resonates with the finding of Songxaba et al. (2017) that the utilization of code-switching for pedagogic reasons could be an effective means so students can digest the lectures more efficiently. This signifies that the teacher could carry out the native tongue of the learners to comprehensively expound necessary concepts that they might not be able to understand when it was discussed using the English language alone.

A similar finding was found by Ezuh (2008 cited in Yevudey, 2013) when he conducted an investigation on two senior high schools in Ghana and pointed out that code-switching is an effective medium inside the classroom as it facilitates a better track on the students' academic performance. He further concluded that their comprehension is evidently better when code-switching is integrated, whereas their performances consequently declined when the lessons are given using the English language only.

Secondly, the respondents believe that the use of code-switching greatly depends on the level of the students' comprehension and the learning objectives of the lesson. Six out of seven or 86% of the participants suggested that this practice should only be utilized if it is essential based on learning circumstances. Three of them stated that the alternation of languages is important particularly in a classroom wherein the learners have lower proficiency and comprehension skills and some of them could hardly speak simple sentences in English. This is an indication that code-switching should be integrated in the discussion.

This perception is supported by Sakaria and Priyana (2018) with their claim that when the learners have a lower level of linguistic competence in their L2, teachers are advised to include the learners' native tongue as a means of maximizing their capacity to comprehend. With this, they are able to eventually develop their language competence as well. In a similar view, Mahdi and Almalki (2019) maintained in their study that lower-level students were considered to be strong stimuli for the teachers' utilization of code-switching since they have the need for the clarification of difficult concepts.

The participants further expounded that code-switching is not necessarily significant when the students are well-versed with the language.

The following extract points out this idea:

Respondent 7

> *"When the class has really high proficiency, there is little to no need to apply the code switching…."*

The respondent explained that the practice of switching to L1 should not be encouraged especially when the learners do not essentially need it. This is when the students already have proficiency and mastery with the language and they can comprehend well even without explaining the lectures to their native tongue.

Moreover, two of the participants emphasized that the idea of utilizing code-switching should depend on the learning objectives that are intended to be achieved at the end of the course.

The following extracts support this point:

Respondent 4

> *"If your objective focuses on the accuracy in using the language, then code-switching should be minimal. But if you are just encouraging them more on their thinking skills and you wish to hear what their opinion is on a certain topic, then I think code-switching can be encouraged…"*

Respondent 5

> *"I personally don't have any problems with the use of code-switching inside the class because usually when I'm handling, for example Literary Criticism or like Literature, or any subject that requires students' experiences and personal views. But when it comes to advanced grammar, anything that requires the students' improvement of communicative or speaking skills, then you expect students to perform with the use of English language, I would be strict with the use of English language..."*

Both of the participants believe that code-switching can be used when the goal of the lesson is to develop their critical and evaluative thinking skills. This could be observed in Literature classes wherein the students are encouraged to share personal experiences, standpoints and views regarding literary works. However, when the lesson is advanced grammar and the objective is to achieve fluency and accuracy in the language, code-switching is recommended to be minimal, as accuracy and fluency are likewise necessary due to the great importance that Baguio & Eijansantos (2021) argue an international language like English has .

Thirdly, three out of seven or 43% of the respondents shared the same thought that code-switching encourages student participation. The following excerpt suggests this perspective:

Respondent 4

> *"…that encourages the learners to participate in the classroom interaction and at the same time, express themselves…"*

Participant 4 elaborated this belief by saying that if the teachers are going to entertain the students' thoughts regardless of the language they would use, they are more driven to speak and share what they have understood regarding the topic.

This complements the claim of Simasiku et al. (2015) that instead of being passive, the learners are more interactive in the discussion when they are allowed to use their L1, especially when they are not proficient in English. As a result, an anxiety-free and non-threatening environment is created that would positively ascertain student engagement. As contended by Bista (2010), the students learn best in a warm and supportive learning environment and when they are addressed in their native tongue.

Interestingly, two out of seven or 29% of the respondents regarded code-switching as a teaching strategy. The following excerpt is presented to support this idea:

Respondent 4

> *"I consider it as a teaching strategy especially when you encourage discussion with your students… …simply because their anxiety and fear of committing*

mistakes when they speak in English hinders them from communicating and from discussing with you inside the classroom…"

The respondent claimed that code-switching comes in as a technique to address the demands of the learners. Participant 4 further explained that since her students have speaking anxieties in English, she strategically allowed them to switch to their L1 to facilitate engagement but also encouraged them to try to speak in English afterward. Similarly, Uys and Van Dulm (2011) also considered this practice as a teaching strategy that aims to smoothen the teaching and learning process and serves as a tool to ease material delivery. Spending an entire session on concepts that are incomprehensible to the learners may seem pointless as it does not encourage them to think, communicate and participate. Hence, the utilization of code-switching serves as a technique to efficiently attain the target learning objectives for the class. Furthermore, the perception that code-switching hinders language practice and proficiency is also perceived by the respondents. Three out of seven or 43% of the participants expressed this concern. The following excerpt highlights this idea:

Respondent 4

"If the student would keep on using code switching, she could not learn the accuracy and fluency in using the English language…"

Participant 4 contended that the practice of code-switching may consequently become an obstacle to the student's language development. Scholars like Adebola (2011) posited the same contention that the use of the L1 in ESL classrooms may hurdle the acquisition of the target language. This suggests that the frequent utilization of code-switching without considering if it is necessary or not may demotivate the students' interest in learning. As a result, there is a probability that they may gain lower proficiency in the target language.

Lastly, two out of seven or 29% of the respondents believe that code-switching becomes ineffective when the teacher has limited proficiency in the students' MT. The following extract points out this idea:

Respondent 2

"Maybe the language that I actually know of in terms of the native language of the student may also be limited. So I may not necessarily be able to give the exact translation in their native tongue thus, it may become ineffective at times…"

The participant underscored the probable inefficacy of code-switching particularly when the teacher is not familiar with the student's native tongue. Respondent 7 shared his experiences and stated that he had *Tausug* and *Bisaya* students in his class, however, he is a native

Chavacano speaker and is not articulate with the two languages. For this reason, he was not able to translate the concepts effectively and code-switching seemed to be not applicable in that type of learning situation. Hence, it is also part of the expectation that a teacher should have a moderate to a high level of proficiency in the students' MT for code-switching to be effective when utilized.

Table 2

Reasons of Code-Switching

Themes	Percentage	Excerpts
1. Translation	4 out of 7 or 57% of the respondents	"…there are certain terminologies that are new to the learners thus, I give the translation in their native language…" *(Respondent 2)* "When I was teaching in junior high school, especially when I'm handling the lower section, every now and then, I have to translate some terms..." *(Respondent 4)*
2. Comprehension	6 out of 7 or 86% of the respondents	*"*…to simplify complex information for the students to absorb…. ….I don't mind using my language as long as I can deliver the complex matter clearly…" *(Respondent 5)* "Using code switching in the classroom has become more so of something that we actually use to transfer knowledge in terms of concepts that are difficult for learners to ingest…" *(Respondent 2)*
3. Identification	1 out of 7 or 14% of the respondents	"…for the factor of identification in the classroom, the students feel that they are identified…" *(Respondent 2)*

4.	Contextualization	2 out of 7 or 29% of the respondents	"…I put it in an aspect that students can relate to it better because it has placed in their particular context or the situation that are most relatable to…" *(Respondent 2)* "When we put it into contextualization, the students can really get it…" **(***Respondent 3)*
5.	Student Engagement	3 out of 7 or 43% of the respondents	"…after some time, they were more participative and they build more confidence in themselves…" *(Respondent 2)* "I allow students to speak in their native tongue so that they can express themselves comfortably..." *(Respondent 4)*
6.	Communication	2 out of 7 or 29% of the respondents	"…I code switch to *Tagalog* in order for us to be able to communicate very well…" *(Respondent 2)* "Some students cannot communicate with the use of English language so I allow them to speak in their own language..." *(Respondent 5)*

Table 2 presents the reasons of code-switching. The data reveals that there are six themes. The respondents provided six reasons on why they code-switch during their language discussions. Four out of seven or 57% of the participants noted that they switch to the students' L1 to translate concepts that might seem incomprehensible to the learners. This is to ensure that they

are able to have a good grasp of what is being discussed. The participants also expressed their experiences wherein they used code-switching for translation purposes.

The following is an excerpt from the transcript:

Respondent 1

> *"Since I have Samal students, what I did was I asked help to my colleague how to translate in the Samal dialect because not all Samal students can understand what expository essay is…"*

Participant 1 narrated her experiences wherein she handled *Samal* students in her class before. Since the students could hardly understand some concepts such as the expository essay and she is not well-versed with their language, she then asked help from another teacher to provide translations regarding the subject matter. With this, the students were able to get a more comprehensible input from her.

This finding is validated by several reports and studies. Rezvani and Rasekh (2011) affirmed that the most common reason why the teachers code-switch is for the purpose of translation. Apparently, this phenomenon is frequent in the classroom as it is perceived to be effective in facilitating understanding among the learners. This also resonates with the contentions made by Mahdi and Almalki (2019) that the teachers translate the lesson to the students' L1 instead of exclusively keeping with the second language to decrease the comprehension burden of the students. That being stated, translation enhances detailed input and essentially arouses the attention of the learners.

Evidently, the participants also claimed that the practice of alternating languages could facilitate better comprehension among the students. Six out of seven or 86% of the respondents emphasized this reason. The following excerpts are presented to support this:

Respondent 1

> *"For them to be able to understand well, and also there are difficult terms for them to understand that the teacher needs to explain in vernacular terms to the learners…"*

Respondent 4

> *"They have to understand what is it that you are discussing, and by understanding, there is learning… …I think that's the main reason why I code switch inside the classroom, because I want my students to fully understand what it is that I am discussing..."*

The participants further pointed out that this is the main point of switching to the students' native tongue. The goal is to ascertain that there is content acquisition and the learners are able

to follow with the discussion. Relative to this, Mahdi and Almalki (2019) stressed in their study that the inclusion of L1 in the discussion could be an effective way to check the students' comprehension. The same authors asserted that the teachers are reported to switch to the learners' MT and repeat important points to know if they have understood the lesson. Participant 7 shared one of his experiences regarding this one.

The excerpt is indicated below:

Respondent 7

> *"There was a time when we had a performance task. And there are criteria and rubrics involved, therefore I have to explain it in Tagalog since some students are not able to understand..."*

Participant 7 further explained that he tends to code-switch particularly when the discussions seem to be unfamiliar to the students. In doing so, they can have a wider range of understanding compared to when it was just presented using the English language.

In a similar view, Ahmad and Jusoff (2009) highlighted that the teachers' main concern in the classroom is content acquisition. Thus, code-switching comes in as a medium of elaborating important points and necessary concepts in the pursuit of delivering the instructions efficiently. Interestingly, one out of seven or 14% of the participants stated that the use of code-switching could be encouraged for the purpose of identification. The following excerpt points out this idea:

Respondent 2

> *"For the factor of identification in the classroom, the students feel that they are identified, they feel that they are part of the classroom, and they will not feel alienated because they are somewhat using another language that is different from yours…"*

The participants further expressed that by doing so, the learners feel more at ease in the classroom. This parallels with the finding of Eldridge (1996) when he conducted an investigation in a Turkish secondary school and found that the learners' first language is acknowledged in the classroom to establish student identity and group membership. With this, the students feel that they are part of the class and a good rapport is being established.

Moreover, two out of seven or 29% of the participants emphasized the reason for contextualization. The following excerpts are presented to support this claim:

Respondent 2

> *"I code switch and put it in an aspect that they can understand, that students can relate to it better because it has placed in their particular context or the situation that are most relatable to…"*

Participant 2 stated that she code-switch to significantly establish relatable context for the learners. This is effective especially when the lessons are basically Western in nature. Hence, the situations are put in a context wherein the learners can mostly relate to through the integration of code-switching. Participant 3 also shared that instead of using malls that are not present in their place, she used markets so students can better understand what she wanted to imply.

Furthermore, three out of seven or 43% of the participants expressed their reason for utilizing code-switching as a means of engaging the learners to be more participative and interactive in the class.

The following excerpt is presented:

Respondent 5

> *"When it has something to do with getting their ideas, or they want to say their opinion, I allow students to speak in their native tongue so that they can express themselves comfortably..."*

One of the participants asserted that after some time, the students became more participative and built confidence in themselves because the need for the teacher to reach between the language that is necessary in the classroom and the language that the learners are very much at ease was bridged through the utilization of another language. Similarly, Simasiku et al. (2015) are on the same page claiming that student engagement is being maximized when they are allowed to use their first language. It is being argued that when the English-only policy is being implemented in the classroom discourse, the discussion and the students' capacity to understand the lessons may be limited. However, when the learners are allowed to switch to their L1, student participation is more likely to be elevated.

Lastly, two out of seven or 29% of the participants stated that they use code-switching for communication. The following excerpt points out this idea:

Respondent 2

> *"In one of my public speaking classes that I had before, I have students that belong to a certain tribe here so they speak a particular language that is foreign to me. So I code switch to Tagalog in order for us to be able to communicate very well…"*

The participants explained that code-switching comes in as a communicative tool that serves as a way so the teacher and students could best understand one another. This resonates with the claim of Bhatti et al. (2018) that the switch from the second language to the native tongue significantly bridges communication gaps and helps build good interaction and relationship between the teacher and the student. When the learning environment is non-threatening, the learners feel more at ease and comfortable. In addition, Bensen and Cavusoglu (2013) maintained that code-switching creates good rapport and solidarity inside the classroom.

Conclusion

The current study determined the perceptions of ESL teachers regarding the utilization of code-switching in the classroom and their reasons behind this practice. Evidently, the presented data shows that the participants have diverse perspectives regarding this subject. With that, the following conclusions are constructed.

It can be noted that the teachers believed that code-switching facilitates better comprehension compared to when the lessons are being provided using the English language alone but its use depends on the students' level of comprehension and proficiency on the language and the desired learning objectives. Moreover, the teachers considered the switch to the learners' native tongue as a means of encouraging student participation and is deemed to be an effective teaching strategy. However, they further expressed the thought that code-switching might hinder the students' language practice and development if used unnecessarily and it becomes ineffective when the teacher has limited background in the students' native tongue. In addition, it was revealed that the teachers strategically switch to the students' MT for pedagogic purposes such as translation, comprehension, identification, contextualization, student engagement, and communication.

Furthermore, the study revealed that all of the participants have positive perceptions toward this practice as most of them have only expressed one or two negative thoughts. Also, it is evident that the purpose of making the lessons more comprehensible to the learners appears to be the major reason of the teachers behind this practice as six out of seven of them expressed the same thoughts.

Implications of the Study

In view of the findings revealed in this investigation, the following implications for education are constructed:

First, the use of code-switching could be encouraged in classroom discussions provided that the learning objectives should be taken into consideration. This means that when the lesson aims to develop fluency and accuracy in the language, then the switch to the students' native tongue should be minimal.

Second, code-switching should not be viewed as illegitimate as it provides positive contributions to the enhancement of the learning process. This practice of switching linguistic codes enables student participation and makes inputs more comprehensible to the learners who could hardly digest difficult concepts.

Lastly, the perceptions of the teachers may directly or indirectly influence their teaching acts and practices. Therefore, exploration of their thoughts and viewpoints should be undertaken. Considering the dearth of studies that center around this subject, further research should be done to contribute to the existing literature.

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Entering the Digital Classroom, Leaving the Physical One: Analyzing Teachers' Attitude toward Virtual Teaching, Technological Competence and Willingness

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Abstract

Investigating the attitude towards virtual teaching and exploring technological competence and willingness to teach digitally among secondary school teachers are the call of the time. This study surveyed a total of 1160 high school teachers across subject areas. In the study, it was disclosed that the attitude of the respondents was characterized as ‘Somehow Negative’ (M-2.38, SD-0.48). Moreover, it was found that the teachers assumed, in general, to be only ‘Somehow Competent’ (M-2.42, SD-0.73). With regard the teachers’ willingness to conduct online classes, it was found that the teachers were ‘Willing’ (M-1.75, SD-0.43). Additionally, it was identified that gender influences difference on attitude toward virtual teaching, level of technological competence, and extent of willingness to teach online. Finally, it was determined

that a significant relationship exists between the teachers' attitude to teach online and their level of technological competence.

Keywords: *Attitude, Teaching, Online, Technological Competence, Willingness*

Introduction

In prior years when the influence of technology in education is not as prevalent as it is today, education of the young happens in schools, particularly in classrooms. This means that for teaching and learning to occur, students and teachers need to be situated in a certain place at a particular time (Jacinto, & Alieto, 2020). Thus, it could be said that education is constrained by both time and space. However, this limitation was transcended when technology provided a platform for teaching and learning, even when students and teachers do not share the same time and geography. This breakthrough gave birth to virtual teaching (VT) (Guasch et al., 2010) which goes by other names such as online teaching, telementoring, e-mentoring (Cross & Polk, 2018; Omar et al., 2012).

Virtual teaching presents multiple folds of opportunities for both students and teachers alike. The most noted is that VT provides convenience (Mupinga et al., 2006). With this present approach to teaching, teachers and students would not be required to leave home; thus, spared from the needed preparation and need for travel (Jacinto and Alieto, 2020). Another advantage is VT's flexibility (Bolliger & Wasilik, 2009; van Rensburg, 2018). Teachers could upload or send instructional materials which could also be accessed by students in their most convenient time (Javier & Alieto, 2020). Additionally, VT considers students' differences and allows students to work at their own pace (Terras & Ramsay, 2015).

In Spite of the advantages afforded by VT, face to face instruction remains to be the favored and the dominant modality especially in the case of basic education in the Philippines. Relative to this, Javier (2020) discussed that it was the outbreak of the Covid-19 pandemic served as the prompt for the adoption of teachers to teach digitally. This means in previous years teachers have not explored to use of digital platforms to conduct teaching, suggesting preference for the traditional modality. Notwithstanding the progressions brought, Educational Institutions should utilize new advances to stimulate and stay aware of high-performance work practices so people will be more useful and capable. In an advanced time, it is astoundingly important to develop and keep structure or advancement of strong web affiliations, coordinating, distant association, significantly utilitarian work zone etcetera to ensure effective correspondence and availability of resources (Estigoy, Bazer, Jimenez, Pineda, Zabala, 2020).

The shift was abrupt (Javier, 2020) which meant that teachers have not had the needed training , provision and preparation for efficient and successful teaching via online. This has led scholars to investigate teachers' technological competence and attitude towards virtual teaching (Antonio, et al., 2020; de la Rama, et al., 2020; Jacinto & Alieto, 2020). However, previous investigations have not probed educators' willingness to teach online. Rlative to this, Berowa (2012) argues that willingness is affected by one's personality, motivation and attitude toward a particular task.

Moreover, to the best of the knowledge of this researcher no investigation or utmost very limited studies exist which examined the relationship among teachers' attitude toward online teaching, willingness to teach online, and their technological competence. Hence, this current investigation intended to fill the gap by determining teachers' attitude towards online teaching, technological competence, and willingness to teach online. Moreover, the study aimed to determine whether a significant relationship exists between attitude toward virtual teaching and the level of technological competence of the respondents.

Review of Related Literature

Attitude toward Virtual Teaching

Virtual teaching is considered to be the latest or modern type of education (Javier, 2020) which is also known as online instruction (Limperos et al., 2014). This type of teaching realizes the educational process through an online platform (Javier, 2020), making it technology-dependent (Clark & Paivio, 1991). Researchers have noted both advantages and disadvantages of this new modality of teaching. Some claimed that VT is convenient for both the students and teachers (Mupinga et al., 2006), flexible (Bolliger, & Wasilik, 2009), cost-efficient (Jacinto & Alieto, 2020) and deemed as a coping mechanism (Talidong & Estigoy, 2020). However, others claimed that VT is taxing and demanding (Javier, 2020), daunting and time-consuming (Spector, 2005), and burnout-inducing among teachers (Hogan & McKnight, 2007).

These noted merits and demerits of VT , to an extent, shape and determine teachers' attitude toward this modern approach to education (Jacinto & Alieto, 2020). Berowa, Devanadera and David (2018) maintain that "*attitude is a disposition to respond favorably or unfavorably to the object, person, institution, or event*" (p. 8). Relative to this, investigation of teachers' attitude toward VT is essential because it is a factor acknowledged to be determinant and influential with respect to teachers' compliance, practice and actuations (Erwin, 2001). Moreover, teachers' attitudes dictate the success or failure of any academic programs or platforms (Berowa & Agbayani, 2019). Hence, it does not come as a surprise that researchers

ventured into exploring the attitudes of educators in the field toward online teaching, because teachers were asked to shift to using online teaching becasue its is the only modality available for teachers to continue teaching in the time of the Covid-19 pandemic (Jacinto & Alieto, 2020).

Studies have provided interesting results. The study of Javier (2020) with 162 teachers assigned to teach the Filipino subject disclosed that the teachers , in general, exhibited a 'somehow negative' attitude. Javier further detailed that as regards the aspects of attitude the teachers were noted to be as follows: for the affective aspect, '*somehow positive*'; for the cognitive aspect, '*somehow negative*'; and for the conative aspect, '*somehow negative*. It could be deduced from this finding that among the aspects, it is only in the emotional domain that the respondents are likely to exhibit a kind of attitude that is inclined to being positive. This means that the VT is likely to draw an emotional response inclined towards being pleasant or favorable; however, the respondents hold beliefs inclined towards being negative which holds true as well as regards the conative aspect.

Jacinto and Alieto (2020) provided a corroborating report in their study among 488 high school ESL teachers with teaching experience ranging from 1 to 28. In the said study, the respondents were also noted to have an attitude towards VT characterized as 'somehow negative'. The authors explained that one main reason explaining the determined attitude is the struggle and difficulty teachers face in gaining stable internet connectivity.

Another study is the research of Dela Rama et al. (2020) which surveyed a total of 256 secondary school teachers assigned to teach the Science subject. The respondents of the study ranged from ages 21 to 59. The study also disclosed the same result that the secondary school teachers are not 'positive' towards VT; instead, the teachers exhibit , in general, an attitude noted to be only '*somehow positive'*.

Noticeably, previous studies (Dela Rama et al., 2020; Jacinto & Alieto, 2020; Javier , 2020) reported identical results that teachers only moderately favor VT. It is remarked along this line that the previous investigations were with a modest number of respondents, and in some cases confined to those in certain disciplines (among Science Teachers only [dela Rama, et al., 2020] and among Filipino language teachers only [Javier, 2020]). Thus, it is important to conduct an investigation on attitude towards VT among teachers across subject areas. Moreover, increasing the sample size of the investigation would become an essential consideration especially that results in studies on this regard are used in a generalized perspective to develop policy and training for teachers.

Technological Competence

Technological competence is synonymously used with terms such as digital competence, ICT competence, computer competence among others (Arballo & Núñez, 2019). Generally, the term TC is associated with the skill and knowledge in the use of information technology (Prendes, Paz, & Gutiérrez, 2013).

Technological Competence (TC) of teachers plays a critical role in the success of VT (Dela Rama, et al., 2020). This means that teachers without or limited TC are expected to face difficulty in performing online teaching which eventually leads to failure and frustration. Therefore, TC is a necessity (Cooperman, 2018) which suggests that TC is a requisite; therefore, becoming technologically literate is no longer an option especially in the context of the present need and format of education (Jacinto & Alieto, 2020; Kubrickýa, & Částková, 2015; Yücel & Koçak, 2010). Nonetheless, in the advent of technology and integration to online or digital education, the reading and writing skills through digital applications and software of both teachers and students have been boost due to its convenience (Dealagdon, Teves, Tanpoco, & Estigoy, 2020).

Against this context, it becomes more than a necessity to determine the TC of teachers who are expected to adopt online teaching modality. Various studies were realized to meet such a goal. One of which is the cross-sectional investigation of Javier (2020) conducted among higher education institution teachers. In her study, generally, the teachers reported themselves to be 'competent'. The author explained that the teachers perceived themselves capable of performing teaching tasks utilizing computers and technology. Morever, such was the result because according to the author most of the sampled teachers were born from the year 1982 onwards who were noted to be digital natives who were claimed to be adept with technology.

Another study is that of Jacinto and Alieto (2020) which employed a quantitative research design, and realized data gathering through the use of a validated and reliability tested questionnaire. The study discovered that among the 488 secondary school teachers the majority (48.4%) claimed to be only '*somehow competent*'. Moreover, the study noted that only 7.8% of the respondents claimed to be '*very competent*' and the same percentage also declared themselves to be 'not competent' at all. Overall, the teachers were characterized to be '*competent*'. However, the researchers noted that teachers need to be trained in troubleshooting connection-gadget related troubles, creating online assessment materials, and accessing online resources and tools. Moreover, the examination of Estigoy (2021) through a quantitative-correlation approach determined the level of readiness in Information and Communication Technology (ICT) as far as hardware, software, and connectivity of private secondary teachers.

The examination uncovered overall that respondents declared to be 'very ready' to utilize ICT regarding hardware (desktop or laptop, printer, CD/DVD player, TV, speaker, digital scanner, video camera, microphone, removable disk), software and connectivity (word processing, spreadsheet, multimedia, photo/video editing, internet browser, internet connection, Wi-Fi, and email) and that private secondary teachers are prepared and able to utilize the accessible innovation.

Additional investigation is the quantitative-descriptive study of Dela Rama, et al. (2020) among high school Science teachers. The study revealed that the teachers were '*competent*' in the use of information communications technology utilized in teaching.

Gender in Attitude towards Virtual Teaching and Technological Competence

Survey of literature proves that the variable gender is commonly included among investigations. Different studies have accounted for gender differences with respect to attitude towards online teaching (dela Rama et al., 2020; Jacinto & Alieto, 2020; Javier, 2020) and technological competence (Antonio et al., 2020; Jacinto & Alieto, 2020). This implies that gender is taken to play an important role and is an essential consideration in the study of the variables, attitude toward VT and TC.

With regard to the meaning of gender, authors have advanced different discussions and claims. Rosales (2020) explained that there exists a clear difference between gender and sex, and that the two terms are niether synonymous nor could be used interchangeably. One commonly shared understanding among scholars is that sex is biological or genetically determined (Toraman, & Özen,2019; Lubaale, 2020) while gender is a social construction (Aydinoglu, 2014 cited in Bacang, Rillo, & Alieto, 2019; Torres, 2010; Torres, 2020; Torres, Pariña, Collantes, & Tan, 2020).

However, various studies (Alieto, 2018; Alieto, & Rillo, 2018; Alieto, Abequibel, & Ricohermoso, 2020; Berowa., Ella, & Lucas, 2019; Buslon, Alieto, Pahulaya, & Reyes, 2020; Devanadera, & Alieto, 2019; Eijansantos, 2018; Eijansantos, Alieto, de la Rama - Morgia, & de la Rama - Ricohermoso, 2020; Ella, Casalan, & Lucas, 2019; Torres & Flores, 2017) have left faithfulness as regards the semantic difference of the terms , and have used gender to mean the biological classification of being a male and female. Rosales (2020) supposed that the reason for the use of gender over sex is due to the euphemistic quality the former has.

On another note, studies have reported the neutral influence of gender on attitude toward virtual teaching (e.g. Jacinto & Alieto, 2020; Javier, 2020). Moreover, gender was noted to be a non-influencing variable on technological competence (Jacinto & Alieto, 2020; Javier, 2020)

; but, this finding is opposed by the report of Antonio et al. (2020) that claimed the existence of gender difference on technological competence favoring the females. On the contrary, the investigation of Estigoy (2021) on Information and Communication Technology (ICT) readiness of private secondary teachers uncovered that gender significantly influences the capacity or readiness to utilize ICT as far as equipment, software, and network. Further, male instructors tend to be more ICT prepared and have better abilities in controlling PC gear, innovations, and other digitally stored information.

In consideration of the foregoing, the present study operationalizes the use term gender to refer to the respondents being a male or female. In addition, it is essential to continuously determine the influence or otherwise of gender on virtual teaching attitude and level of technological competence in the context of secondary school teachers across subject discipline.

Attitude toward Virtual Teaching and Technological Competence

Attitude is accepted to be an indicator of technology integration (Rana, 2012) and policy adoption (dela Rama et al., 2020) specifically as regards electronic learning. School administrators play a critical part in adjusting to the current climate of the working environment and a positive relationship or smooth transition will surely influence the attitude and productivity (Estigoy & Sula-sula, 2020). On this note, one of the most investigated variables associated with attitude toward VT is TC. Thus, numerous investigations were carried out to determine whether or not a significant relationship exists between the variables. One of the most recent studies is that of Javier (2020) which found that there is a significant relationship between the respondents attitude toward VT and their TC [p-value = 0.000 < alpha = 0.01 (two-tailed)]. Further, the found relationship is positive , but only moderate. Hence, the study claimed that teachers with ‘high’ level of technological competence are the ones with ‘better’ attitude.

A similar finding was also revealed in the study of Jacinto and Alieto (2020). The study found that between the attitude toward VT and TC of the respondents exists a significant relationship [p-value = 0.000 < alpha = 0.01 (two-tailed)] , and the relationship is still positive (r-value = 0.286), similar to the finding of Javier (2020). Thus, the study concluded that TC of teachers influences their attitude toward VT.

Additionally, the study of dela Rama et al. (2020) mirrored a similar finding. In the survey among Science teachers, it was revealed that respondents with ‘low’ TC exhibit ‘negative’ attitude towards VT. Conversely, respondents with ‘high’ TC manifest ‘positive’ attitude.

Thus, the study claimed to determine a positive , significant relationship between the investigated variables (p-value = 0.000, r-value = 0.317).

From the surveyed studies, it could be noticed that, consistently, a significant relationship exists between teachers' TC and attitude towards VT. This is an essential empirical information which could be considered in the formulation and reconsideration of existing policy and plans relating to teacher training and seminar. However, continuous research on the variables must be conducted to affirm or disaffirm previous findings; thus, this empirical investigation.

Research Questions

This empirical investigation sampled among basic education teachers, specifically among secondary school teachers, primarily aimed to determine the respondents' attitude towards VT and their TC. The following questions provided direction to the study, to wit:

1. What is the attitude towards virtual teaching of the respondents?
2. What is the level of technological competence of the respondents?
3. Are the respondents willing to teach virtually?
4. Do the male and female respondents significantly differ in their Attitude toward Virtual Teaching?
5. Do the male and female respondents significantly differ in their technological competence?
6. Do the male and female respondents significantly differ in their extent of willingness to teach online?
7. Is there a significant relationship between the respondents' attitude toward virtual teaching and technological competence?

Methodology

Research Design

This study employed a quantitative research design as it primarily aimed to measure the variables attitude toward virtual teaching, technological competence, and willingness to teach digitally employed. Moreover, as the research intended to describe or characterize the variables through the use of simple statistics, it is considered to be descriptive (Calderon, 2006 cited in Rillo & Alieto, 2018; Torres, Balasa, Ricohermoso, & Alieto, 2020; Torres, Collantes, Millan, Alieto, Estigoy, & Barredo, 2021).

With respect to the time used for data gathering and frequency of contact with the respondents, the study is identified to be cross-sectional as data gathering was completely realized within a

relatively short period and performed 'one-shot' (Setia, 2016 in Perez & Alieto, 2018). Finally, the study is noted to be non-experimental due to non establishment of control and experimental group (Torres & Alieto, 2019a; Torres & Alieto, 2019b; Robles & Torres, 2020; Torres, 2019).

Respondents

A total of 1160 high school teachers across different subject disciplines were surveyed in this study. From the total, 67.7% are females (785) which supports the acknowledged trend that female teachers outnumber the male teachers (Abequibel, Ricohermoso, Alieto, Barredo, & Lucas, 2021; Alieto, 2019; Alieto, Devanadera, & Buslon, 2019; Alieto, Ricohermoso, & Abequibel, 2020; Mumbing, Abequibel, Buslon, & Alieto, 2021; Ricohermoso, Abequibel, & Alieto, 2019; Torres, 2013).

Moreover, in terms of age, the youngest of the respondents is aged 22 while the oldest is 61 with 36.099 (standard deviation = 8.890) as the mean age. With respect to years of service, the range is 1 to 35 years. Additionally, most of the teachers reported to only have a bachelor's degree (889), while a few have master's degree (221) , and much less have a doctorate degree (50). This statistics corroborate with that disclosed by Jacinto and Alieto (2020) implying that a large number of teachers are lagging behind in their professional growth in terms of taking advanced study.

Research tools

To realize the goals of quantifying the variables, determining significant difference and relationship across and between variables, the study employed the use of survey questionnaires, noted to be an efficient means in realizing mentioned goals (Creswell, 2012; Dillman, Smith, & Christian, 2009 cited in Alieto, 2018; Torres, 2014). Therefore, in this study, two research questionnaires were adopted from Javier (2020). For the determination of the respondents' attitude towards Online Teaching, the Attitude toward Online Teaching Tool (AtOTT) was used with a declared reliability of Cronbach's alpha equaling to 0.862. For the identification of the respondents' technological competence, the Teachers' Technological Competence Tool (TTCT) was used, which was with a declared reliability of Cronbach's alpha equaling to 0.898.

Moreover, the AtOTT is composed of 30 items sectioned into three (the affective, cognitive, and conative) while the TTCT is composed of 10 items , and is only of single factor. An item was added in the questionnaire asking whether the respondents were willing or not to teach

online. The said item was answerable with yes and no. On another hand, the AtOTT and the TTCT were answerable with a four-point Likert scale.

Coding Procedure

In order for analysis becomes possible, the responses of the solicited from the questionnaires were coded. For the variable gender, the coding scheme was 1 for male and 2 for female. For the educational attainment, the codes were 1 for bachelor's degree, 2 for master's degree, and 3 for doctorate degree.

For the responses provided in the AtOTT, the scheme utilized for the affective section was 1 for disagree, 2 for somehow disagree, 3 for somehow agree, and 4 for agree. Along this line, it noted that a reverse coding was employed for the negative statements found in this part of the research tool. On another hand, for the responses in both the conative and cognitive domains, the coding was 1 for never, 2 for rarely, 3 for often, and 4 for always. The two domains contain no negative statements. Addedly, the responses provided in the TTCT were coded as follows: 1 for not competent, 2 for somehow competent, 3 for competent, and 4 for very competent. Finally, the responses in the willingness question was coded as 1 for no and 2 for yes.

Results and Discussion

Respondents' attitude toward virtual teaching

The attitude toward virtual teaching of the respondents was quantified by the score of 30 items using a four-point Likert scale. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistics (mean [M], standard deviation [SD]) and interpreted (Scale: 1.0 to 1.74 – Negative Attitude, 1.75 to 2.4 – Somehow Negative, 2.5 to 3.24 Somehow Positive, and 3.25 to 4.0 Positive). Table 1 presents the analysis and interpretation.

Table 1

High School Teachers Attitude toward Virtual Teaching

Aspects	Mean	SD	Descriptor	Interpretation
Affective	2.58	0.56	Somehow Agree	Somehow Positive
Cognitive	2.34	0.62	Somehow Disagree	Somehow Negative
Conative	2.22	0.63	Rarely	Somehow Negative
Overall Attitude	2.38	0.48	-	Somehow Negative

N=1160

It could be inffered from the analysis of data that the respondents manifest a 'somehow negative' attitude toward online teaching. The attitude noted is likely to be geared towards being negative which is similar to what was found by Jacinto and Alieto (2020) among ESL teachers and Javier (2020) among Filipino language teachers. This specific result points to the idea that teachers regardless of subject being taught or discipline exhibit an attitude that does not favor virtual teaching.

It is supposed that the finding is such because the teachers are too accustomed to the face to face mode of teaching. Another supposition explaining this is that the teachers have not received any form of training preparing them for the virtual teaching. The absence of said training may have resulted for teachers to have doubts and worries about digital teaching which explains the identified attitude of the teachers.

Respondents' Level of Technological Competence

The level of technological competence of the respondents was measured by the score of 10 items using a four-point Likert scale. The responses on the TTCT was computed for mean and standard deviation, and given interpretation with the use of the following scale: 1.0 to 1.74 (Not Competent), 1.75 to 2.4 (Somehow Competent), 2.5 to 3.24 (Competent), and 3.25 to 4.0 (Very Competent). Table 2 presents the analysis (mean [M], standard deviation [SD]) and interpretation (Interp.).

Table 2

High School Teachers' Technological Competence

Variable	M	SD	Interp.
Technological Competence	2.42	0.73	Somehow Competent

N=1160

The analysis presented in the above table provides that the respondents, in general, have reported their level of technological competence to be only 'some how competent'. This means that the high school teachers need to be further trained in terms of using different electronic devices and applications that are used in teaching online.

This specific finding does not mirror the result of the studies of Antonio, et al. (2020), dela Rama, et al. (2020), Javier (2020), Jacinto and Alieto (2020) which reported that the teachers are 'competent' in the use of technology needed to conduct online teaching. In the mentioned

studies, the respondents who are teachers were found to be a notch higher in terms of competence as compared to the respondents in this investigation.

Detailed analysis of the data provides that most (455 or 39.2%) of the respondents reported that their technological competence is only 'some how competent'; however, the least (12.5% or 145) number of respondents claimed to be 'very competent'. Moreover, more than a quarter (370 or 31.9%) claimed to be 'competent'. Furthermore, 190 (16.4%) disclosed to be 'not competent' at all. From the data, it could be inferred that a whooping 87.5% of the total teachers surveyed from the basic education across subject disciplines need to be trained or retrained. This statistics served as a reminder of what teachers need especially in this time and age of technology and platform and paradigm shift.

Respondents' Willingness to teach Virtually

The dichotomous responses (yes and no) on the item soliciting whether the respondents are willing to teach virtually or not were coded (1 for No and 2 for Yes). Moreover, the arithmetic mean was computed and given interpretation using the following scale : 1.0 to 1.49 (Not Willing), and 1.50 to 2.0 (Willing). Table 3 gives the analysis and interpretation.

Table 3

High School Teachers Willingness to teach virtually

Variable	M	SD	Interp.
Willingness to teach virtually	1.75	0.43	Willing

N=1160

The descriptive analysis provides that the respondents, overall, are willing to teach virtually (M-1.75, SD-0.43). Further analysis of the data shows that 285 of the respondents constituting 24.6% of the total population sampled in the study claimed to be 'not willing' to teach virtually. However, the majority (875 or 75.65%) answered that they are willing to teach virtually. Nearly a quarter of the high school teachers remain to prefer teaching face to face and are not willing to embrace virtual teaching as an modality option in the discharge of their teaching duties.

Moreover, it was determined that among the males 130 (out of 285) and among the females 245 (out of 875) responded not willing to teach online. The data provide that across gender majorities (Males – 54.4%; Females – 72%) are willing to digitally teach.

This suggests that although the teachers were very much used to the traditional means of teaching (the face to face mode of teaching) they are open to the possibility of embracing the modern modality of instruction (virtual or digital teaching). It is inferred that the teachers understand that having students physically attend remains to be very improbable considering that the threat of the pandemic remains.

Difference on attitude to teach virtually between male and female respondents

To determine whether the male and female respondents significantly differ on their attitude toward virtual teaching, the inferential statistics t-test for independent sample was utilized to analyze the data. Table 4 shows the analysis.

Table 4

Attitude toward virtual teaching across gender

Variables			**Categories**	**M**	**SD**	**Description**	**Sig.**
Dependent		**Independent**					
Attitud toward virtually teaching		Gender	Male	2.50	0.51	Somehow Positive	0.001*
			Female	2.34	0.46	Somehow Negative	

*Significant at alpha = 0.05, (2-tailed)N=1160, Male = 375, Female = 785 (Scale: 1.0 to 1.74 – Negative Attitude, 1.75 to 2.4 – Somehow Negative, 2.5 to 3.24 Somehow Positive, and 3.25 to 4.0 Positive)

As gleaned from the result, it was determined that there is a significant difference on the respondents' attitude toward virtual teaching when data are grouped according to gender (p-value [2-tailed] = 0.001 < α = 0.05). It could be noted that the males exhibit 'better' attitude (Somehow Positive [M-2.5, SD-0.51]) than females (Somehow Negative [M-2.34,SD-0.46]). This finding disaffirms the neutral influence of gender on attitude toward virtual teaching reported in earlier studies (e.g. Jacinto & Alieto, 2020; Javier, 2020). In the study of Javier among 162 respondents with 50 males and 112 females, it was revealed that gender is not a factor influencing difference in attitude toward virtual teaching (p-value [2-tailed] = 0.759 > α = 0.05). The same holds true with the study of Jacinto and Alieto (2020) with 488 ESL teachers

(377 of which are females). In the said study, no significant gender difference was revealed by the analysis of the data (p-value [2-tailed] = 0.359 > α = 0.05).

Noticeably, both of the earlier realized investigations were of modest sample sizes not exceeding 500 teachers. However, this present investigation was carried out to a larger sample size which is believed to have caused the difference in the result which supports the influence of gender on attitude toward virtual teaching with the male respondents having 'better' attitude.

Difference on technological competence between male and female respondents

To determine whether there exists a significant difference in the technological competence of the respondents when data are grouped according to gender, t-test for independent sample was utilized to analyze the data. Table 5 gives the analysis.

Table 5

Technological Competence across gender

Variables		**Categories**	**M**	**SD**	**Description**	**Sig.**
Dependent	**Independent**					
Technological Competence	Gender	Male	2.57	0.80	Competent	0.000*
		Female	2.35	0.68	Somehow Competent	

*Significant at alpha = 0.001 (2-tailed), N=1160, Male = 375, Female = 785 (Scale: 1.0 to 1.74 [Not Competent], 1.75 to 2.4 [Somehow Competent], 2.5 to 3.24 [Competent], and 3.25 to 4.0 [Very Competent])

As it could be noticed from the table above, the analysis of the data provides that the male and female respondents significantly differ in their technological competence (p-value [2-tailed] = 0.000 < α = 0.01) with the males (M-2.57, SD – 0.80) having 'higher' technological competence as compared to females (M-2.35, SD – 0.68). This result echoes the claim of Ilomäki (2011) that males estimate their technological skill higher than females do.

On another note, this particular result counters the findings of previously conducted investigations (Jacinto, & Alieto, 2020; Javier, 2020) that gender is not a factor influencing significant differences in technological competence.

Moreover, this result corroborates with the finding of Antonio, et al. (2020) which claim that gender influences technological competence; however, in their study the females (Competent)

were found to have higher technological competence over males (Somehow Competence). In this regard, the finding of this current study presents an opposing result which established that the difference favors the male respondents.

Difference on the Extent of Willingness to teach virtually

To determine whether there exists a significant difference in extent of willingness of the respondents to teach virtually when data are grouped according to gender, t-test for independent sample was utilized to analyze the data. Table 6 shows the analysis.

Table 6

Respondents' extent of Willingness to teach virtually across gender

Variables		**Categories**	**M**	**SD**	**Description**	**Sig.**
Dependent	**Independent**					
Extent of Willingness to Teach Virtually	Gender	Male	1.65	0.48	Willing	0.000*
		Female	1.80	0.40	Willing	

*Significant at alpha = 0.001 (2-tailed), N=1160 (Scale: 1.0 to 1.49 [Not Willing]; 1.50 to 2.0 [Willing])

It could be noted from the table above that there is a significant difference (p-value=0.000 [2-tailed] < $\alpha = 0.01$) on the extent of willingness to teach virtually between the male and female respondents of the study. The analysis further revealed that the females are 'more' willing to teach virtually (M-1.80, SD-0.40) than the male respondents (M-1.65, SD-0.48). This means that although both genders, in general, manifest willingness to teach digitally, but the males exbihit significantly 'lesser extent' of willingness. Therefore, it could be said that there is a gender difference on the extent of willingness to teach virtually among the respondents of the study.

Relationship between the respondents' attitude toward virtual teaching and technological competence

To determine whether a significant relationship exists between the respondents' attitude toward virtual teaching the their level of technological competence, the inferential and paramteric statistics known as Pearson Product Moment Coefficient (also known as Pearson r) was employed to analyze the data. Table 7 presents the analysis.

Table 7

Correlation Matrix : Respondents'attitude toward virtual teaching and their technological competence

Variables		***p*-value**	***r*-value**	**Interpretation**
High School Teachers' Attitude toward Virtual Teaching	High School Teachers' Level Technological Competence	0.000*	0.711	Significant

*Significant at alpha = 0.001 (2-tailed)

The data presented above disclosed that there is a significant relationship between the respondents attitude toward VT and their level of TC as provided by the data (p-value = 0.000 < α = 0.01). Moreover, the relationship is identified to be positive (r-value = 0.711) which means that the respondents with high level of TC are the ones with positive attitude; conversely, those with low level of technological competence are the ones with negative attitude towards VT.

This means that the level of TC predicts attitude towards VT, vice-versa. This result mirrors Javier's (2020) findings and the report of Jacinto and Alieto (2020); however, the mentions studies weaker associations were found. For Javier, the relationship between the two variables was only moderate (r-value = 0.586). For Jacinto and Alieto, the association between the variables was noted to be weak (r-value = 0.286). Nevertheless, the present investigation found that strenght of correlation between the variables is strong.

Conclusion

Gradually, many necessitate to grow accustomed to the novelty ensued from the worldwide revolutionary pandemic, and apparently, education and they ways it is delivered to its clientele is in no way exempt. As per the findings in this research, a consequential consideration on the following requires ingraining in mind: teachers' attitude towards virtual teaching, their openness to the possibility of virtual or digital teaching engagement, and their technological competence.

Owing to the fact that a great deal of the teachers in the field does not favor virtual teaching pertinent to attitude, a swift and immediate intervention needs to be carried out. The delivery of service in the Philippine educational system to the Filipino learners has to loosen up from

its sheer rigidity of face-to-face synchronous sessions and has to embark on a more flexible delivery of instruction. The scheme must undertake a fleet overhauling of the dragging system which constitutes less inclusion of virtual techniques in teaching. This may be done by requiring teachers to be on a par with the rest of the teaching force across the globe via attending in-depth in-service training for teachers with the relevant themes discussed, making available relevant seminar workshops and national and international conferences, and subsidizing teachers' attendance in the trendy Massive Open Online Courses offered by high-caliber institutions. Topics to be considered must range from but should not be limited to equipping teachers with the software and other relevant tools useful for virtual or digital teaching, competence in the use of technology, and the appropriate psychological considerations in accepting much less embracing the changes in virtual and/or digital teaching. More to the point, teachers need the technological tools and equipment to fundamentally equip them in their educative combat in the present times. Thus, a large cut from the budget available must be allocated for the aforementioned purposes. All the preceding statements can materialize provided that a dynamic support system is manifested by all the germane institutions, offices, and organizations: the National Government, the Department of Education in all of its offices, the Local Government Unit, the school administration, the schools' external and internal stakeholders, inter alia.

With the training and equipping to be afforded for the teaching personnel and the provision of the necessary technology for them and the support from the relevant institutions, it is believed that it will be auspiciously positive for the betterment of the attitude of the teachers towards virtual teaching as it has been found out in this study that a high level of technological competence predicts a positive attitude towards virtual teaching. This is fortified by the finding that indeed teachers, albeit relatively negative towards teaching virtually, are in fact open to the possibility of teaching in this modality. These trying times have proven to be an immense challenge for the education sector and the necessary changes ought to take place where and when possible.

Implications

Instructors are the central members in schools. They are catalysts who assume huge parts in innovation in the school and classrooms. It is, along these lines, vital for educators to create uplifting perspectives towards online instructing. An uplifting disposition is a significant marker of readiness and the underlying advance in effective integration.

It has been seen that most of the education sector has decided on virtual teaching (VT) unbiasedly. Bearing the results of this study, it is recommended that the training division and partners make a complete arrangement to carry out VT on the more elevated level of education. As respects the execution of virtual teaching (VT) in the training area under the "new normal", a greater amount of the instructor factors is yet to be investigated because of the evolving social orders.

Instructors are the critical partners of training and their disposition on the selection of e-learning (i.e., virtual/internet educating) fundamentally affects students' attitudes towards it. To ingrain the mindfulness and abilities on virtual teaching among educators, classes on virtual training advancement and the executives might be led in arrangement covering points identified with content, students' and teachers' development. The preparation may begin with specialized staff, who will help employees in carrying out virtual teaching in their separate classes. Similarly, instructive pioneers may wander into preparing educators on the best way to change their instructional materials over to an electronic configuration just as on the experience with the various capacities and highlights of various e-learning stages.

Teachers and students ought to be furnished with the vital training in regard to VT for dynamic learning. Students will likewise be facilitated with computers and different assets utilized in VT. Classes ought to be led for its advancement and mindfulness among educators and students. Educators should be persistently prepared and helped to understand a smooth change from being teachers inside an actual homeroom toward turning into a host in virtual classes – this is particularly obvious thinking that improvements in innovation happen quickly which makes coping up a struggle for some instructors. Preparing educators should zero in on recognized least scholarly innovative capabilities; be that as it may, support ought to likewise be given regard to those created and mastered abilities.

School administrators should uphold instructors in their requirements as they adventure on an extremely critical journey as a teacher. Adjusting another method of instruction as requested by time and condition would remove educators from their usual ranges of familiarity as they would change practices created through long stretches of educating. Subsequently, administrators should see their job to be the sort that would not just train instructors of what to do or should do; all things being equal, they should go with the teachers and journey alongside them.

Peer teaching might be explored as a methodology of capacitating instructors. Educators who are technologically skilled may teach and prepare peers who need help. Through this implies,

limit working among educators would not involve costs, and the training may likewise produce a fortified bond.

Teacher training institutions should return to the educational plan to give fundamental space to the openness of would-be educators to virtual teaching, and furthermore manage the cost of the required training for virtual teaching. Likewise, with all learning conditions, it is basic that the teachers keep up reflectivity to keep on pondering their work and guarantee that they can make essential changes for an effective learning experience both for themselves and their students.

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Restructuring Gender Roles During The Covid Pandemic: The Experience of LGU Employees

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Abstract

This study draws from the concerns of "gender roles" as a social and cultural construct and how this phenomenon is differentially perceived by women and men. Particularly, the study analyzed the perception of fifty (50) female and male employees of selected Local Government Units (LGUs) in Pangasinan as to how their gender roles are changed or reconstructed consequent of the onset of the COVID pandemic.

The study employed documentary survey which was administered to female and male employees affiliated to different offices within the LGU. The procedure was carried out in 5 different LGUs of Pangasinan, namely: LGU Binmaley, LGU Lingayen, LGU Manaoag, LGU Sta. Barbara, and LGU Urdaneta City.

Investigations focused specifically on profiling the LGU employees in terms of sex, age, civil status, economic status, educational background, and employment position. Moreover, the study also analyzed the employees' perception of their gender roles that have been reconstructed at the onset of the COVID pandemic. This analysis used sex-disaggregated data to describe separately the accounts of female and male employees as to how they observe the manifestation of changes in their gender roles along 4 areas, namely: domestic roles, health and reproductive concerns, economic and employment concerns, and accounts of gender-related violence.

Among the salient findings of the study, gender role restructuring is significantly manifested in terms of "Domestic Roles" as indicated by positivity-negativity (P-N) ratios computed based on the responses of the female employees (1.39) and the male employees (1.43). The ratios obtained in the three other areas are described as "not significant". These findings mean that gender role restructuring is significantly manifest or observable consequent of the pandemic when it comes to the domestic roles of female and male LGU employees. Both sexes perceived that their gender roles have been significantly changed as to the activities and responsibilities they have at home or in their families at the onset of the pandemic. On the contrary, gender role restructuring is rather weak when it comes to the other areas, such as "Economic and Employment Concerns" (WM: 0.8), "Health and Reproductive Concerns" (WM: 0.6), and "Gender-Related Violence" (0.05).

Moreover, there are more areas in which the P-N ratios are higher in the accounts of male employees rather than the female employees, i.e. "Domestic Roles" and "Health and Reproductive Concerns" concerns. As such, the male employees have a relatively stronger feeling that their gender roles are restructured when it comes to their domestic roles, such as their encounters of "new home activities / responsibilities, the reduction of some of their home

activities / responsibilities, their enhanced interpersonal relationship at home, their state of convenience at home, and their state of safety at home".

On the merits of the findings, the study recommends a framework for a gender sensitivity training (GST) that is custom fit to the needs and circumstances of the employees. The GST course has five (5) sections. The specific outcomes of the training course are expected to enable the participants to: (a) make visible women and men's gender roles; (b) identify how access to and control over resources for ensuring health are affected by these gender roles; and (c) adapt the dynamics of gender roles to the conditions and circumstances of the COVID pandemic. For its mode of delivery, the GST course will use Case Studies, Group work, and Plenary Reports to be deployed by the local University experts on GAD, financial management, Psychology and Guidance and Counseling. Finally, the study also signifies to the enterprise of English Language Teaching since online ESL teaching has become a popular and viable job used to remedy the income losses of many people in these times of the pandemic, as even LGU employees have indicated their resort to this online job opportunity among other job opportunities. Thus, appropriate training for online ESL teaching can be deployed as an extension to LGU employees to assist in their economic and financial challenges, which rank second in the list of their gender role challenges in these times of the pandemic.

Keywords: *Gender Research, Analysis of Sex-Disaggregated Data, Dimensions of Gender Roles, Impact of COVID on LGUs*

Introduction

Gender roles are being scrambled during this pandemic, with millions who used to work in an office now working from home—and simultaneously taking on caregiving responsibilities (Tanenbaum, 2020). For some men in particular, this new reality presents an opportunity to engage in household activities traditionally stereotyped as "feminine" or otherwise re-examine or re-imagine their role as partners. As summarized by a new UN report about COVID-19 and girls and women, this shadow pandemic can be seen in a spike in domestic violence as girls and women are sheltering-in-place with their abusers; the loss of employment for women who hold the majority of insecure, informal and lower-paying jobs; the risk shouldered by the world's nurses, who are predominately women; and the rapid increase in unpaid care work that girls and women mostly provide already (Morse and Anderson, 2020). While early reports suggest that men are more likely to succumb to COVID-19, the social and economic toll will be paid, disproportionately, by the world's girls and women.

The United Nation's bracingly clear policy guide makes clear the stakes and what governments and their people must do now to ensure their response to the COVID-19 crisis does not intensify the crisis of gender inequality (Morse and Anderson, 2020). It includes ensuring women's equal representation in all COVID-19 response planning and decision-making; driving transformative change for equality by addressing the care economy, paid and unpaid; and targeting women and girls in all efforts to address the socio-economic impact of COVID-19 (Morse and Anderson, 2020).

On the above mentioned context, the conceptualization of this study is deemed worthwhile as it intends to catalyze awareness-raising for LGU employees on the different manifestations of gender role restructuring that result from the COVID pandemic. This further generated a feasible proposal of a more advanced Gender Sensitivity Training (GST) design that can be signified to the changes in lifestyle in these times of the COVID pandemic.

Gender Roles

Also known as sex role (Levesque, 2011), it refers to a specific dimension of social role encompassing a range of behaviors and attitudes that are generally considered acceptable, appropriate, or desirable for a person based on that person's biological or perceived sex (Alters and Schiff, 2009). Gender roles are usually centered on conceptions of masculinity and femininity although there are exceptions and variations. The specifics regarding these gendered expectations may vary substantially among cultures, while other characteristics may be common throughout a range of cultures.

Debate continues as to what extent gender and gender roles are socially constructed (i.e. non-biologically influenced), and to what extent "socially constructed" may be considered synonymous with "arbitrary" or "malleable" (Francis, 2000). Therefore, a concise authoritative definition of gender roles or gender itself is elusive.

Impact of COVID Pandemic on Gender Roles

The COVID-19 pandemic has gendered effects. Women, especially women of color, indigenous women, and low-income women, are particularly susceptible to contracting the disease, as well as to economic instability and curtailed access to services and resources. Women are more likely than men to be healthcare workers, on the frontline of the pandemic. According to the World Health Organization, across 104 countries, women comprise 70% of health and social care sector workers. In Canada, they are even more represented, at 81% of health care and social assistance workers. This makes women more vulnerable to the disease.

However, with the underrepresentation of women in leadership, women also do not often have their voices heard in decision and policymaking (Boniol, 2019).

As countries go into lockdown, women's domestic work burden increases. When schools and daycares close and social distancing measures are put into place, caregiving is moved back into the home, and grandparents or other relatives cannot provide care. Further, sick and / or self-isolating people also need caregiving. Research on disease outbreak and gender suggest that women are doing the majority of this unpaid labour (Alon, 2020). In heterosexual relationships, women tend to be lower earners or working part-time, so it seems rational to take on caregiving also. For single mothers, balancing caregiving and work is a norm, but during a pandemic is an even heavier load. And, if single mothers become ill and must isolate, the consequences for their children may be dire. The pandemic brings to the fore the importance of public support for childcare.

On the other hand, considering that a majority of healthcare workers are women, it is possible that men who are in partnerships with these women, and who are able to work from home, may become caregivers out of necessity. Further, flexible work arrangements have suddenly become a norm for a large portion of the workforce (Alon, 2020). Thus, in the long-term, the pandemic may contribute to changing gendered norms that burden women. The outcome of this crisis on gender equality in caregiving is yet to be determined.

Evidence from countries like Italy, Spain and China suggests men are experiencing more serious illness from COVID-19 than women. For instance, in Italy, 71% of deaths from the virus are men (Mooney et al., 2020). Men's higher rates of drinking and smoking may be one cause; another potential reason is that men are less likely to practice frequent personal hygiene practices like handwashing. Another implication is that if men get sicker from COVID-19, the care burden for women may be compounded (Mooney et al., 2020).

Research Problem

This study exposed and analyzed manifestations of gender role restructuring (in both cases of women and men) occurring in the context of the COVID pandemic. Particularly, such phenomenon was described based on the accounts and actual experiences reported by female and male employees of selected LGUs in Pangasinan.

Methodology

This study registers as a Gender and Development (GAD) research and uses the method of gender statistics that rely on sex-disaggregated data and reflect the realities of the lives of

women and men and policy issues relating to gender. Data are collected and tabulated separately for women and men (De Vera, 2020). In this study, this was done by separating the respective accounts of female LGU employees and their male counterpart as to their perception of "gender role restructuring" which they encountered along 4 dimensions, to wit: domestic roles, health and reproductive concerns, economic and employment concerns, and accounts of gender-related violence.

The specific research objectives were resolved through the use of relevant data gathering tools which include (a) structured interview and (b) survey checklist. Data gathered from the different tools were analyzed by reporting directly results that can be quantified with corresponding descriptions and interpretations. Answers of respondents in the form of sentences were analyzed and synthesized into descriptive categories using the phenomenographic method. The latter was carried out using the phenomenographic procedure in the study of Medriano and De Vera (2019) and in the studies of De Vera (2020).

Results and Discussion

1. Sociodemographic and Employment Profile of the LGU Employees

The sampling criterion set by this study aimed at a balanced representation of the sexes as to the breakdown of the research population per LGU. The age classification of the respondents uses a 9-level age classification that spans from 20 (minimum age) to 65 (maximum) years old (Table 3). Notably, all age levels are accounted for but in varying frequency. The age levels that figures with the most number of entries are level 1 (28%), level 2 (20%) and level 4 (16%). Most of the LGU employees (male and female) cluster around the lower age level, while there is a dearth of employees in the upper level (Table 1).

Table 1

Overall Age Level Distribution of the LGU Employees (across 5 LGUs)

Age Category / Bracket	Frequency	Percent
Level 1: 20-25	14	28.0
Level I1: 26-30	10	20.0
Level II1: 31-35	5	10.0
Level 1V: 35-40	4	8.0
Level V: 41-45	8	16.0
Level V1: 46-50	2	4.0

Level VI1: 51-55	4	8.0
Level VII1: 56-60	2	4.0
Level 1X: 61-65	1	2.0
Total	50	100.0

The study uses only a threefold class of civil status to classify the respondents. The civil status class with the most entries and which constitutes the majority of the respondents is "single" (62%). It poses a remarkable gap with the frequency of married employees (36%). An isolated few are widow/er (2%). The economic status of the LGU employees were determined operationally using monthly income as basis. A 6-point income range is used in this study that bracketed income amounts from PhP190,400.00 (maximum) to PhP9,520.00 (minimum). Moreover, the 6-point income range is further classified into upper range income (levels 5-6), middle range income (levels 3-4), and lower range income (levels 1-2). Findings show that all income levels are accounted for, but in varying frequencies (Table 2). The income levels with the most entries are Level III (44%) and Level II (32%). The rest of the levels account for sheer traces. Thus, majority of the employees' income range borders between lower to middle range income.

Table 2

Overall Income Range Distribution of the LGU Employees (across 5 LGUs)

Monthly Income (Philippine Peso)	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Level VI: At least 190,400	1	2.0
Level V: Between 66,640 – 114,240	4	8.0
Level 1V: Between 38,080 – 66,640	5	10.0
Level II1: Between 19,040 – 38,080	22	44.0
Level I1: Between 9,520 – 19,040	16	32.0
Level 1: Less than 9,520	2	4.0
Total	50	100

In classifying the LGU employees in terms of their educational background, their distribution into degree and non-degree holders was taken into account. Findings show an almost unanimous account of degree holders among the respondents (96%) at the backdrop of isolated cases of non-degree holders (4%). Majority of employees who are degree holders are college

graduates (62%), with isolated cases of Master's degree holders (6%) and unit earners (20%). Among non-degree holders, they are either TESDA certificate holders or college undergraduate.

The LGU employees' status of employment was analyzed based on their position and status of tenure in the organization. Majority of the employees occupy a permanent position (54%), closely tailed by a considerably density of those with a temporary position (24%). The rest of the categories register isolated cases (Table 3).

Table 3
Overall Distribution of the LGU Employees (across 5 LGUs)
in terms of Employment Position

Job Status	Frequency	Percent
Memorandum of Agreement (MOA)	2	4.0
Casual	1	2.0
Contractual	1	2.0
Job Order	3	6.0
Temporary	12	24.0
Permanent	27	54.0
Others	4	8.0
Total	50	100.0

2. Gender Role Restructuring during COVID Pandemic as perceived by Female and Male LGU Employees

The female and male respondents assessed whether changes have been observed in terms of their gender roles. Their responses are summarily interpreted as "positive" (P) or "negative" (N). By a positive response is meant that an employee (female or male) observed significant or notable changes or a restructuring of her / his role with reference to her / his being a female or male engaging in those activities or circumstances. By a negative response is meant no significant or notable change is manifest or observable prior and during the onset of the pandemic. The positive and negative responses across the indicators per area were then

counted. Since there are 5 LGUs, the weighted mean of the sum of positive and negative responses of the group of female and the group of male employees per LGU was obtained. The weighted mean of the positive and negative responses was used to calculate the Positivity-Negativity (P-N) ratio by dividing the value corresponding to the weighted mean of the positive responses against the value corresponding to the weighted mean of the negative responses. The ratio corresponds to whether an area is considered a significant or an insignificant factor in the restructuring of gender roles. If the calculated ratio for an area is, at least 1.00, it is interpreted such that the area is considered as a factor to gender role restructuring as indicated by the dominance of positive responses over negative responses. On the contrary, a calculated ratio valued below 1.00 means that the area is not a significant factor to gender role restructuring as indicated by the dominance of negative responses. This rubric uses the same pattern in obtaining "sex ratio" based on the method used by the Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) if the United States in computing male to female sex ratio in the World Factbook (Wikipedia: "List of Countries by Sex Ratio").

Table 4 shows the computed P-N ratio under each of the 4 areas based on the separate accounts of female and male LGU employees. The findings indicated in the table show that only one area, i.e. "Domestic Roles", reflects ratios that are significant, which is true to the accounts of the female employees (1.39) and the male employees (1.43). The ratios obtained in the three other areas are described as "not significant". These findings mean that gender role restructuring is significantly manifest or observable consequent of the pandemic when it comes to the domestic roles of female and male LGU employees. To further explain, it means that both sexes perceived that their gender roles have been significantly changed as to the activities and responsibilities they have at home or in their families at the onset of the pandemic. On the contrary, gender role restructuring is rather weak when it comes to the other areas like "health and reproductive concerns", etc.

Moreover, Table 4 ranks the P-N ratios regardless of their significance threshold to illustrate the degree of strength of each area in contributing to gender role restructuring consequent of the pandemic. "Domestic roles" figure to be the most dominant factor (WM: 1.41) followed by "Economic and Employment Concerns" (WM: 0.8), "Health and Reproductive Concerns" (WM: 0.6), and "Gender-Related Violence" (0.05). It is noteworthy that despite the other areas being found to be non-significant factors; nevertheless their ratio values approximate the significance threshold by a marginal gap, which shows a relatively slight possibility that these areas may catalyze gender role restructuring, even so at a lower rate. However, the ratio value

for “gender-related violence” is too aloof to consider it within the range of this possibility. This means that this area is dismissed to be far from being contributory to gender role restructuring. In addition to the above observations, further analysis of the values in Table 4 also shows that there are more areas in which the P-N ratios are higher as to the accounts of male employees rather than the female employees, i.e. “Domestic Roles” and “Health and Reproductive Concerns”. It means that it is along these areas that the male employees relatively feel a stronger gender role restructuring compared to how the female employees feel it. In terms of “Economic and employment concerns”, both female and male employees feel the same way how this area triggers a restructuring of their gender roles. On the contrary, when it comes to “gender-related violence”, it seems that the female employees feel slightly stronger the effects of gender role restructuring compared to the experience of their male counterpart. The stronger that an area can signify to gender role restructuring would imply greater feelings of tension in adjusting to new gender roles. Since there are more areas with higher P-N ratios for male employees, it means that it is the male employees who slightly feel more of the occurrence of gender role restructuring particularly when it comes to their domestic roles and over health and reproductive concerns.

Table 4

Factors to the Restructuring of Gender Roles based on P-N Ratio

Areas	Accounts of the sexes (P-N Ratio)		Weighted Mean	Rank (in terms of significance as a factor)
	F	M		
Domestic Roles	1.39 (s)	1.43 (s)	1.41	1
Health and Reproductive Concerns	0.50 (ns)	0.70 (ns)	0.6	3
Economic and Employment Concerns	0.80 (ns)	0.80 (ns)	0.8	2
Gender-Related Violence	0.1 (ns)	0 (ns)	0.05	4

Legend: S (significant); NS (not significant), where:

$\leq$ 1.00 – significant

> 1.00 – not significant

More specifically, the male employees observed a restructuring of their gender roles more vividly when it comes to their "new home activities / responsibilities, the reduction of some of their home activities / responsibilities, their enhanced interpersonal relationship at home, their state of convenience at home, and their state of safety at home". These are the specific indicators that more rigidly give rise to changes in their male gender roles. The female LGU employees also feel that these same indicators give rise to changes in their gender roles but not as much as degree that male employees feel it.

3. Proposed Framework of GAD extension training for female and male employees of LGUs in Pangasinan

In view of the findings of this study, the recommended framework of a GAD extension training for the female and male employees of LGUs in Pangasinan is a "Gender Sensitivity Training" (GST). A customized GST course for these target beneficiaries must be built using the following framework which can be deployed using the material and human resources of Pangasinan State University:

Components of the GST Framework

GST General Objectives. The GST that will be offered by the University is custom fit to the needs and circumstances of the female and male employees of LGUs in Pangasinan as informed by the findings of this research. The general objectives of the training are:

1. To raise the consciousness of the female and the male employees on the realities of gender role restructuring as catalyzed by circumstances triggered by the COVID pandemic; and
2. To empower the female and the male employees as they adapt and adjust to changes in their gender roles

GST course description. This GST course is designed for participants to acquire steps for the analysis of their gender roles and access to and control of resources adapted to the circumstances and conditions of the COVID pandemic. Women and men perform multiple roles which may or may not be recognized in social or economic analyses. These roles give rise to differential access to and control of resources and to different exposure to risk or protective factors for health.

Specific outcomes of the GST. Participants will be able to apply analytical concepts to: (a) make visible women and men's gender roles; (b) identify how access to and control over

resources for ensuring health are affected by these gender roles; and (c) adapt the dynamics of gender roles to the conditions and circumstances of the COVID pandemic

Recommendations

The merits of this study's findings have a comprehensive bearing on various fields of application in LGU organizational management, the advocacy of Gender and Development, and the quest for a deeper understanding of the dynamics of gender roles. The following are some recommendations addressed to concerned authorities and scholars for their potential actions on the issues:

1. Operationalize a system of socio-demographic and employment profiling of female and male employees from across the LGUs of Pangasinan and employ such records as an accessible databank that can be utilized for research development and extension purposes or for other worthy purposes that presuppose the use of such data.
2. Conduct of a gender sensitivity training (GST) as a congenial extension project for the benefit of the female and the male LGU employees that will raise their consciousness concerning the realities of gender role restructuring as catalyzed by circumstances triggered by a pandemic, with the aim of empowering women and men as to their struggles in adapting to changes in their gender roles.
3. Utilization of the GST framework developed in this study in designing extension projects that are sensitized to the needs and circumstances of the female and the male employees of LGUs across the province of Pangasinan.

Import to the Enterprise of Language Teaching

Noting on the findings that "economic and employment concerns" ranks second in the hierarchy of problematic issues encountered by female and male LGU employees, their responses reveal that many of them or their family members have resorted to potential online jobs or income-generating enterprises that signify to the use of online media. Moreover, it was found that some have resorted to part-time jobs as online English language tutors, which has become a popular option nowadays. In this connection, the enterprise of language teaching has turned into a viable venue for income generation even among LGU employees, in which they need training to reinforce their skills to be able to deal or penetrate the enterprise of online ESL teaching.

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Exploring Learning Biases Through Artificial Language Learning Paradigm: The Role of Harmonic and Regularization Bias in Multilingual Child Learners' Nominal Word Order

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Abstract

Conventional generative theories often consider language acquisition as governed by a set of learning biases, rules, and principles which play a role in the explanation for the existence of typological generalizations or universals. Nevertheless, although the idea is frequently debated, direct evidence that will prove the particular nature of the learning biases and their role in explaining typological generalizations remains lacking. In the area of nominal word order, recent studies involving English speaking monolinguals via artificial language learning have claimed that the cross-linguistic frequency of harmonic word order patterns (heads are ordered consistently before or after dependents across syntactic categories) reflects a cognitive bias (Culbertson, Smolensky, & Legendre, 2012; Culbertson & Newport, 2015a). However,

these claims remain inconclusive due to the fact that these studies target English learners, whose native language is harmonic in the nominal domain (Num-Adj-N) and this preference may be attributed on transfer rather than on a universal harmonic bias. Thus, this study provides empirical evidence from young multilingual learners, whose native language is both harmonic and non-harmonic in this domain. The results revealed that multilingual child learners exhibit a preference for typologically common *harmonic* word order patterns (N-Adj, N-Num) which preserve the order of the head with respect to its complements. Hence, providing further support for the existence of language universal in general, and of Universal 18 in particular. Importantly, it validates the claim that cognitive bias governs language acquisition, rather than native language influence. The study also discusses important content of the biases at play during language learning. In particular, multilingual learners favor regularity within an individual rule as indicated by their preference to a grammar which uses the same rule for numerals and adjectives. It clearly indicates that a grammar which distinctly uses a single ordering rule for a given modifier (harmonic patterns) is more consistent than the one which alternates between two ordering rules (non-harmonic patterns).

Keywords: *artificial language learning, learning biases, multilingual learners, nominal word order, typological universal*

Introduction

The identification of the capabilities and limitations of human language learning is one of the fundamental areas being explored in linguistics and language acquisition. A number of classical linguistics researchers have hypothesized that language is constrained and shaped by tendencies, preferences, or biases that are part of the process of learning. Indeed, these arguments claim that language learning is both facilitated and constrained by cognitive biases. In line with this, uncovering the existence of such biases operating during the learning process serves as an initial step in understanding the complexity of human language learning. Likewise, part of this complexity involved discerning the ways in which languages are shaped by language learners' biases. In support, recent studies involving adult learners using artificial language learning paradigms have shown that structures or rules that are common in the languages of the world are learned or processed more easily than patterns that are rare or unattested. Hence, it generally argues that learning biases promote language structures that are more readily learnable and reduce or eliminate structures that are more difficult to learn or more unlikely to be acquired successfully. Taking this into account, some of these researchers

have argued that the properties of the language structure are reflected by the learners' biases, while some have contended that the underlying cause of pattern learning is cognitive biases or other functional constraints. Nonetheless, this view holds a particular role in proposing a significant link between learning and language structure, that is, certain linguistic patterns systematically appear across languages, and this systematic linguistic pattern is to a certain extent formed by biases active during the acquisition of a language.

Given these backgrounds, young multilingual learners were purposefully selected in the current study. The present study, therefore, aspired to contribute to the body of experimental evidence addressing the two fundamental questions that are crucial to many linguistic theories but are as yet contentious, namely that there is a possibility that learning biases exist among multilingual language learners, specifically Catanduanes Bikol-Tagalog-English speaking children between 6-7 years of age and that these biases play a probable and significant role in understanding the recurrent patterns in languages, particularly those observed in nominal word order as presented in Greenberg's *Universal 18*.

Review of Related Literature and Studies

Greenberg's Universal 18: A Typological Universal in the Nominal Domain

Since this paper focused on word order under nominal domain, it is imperative to discuss a particular generalization about word order in the the nominal domain that served as the basis for the hypotheses tested.

It is claimed by several linguists that word order patterns, in general and the correlations between the internal orders of different types of sentence constituents, in particular are some of the well-known typological generalizations (Aristar, 1991; Cinque, 2006; Dryer, 1992; Steddy & Samek-Lodovici, 2011). Among these typological generalizations is the Greenberg's Universal 18. This word-order universal in the nominal domain was first introduced by Greenberg (1963) based on a set of 30 languages. This word-order universal is commonly referenced as Greenberg's Universal 18 which states, "when the descriptive adjective precedes the noun, the demonstrative, and the numeral, with overwhelmingly more than chance frequency, does likewise" (p.68). In other words, placement of numerals (Num) after the noun (N) asymmetrically implies that adjectives (Adj) must also be pro-nominal (N-Num→N-Adj). Hence, a language violating this generalization would express 'two trees' as *trees two* but 'green trees' as *green trees*. This means that languages tend not to use *pre-nominal* adjectives together with *post-nominal* numerals. To illustrate this generalization, Culbertson, Smolensky, and Legendre (2012) claimed that most languages have ways of quantifying and attributing

properties to nouns by combining them with numeral words and attributive adjectives respectively and the four logically possible combinations of Noun-Adjective and Noun-Numeral ordering are as follows:

(1) Adjective-Noun and Numeral-Noun
(2) Noun-Adjective and Noun-Numeral
(3) Noun-Adjective and Numeral-Noun
(4) Adjective-Noun and Noun-Numeral

According to Greenberg (1963), while all the patterns mentioned are attested, its distribution seems to be constrained cross-linguistically. Hawkins (1983) also added that only the first three orders are well-attested, while the fourth order (Adj-N and N-Num) is not. Since this is the case, the correlational generalization offered by Greenberg (1963) states that adjective-noun order implies numeral-noun order. This means that the generalization translates to a ban on Adj-N and N-Num pattern, that is, the combination of pre-nominal adjectives with post-nominal numerals. This generalization is also supported by corresponding statistics generated from an extensive cross-linguistic survey conducted by Dryer (2008a) as reflected in the World Atlas of Language Structures (WALS) shown in Table 1.

Table 1

Sample of languages from WALS illustrating preference for consistent ordering and sub-preference among inconsistent order patterns for N-Adj, N-Num over Adj-N, N-Num

	Adj-N	N-Adj
Num-N	27% (L1)	17% (L3)
N-Num	4% (L4)	52% (L2)

The implication of the results presented in WALS suggests that indeed very few languages fall into the Adj-N and N-Num pattern as it only constitutes 4% of the total number of languages surveyed. Likewise, WALS also confirms Greenberg's generalization indicating that such generalization is a very strong typological tendency.

2.2. The Concept of Harmony and Regularization as Learning Biases

The other pattern that Greenberg (1963) discovered in his universals is harmony. In the case of word order, particularly nominal word order, one parameter is harmonic with an order on

the cross-cutting parameter if it occurs only with that other order. For example, Greenberg proposed two competing motivations for implicational universals of word order. The first one is dominance which can be thought of as simply a default preference for one order over another. For example, noun-adjective order (N-Adj) is dominant, as is numeral-noun order (Num-N). The second, harmony, can be thought of as a dependent relation of one word order upon another. For example, Adj-Num order is harmonic with Num-N order and N-Adj order is harmonic with N-Num order. Greenberg's two motivations compete with each other, and the result is described in the following principle: "a dominant order may occur at any time, but a recessive order occurs only when a harmonic order is also present" (Greenberg, 1963, p.97).

Following Greenberg's Universal 18 and the distribution shown in WALS, Culbertson, Smolensky, and Legendre (2012) also classified the two independently dispreferred orders, Adj-N and N-Num, as marked pattern, while the two alternative orders, N-Adj and Num-N as unmarked. Likewise, the patterns which contain orders preserving the position of the noun with respect to modifiers, i.e. N-Num and N-Adj and Num-N and Adj-N patterns were labelled as harmonic, following Greenberg's (1963) principles. Also, Culbertson et al. (2012) proposed the ranking of (Adj, N) - (Num, N) ordering patterns based on typology (where 'x > y'means 'x is more common than y') that is, *Adj-N & Num-N, N-Adj & N-Num (harmonic) > N-Adj & Num-N (unmarked) > Adj-N & N-Num (marked)*. In short, harmonic patterns are more common than the unmarked pattern, while the marked pattern appears to be the least common pattern among the four possible combination of Noun-Adjective and Noun-Numeral ordering.

As regards regularization as a learning bias, Ferdinand, Kirby, and Smith (2017) explained that regularization occurs when the output a learner produces is less variable than the linguistic data they observed. Likewise, Chambers, Trudgill, and Schilling-Estes (2003) refuted that one of the striking features of human languages is regularity and language learners exhibit a strong regularization bias which can be observed naturally in language contact situations (Bickerton, 1984), and in the laboratory with artificial language learning experiments (Reali & Griffiths, 2009). The nature of this linguistic regularization bias has been heavily debated: some argue for domain-general causes such as memory limitations (Hudson Kam & Chang, 2009) and others argue for domain-specific biases regarding linguistic stimuli (Bickerton, 1984). Nonetheless, this process of regularization has come to play a prominent role in discussions of the role of innate constraints on language acquisition in linguistics and cognitive science (Pinker, 1994). To illustrate, recent work has explored how the frequencies of linguistic forms are learned. In this context, regularization corresponds to collapsing inconsistent variation towards a more deterministic rule. One study conducted by Hudson Kam and Newport (2005)

supported this claim. In this particular study, participants were trained on artificial languages in which determiners occurred with nouns with varying probabilities. They found that children regularize the unpredictability in the input, producing consistent patterns that were not the same as the training stimuli. They also found that adult participants produced utterances with probabilities proportional to their frequency in training, a response referred to as probability matching. Likewise, Hudson Kam and Newport (2009) in their subsequent study also argued that for adult participants, regularization depends on the form and complexity of the inconsistency in the input. In another study, Wonnacott and Newport (2005) used artificial language to test the regularization patterns of adult learners where they found that adult learners when exposed to new noun-verb combinations during testing, subjects were more likely to form a more consistent rule of determiner use. In other words, in general when subjects are asked to produce novel data for which they have no statistical information, the most natural response is to use the order that was heard most frequently in the input. Lastly, in a more recent study made by Vouloumanos (2008), empirical evidence were forwarded as to learning biases operating during learning from inconsistent input. In this particular study, participants were trained on novel object-word pairs. Objects were associated with multiple words, which in turn were paired with multiple objects with varying probabilities. They were then presented with two objects while one of the words was playing, and asked to select the object that went best with the word. The results indicated that participants tended to select responses in proportion to their frequencies, suggesting that people might probability match rather than regularize in learning multiple referent relations.

Artificial Language Learning (ALL)

According to Christiansen (2000), the general tenet of ALL involves training human subjects on artificial languages with particular structural constraints, and then testing their knowledge of the language. Hence, the term Artificial Language Learning generally refers to an experimental paradigm where participants learn a language, or language-like system, in a laboratory setting and are then tested on what they learned. However, artificial language learning studies take many different forms and go by many different names. The original term coined by Esper (1925) as "artificial linguistic system" (p.1) has been expanded to include artificial grammar learning, which generally focuses on the grammar aspects of language, often in the absence of meaning (Reber, 1967; Saffran, Aslin, & Newport, 1996); miniature language learning, which generally refers to learning aspects of an invented or part of a natural language (Hudson Kam & Newport, 2009); or miniature artificial language, which refers to made-up grammatical categories and word-order rules (Braine, 1963); and semi-artificial language

learning, which generally refers to a portion of a natural language, often modified for experimental purposes (Williams, 2005). Likewise, the reasons for using artificial languages are diverse and may include to allow for a controlled exploration of the principles of universal grammar (Culbertson, Smolensky, & Legendre, 2012; Ettlinger, Bradlow, & Wong, 2013; Finley & Badecker, 2009a), of how domain-general cognitive mechanisms might support language and language learning (Saffran, Aslin, & Newport, 1996), principles of language change (Esper, 1925), of the relationship between first and second and adult and child language learning (Finn & Hudson Kam, 2008), and of the processes involved in second language learning (Friederici, Steinhauer, & Pfeifer, 2002). Furthermore, Saffran, Aslin, and Newport (1996) even argued that because ALL permits researchers to investigate the language learning abilities of infants and children in an highly controlled environment, the paradigm is becoming increasingly popular as a method for studying language acquisition.

Methodology

The study is a quantitative - true experimental research since according to Creswell (2003), quantitative research "employ strategies of inquiry such as experimental and surveys and collect data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data" (p. 18).

Participants

Criteria for selecting participants

The participants were chosen from Catanduanes (Region V). There were 50 Catanduanes Bikol-Tagalog-English speaking children between 6-7 years of age enrolled in Grade 1 (25 males and 25 females) who were purposively selected as participants. They were recruited from public elementary schools and were required to complete two session trainings/tests without fussiness before they were included in the final list. Moreover, the participants were likewise purposively selected as guided by the definition set as regards multilingualism. In the context of the present study, multilinguals are those who can, to whatever degree, comprehend or produce written or spoken utterances in more than two languages, specifically, Bikol, Tagalog, and English languages.

With regard to the age of the participants, the 6-7 years age group was considered following the study conducted by Culbertson and Newport (2015a) on harmonic biases in monolingual child learners.

Materials/Instrument

Lexicon

The artificial language consisted of 10 nonce words: 4 nouns corresponding to novel objects and 6 nonce modifiers (3 adjectives and 3 numeral words) were employed. The neighborhood densities of both adjective and numeral nonce words were also computed by Culbertson (2010) by finding the number of English neighbors for a given non-word using Levenshtein or edit distance (Yakorni, Balota, & Yap, 2008). Table 2 shows the list of each nonce word along with its meaning, pronunciation, and neighborhood density:

Table 2

Selected List of Non-Words along with its Neighborhood Density

Nonce Word	Meaning	Pronunciation	Neighborhood Density
Nouns			
slerga		/slə˞gə/	0
nerka		/’nɛrkə/	0
powarta		/pou’wartə/	0
grifta		/’griftə/	0
Modifiers			
thraf	“dotted”	/’ərœf/	1
geej	“blue”	/’giʒ/	1
cherg	“furry”	/’ʧɛrg/	2
derf	“two”	/’dɛrf/	4
kez	“three”	/’kɛz/	7
glawb	“four”	/’glaub/	3

Stimuli

The visual stimuli consisted of four novel objects (as shown in Table 2), adapted from Culbertson and Newport (2015a). The auditory stimuli comprised of nouns and phrases (with a noun and a single modifier) recorded as 16-bit stereo files at a sampling frequency of 44,100

Hz by a female Philippine English speaker ("Nel") produced using a voice recorder. The duration of each recording was set from 0.5 to 0.75 second, and the average volume was set to -6 dB through Audacity v.2.1.3. The visual and auditory stimuli were displayed on a laptop via Microsoft PowerPoint.

Input Language Conditions

Following the Mixture Shift Paradigm (Culbertson et al., 2012), there were five experimental conditions corresponding to different input grammars employed in the experiment as presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Experimental conditions

(a) Condition 0: Equiprobable control		(b) Condition1: Harmonic (=Eng)	
Trend: none		Trend: Adj-N, Num-N	
0.5 S_{adj} → N Adj	0.5 S_{adj} → Adj N	0.3 S_{adj} → N Adj	0.7 S_{adj} → **Adj N**
0.5 S_{num} → N Num	0.5 S_{num} → Num N	0.7 S_{num} → **Num N**	0.3 S_{num} →N Num
(c) Condition 2: Harmonic (≠Eng)		(d) Condition 3: Unmarked orders	
Trend: N-Adj, N-Num		Trend: N-Adj, Num-N	
0.3 S_{adj} → Adj N	0.7 S_{adj} → **N Adj**	0.3 S_{adj} → AdjN	0.7 S_{adj} → **N Adj**
0.7 S_{num} → **N Num**	0.3 S_{num} → Num N	0.7 S_{num} → **Num N**	0.3 S_{num} → N Num
(e) Condition 4: Marked orders			
Trend: Adj-N, N-Num			
0.3 S_{adj} → N Adj	0.7 S_{adj} → **Adj N**		
0.7 S_{num} → **N Num**	0.3 S_{num} → Num N		

Note. From "Learning biases predict a word order universal," by J. Culbertson, P. Smolensky, and G. Legendre, 2012, Cognition, 122(3), p. 309.

Procedure

General Procedure

Each participant was trained and tested during two 45-minute sessions that took place on two consecutive days. Participants were seated in a quiet room in front of a laptop computer and the researcher was seated adjacent.

Experiment Phases

Session I - Phase 1: Noun training – Nonce objects and their labels are introduced to the participants where pictures of the four novel objects were shown in gray scale and roughly in the same size. There were three levels in noun training which involved 24 trials each, these are: *exposure*, *comprehension*, and *production* levels. The first level (24 trials) involved seeing a picture of one of the four novel objects, listening to the correct label provided by "Nel," and repeating each object's name after they heard its label. In the next level, the participants were required to choose the picture of whichever of the four novel objects that corresponds to the label provided by "Nel". Finally, the third level of Phase 1 - *production* required the participants to produce the correct label of one of the four objects presented to them within the 10 seconds time limit. Explicit feedback in the form of correct answer was given by the researcher after every trial throughout this training, regardless of whether the participant's response was correct or incorrect. Likewise, during production, if the participant encountered difficulty in pronouncing or remembering a particular object label, the experimenter provided assistance.

Session I - Phase II: Phrase training – The participants were taught of simple phrases or two-word phrases in the language, comprised of either a noun and an adjective, or a noun and a numeral. The first game, 24 exposure trials were given in which participants saw an object with one of the six adjectival or numeral properties. "Nel" provided a two-word phrase describing the picture (the order of which depends on the participant's assigned experimental condition), and the participants were asked to repeat the phrase. Next, the participants were tested on their comprehension of phrases (24 trials) in the language. Four printed pictures in each item in the answer sheet were distributed, and a description of one of the four pictures was provided by "Nel." Participants were instructed to choose which of the four pictures matched "Nel's" description within the 10 seconds time limit. Lastly, participants saw a single picture and were asked to produce a phrase describing it (e.g., a noun+adjective or noun+numeral combination). Data from this initial production session was included from data analysis of word learning. Furthermore, like in Phase I, feedback was also given on comprehension trials, but not on production trials. This means that no feedback about the order in which the participants produced words were given. However, in cases where the participant encountered difficulty in pronouncing or remembering a particular word, the experimenter provided assistance.

Session II - Phase III: Noun and Phrase training – This session was conducted on the second day and included the same set of tasks described in Phase I and II.

Method of Analysis

This paper attempted to answer whether for each condition, the participants' productions exhibit higher or lower levels of use of the majority order than were present in the input, and how these trends compare to each condition. Likewise, vocabulary learning of the participants across conditions was compared to rule out important potential confounds and alternative explanations, that is to make sure that the less use of majority order in a given condition cannot be explained by participants' inability to learn the vocabulary, which is not the focus of this study.

Frequency count, percentage, Likelihood ratio, Score, Wald Chi-square test, mixed-effects logistic regression, one sample sign test was employed to answer the above-mentioned questions.

Results and Discussion

Word Learning of Multilingual Child Learners across Experimental Conditions

The purpose of the analysis of maximum likelihood estimates using Wald Chi-square test statistic is to compare word learning across conditions, that is to identify if word learning is a significant predictor of multilingual child learners' performance difference between experimental conditions. In the models tested here, the null hypothesis is that the coefficients of conditions 1 to 4 in the picture-matching test and in the production test simultaneously equal to 0.05 level of significance. Hence, if the test fails to reject the null hypothesis, this suggests that removing the variable (word learning) from the model will not substantially harm the fit of the logistic regression model. As such, the generated p-values from the Wald Chi-square test statistic were compared against 0.05 level of significance.

Table 4

Analysis of maximum likelihood estimates of picture-matching test

Parameter	DF	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Exp(Est)

Intercept		1	-13.2957	82.3576	0.0261	0.8717	0.000
Condition	Condition 1	1	-2.6574	179.5	0.0002	0.9882	0.070
Condition	Condition 2	1	-2.6574	179.5	0.0002	0.9882	0.070
Condition	Condition 3	1	-2.6574	179.5	0.0002	0.9882	0.070
Condition	Condition 4	1	-2.6574	179.5	0.0002	0.9882	0.070

Table 4 reveals that all the p-values are greater than 0.05, hence the null hypothesis was not rejected. In other words, these values suggest that word learning in picture-matching test does not affect multilingual child learners' performance difference between experimental conditions from condition 0 to 4.

Table 5

Analysis of maximum likelihood estimates of production test

Parameter		DF	Estimate	Standard Error	Wald Chi-Square	Pr > ChiSq	Exp(Est)
Intercept		1	-10.7377	57.3325	0.0351	0.8514	0.000
Condition	Condition 1	1	-4.7786	140.4	0.0012	0.9729	0.008
Condition	Condition 2	1	-4.7786	140.4	0.0012	0.9729	0.008
Condition	Condition 3	1	7.2616	57.3334	0.0160	0.8992	1424.563
Condition	Condition 4	1	-4.7786	140.4	0.0012	0.9729	0.008

Furthermore, the analysis of maximum likelihood estimates of nominal word order production test as shown in Table 5 indicates p-values greater than 0.05, which means that like the word learning in picture-matching test (Session I – Phase II), word learning in the production test (Session I – Phase III) is not a significant indicator of the multilingual child learners' performance difference between experimental conditions. In other words, the differential performance of the participants on the production testing of phrase in Session II - Phase III cannot be attributed to the participants' word learning across conditions. Moreover, experimental condition is not an important factor in explaining vocabulary accuracy in the production test. Hence, the asymmetrical levels of word learning can then be ruled out as a plausible explanation for any behavioral differences between conditions. In sum, word learning among multilingual young learners was generally high both for nouns and modifiers (numerals and adjectives), and was equally good across word order conditions. This suggests that any differences found among word order conditions are not likely to be due to differences in learning the lexicon across children in each condition. The participants' high level of novel word learning suggests that they possess the essential tool for extracting and constructing utterances, thus generating the data needed in the production task.

Thus, findings of the current study, indicate two significant claims: first, language learning, specifically learning of nominal word order, cannot be directly associated with vocabulary learning or acquisition of individual lexicons (word learning). This in turn, satisfy the aim of research question 1, that is, to eliminate any possible confounds that might lead to differential performance on the production testing of session II - phase III. Furthermore, the use of artificial language learning (ALL) in this study also delimits the potential intervening variables that at the very least must be taken into consideration, in a way that findings of this study cannot be attributed to exposure (L1 or L2 experience) prior to the experiment. This further support the claim of this study that constraints and/or nominal word order preferences provided by the participants are not therefore the consequence of their word learning proficiency levels. In short, learning biases uncovered in this present study arise largely not because of contraints on the acquisition of the lexicon, but because of constraints on the grammar or cognitive biases involved in pattern learning activated during the processes of language learning.

Proportion of use of majority order in the production task across the different experimental language conditions

Table 6

Use of majority order by condition

Language Condition	Trend	Percent
0 – equiprobable	none	54
1 – harmonic (=English)	Adj-N, Num-N	23
2 – harmonic (≠English)	N-Adj, N-Num	72
3 – unmarked orders	N-Adj, Num-N	57
4 – marked orders	Adj-N, N-Num	51

As shown in Table 6, participants assigned in different experimental language conditions exhibit varied proportion of use of majority order. Moreover, it is noticeable that the use of majority order is highest in condition 2 (harmonic, ≠Eng) with 72% and lowest in condition 1 (harmonic, =Eng) with only 23%, while condition 3 (unmarked pattern or N-Adj, Num-N order) with 57%, and condition 4 (marked pattern or Adj-N, N-Num) with 51%. The results indicate that in the context of artificial language learning, multilingual child learners exposed in noun-first and modifier-first nominal word orders (condition 1) tend to show preference towards a harmonic majority pattern (condition 2 or N-Adj, N-Num) that is different from the harmonic majority word order (Adj-N, Num-N) of the English language structure. In contrast, multilingual child learners exposed in unmarked (condition 3 or N-Adj, Num-N), marked (condition 4 or Adj-N, N-Num), and equiprobable inputs (condition 0, no trend) show production behavior towards majority pattern that does not exceed the input level. The data indicate significant yet conflicting results, that is, in terms of consistent head ordering (conditions 1, 2), when the majority order in the training input used consistent head ordering where all heads are placed to the left of their complements (N-Adj, N-Num), learners apply the input robustly. In contrast, if the majority order in the training input employed another consistent head ordering, this time all heads are positioned to the right of their complements (Adj-N, Num-N), learners significanty did not produce patterns congruent to their training input. This is quite surprising since both majority orders follow consistent head ordering (harmonic patterns) which were assumed to be less variable, hence are expected to be acquired and regularized. Meanwhile, in condition 3 (N-Adj, Num-N), the result was expected since it

follows an inconsistent pattern thus, significant less production of majority order can be found, more so in condition 4 where the majority input follows a typologically rare order (Adj-N, N-Num).

As indicated by the results, the proportion of use of majority order is highest in condition 2 (harmonic, ≠English), but also lowest in condition 1 (harmonic, =English). This result somewhat contradicts the results of other studies which found that there is an increase in the use of majority input in both harmonic patterns. It appears then that multilingual child learners favors not the two harmonic patterns, but rather choose the harmonic pattern following post-nominal order over the harmonic pattern using pre-nominal orders. Overall, these results contradicts Wonnacott and Newport (2005) claim that when subjects are asked to produce novel data for which they have no statistical information, the most natural response is to use the order that was heard most frequently in the input. As shown from the table, multilingual children exhibited a learning behavior that tend to shift their input patterns to another preferred word order patterns. Likewise, it also appears that in learning nominal word order by multilingual young learners, quantity of the language input is not a sizable or predictive component of the language outcome. Thus, in this context, it could be claimed that multilingual young learners have shown a tendency to arrange inconsistent variations towards a more deterministic rule which led them to produce consistent patterns that were not the same as the training stimuli. Lastly, the results also reflect an assumption that if the dominant ordering pattern in the input conformed to a learner's linguistic biases, it was expected to be acquired and regularized. On the other hand, if the dominant pattern went against a learner's biases it was expected to be less likely to be acquired veridically.

Evidence of Learning Biases in Nominal Word Order of Multilingual Child Learners

The following one-sample sign tests were made to test the three hypotheses forwarded in this study: Hypothesis 1 – There will be bias in favor of harmonic and unmarked patterns, that is, there will be more regularization in conditions 1, 2, 3; hypothesis 2 – There will be stronger bias in favor of harmonic patterns, which means that most regularization will occur in conditions 1, 2; and hypothesis 3– There will be bias against patterns with both marked orders, which means that there will be no regularization toward Adj-Noun and Noun-Num or no regularization in condition 4.

4.3.1 Identification of regularization bias in Conditions 0, 1, 2, 3, and 4

To verify whether the use of majority order in condition 1 to 4 undergoes biasing or not, T-Test was used by disregarding the effect of modifier-type. A one-sample sign test was also

computed which compared the average use of the majority order to the input level. For conditions 1, 2, 3, and 4, 70% input level was employed, while 50% input level was used for condition 0.

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0.7					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
C1	-17.318	239	.000	-.4708	-.524	-.417
C2	.866	239	.388	.0250	-.032	.082
C3	-3.909	239	.000	-.1250	-.188	-.062
C4	-5.927	239	.000	-.1917	-.255	-.128

Figure 1. One-sample sign test on the average use of majority order in Condition 1, 2, 3, and 4 to the input level

As Figure 1 suggests, the results indicate that there are significant evidences to conclude that there is an existing learning bias strong enough to produce *anti-boosting* behavior in conditions 1, 3, and 4 as reflected by their p-values which are all .000, less than 0.05. This means that although results of the one-sample sign test on the average use of majority order of the learners in conditions 1, 3, and 4 indicate significant result ($p < 0.05$), the fact that they did not use the majority order more than the 70% input level in each condition (see Table 6) suggests a certain level of resistance (anti-boosting) on the type of input they were exposed to. Furthermore, there is a significant evidence to conclude that a regularization learning bias is strong enough to produce boosting behavior in condition 2 since the p-value is 0.388 which is greater than 0.05. It means that since multilingual young learners in condition 2 employed the majority order beyond the 70% input level, the result shows that it is safe to claim that a boosting behavior is present. It can then be assumed that learners in condition 2 were replicating or regularizing the majority order they were exposed to since there is an observed reduction of variation as indicated by the significant increase in the use of majority order that can indicate a boosting behavior towards the N-Adj and N-Num pattern, an anti-English harmonic pattern. Recall that this is in line with the typology as shown in Table 1— N-Adj and N-Num pattern is in fact the most common pattern cross-linguistically (52%), found about twice as often as English type harmonic pattern, 27% (Adj-N, Num-N). Lastly, as expected, learners in condition 0 did not differ significantly from the input in either direction since its p-value = 0.197 is greater than 0.05. In addition, as already mentioned, the hypothesized value employed

for condition 0 was 0.5 as shown in Figure 2 below. The result suggests that there is no significant evidence to conclude that bias is strong enough to produce boosting or anti-boosting in condition 0 as reflected by its p-value .197 that is greater than the hypothesized value of 0.5. This result is expected due to the fact that the language condition provided for condition 0 does not lean in any particular direction and simply functions as a control to uncover participants' biases in an exposure condition.

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0.5					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
C0	1.293	239	.197	.0417	-.022	.105

Figure 2. One-sample sign test on the average use of majority order in Condition 0 to the input level

In other words, these results are partly not in line with the prediction that multilingual young learners in conditions 1, 2, and 3 will boost the use of the majority orders over the input level by 70% since learners in conditions 1 and 3 did not exhibit any boosting behavior, but learners in condition 2 did. It follows that only the multilingual young learners exposed in condition 2 satisfied this prediction. Whereas, as predicted that learners have a bias against the marked pattern, learners in condition 4 showed average level of majority order production which was below the 70% input level suggesting the absence of boosting behavior. Finally, as projected, learners in condition 0 did not exhibit boosting or anti-boosting behavior in either direction. Interestingly, these results support the existence of a learning bias in condition 2, but this same bias is working against conditions 1, 3, and 4.

4.3.2 Regularization and pattern choice

Figure 3 illustrates the graphical presentation of the average proportion of phrases using the post-nominal (≠English) and pre-nominal (=English) pattern across conditions, broken down by modifier-type (adjective and numeral). As shown in the graph, the use of majority order varies across the combination of condition and of modifier-type. It appears that multilingual child learners predominantly use the majority order for both modifier types when their input is harmonic, particulary the N-Adj and N-Num combinations. However, when the input is non-harmonic, they only match or exceed the input for adjectives and numerals. Thus, in order to further confirm this and to check which combinations of condition and modifier-type exhibit

preference on either post-nominal or pre-nominal over the other significantly, several t-tests were conducted as presented in Figure 4.

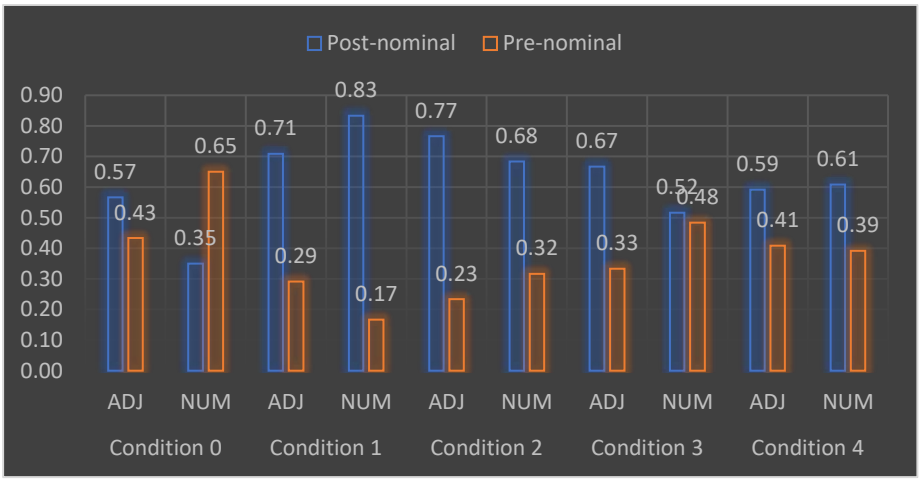


Figure 3. Average proportion of phrases using the post-nominal (≠English) and pre-nominal (=English) pattern across conditions, broken down by modifier-type

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 0.5					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
C0_Adj_Post	1.468	119	.145	.067	-.02	.16
C0_Adj_Pre	-1.468	119	.145	-.067	-.16	.02
C0_Num_Post	-3.431	119	.001	-.150	-.24	-.06
C0_Num_Pre	3.431	119	.001	.150	.06	.24
C1_Adj_Post	5.000	119	.000	.208	.13	.29
C1_Adj_Pre	-5.000	119	.000	-.208	-.29	-.13
C1_Num_Post	9.757	119	.000	.333	.27	.40
C1_Num_Pre	-9.757	119	.000	-.333	-.40	-.27
C2_Adj_Post	6.878	119	.000	.267	.19	.34
C2_Adj_Pre	-6.878	119	.000	-.267	-.34	-.19
C2_Num_Post	4.299	119	.000	.183	.10	.27
C2_Num_Pre	-4.299	119	.000	-.183	-.27	-.10
C3_Adj_Post	3.857	119	.000	.167	.08	.25
C3_Adj_Pre	-3.857	119	.000	-.167	-.25	-.08
C3_Num_Post	.364	119	.717	.017	-.07	.11
C3_Num_Pre	-.364	119	.717	-.017	-.11	.07
C4_Adj_Post	2.034	119	.044	.092	.00	.18
C4_Adj_Pre	-2.034	119	.044	-.092	-.18	.00
C4_Num_Post	2.421	119	.017	.108	.02	.20
C4_Num_Pre	-2.421	119	.017	-.108	-.20	-.02

Legend: C0_Adj_Post (Condition 0, Adjective, Post-nominal) C0_Adj_Pre (Condition 0, Adjective, Pre-nominal)

C0_Num_Post (Condition 0, Numeral, Post-nominal) C0_Num_Pre (Condition 0, Numeral, Pre-nominal)

C1_Adj_Post (Condition 1, Adjective, Post-nominal) C1_Adj_Pre (Condition 1, Adjective, Pre-nominal)

C1_Num_Post (Condition 1, Numeral, Post-nominal) C1_Num_Pre (Condition 1, Numeral, Pre-nominal)

C2_Adj_Post (Condition 2, Adjective, Post-nominal) C2_Adj_Pre (Condition 2, Adjective, Pre-nominal)

C2_Num_Post (Condition 2, Numeral, Post-nominal) C2_Num_Pre (Condition 2, Numeral, Pre-nominal)

C3_Adj_Post (Condition 3, Adjective, Post-nominal) C3_Adj_Pre (Condition 3, Adjective, Pre-nominal)

C3_Num_Post (Condition 3, Numeral, Post-nominal) C3_Num_Pre (Condition 3, Numeral, Pre-nominal)

C4_Adj_Post (Condition 4, Adjective, Post-nominal) C4_Adj_Pre (Condition 4, Adjective, Pre-nominal)

C4_Num_Post (Condition 4, Numeral, Post-nominal) C4_Num_Pre (Condition 4, Numeral, Pre-nominal)

Figure 4. One-sample sign test of the use of majority order across the combination of condition and of modifier-type

The test revealed that almost all the p-values generated were lower than hypothesized value *0.05*, except for Condition 0 with adjective phrases (C0_Adj) and Condition 3 with numeral phrases (C3_Num). In contrast, the results show that the p-values were lower than the hypothesized value *0.05* for Condition 0 with numeral phrases (C0_Num), Condition 1 with adjective phrases (C1_Adj), Condition 1 with numeral phrases (C1_Num), Condition 2 with adjective phrases (C2_Adj), Condition 2 with numeral phrases (C2_Num), Condition 3 with adjective phrases (C3_Adj), Condition 4 with adjective phrases (C4_Adj), and Condition 4 with numeral phrases (C4_Num). Hence, these findings indicate two important things: first, multilingual child learners in Condition 0 do not exhibit preference on either post-nominal or pre-nominal adjective phrases, in the same way that participants in Condition 3 do not indicate preference on either post-nominal or pre-nominal numeral phrases. Second, multilingual child learners under the condition and modifier-type of C0_Num, C1_Adj, C1_Num, C2_Adj, C2_Num, C3_Adj, C4_Adj, and C4_Num showed significant preference on either post-nominal or pre-nominal over the other.

To further examine which from post-nominal and pre-nominal are being preferred on these combinations of condition and modifier-type, the t-values of these plotted combinations were derived. The results indicate that among the significant combinations, the t-values of post-

nominal pattern (≠English) are positive in C1_Adj, C1_Num, C2_Adj, C2_Num, C3_Adj, C4_Adj, and C4_Num, while the t-value of pre-nominal pattern (=English) is only positive in C0_Num. These imply that multilingual child learners from: (i) Condition 1 (harmonic, =English), Condition 2 (harmonic, ≠English), Condition 3 (unmarked), and Condition 4 (marked) favor the use of the Noun + Adjective order (≠English), (ii) Condition 1 (harmonic, =English), Condition 2 (harmonic, ≠English), and Condition 4 (marked) prefer to employ the Noun + Numeral order (≠English), and (iii) Condition 0 (no trend) prefer to use the pre-nominal numeral phrases, the Numeral + Noun order (=English).

Moreover, there is no significant evidence to conclude that respondents from C0_Adj and C3_Num prefer to use either post-nominal or pre-nominal. It means that participants exposed in Condition 0 (no trend) do not show any bias or preference towards adjective phrases (Adj-N, N-Adj), while young learners under Condition 3 (unmarked) appears to randomly select either the Num-N or the N-Num patterns.

Therefore, the results presented as regards the comparison of performance within each of the pattern types support the findings that interaction between condition and modifier-type exists for Condition 1, Condition 3, and Condition 4. It also appears that among the two harmonic conditions (1 and 2), participants in Condition 1 showed preference over the harmonic non-English like patterns (noun+adjective and noun+numeral) more than the majority harmonic English-like input patterns. The fact that learners in Condition 1 chose the harmonic non-English like patterns similar to young learners in Condition 2 suggests that participants' behavior in harmonic conditions do not differ from one another. This finding is significant because it suggests that there is no general bias in favor of the English pattern. Likewise, it indicates that multilingual young learners' knowledge of English did not dictate the findings, rather a preference for post-nominal modifiers, a harmonic bias. The same observation can be deduced from the two non-harmonic conditions (3 and 4). For instance, in Condition 4, the adjective majority order is pre-nominal as in English, but young learners in this condition tend not to use this order, whereas the numeral majority order in the post-nominal pattern was highly preferred (61%). On the other hand, in Condition 3, the numeral majority order is pre-nominal and the findings indicate that children did not exhibit significant dispreference (52%) or preference (48%) over it. However, they were more likely to shift to use the post-nominal numeral ordering in this condition. Thus, it can be claimed that multilingual child learners are shifting away from non-harmonic and toward harmonic orders—with the direction they shift determined by the majority order of the post-nominal modifiers. It appears then that in order to make a non-harmonic input language become harmonic, multilingual children opted to

innovate or, perhaps more accurately, to generalize the ordering pattern from one phrase type to another. There are a number of possible mechanisms that may be responsible for this kind of generalization. First, Culbertson and Kirby (2016) and Culbertson and Newport (2015) suggested that learners are more likely to infer harmonic grammars compared to non-harmonic ones because the former are representationally simpler. The potential sources of such preference include the reduced computational cost of processing simpler hypotheses and the wider utility of more general knowledge. In other words, harmonic grammars require only a single rule governing the order of nouns and modifiers, while non-harmonic grammars require additional specific rules for each modifier type. This claim is also aligned with syntactic processing where symbolic theory of parsing as proposed by Hawkins (2004) can predict a parallel asymmetry, that is processing embedded phrases is less costly in grammars with harmonic orders.

Another related possibility is that, for very young learners, adjectives and numerals may not yet be distinct categories in the grammar. Likewise, the results also suggest a possibility of noun bias where faster lexical retrieval of nouns led to a general preference for noun-first order. For instance, several studies have framed the "noun bias" in terms of universals about what and how different words "partition" things in the world. Gentner (1982) even argued that children learn nouns before verbs because the meanings of nouns are easier to encode since they identify things that can be more easily differentiated in the world. While, the meanings of adjectives and numerals are less accessible to children through common, everyday experiences and thus, are more difficult to map onto word forms without additional linguistic or social support. In addition, verbs, predicates, and other content words may be more likely to vary in their precise meaning across languages. In support, Lucas and Bernardo's (2005) study even revealed the existence of noun bias in the Filipino-English bilingual children's English vocabulary.

Lastly, the findings also rule out the possibility of language transfer since in the case of English, Filipino, and Bikol-Catanduanes languages, pre-nominal numeral is being followed, that is Num-N pattern. However, the fact that participants in the four conditions rarely employed this pattern (less than 50% in all experimental conditions) indicates a bias working against this order. The same claim can be applied to the adjective harmonic pattern (Adj-N) that is common in the English language. The results show that even the learners trained in this pattern only produced this order 23% of the time, in the same way that learners in conditions 2 (71%), 3 (67%), and 4 (59%) showed strong preference for the N-Adj pattern. Moreover, taking into consideration the Tagalog and Bikol-Catanduanes languages, language transfer is most likely

not also possible. One reason for this is the fact that although it was established that Tagalog and Bikol-Catanduanes adjective-noun word order is traditionally described as freely variable, which means that both orders, pre-nominal adjective and post-nominal adjective are claimed to be possible and semantically interchangeable, the results pointed out that multilingual learners across conditions tend to prefer one order over the other, the post-nominal adjective order.

Conclusions

Based on the results of the study, the following conclusions are drawn: first, multilingual young learners exposed in non-random or probabilistic artificial language characterized by a particular pattern of dominant and of variable (Noun and Adjective) (Noun and Numeral) orders, acquire grammars which do not replicate faithfully, nor regularize, the input data. However, it was found that regularization bias favors grammars with less variation, the N-Adj, N-Num order in particular.

Second, additional biases were also at work. Harmonic bias led learners to prefer harmonic ordering patterns (in this case, those which preserve the initial position of the noun with respect to both modifier types); the other, substantial bias disfavored the particular harmonic, English-like pattern and the two non-harmonic patterns.

Third, the interaction between the regularization, harmonic, and substantive biases resulted in an asymmetrical pattern of learning outcomes across conditions. This means that multilingual learners in conditions 1, 3, and 4 inferred grammars that were shifted away from their input grammar, towards the harmonic pattern (N-Adj, N-Num), while learners in condition 2 remained faithful to the input pattern and was in fact strengthened by the regularization bias. Thus, the behavior of multilingual young learners in all conditions revealed a bias favoring harmonicity. The fact that these children most strongly prefer a harmonic pattern characteristic of languages of the world (N-Adj, N-Num), but not their native language (Num-N) for Tagalog and Bikol-Catanduanes or their second language English (Adj-N, Num-N), supports strongly the idea that linguistic experience or language transfer is not the primary driver of the biases displayed in the experiments.

Fourth, guided by the findings enumerated, two possible mechanisms underlying the harmonic bias are forwarded: one more clearly linguistic in nature and the other cognitive. Learning biases can then be intertwined with these two concepts, both cognition-general and specific to language. It only means that these biases may change in strength and content across

development, underscoring the range of factors that may together shape the structure of language.

Finally, it can be claimed that artificial language learning experiments like including young learners can be successfully utilized to test hypotheses from generative linguistics and to provide empirical evidences on the properties of the human cognitive and linguistic systems. The present experiment results suggest that many other language universals may possibly establish cognitive reality when investigated in similar ways. Hence, these results show that relevant empirical evidence can be found in research on language acquisition, and support the idea that probabilistic experiments postulated in both linguistic and cognitive concepts can accommodate many of these views.

Pedagogical Implications

The experimental results of this study provide strong evidence for the cognitive reality of a bias favoring harmonic word orders. Multilingual young learners displayed a bias favoring harmonic word-order pattern 2 (N-Adj & N-Num) over both non-harmonic orders 3 (N-Adj & Num – N) and 4 (Adj-N & N-Num), even though pattern 2 had both non-English orders while 3 and 4 each had only one. As such, within the view of syntax learning, preference for harmonic languages is plausibly the reflex preference for simplicity (or generality) with scope spanning all learning in higher cognition. As already mentioned, potential possible sources of such leaning can be attributed to the reduced computational cost of processing simpler hypotheses. To be specific, harmonic grammars require only a single rule governing the order of nouns and modifiers, while nonharmonic grammars require additional specific rules for each modifier type. As such, it is imperative that language educators should work on improving the learners' language proficiency levels. Tonio (2019) even asserted that learners' high language proficiency level can be attributed to effective use of different listening strategies like the use of context, collocations and wider vocabulary.

Thus, language learning, particularly of nominal word order in natural and instructional settings should not be viewed primarily in a singular perspective only, since for very young learners, adjectives and numerals may not yet be distinct categories in the grammar and it is a related possibility that young learners tend to generalize a single word order rule across lexical items rather than across categories. Taken together these assumptions, it is imperative for language educators, especially language teachers to expose and to train young learners on a consistently nonharmonic patterns of nominal word order. Likewise, strengthening knowledge of adjective and numeral syntax must then be accentuated to somehow weaken the learning

bias that produces anti-boosting behavior towards nonharmonic patterns as results of this study strongly suggest that grammar learning is crucially influenced by substantive constraints on linguistic patterns. Explicit instruction through language drills, games and repetition of the different nominal word orders, both harmonic and nonharmonic patterns can then be employed by language teachers in teaching young learners. Tonio and Ella (2019) even posited that understanding language learning and concept learning will enable teachers to construct feasible and effective learning goals for language learning and for concept learning of the learners.

Furthermore, Hudson Kam and Newport (2009) suggest that the regularization bias is the result of domain general memory constraints which impede lexical access or prevent the laying down of memory traces, especially in children. The constraints in memory thus provide a possible explanation as to why children exhibit higher level of regularization than adults. In line with this, inclusion of language learning activities, along with teacher modelling, may potentially increase memory capacity of the children which can then be a significant variable in the language teaching and learning experience of the learners. Hence, by constantly exposing children to specific language input or syntactic forms, young learners may perhaps overcome their relative difficulty in retrieving specific forms which are less frequently or less consistently used, and as a result may restrict their overuse more frequent (or more probable) forms.

Finally, since the results reported in this study suggest the extent of and the constraints in learning nominal word order, distinctions among patterns in terms of learnability or use ability can then be integrated into linguistic theories in language acquisition, and provide additional insights to cognitive science in general. Also, further investigation as regards the content and the scope of learning biases, and whether they might be amplified or altered by social or communicative context can then make progress in addressing important issues for both generative linguistics and language acquisition.

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An Investigation of EFL Teaching Practices in Indonesian Rural Schools

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Abstract

Many studies have reported on EFL teaching practices in Indonesia. However, none has elucidated the teaching practices looking from several different aspects. This study aims to generally investigate EFL teaching practices in four Indonesian rural schools in different parts of East Nusa Tenggara Province, looking from the contexts of physical, cultural, and socio-economic aspects. It has particularly explored the real problems encountered by both teachers and students in relation to several common challenges in the teaching and learning process which can potentially affect the teaching and learning quality. Observations and interviews have been used to collect the data to be analyzed qualitatively. The results have indicated that both teachers and students have common classroom problems that can hinder the teaching and learning process effectiveness. Teachers' teaching quality, attitudes and beliefs, lack of references, cultural adaptation, etc. have been identified as problematic issues in teaching. Other findings have revealed that there are various factors affecting students' performance in learning English, such as their attitudes and beliefs toward schools, teachers, and Englis h as a school subject, their motivation, family condition, teachers' way of teaching, and so on. These findings are expected to be used as a good reference for all the involved parties to seriously

consider reviewing and finding solutions over these problems, otherwise the worst case scenario would take place that the poor quality would stay poor, if not worse.

Keywords: *English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Teaching Practices, Rural Schools*

Introduction

The status of English as the most popular language used in both oral and written forms throughout the world is commonly known. This makes everyone tends to think that it is the most important language in the world that has to be learnt and mastered. This language can be learnt through formal (schools and higher educational institutions) and/or informal (English courses, English clubs, and other learning methods outside schools) ways.

In Indonesia, children start learning English since they are in Kindergarten School, some of them even start in younger ages. Unfortunately, not all children in Indonesia, particularly, East Nusa Tenggara Province can experience this great opportunity, but only those who live in urban areas. Children in rural areas start being introduced to English when they are in the first grade of Junior High Schools. However, the learning condition is different from it is in urban schools, and this of course will lead to the difference in learning output.

Generally, all schools in rural areas are in a similar position, both geographically and/or teaching-learning situation. They also have similar complexities and problems that become challenges in educational improvement. Looking at geographical condition, almost all rural schools are characterized by geographic isolation which makes them difficult to access. Physical distance of students to school has also become a general problem of education in rural areas. In teaching-learning situation, problems come from both EFL teachers and students.

Most EFL teachers in Indonesia are reluctant to teach in rural schools due to several challenges that they may encounter looking from the contexts of physical, socio-economy, and cultural. Students' problems more or less relate to the issues of poverty, inequity, and isolation. These challenges will eventually become barriers and can influence teachers' teaching practices and students' learning quality, and this influence will of course potentially affect the EFL teaching and learning quality in general.

The phenomena mentioned earlier have triggered many researchers and experts as well as authors to look deeper into the issues of educational barriers in rural schools and as a result, many writings have been produced dealing with such issues. This article is also the result of a study about rural school. However, it won't only describe rural schools' problems but also explore further what the teaching practice in Indonesian EFL classrooms is like by describing

the real problems encountered by both teachers and students in the teaching and learning process. Additionally, the strategies or efforts made by these rural school teachers are provided in order to know how they cope with their problems.

Literature Review

It's undeniable that the teaching conditions in rural schools are different from the ones which are located in urban areas and this has been studied by Çakıroğlu & Çakıroğlu (2003) and Lingam (2012). In their studies, they don't only compare school conditions but they also compare the conditions of communities that can make a great difference in the teaching practice of the schools in these two areas. These differences somehow make some teachers have negative attitudes toward their work and this can have the powerful effect on many things, including, their performance in teaching practices (Flores & Day, 2006; Goodnough, 2009; Gross, 2008).

Beside those differences, Hossain (2016:2) tries to cluster the problematic factors that can affect both teachers' and students' academic performances and divide them into five groups, they are; factors relate to parents' support (*family factors*), the ones relate to socio-economic issues (*financial factor*), the issues of limited facilities and resources (*logistic support*), factors of human resources (*less-qualified teachers)*, and references (*adequate books*), in which another researcher puts them under the categories of *internal* and *external factors* (Hansen, 2000:3).

The factors of family and financial belong to the external factors and the other three factors (logistic support, less-qualified teachers, and adequate books) are included in internal factors. However, these five factors can somehow be included in the aspects of physical, cultural, and socio-economic that according to several experts can also discourage teachers to teach in rural schools (Miller, 1988; Preston, 2006). All these factors contribute to both teachers' and students' academic success.

Different experts have come up with different point of view about which factor plays important and/or dominant role in students' success. Karemera (2003) states that supporting environment and facilities can make students perform well, while Robert & Sampson (2011) and Jafar & Rahman (2019) say that teachers' Continued Professional Development is essential in providing good teaching practice to facilitate students in learning. It doesn't really matter what the most influential factor is in determining both teachers' and students' performances, but the most important point is, there must be a better improvement in EFL teaching and learning practice in rural schools through whatever way implemented. This is an urgent issue in order

to develop rural areas in general, as it has been argued by Rajasekaran & Anburaj (2015) that the most commonly used language, in this case, English, has to be learnt to facilitate the transfer of technology from urban to rural areas.

Teaching EFL is not an easy work, especially, in rural schools which have lack of facilities and learning resources. There should be much exposure to target language (ie. English) in order to create a favorable classroom atmosphere and this kind of exposure cannot be easily found in rural schools (Gomathi, 2014). Relating to such issue, efforts have so far been made to implement new and better teaching methods to improve EFL teaching and learning quality in rural schools. However, there is a big challenge in implementing various teaching methods for ideal results caused by problematic factors mentioned earlier (Choudhury, 2010), but the major influential factor relates to this particular case is the readiness of teachers. Teachers themselves find it hard to adjust to the changing of curriculum because of their lack of skills (Huang, 2011).

The previously mentioned factors will become the basic theory to discuss based on the findings of this study in order to answer the questions. This is in line with the main aims of this study, they are, to report on an investigation of EFL teaching practices in four Indonesian rural schools in different parts of East Nusa Tenggara Province, considering physical, cultural, and socio-economic contexts, and to explore the real problems encountered by both teachers and students in relation to several common challenges in the teaching and learning process which can potentially affect the teaching and learning quality.

Methods

Subject

The study has been conducted in East Nusa Tenggara Province in Indonesia, and there have been 40 students and 8 teachers of four different schools in four different rural areas participating in it.

Data Collection

Observations and interviews during the actual teaching practices have been used to collect data. There have been several questions asked to both teachers and students to gain information about their common classroom problems that can hinder the effectiveness of teaching and learning process. Direct classroom observations have also been carried out to strengthen the results of interviews.

Results and Discussion

Based on the findings, it is noted that in general these two phenomena occur in most rural schools. First, there is an indication that both teachers and students have common classroom problems that can hinder the effectiveness of the teaching and learning process. Second, it seems to be a commonly-reported experience that some teachers almost never come to school, and there are some who still use very old or non-contextual teaching materials.

These two problematic phenomena have then been elaborated into a deeper discussion based on the classification of each and every aspect of both teachers' and students' problems, as follows:

Both teachers' and students' problems have been divided into three aspects, they are, *physical, socio-economic, and cultural aspects*. The *physical constraints* deal with the limitation or restriction about physical or material aspects. The *socio-economic constraints* deal with the limitation or restriction on social or economic aspects, especially, the ones relate to time, money and resources. The *cultural constraints* deal with the limitation or restriction involving culture or cultural aspects. These three aspects are the collaboration Hossain's five (2016:2) and Hansen's two factors (2000:3) previously mentioned in the section of literature review.

Physical Constraints

It has been revealed through the study that teachers have not been distributed equally and fairly among schools in urban and rural areas. A shortage of good qualified teachers has major implications on the distribution of teaching staffs, in which most teacher candidates with good achievement are distributed to urban top schools. This kind of inequality may lead to the achievement gap between students in urban and the ones in rural areas.

The poor teaching quality of rural teachers might be caused by lack of in-service training. They don't have the same opportunity as their urban colleagues. The effect of having limited in-service training provided is having lack of professional teachers (in terms of having the knowledge and the skills to be contributed to students in such effective ways) and this of course contributes to their teaching quality. This finding has been in line with what has been found in the previous studies by Febriana, et al. (2018) and Ikhsanudin (2021) that teacher professional development is essentially needed by rural teachers to improve their teaching quality.

Lack of references, tools and infrastructure as well as educational equipment is another physical constraint teachers have to encounter. This kind of constraints exists because there lies another external constraint, namely, an environment characterised by poverty. Referring

to what has been stated by Karemera (2003) and Sampson (2011) about how supporting environment, facilities and teachers' Continued Professional Development contribute to teachers' performance and in teaching practice, it can be claimed that this study has also revealed similar issues.

Actually, there is a bigger frame as the basic of all these constraints that is the weakness of educational management in almost all rural schools. If school management is not strong and well-organized then everything else relates to school system can't be effectively run. This poor management system allows teachers to be absent from class for days with the reason that they have to do another job to get extra money (in other words, their salary as teachers are not good enough for living).

Students' physical problems that have been identified through his study is the home-school distances. Most students live far from school and they have to walk to school every day, either in dry or rainy season without having breakfast. They are tired and hungry when they arrive at schools. Their condition impacts classroom performance as they are not physically ready for the lessons.

Teachers' Socio-Economic Constraints

The socio-economic constraints are more or less related to physical ones. There are several things have been identified through the study, such as family condition, limited parental budgets for providing children with resources (textbooks and dictionaries) or even breakfast before school and lack of school budgets for more teaching materials and enough books as discussed in the previous section.

The major socio-economic problem relates to the differences of socio-economic level between those who live and work in urban areas and the ones who live and work in rural areas which can create reluctance for teachers, especially for those who come from outside to teach in rural schools. Looking at this condition, most local teachers feel like they have been persistently neglected by the government and this is one of the reasons why not only teachers from outside but also the locals feel demotivated in doing their job (and the reason why several teachers have to find additional job and absent from class).

Teachers' Cultural Constraints

Not all rural school teachers are locals. Many of them are from outside who have been sent by the government to these rural schools and in this case, they have to face the issues of cultural constraints. This type of constraints isn't experienced by the local ones who have been living

in the community even since they were born. Cultural adaptation has to be made by these particular teachers in order to be able to deal with these constraints. One constraint comes from the society in the place where they teach who has been living with their attitudes and beliefs in such ways that it is difficult for non-local teachers who they consider new comers to change although it is for good and/or better results.

Their attitudes and beliefs about schools, in general, and learning English as a Foreign Language at schools, in particular, sometimes become a serious impediment to students' achievement. Parents see English as a language that doesn't belong to their culture and tradition and this thought also gives bad influence to their children and creates negative attitudes and less participation during the teaching and learning process. Students don't feel like attending class and doing homework are "a must" because there is no obligation and encouragement from parents at home. However, attending and participating in traditional ceremonies is "a must" for them.

Another problematic issue is, there is a communication breakdown between teachers, especially non-local ones and students. Most teachers who come from outside can neither speak nor understand the local languages and students mostly use their local languages in their daily communication. This makes the teaching and learning process_which has already been bad_worse. Several teachers have good intention to find innovative ways to bridge this communication gap by facilitating the teaching and learning process with games, pictures, realia, etc. However, not all good intentions are easily accepted by rural community (i.e parents) who have strong principal and beliefs. They prefer to hold on tightly to the conventional ways of teaching that have been practiced for years than to use new methods introduced by teachers. The rejection of the locals towards new features from outsiders is the biggest cultural constraint found. These non-local teachers have eventually been able to adapt with this problematic situation and culturally align to their students after living among the society for some time and some of them end up by letting go their idealism to change the teaching condition and prefer to still use existing one.

Teachers' positive strategies

Despite all constraints from all aspects discussed above, several teachers still have spirit and motivation to make effort to improve the EFL teaching learning quality. They know exactly that their students come to schools with almost no motivation so they try hard to motivate their students to like English subject before encouraging them to learn. Motivation is given through many ways; sharing inspirational experience about those who can achieve great success

because they speak English well, discussing with them about not only the importance but also the advantages of being able to speak English, giving positive feedback by encouraging them to keep on trying even if they make mistakes, giving reward and compliment for those who can do well in class, etc.

Although it seems like parents cannot really accept new methods and/or strategies to be used in teaching, teachers still want to find interesting teaching materials, methods, and/or strategies to be implemented in the classroom, one of them is by using games and songs. Some parents don't agree with the use of games and pictures during the lesson because according to them learning must take place in a serious and quiet condition. When students are singing and dealing with games (for example, word games) then they argue that it is not learning. The debating is still going on but teachers have been trying their best to make their students enjoy their English class.

Some teachers even provide extra time to teach their students after the school hours. The response is not really good yet, because many parents still don't allow their children to attend class after school hours. They prefer their children to help them at home or in the field when they go back from school. Teachers say that they don't really mind having only few students in their extra time class since all they want is to start building up their students' enjoyment in learning this subject. Another effort made by teachers relate to this problem is to visit their students and their parents at home to convince them that the extra hour lesson is beneficial and advantageous for students. This approaching process is still going on until now.

The final effort made by these rural teachers is by doing self-reflection in order to know their strengths and weaknesses in teaching. Joining activities relating to Continued Professional Development is the answer if they think their teaching performance is still poor. Some of them participate in workshops and/or seminars, some others have even enrolled themselves to do Master Degree in order to gain more knowledge and qualification. All these strategies have been done with the hope that they can improve their students' English learning achievement through the better improvement of their teaching performance.

Conclusions

In conclusion, it can be stated that there are several problematic issues in teaching EFL in Indonesian rural schools which can create negative atmosphere. This condition creates impediments not only to the teaching-learning process but also to the intellectual, emotional and social development of both teachers and students.

The complexity of such problems eventually results in low-grade educational quality, which leads to the crisis of quality of many schools in rural areas. Physical, socio-economic and cultural constraints affect the teaching-learning process in rural schools.

In short, it's agreeable that the conditions of all schools in rural areas are similar; however, they are different in how teachers and students respond to those kinds of constraints. If they choose to ignore the constraints then they do nothing and remain in a disadvantaged teaching-learning situation. On the other hand, if they choose to challenge the constraints and find ways to improve themselves they will achieve more, even though they are in disadvantaged schools.

Pedagogical Implication

Revealing the constraints encountered by EFL teachers in rural areas as well as their strategies in coping with those constraints, this study should be used as a useful source of reference for both teachers and students in conducting teaching and learning practices in rural schools. Problematic issues related to physical and socio-economic as well as cultural constraints still exist during the teaching and learning process, yet teachers have to be able to survive in improving and maintaining their teaching quality by applying the positive strategies shared by their peers in this writing. This will eventually lead to the improvement of their students' learning quality.

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