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Foreword

We welcome the readers to volume 28 1.2 of the journal which brings forth very diverse language research work from different parts of the world. As usual, the diversity of the experiences shared here is what makes the issue a unique addition to the international database but our endeavour to compile them in one issue is just one of many more such exercises. The reseach covers wide depth and time in this edition. Likewise, a look back to a method of the 1980s-90s known then as neuro linguistic programming receives fresh insight and interpretation that will give rise to some interesting comments as we look at a method with modern day knowledge.

Dr. Nada Alkhatib's research article *"Examining the Learning and Comprehension of English Tense Categories by Yemeni EFL Students"*, uses a mixed-methods research design to investigate the degree of development in first year students' writing and analyses students' writing assignments to identify the most common recurring writing errors and features of writing that developed from the beginning to the end of their English program at Imam Abdulrahman bin Faisal University. Her study argues that understanding students' common errors and the causes of these errors will enable curriculum designers to improve the quality of the writing course by including more activities that are cantered on common recurring mistakes and errors made by students. Language instructors can also benefit from the results by planning suitable materials to develop students' writing skills.

In the next paper Drs. Khulod Aljehani & Senetta F. Bancroft present a wonderful and unique insight into how a Saudi women educator struggled to establish an identity as an English learner (EL) and as an English teacher. The purpose of the paper is to use narrative to holistically describe and explain how the author renegotiated her identities as both an English language learner and instructor of English across time and in multiple academic contexts to achieve a sense of legitimacy. A secondary purpose of the paper is to describe her story through her eyes as a Muslim non-native English speakers (NNESs) woman wearing a Hijab in public places

and the struggle to gain legitimacy in the US. This paper is a must read by not only by all educators in the profession but also by students entering the field of English teaching, and how the career path job will impact upon one's life.

In the third article by authors Athip Thumvichit and Ailada Kattiyavara, the authors set out to investigate to what extent topics of self-expression tasks (SETs) (in eight secondary school English as a foreign language (EFL) textbook used in Thailand) are authentic and to explore teachers' intervention strategies to facilitate self-expression. The results unveiled the gap between the topics of textbook SETs and those that teachers perceived to be relevant and attractive to learners. The authors note that it is important that teachers provide their students with opportunities to express themselves in a wide range of topics that are related to their needs and desires and that textbooks should be used selectively. Teachers should not rely solely on exercises and tasks in textbooks, and the use of alternative learning resources should be considered to supplement the textbook.

In the fourth research paper, Michael Harrison's paper gives us, "An Investigation of the Factors that Determine Student Satisfaction with EFL Online Classes," The onset of the pandemic provided the opportune time to research students' satisfaction with the resultant change to online teaching. It was clear that the most important factor perceived by students in S. Korea came down to how the quality of the teacher was perceived by students. Teaching in front of a class is clearly different to performing online, and thus the teacher has greater pressure applied on them whilst online. Whilst the end of the pandemic is bringing in discussions of the 'new normal,' just how that will play out in the field of education may well require greater in-depth research, however the experience that will have been gained from classroom-based education as compared to the format bought abut by the COVID-19 pandemic will give teachers and researchers more data to consider as we prepare for the new normal.

In the fifth research paper by authors Maulina, David Geelan, Muhammad Basri, Nurdin Noni from Indonesia, entitled *"Constructing WhatsApp-based Speaking Instructional Material (WABSIM) for EFL Teaching and Learning: A Need Analysis",* the study revealed that students wanted to learn the basic speaking materials (integrated with mobile technology) via WhatsApp to make their learning fast, enjoyable, more communicative, more collaborative and to help them learn anytime anywhere, both in and outside the classroom and to be more independent in their studies. As we prepare for a new future in SLA, the research shows that

students' preferences and learning goals can be integrated on mobile media using WhatsApp to facilitate communication, collaboration and interaction in ways that have the potential to accelerate English language learning on the part of university students.

Furthering on from this research, Hosam Eldeen Ahmed Elsawy experimentally investigated the effect of using MALL via WhatsApp application on EFL students' listening and speaking skills. Students' perceptions of this learning experience are also investigated from a Saudi Arabian perspective. Adding to the previous reseach paper, the research showed that the most frequently perceived benefits of MALL are the increased exposure to listening, improved speaking ability especially fluency, enhanced self-confidence during speaking, and improved pronunciation of difficult words.

The seventh research paper is entitled "*The Effect of Content-Based Instruction on the Development of Speech Comprehensibility of Tertiary EFL Learners in Japan*" authored by Shuhei Kudo from Japan. The study investigated the effect of one-year content-based instruction (CBI) in a Japanese university on Japanese EFL learners' speech comprehensibility development. It examined the pedagogical impacts of one-year-long CBI implementation on tertiary EFL learners' comprehensible speech development. Results found that the experimental group significantly improved their L2 speech comprehensibility, whereas the control group did not achieve any significant improvement. The findings supported the expected effects of CBI on learners' L2 speech development; in short, CBI with a large amount of comprehensible input and many chances of purposeful L2 use in a meaningful context to learn specific content can promote L2 speech development of EFL learners who received limited exposure to the language.

The eighth paper follows on the from the previous two, entitled *"Text Chat as a Mediating Tool in Providing Teachers' Corrective Feedback in ESL Context: Social and Cultural Challenges",* co-authored by W A Piyumi Udeshinee, Ola Knutsson, Sirkku Männikkö Barbutiu and Chitra Jayathilake. The authors note corrective feedback (CMCF), especially through tools such as text chat, has gained increasing attention from researchers, yet text chat has rarely been a mediating tool to provide teachers. Importantly, this research does not suggest that text chat could replace the ESL classroom pedagogy, but it could act as a mediating pedagogical tool to provide CF to learners in the ESL classroom. Options for future reseach are suggested.

Faiza Zeb and Dr. Ansa Hameed also revisit a hypothesis and method from the 1980s in their paper "*An Implication of Milton Model of NLP for ESL Learners*". Whilst NLP was criticised in the 1980s, 1990s, the authors bring afresh view based on 30 years advancement in the SLA profession. Previous studies failed to investigate the language patterns which the whole NLP seems to develop its concepts upon. Their study has aimed at the exploration and explanation of language patterns proposed by Milton Erickson to discover their potential in ELT. The study presents various examples of language patterns which can be employed by language teachers for effective pedagogy. Also, it reinforces the idea that the NLP principles are analogous to the principles of humanistic philosophy in the English language teaching practices.

The penultimate article is by Taufiq Effendi, a lecturer with vision impairment at the English Department, Gunadarma University, Indonesia. The study proposes a policy recommendation to improve the quality of EFL classroom management implementation in Indonesia generally. However, the implications have global applicability. Importantly, it is the authors hope that this study will inspire more research methodology for individuals with disabilities. The paper looks at what areas of EFL classroom management are successful and what areas are still lacking, and what possible recommendation to offer for a better implementation in the future.

The final article is by Tsereyl N. Verdida & Lesley Karen B. Penera entitled "*Pre-Service Teachers' Language Preference in MTB-MLE Classrooms of Northern Cebu, Philippines: A Pre-Deployment Training Module*". Their research is underpinned by the work of the eminent academicians' theories, namely, Krashen's Input and Affective Filter Hypotheses, Auer's Code-Switching, Giles' Accommodation and Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Learning theories. Pre-Service teachers find their mother-tongue based teaching preference advantageous as it boosts confidence in classroom instruction; facilitate learner comprehension and encourage their participation.

Thank you for reading and refencing the papers in this edition.

First Year University Students' Writing: A One Year Journey of English Writing Development

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Abstract

Research studies on the development of students' writing throughout two-semester program of study are extremely rare. Using a mixed-methods research design, this study attempts to investigate the degree of development in first year (FY) students' writing. It analyzes the submitted students' writing assignments to identify the most common recurring writing errors and features of writing that developed from the beginning to the end of their English program at Imam Abdulrahman bin Faisal University (IAU). The writing portfolios of 126 FY students from three different tracks; Health, Science and Engineering were analyzed in this study. In particular, five samples of writing were taken from 42 beginner, 42 intermediate and 42 advanced students across all three tracks. The findings show that, despite spending one year in the English writing course, students in all levels still have major errors in content (i.e. development of ideas). Also, the grammatical issue of subject-verb agreement was found in abundance among all levels. However, the majority of students were successful in improving their writing punctuation. The study argues that understanding students' common errors and the causes of these errors will often enable curriculum designers to improve the quality of the

writing course by including more activities that are centered on common recurring mistakes and errors made by students. Language instructors can also benefit from the results by planning suitable materials to develop students' writing skills.

Keywords: *Writing, First year students, Errors, Development, English Program*

Introduction

Research on second language (L2) writing suggests that poor writing in first year (FY) of university is an international issue. Aull (2015: 1) adds that "the cry that new college students can't write is old and persistent" and that these students are "caught in the 'gap' between secondary and post-secondary contexts". That is, students particularly in their first year of study at the university normally encounter different kinds of challenges during the writing process including expressing and developing new ideas, using correct word order, spelling, tenses, vocabulary and punctuation, organizing paragraphs and structuring sentences (Evans and Green, 2007; Llosa, et al., 2011; Kim, 2011). However, to date there has been little L2 writing research on "distinguishing recurring and grave errors from random and trivial ones" (Xie, 2019: 48). The present study attempts to identify what are the types of writing errors that recurred over two semesters in a Saudi university which used English as a medium of instruction (EMI), and to investigate to what extent FY students' writing develops at the end of the FY program,.

Currently, students in the first year in the two-semester English language program at Immam Abdulrahman bin Faisal University (IAU) use two major textbooks to develop writing skills: Q-Skills (Oxford University Press) and an in-house EAP textbook created by faculty on staff. Students across multiple tracks including the health, engineering and sciences tracks use these books as a way to enhance their academic writing skills. During the two semesters, students are asked to complete a number of different essay structures including: opinion, persuasive, cause and effect, problem and solution, argumentative and description essays. Students across the tracks are expected to complete each one of these forms of essays in the hope that over the two semesters, their academic writing skills will develop to the point where in later years, they will independently be able to work toward a technical report or a research paper. One of the main purposes of the present study is to investigate what aspects of writing, if any, develop as

a result of learning academic writing in the two-semester English language program in IAU as an EMI university.

Literature Review

Writing is a very complex productive skill which requires cognitive processes and thinking in which it goes through different stages e.g. pre-writing, reading, synthesizing information from different sources writing, and post writing (Storch, 2009). Valuable and successful writing very much requires many overlapping aspects such as punctuation, spelling, tense, organization, clarity, coherence and cohesion, capitalization, content, etc. Research studies on the errors in FY writing indicate that many students often make errors and mistakes in these aspects of writing over one semester of study (Xie, 2019; Evans and Green, 2007; Llosa, et al., 2011; Kim, 2011; Storch, 2009). For example, Storch (2009: 115) concludes that "a one-semester immersion experience did not lead to improved language use in terms of greater grammatical accuracy and complexity or a greater range of academic vocabulary".

Corder (1967) was the first one who introduced the concept of errors by language learners in their initial stages of writing. In linguistics, it is, no doubt, important to establish the difference between mistakes and errors. Where mistakes occur when a learner fails to utilize a known system correctly, errors result in a learner's lack of language knowledge. For example, a learner focusing on fluency might say, '*she go to the bank*', instead of '*she went to the bank*' but be aware of simple subject verb agreement such as this. In such a case, this would be a mistake. However, a learner might say '*everyone know it*' - unaware that everyone in this case is normally treated as a plural form. In this case, it would be an error. Xie (2019) argues that while errors cannot be resolved by students without help, mistakes can be addressed by students themselves. Students are likely to make both mistakes and errors in their writing and, it is the aim of teachers to raise student awareness of both problems in writing and to highlight these areas for study and development. In addition to common mistakes and errors in language form, students are often challenged by particular aspects of content and organization. These areas too need to be analysed. The most comprehensive framework in analyzing the cohesive errors in the students' writing is the model of Halliday and Hassan's (1976) that identified five types of cohesion: ellipses, reference, substitution, conjunction, and lexical choices. To write more cohesively the students' need cognitive competence and higher linguistic skills that may help them to write comprehensible texts that communicate certain ideas and information to others.

A number of studies have investigated common errors and mistakes made by FY university students in Saudi Arabia. For example, Barzanji (2016) investigated common mistakes made by students completing a cause and effect essay and a persuasive essay. The findings of the study indicate that the top five common mistakes were: missing and unnecessary words, spelling, wrong word choice, articles and wrong noun forms. Javid et al. (2013) found that prepositions, spelling, irregular verbs, articles, punctuation, suffixes and prefixes were the most common mistakes and errors among tertiary level students. Nazim and Ahmad (2012) found that the common mistakes and errors were conventions, punctuation, capitalization, spelling and language use.

Based on findings of these studies, FY students make trivial errors in writing assignments or other kinds of portfolios. At the sentence and paragraph level, the majority of syntactic errors committed by students are fragmentation, spelling, verb tense, subject-verb agreement, conjunction, and gerund. Taken together, these results show that students suffer from similar problems, yet very important questions that have not been answered by the results of the previous studies are whether these writing problems diminish over time and to extent students' individual writing develops over time. It can be argued that research studies, particularly in Saudi Arabia, on the development of students' writing throughout two-semester program of study are extremely rare. As clearly observed by Storch (2009:116), "more research is needed to document the nature of L2 development over time". For the purpose of the present study, Polio's (2017: 261) definition of writing development is used: "change over time in any of the following areas related to written text production: language (e.g., complexity, accuracy, fluency, cohesion, mechanics); knowledge of different genres; text production processes; metacognitive knowledge and strategy use; and writing goals and motivation". This, of course, does not mean that this definition is comprehensive but it is important to note that any changes in writing skills as a result of a writing program over time depend on different factors, particularly the context and the purpose of the writing program. According to Ferris and Hedgcock (2005), the development of L2 writing skills rely on a number of interrelated factors such as language proficiency and exposure to specific genres of writing. Based on this premise, the writing portfolios (WP) analyzed in the present study are collected from three proficiency levels (Beginner, Intermediate and Advance) across three tracks (Health, Science and Engineering). The purpose is to compare the degree of writing development among these levels.

Crossley et al. (2011: 288) argue that "research demonstrates that development generally occurs first at the word level, then at levels of cohesion, and finally at the syntactic level". Storch (2009) investigated developmental changes in students' English writing after one semester of study in an EMI university. She found that students' writing developed after one semester of study at the university mainly in terms of formality, development of ideas and structure. Likewise, Shaw and Liu (1998) conducted an experimental study to identify any significant changes in students' writing after a three-month course. Their findings indicated that students' writing became more formal although no significant linguistic changes were observed. Yoon (2018) explored how L2 students attending intensive English course develop their writing proficiency over one semester. The findings of Yoon's study indicated that while the characteristics of content, organization, and vocabulary developed significantly over time, those of language use and mechanics did not.

The findings of these studies are clearly interesting but somewhat inconsistent. Also, much of the research discussed so far has investigated students' writing development over a short period of time (i.e. one semester or 3 months). Therefore, it appears to be important to present further evidence of the impact of a long period of writing practice on writing development. Moreover, to date, a few studies have covered the relationship between analysing errors and writing development in their analyses of students' writing. According to James (1998), analysing errors is very important because it informs us how learning proceeds. No previous research has explicitly explored this developmental process relationship in FY students' writing. However, there should also be a parallel focus on the product. The implication is that very little research has combined the process and product when exploring students' writing development. The aim of this study is twofold: (a) to identify to what extent FY students enrolled in a writing course develop their writing skills over two semesters and (b) to identify the types of writing errors that recurred over two semesters. This study will help us better understand the process and product of English writing development and provide appropriate ways to facilitate the instruction and assessment of the writing skills in FY contexts.

Methodology

The study aims at answering the following questions:

1. What commonly occurring writing errors and mistakes do students make during two semesters?

2. In what ways are students developing from task to task as a result of the writing course?

Participants

In order to answer above questions, five samples of students' writing were taken from 126 beginner, intermediate and advanced students in each of the following tracks: Health, Science and Engineering. The names of students have been replaced with codes according to track, level and gender. Although the data were collected different tracks, gender and levels, it is difficult to claim that that advanced Health track students have higher writing proficiency than those of the Science and Engineering tracks. Also, because there were 126 participants, I opted to separate the participants by gender and level not by tracks. Sixty-three male and 63 female students participated. Generally, the participants could be described as non-native English-speaking students and their ages ranged from 18 to 20. They were all Saudi and were Arabic native speakers.

Data Collection and Analysis

In total, there was a total of 630 writing samples. Writing samples were collected on the e-learning platform, *Blackboard*, where students were expected to upload assignments at the end of each unit. The students may have given teachers a first draft on paper and may have also had feedback given. Therefore, the samples taken from blackboard were final drafts.

The writing assignments were analysed and evaluated using the composition analytic scale proposed by Jacobs et al. (1981) that consists of the five subscales of content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. As a method of analysis, two different Excel spreadsheets were prepared. The first spreadsheet included a list of errors under major categories. The first category was Content and included: clarity, unity, coherence, development of ideas. The second category was Organization and included: incorrect essay genre, lack of an introduction, lack of a body paragraph, lack of a conclusion, lack of a topic sentence, lack of supporting sentences, lack of a concluding sentence and a lack in the development of ideas. The third category, Language Form, included: tenses, articles, pronouns, plurals, subject verb agreement (SVA), fragments, run on sentences and parallel sentence structure. The final category, Mechanics, included: spelling, punctuation and capitalization. Each case of the above

problems in each sample of writing were counted. The total number of errors for each type of error was calculated across each track and across the FY as a whole.

The second spreadsheet used for analysis, aimed at establishing (qualitatively) if there was any improvement in the case of each student across their five writing samples. In order to measure this, the researcher analysed each writing sample for the following qualities: content, language form, organization and mechanics. Within each category, the analysis focused on major areas of weaknesses, major areas of strengths and progress in comparison with the student's previous writing samples. Data was analysed qualitatively for common areas of strengths and weakness and common areas in which the students had developed over the course of the five assignments. For validity and reliability purposes, an independent expert rater was asked to apply the list of codes on the related data. The level of agreement between the researcher and the rater was high (85%).

Findings

When analysing the writing of the students, three categories of errors were looked at – content, organisation and language form. The results of each proficiency group were then collated and presented in a table.

Male Advanced Students

Content errors:

Advanced students made 25 errors in content. Most of the errors were in coherence (14) and then followed by clarity (5), unity (4) and development of ideas (2). The types of errors are presented below:

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Clarity			2	3		5
Unity		2	2			4
Coherence		7	3	1	3	14
Development of ideas				2		2
Total number of errors	0	9	7	6	3	25

Organisation errors:

Advanced students made 30 errors in organisation. Most of the errors were due to students not writing supporting sentences (18) and then followed by concluding sentences (5), lack of body paragraph (3) and development of ideas (2). The rest of the errors are presented below.

Error	WP 1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	Total errors
Lack of introduction				1		1
Lack of body paragraph				3		3
Lack of conclusion						0
Lack of topic sentence				1		1
Lack of supporting sentences		3	5	5	5	18
Lack of concluding sentence		1	2	1	1	5
Development of ideas				1	1	2
Total number of errors	0	4	7	12	7	30

Language form errors:

Advanced students made a range of language form errors. The total number of errors made by students was 377. Students made a lot of errors in punctuation (114) and capitalisation (73). The rest of the errors are presented below.

Error	Error subcategory	WP 1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	Total errors
Articles			7	5	8	7	27
Pronouns		2					2
Plurals			2	3	2	8	15
SVA		4	5	9	6	8	32
Tenses	Past simple		1			1	2
	Present Simple	1		3	2		6
	Present continuous	3		2	1		6
	Past continuous	1					1
	Present perfect					1	1
	Conditional	2					2
Fragment sentence		7			6	3	16
Run on sentence				6	1		7
Parallel sentence		1	5	5	7	1	19
Spelling		1	5	13	15	3	37
Punctuation	Full stops	25	5	11	10	11	62
	Commas	10	6	14	13	9	52

	WP1	WP2	WP3	WP4	WP5	Total
Capitalisation	25	14	15	16	3	73
Missing verb				2		2
Preposition			4	2		3	9
Countable	1					1
Passive					1	1
Possessive	2	1				3
Dependent Clause	1					1
Total number of errors	86	55	90	87	59	377

Male Intermediate Students

Content errors:

Intermediate students made 15 errors in content. Most of the errors were in development of ideas (7) and then followed by unity and coherence (3) and clarity (2). The types of errors are presented below:

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Clarity		2				2
Unity		2	1			3
Coherence		2	1			3
Development of ideas		2	2	2	1	7
Total number of errors	0	8	4	2	1	15

Organisation errors:

Intermediate students made 26 errors in organisation. Most of the errors were due to students not developing their ideas (11) and then followed by lack of supporting sentences and topic sentence (6). The rest of the errors are presented below.

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Lack of conclusion			1			1
Lack of topic sentence				6		6
Lack of supporting sentences		1	1	4		6
Lack of concluding sentence		1	1			2
Development of ideas			2	8	1	11
Total number of errors	0	2	5	18	1	26

Language form errors:

Intermediate students made a range of language form errors like advanced students. The total number of errors made by students was 239. Students made a lot of errors in SVA (77) and capitalisation (44). The rest of the errors are presented below.

Error	Error subcategory	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Articles		6	11	5	5	1	28
Plurals		2			1		3
SVA		17	14	7	19	20	77
Tenses	Past simple				3		3
Fragment sentence		11	2	5	9	8	35
Parallel sentence				3	4		7
Spelling			3	1	5	1	10
Punctuation	Full stops			1	5	3	9
	Commas		1	7	2	13	23
Capitalisation		18	6	6	6	8	44
Total number of errors		54	37	35	59	54	239

Male beginner Students

Content errors:

Beginner students made 12 errors in content. Most of the errors were in development of ideas (7) like the intermediate level and then followed by coherence and unity and clarity (1).

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Clarity		1				1
Unity				1		1
Coherence			1	2		3
Development of ideas		2	2	1	2	7
Total number of errors	0	3	3	4	2	12

Organisation errors:

Beginner students made a total of 35 errors in organisation. Most of the errors were due to students either not developing their ideas (11) or not writing supporting sentences (14). Lack of concluding sentences accounting for 6 errors. The rest of the errors are presented below.

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	Total errors
Incorrect essay genre			1			1
Lack of topic sentence			1	1		2
Lack of supporting sentences		3	4	3	4	14
Lack of concluding sentence			5	1	1	7
Development of ideas		1	5	3	2	11
Total number of errors	0	4	16	8	7	35

Language form errors:

Beginner students made 288 language form errors. These ranged from articles to modal verbs. Most of the errors were due to either punctuation (71) or capitalisation (56) and then followed by articles (42). The table below presents all of the errors.

Error	Error subcategory	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	Total errors
Articles		10	10	9	5	8	42
Pronouns				3		1	4
Plurals		1	1	7	1	1	11
SVA		2			1	3	6
Tenses	Past simple	3	1	2	1		7
	Present Simple	2	1			1	4
	Present continuous	1		1			2
	Past continuous	1					1
Fragment sentence			13	9	6	7	35
Run on sentence				12	2	5	19
Parallel sentence		2					2
Spelling		4	2	7	2		15
Punctuation	Full stops	32	9	6	4	2	53

	Commas	11	2	3		2	18
Capitalisation		20	7	10	17	2	56
Missing verb						1	1
Preposition		1		1	1		3
Countable			1				1
Gerunds		1		1		1	3
Possessive						1	1
Countable				1			1
Modals			3				3
Total number of errors		91	50	72	40	35	288

Female Advanced Students

Content errors:

Advanced female students made similar number of errors as the male advanced students. The total number of errors in content was 25. There errors were in development of ideas (8), coherence (7) and then followed by unity (5).

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Unity		2		1	2	5
Coherence		3		2	2	7
Development of ideas		3		3	2	8
Total number of errors	0	8	0	6	6	20

Organisation errors:

Advanced students made 19 errors in organisation. Development of ideas (7), lack of supporting sentences (5) and lack of concluding sentences (4) accounting for most of the errors. The rest of the errors had the same number (1).

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Lack of introduction				1		1
Lack of body paragraph			1			1
Lack of conclusion					1	1
Lack of supporting sentences		1		1	3	5
Lack of concluding sentence		1	1		2	4
Development of ideas		1	1	3	2	7
Total number of errors	0	3	3	5	8	19

Language form errors:

Advanced female students made a range of language form errors just like all the other students. The total number of errors made by students was 287. Articles were the main source of errors (48) and then followed by a range of other errors. The errors are presented in the table below.

Error	Error subcategory	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	Total errors
Articles		15	8	8	15	2	48
Pronouns		4		1	4	1	10
Plurals					1	5	6
SVA		5	2	3	8	6	24
Tenses	Past simple	3		1	1		5
	Present Simple			2	1		3
	Present continuous			1	1		2
	Present perfect			1	1		2
	Past perfect					1	1
Fragment sentence		3	3	4	5	2	17
Run on sentence			2	3	7	4	16
Parallel sentence			1				1
Spelling		5	4	1	10	4	24
Punctuation	Full stops	14	5	1	4	5	29
	Commas	6	3	10	13	7	39
Capitalisation		5	11	3	8	9	36
Verb be		2					2
Contraction			2	1	1		4
Preposition		2	5	3	3	3	16
Possessive		1	1				2
Total number of errors		65	47	43	83	49	287

Female Intermediate Students

Content errors:

Intermediate students made 9 errors in content. These errors were in two areas only, coherence and development of ideas.

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	Total errors

	WP1	WP2	WP3	WP4	WP5	Total errors
Coherence		1		1		2
Development of ideas		2	2	3		7
Total number of errors	0	3	2	4	0	9

Organisation errors:

Intermediate female students made less errors (19) than male intermediate students. However, the results are similar. Most of the errors were due to students not developing their ideas (11) or not writing supporting sentences (5) just like the male students. The rest of the errors are presented below.

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Lack of topic sentence			1	1		2
Lack of supporting sentences			2	2	1	5
Lack of concluding sentence		1				1
Development of ideas		2	3	4	2	11
Total number of errors	0	3	6	7	3	19

Language form errors:

Female students made more errors than male intermediate students. The total number of errors made by students was 481. Again, students made a lot of errors in SVA (112). They also had a lot of errors in articles (90) and capitalisation (63). The rest of the errors are presented below.

Error	Error subcategory	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Articles		10	17	20	25	18	90
Pronouns		3	2	8	3	2	18
Plurals		1	3		4	4	12
SVA		15	12	20	35	30	112
Tenses	Past simple	1			3	5	9
	Future 'will'	1		2			3
	Past continuous				1		1
Fragment sentence			3			1	4
Run on sentence			1	1	9	10	21
Parallel sentence						10	10
Spelling		4	2	7	14	7	34
Punctuation	Full stops	2	5	9	5	5	26
	Commas	13	1	4	10	15	43
Capitalisation		5	7	14	20	17	63

Missing Verb		1				2	3
Preposition		4	4	5	5	3	21
Countable		1					1
Adverb		2					2
Possessive		1		5			6
Connectors		1					1
Comparative					1		1
Total number of errors		65	57	95	135	129	481

Female beginner Students

Content errors:

Female beginner students had more errors in this category than all other students (32 total). Most of the errors were similar to other students. Development of ideas ranked number 1 in terms of errors (21) and then followed by clarity. Unit and coherence were not common errors.

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Clarity		1	1	6		8
Unity			1	1		2
Coherence					1	1
Development of ideas		6	6	7	2	21
Total number of errors	0	7	8	14	3	32

Organisation errors:

Female beginner students again made a lot more organisation errors (35) compared to the other students. Developing of ideas (14) or not writing supporting sentences (12). Lack of topic sentences accounting for 9 errors. The rest of the errors are presented in the table.

Error	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Incorrect essay genre					2	2
Lack of introduction				2	1	3
Lack of body paragraph				1	1	2
Lack of topic sentence		1	3	3	2	9
Lack of supporting sentences			3	7	2	12
Lack of concluding sentence			1	2	1	4
Development of ideas		1	5	7	1	14
Total number of errors	0	2	12	22	10	46

Language form errors:

Female students had a significant number of errors in language form. The total number of errors made by students was 393. Like other students, capitalisation (75) and articles (53) ranked high. Students made many errors in SVA (112). They also had a lot of errors in articles (90) and capitalisation (63). Punctuations (53) also ranked high along with fragment (53) and run on sentences (46). The rest of the errors are presented below.

Error	Error subcategory	WP1	WP 2	WP 3	WP 4	WP 5	**Total errors**
Articles		1	15	12	22	3	53
Pronouns					1		1
Plurals			4	3	1	2	10
SVA		2	8	9	13	6	38
Tenses	Past simple		4	1	4	5	14
	Present Simple			3	3		6
	Present continuous		1				1
	Future 'will'	1			2	1	4
	Present perfect			1		3	4
Fragment sentence		12	13	12	11	5	53
Run on sentence		2	9	15	16	4	46
Parallel sentence		2			2	3	7
Spelling		2	8	1	4	4	19
Punctuation	Full stops	15	4	1	3	6	29
	Commas	5	7	6	4	2	24
Capitalisation		24	9	7	15	20	75
Preposition			1			6	7
Gerund		1					1
Modals				1			1
Total number of errors		67	83	72	101	70	393

Summary and Discussion of Findings

This section summarizes and discusses the findings in relation to the two research questions. The first research question asked: What commonly occurring writing errors and mistakes do students make during two semesters? The findings of this study suggest that both FY male and female students experienced greater difficulty with the language form rather than the content

or organization. The grammatical issue of subject-verb agreement was found in abundance among all levels regardless of the gender. SVA errors are generally problematic for students from the first to the fifth writing assignment. Students tended to make mistakes while associating the correct form of the verb to its actual agent/subject. Many failed to know that when two subjects are joined by 'and', the verb is plural. Others, rather than using the singular verb for indefinite pronouns such as (everyone, each one, someone, somebody, no one, nobody, anyone, anybody etc.), they opted to use the plural verb. Articles also feature quite a lot in students' mistakes. They did not seem to fully comprehend the correct use of the Definite vs. Indefinite Articles. This is something that was seen quite a lot in the writing project. Students of all proficiency levels made errors in articles. These findings are in line with results from studies like Chuang and Nesi (2015), Crompton (2011), Ramano (2019) and Wolf et al. (2018) which indicate that the most grammatical errors types made by FY students in their writing assignments are SVA and articles. According to Ramano (2019), there is a consensus among writing researchers that these errors are made due to a lack of similar forms in students' native language. Crompton (2011) concludes that the system used in Arabic, as the native language of the participants in this study, is one reason behind making errors in articles.

How to develop ideas from main ones is also a prominent hurdle the students cannot fully overcome. The majority appear to be very abrupt in stating their major ideas in a composition and failing to expand on them, or mostly provide logical sequence to their ideas. Furthermore, writing topics of the majority of students look incredibly short and lacking of vivid details to illustrate the main points. They often lack supporting details/sentences. Worse, some students choose to state their main points and ideas at the end of some scattered details or information of a point they want to illustrate. This finding is consistent with previous findings in the literature that students find it difficult to communicate their ideas appropriately during the writing process (e.g. Evans and Green, 2007).

Writing or printing in capital letters or with an initial capital (capitalization) is another frequent mistake FY male and female students commonly made. Many missed out in this very fundamental mechanics rule as when to mark the beginning of a sentence and to identify all types of proper nouns, names, and titles. Again, this was common with all students regardless of their proficiency levels. This finding is consistent with the findings of Siddiqui (2015) that capitalization errors are prevalent in FY Saudi students' writing.

The second research question in this study investigated to what extent students' writing develops from assignment to assignment over the two-semester writing course. The students in this study apparently experienced greater difficulty with the content rather than the organization or language form. Specifically, these students continued to encounter problems in developing ideas and coherence from the first to the fifth assignment. The findings clearly indicate that students were not able to support their main topic sentences with examples or evidence. One possible explanation for this result lies in the nature and amount of other FY academic tasks, because FY students might not have been able to allocate enough time to develop their writing competently.

The findings also indicate that, although they made errors in mechanics, students gradually over two semesters improved their writing mechanics (i.e. punctuation and capitalization) regardless of the starting level. This finding might have to do with the extra lessons given to these areas in the course. At the end of the two-semester writing course, students also were able to develop the way they conclude a paragraph or an essay. This finding is not surprising since the conclusion is considered a very important component of any piece of writing, and students were explicitly taught to write a conclusion at the end of their writing assignments.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to find out the writing errors as well as the nature of writing development of FY students over two semesters in a Saudi university. What emerges from this study is that writing development seems be hindered by different complex factors including the busy academic tasks, lack of feedback for learning and the rigid writing instruction implemented in the FY program.

The findings of the study have a number of pedagogical implications for guiding FY English writing instruction and assessment. Firstly, it is very important that teachers increase the volume of their feedback to students with regard to the writing issues presented above. They need to develop a set of codes/criteria to remedy students' grammatical, stylistic and organizational problems. Secondly, teachers also need to supplement this with an abundancy of comments, feedback and corrections to assist students and better their proficiency level (Kim and Kim, 2005). Inside classrooms, teachers are also suggested to emphasize/highlight activities/drills that may help students realize their main mistakes and learn more as how to avoid repeating them. Thirdly, there must also be a consensus among teachers and the

administration as well to encourage students to write more frequently to highlight their common mistakes. They need more writing practice inside the classroom. They also need to write different types of tasks, all of which should be closely monitored and as possibly mistakes-free. Fourthly, it will help also to establish a writing contest where students can compete to produce good compositions. A writing club can surely create a sense of competitiveness among students to write more; hence their academic level to constantly improve. Fifthly, a writing support centre may also extend a helping hand where underachieving students might be given extra writing classes by serving staff. Sixthly, the academic department can work on building an activity bank where contributions from teachers might be taken to amass pools of resourceful activities which help students overcome difficulties they face in writing. Emphasis can also be put on designing online weekly quizzes through online platforms that address the language form errors which students had problems with. Seventhly, an extensive review of the writing course books needs to be conducted to accentuate the need to further enrich the course with more grammar which help students improve their writing skill. As observed by Wolf et al. (2018: 313) "grammatical accuracy is one of the important determinants of L2 writing quality". Finally, instructors should consider long-term measurements that help students to be independent writers and to avoid making the same errors in the future (Alkhatib, 2015). As Ferris and Helt (2000) argue, writing tutors need to build self-editing strategy training and encourage students to review the writing for themselves and their peers. Future research which examines students who have been trained to the self-editing and peer review is expected to yield more satisfactory results.

To conclude, the analysis of the data and the content of the writing course indicates that content exposure is not the issue. Rather, it is the lack of feedback from teachers. It has been observed that feedback from teachers was minimal across all proficiency levels. Most of the students did not receive any feedback, thus they were unable to know how to improve their writing. This might explain why certain basic errors like capitalisation and full stops were so high across all three levels despite this being really basic. In fact, it is the first thing teachers go through when preparing students for Assignment One. What can be suggested is to get more feedback from teachers if we want students to improve their writing. They need to be made aware of their mistakes and problems when writing. If these are not pointed out, they will keep occurring.

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A Nonnative English Teacher's Gain of Legitimacy Through Struggle

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Abstract

Our paper describes the first author's struggle to establish an identity as an English learner (EL) and as an English teacher. This struggle is presented using multiple theoretical frameworks to build a narrative describing construction of these identities. Goffman's (1959; 1963) frame of analysis and spoiled identity, Anderson's (1991) imagined community, Canagarajah's (1996), "from bottom up" narrative style, and Pinar and Grumet's (1976) *currere* are used to frame the narrative. This theoretical multiplicity is used to establish a novel methodological approach to use narrative as a research tool that can fully capture the complexity of ELs' and/or their teachers' identity and struggle.

Keywords: *Social Identity, nonnative teachers, teacher identities, agency, imagine community, construct knowledge*

Introduction

Identity can be a question of "how a person understands his or her [or their] relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" (Norton 2000, p. 5). It is common to ask the question, "who am I?," and for a person to identify with a particular group of people (Goffman, 1959). From the poststructuralist perspective , identity cannot be examined alone, it can only be looked at from larger social, political, and cultural perspectives (Duff & Uchida, 1997; Norton, 1997, 2000, 2001). Therefore, a person's identity and positionality can be negated within history, the context of how a person is made to feel about who they are and how their identity has been shaped. This negation may result in a struggle to re-negotiate their identity.

The purpose of this paper is to use narrative to holistically describe and explain how I have renegotiated my identities as both an English language learner and instructor of English across time and in multiple academic contexts to achieve this sense of legitimacy. A secondary purpose of the paper is to describe my story through my eyes as a Muslim non-native English speakers (NNESs) woman wearing a Hijab in public places and your struggle to gain legitimacy in the US. I use my narrative to de-stigmatize or normalize the identity struggle as a Muslim NNESs woman may experience while establishing their language and other cultural identities in any community of practice. To situate this struggle for the reader, I (the first author) will briefly describe some of my identities. I am a 28-year-old heterosexual, Muslim woman, born and raised in Saudi Arabia. As expected within my religion and culture, I wear a hijab in public places. My native language is Arabic. I am also a mother of two girls, a spouse, and a teacher. I have an undergraduate degree in English Literature, a master's degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), and I am currently pursuing a doctoral degree in curriculum and instruction in TESOL.

Theoretical Framework

There are Number of theories and concepts that underlie this study. I found it difficult to construct my narrative of renegotiation of my identities within just one theoretical framework. I therefore use multiple frameworks, including *currere* (Pinar, 1975b; Pinar and Grumet, 1976), Goffman's (1974) concept of framing, Goffman's (1963) concept of tribal stigma and spoiled identity, Peirce's (1995) notion of investment, and Anderson's (1991)

notion of imagined community. In this article I attempt to express my struggle with language identity using knowledge that I construct ''from the bottom up" (Canagarajah, 1996, p. 327). Therefore, I also apply various social theories to facilitate my conceptualization of my identities in relation to the social world. These conceptualizations connect and explain my personal narrative within an interdisciplinary body of research.

Currere

Currere is defined as: "a method that will allow us to 'bracket' the educational aspects of our taken-for-granted world" (Pinar, 1975a, p. 406). *Currere* allows people to "study the relations between academic knowledge and life history in the interest of self-understanding" (Pinar, 2004, p. 35). *Currere* consists of four stages for understanding and organizing a narrative focused on educational experiences. They include: the regressive, progressive, analytical, and synthetical. In the regressive stage, one would represent the past experiences and defining the salient aspects of these encounters that affected their teaching practice. Looking to the future, the progressive stage is what Pinar referred to as "imagin[ing] who one is not" (Pinar, 2011, p. 55). Imagining the future must be reasonable and realistically connected to the past and the present educational experiences. In the analytical stage, one would describe the biographic present (Pinar, 1975b). Finally, in the synthetical stage one can connect all the three steps and experiences, treating them as a puzzle to determine their effects on their future identity such as becoming an English teacher. This agrees with other studies that have shown a relationship between an English teacher's identities, their personal views of themselves, their cross-cultural experiences, and their histories as language learners influence on their identities and practices in the classroom (Duff & Uchida, 1997, Kamhi-Stein, 2013, Saito, 2005).

Framing and Spoiled Identity

Goffman (1974) stated that social identity is understood as the relationship between the individual and the wider society. From Goffman (1963), I incorporate the concept of "spoiled identity," which refers to an identity that exposes a person to stigma. More specifically, Goffman called it "tribal stigma" and is used in relation to the labels NES and NNES. Also, this concept will appear again under the appearance in relation to my religious identity (Goffman, 1963). According to Goffman (1963), "the stigmatized arises the sense of not knowing what the others present are "really" thinking about him [her]' (p. 14) or not knowing which "several categories he[she] will be placed in" (p. 14). The decision to invest in English

as a second language depends heavily on the acceptance of this decision by others in the social circles in which an individual's desire to belong.

Investment

Peirce (1995) defined investment as a desire to be part of a new community, to be perceived as a member, and to acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources. The notion of investment has been extensively used in the TESOL field (Duff, 2012; Lantolf & Pavlenko, 2001; Norton, 2000). Agency help to eventually decide to invest in learning English in many Community of Practice (CoP, Wenger, 1999, 2000). Wenger (2004) defines CoP as "groups of people who share a passion for something that they know how to do and who interact regularly to learn how to do it better" (p. 2). Clearly, social context plays an important role in creating an agency that would help the learners of a second language participate in that particular CoP.

Imagined Community

This concept was coined by Anderson (1991) and has been used in the TESOL field (Kamhi-Stein, 2013; Norton, 1997; Pavlenko, 2003). According to Norton (2010), imagined communities are the "communities that the language learners aspire to join when they learn a new language" (p. 355). The imagined community assumes an identity that cannot be understood without examining the social context and construct. Pavlenko (2003) presented three identities for NNES teachers that they can claim, all of which are imaginary. The identity that you claim will help shape how you perceive yourself and likewise how others will perceive you. These three imagined identities consist of: "(a) native speaker community, (b) non-native speaker/L2 learner community, and (c) multilingual/L2 user community" (p. 256). For the third identity, the concept of multicompetence is used because the L2 user can never join the native English speakers' communities. Therefore, they have two future imagined communities in which they can position themselves as either non-native speakers or within the multilingual community.

Data collection

During all my years studying English, I have tried to understand my identity as an English speaker in many different contexts and teacher before applying these multiple theories and concepts to participants. During my eight years of study in the field of TESOL, I have taken advantage of several existing theoretical frameworks in order to position and perceive

myself as a multi-competent member of the TESOL community, as opposed to viewing myself as in a position of disadvantage. This paper attempts to implement many concepts and theoretical frameworks through which I try to explain and renegotiate my identity across time, places, and professions.

I tried to analyze my stories since I went through cultural transformation (Saito, 2005), thus I was conscious about the power relationship between myself, social word, and appearance. To deliver my story, I have used all the social theories that could help me to understand my multiple identities, which always change according to new experiences and social interactions. I have used the narrative as a "transformative power" (Johnson & Golombek, 2011) and as a tool for professional development. Also, I have used the narrative as a cognitive process, where it is defined as follows: an "inquiry into experience [that] enables teachers to act with foresight. It gives them increasing control over their thoughts and actions; grants their experiences enriched, deepened meaning; and enables them to be more thoughtful and mindful of their work" (Johnson & Golombek, 2002, pp. 6-7). Using the narrative allows me to make sense of my experience and communicate it to others. I have used the story as an a frame to connect all the stories in many contexts, many tenses, and in relation to my appearance. As I stated earlier, identity can be established by many conditions (e.g., appearance, others' perceptions, social context). This argument corresponds with the perspectives of Peirce (1959), who argued that identity is the site of struggle through the social context and its cultural and political conditions. Further, Bucholtz and Hall (2005) define identity as "the social positioning of self and other" (p. 586).

From my Past to my Future

Regression: My Past Struggles and Successes as an English Language Learner

Rejection. I started learning English in Saudi Arabia within the context of an expanding circle in which English is taught as a foreign language (Kachru, 1992). The classroom was the only place for me to practice English. During middle school, I did not see the value of learning and speaking English outside the classroom. I focused mainly on passing my English exams and getting high grades as with any other subject. It was in high school that my journey as an English language learner officially started and it was a difficult one. My high school teachers were hard on students. They did not explain why it was important to learn a new language, graded harshly on minor grammar points such as subject/verb agreement and spelling, and tested students' knowledge on ideas not taught during classroom instruction and encouraged memorization of countless verbs and vocabulary lists. This made me hate English. Thus, I

rejected participating in this particular institutionalized educational community. Even to the point of my fellow students dubbing me "Miss Rejection." Though, now in hindsight, it was not the language that I rejected, but the methods by which it was taught. Subsequently, I did not attend English classes and looked forward to other classes where I could freely communicate in Arabic.

   Forced to Invest. When I entered college in Saudi Arabia, my academic life became quite demanding. I was, at last, forced to take up English literature, grammar and linguistics courses in college. At that time, there was no escape to classes taught in Arabic, and thus, no option for me to reject English. Instead, I decided to invest in this CoP to succeed in earning a bachelor's degree. During that time, I struggled to voice my opinion in these language classes because I spoke in "bad English" as one of my friends pointed out to me–unlike some of my classmates who could speak well and gave their answers fluently in English. Thus, my main concern was how to expand my English skills. I started to spend most of my free time watching movies in English and listening to conversations and stories in English. By the end of my freshman year, I was aware of the importance of learning English. I realized that even if I can survive in society without using English, it was needed to have a high-paying job. Being competent in English provides access to many communities that I wanted to join in the future. This line of thinking continued for all three years of my undergraduate experience. After finishing my undergraduate degree, I received a government scholarship due to my high GPA. I thought pursuing my Master's degree would open the door for me to a high-paying job. Also, I desired to work and to use my work as a mechanism by which I could hold an equitable amount of power within my marriage. My husband was supportive of this desire. Additionally, both my mother and sister worked outside the home. Therefore, I had a social circle within my family that further facilitated my investment in learning and teaching English as part of my career.

   While pursuing my master's degree in Los Angeles in the United States (U.S.) I was self-conscious about my English-speaking skills. From the first day, I realized that I lacked basic cultural expectations and language skills such as how to start or end a conversation, tell a story, and ultimately convey meaning. When a professor asked us to introduce ourselves to our classmates, I did not know what to say. A few thoughts ran through my head as I took part in the basic exercise. First, that this technique was not used in previous classes. Second, my classmate expressed themselves in English with ease. They were able to tell a funny joke and felt comfortable talking about themselves. I only had six months of teaching experience at a local high school under the supervision of a homeroom teacher. I despised that I sounded

unsophisticated and lacked experience. At least that is how I thought I sounded when I spoke in English. Finally, I was informed by a professor that I was the first Muslim woman in my department from Saudi Arabia. The university had many Muslim females, but they were in other departments on campus. So, I would say my appearance with covering my hair had an impact on my social identity. When introducing myself, I simply stated my name, where I was from, and my major and then said, "That is it." Everybody stared at me with what I perceived to be a confused expression. I was fortunate that my professor moved to the next person.

Traditional views of second language acquisition (SLA) theories, which attempt to provide explanations using individual factors, cannot explain this experience early in my master's degree classes (Norton, 1997, 2000; Peirce, 1995). I invested my time and money to come to the U.S. to learn English. From day one, I started to question my ability to earn my master's degree, my future as an English teacher, and my initial reason for pursuing this degree. I spoke with my husband at length about what was going through my mind at the time. He encouraged me to continue pursuing this degree. My husband did not understand, however, that English is not like other subjects such as math or the sciences that are not connected with an inner Circle where the English can be classified as native speakers such as those from the U.S., Canada, and the United Kingdom (Kachru, 1992). English is unique in that the people who teach it are more credible and legitimate in the CoP when they are perceived to have certain visible characteristics such as appearing to be of European descent (Kubota & Lin, 2009; Liu, 1999).

In recalling my past as a language learner during my undergraduate degree, I did not realize that I was perceived as an NNES and that my physical appearance did not fit the racial and ethnic stereotype of an English native speaker (Amin, 2004; Kubota & Lin, 2006). It was not until I pursued my master's degree in the U.S. and then later began teaching English in Saudi Arabia in the expanding circle that I resisted the NNES label through claiming my agency.

During the first quarter in the master's class, I remained silent in class, yet active while using the web-based forums. Taking advantage of online resources is one of the techniques that the professor encouraged students in her class. When I had a PowerPoint presentation, I would practice repeatedly and spent many hours preparing for it. I always paid attention to my classmates' faces to see if they understood me during the presentation. It was normal for me to feel nervous before and after each presentation. Conversely, during my undergraduate degree, I hardly questioned whether or not my classmates understood me, or judged my communication abilities as an English speaker. I was on the verge of gaining my confidence in teaching English,

but then quickly realized that I had a different identity while in the classroom and online. One by one, I got to know my classmates through having conversations with them outside the classroom. I participated in this CoP. During my practicum, I was impressed with myself and the way that I communicated with my students. Therefore, the processes of self-confidence and identity construction with the social world is a long-term, ongoing process. I enjoyed participating in that CoP. By the end of the two years, I felt like a member of the CoP.

Appearance and the self within religious identity. Individuals seek validation from audiences because they do not create an identity of our own choosing. Individuals perform in order to be perceived as legitimate in the new society (Goffman,1959). That is to say, there are external factors such as symbol of religion that can be identified through physical appearance. Visibly identifiable Muslim women who wear clothing such as the hijab are seen as the "t ultimate other" or the "enemy within" (Fedda-Conery, 2006, p.137) because they are apparently refusing to conform to Western norms of dress and rules of social interaction. Media influence and the social narrative that comes with such associations have a substantial influence on the experience. This is what Goffman (1963) calls a "spoiled identity." When a group becomes stigmatized, negatively labeled, and stereotyped through media, political, and public discourses, their social integrity may become "tainted" leading to a "spoiled identity'" (Ryan & Vacchelli, 2013, p. 94).

There is one experience that magnified my religious identity and exemplifies my experience with the notion of spoiled identity. I was sitting at the back of a class. It was the first day of class. A girl turned to me and asked me why I wear a hijab. I did not answer her for a minute. I just looked at her. I told her it is because I am Muslim. I wanted to get out of the class and pretended to call someone on my phone. The fact that she said "hijab" rather than scarf or headband means she knew that I am Muslim. My answer did not make sense to her. At that time, I had a narrow perception of myself and my reasons for wearing a hijab.

In discussing this experience with my friends who were also Muslim, they argued that because I show the beginning of my hair, which is not what most Muslims do, maybe she did not understand the purpose of hijab if I am showing my hair. However, from the girl's tone and eye contact in class, I knew that is not why she asked this question. To me, wearing the hijab reflects that I am Muslim. Some of my friends consider me liberal. I do not like putting Muslim women into a continuum. I do not like being called liberal, I have adjusted my clothes to be more culturally acceptable by using "cooler" and newer methods to cover my hair. This is what Goffman (1959) impression management. He defined it as when one tries to present a pleasant

image of one's self to others. According to Newman (2009), "[Impression management is an] act presenting a favorable public image of oneself so that others will form positive judgments." (p.184). However, I would argue that in my case with me covering my hair, US society would perceive me the same way as any female Muslim with different dress code, regardless. It is different in the Muslim society, most of Muslim society would recognize me as more open based on my way of wearing my hijab. Therefore, I decided I will wear what I feel is more comfortable, and to me, it is more acceptable to satisfy my religious identity than to fit in. I do agree with other studies that the religious identity provides a connection between an old place and a new place. The importance of religious identity is heightened when immigrants "react to the alienation and confusion that result from their arrival in a new country by turning to religion." (Peek,2005, p. 218). They use it as a bridge connecting their previous environment with the new one (Cadge & Ecklund, 2007; Hirschman, 2004; Peek, 2005). Also, religious identity is important as a basis of personal and social identity (Peek, 2005).

I came from a different educational system in which men and women are separated during all their school and academic education. So, prior to attending school in the US, I had never made eye contact with a non-familial man or even shaken their hand in public settings. Some of my classmates thought this was impolite as eye contact is very important in US culture and I usually avoided it. There were also awkward moments when I bowed when the other person was attempting to shake hands. My preference was and until now to wait until I know them and then try to justify my action. I explain my behavior according to two dimensions, the first of which is that I would never deny my religious identity; it is an integral part of who I am. Additionally, I also explain that within my religion a woman is prohibited from shaking hands with a man. And in the social dimension, for 21 years I never had contact with men face to face, so I lack the ability to converse socially with men. Also, I do not foresee being able to improve my social skills in this are because all my friends are female. My social future work in Saudi Arabia context will not require a direct contact with men.

I have represented the different dimensions of my story such as my identity in terms of gender, religion, cultural background, and education. I earned my master's degree and then went back to Saudi Arabia. I applied for the position of English Teacher and got accepted right away. I was proud to join the university and become a member in their CoP. But, I had to fight again to be perceived as legitimate in this new community.

Struggling in a new community. In my new position as an English teacher, in King Abdulaziz University, there was a discrepancy between how I perceived myself as an English

language user and TESOL teacher and how administrators and students perceived me in those roles. The NNES label had a negative connotation in the institute. Approximately, half of the teachers within the institution were NESs while the other half were NNESs. It was clear that the NESs, with the same degree, compared to NNESs teachers had privilege and power based on how administrators treated them and by the higher salaries awarded in the institute. This perception had also been passed on to the students. Students preferred to take an English class taught by an NES. In a sense, this social attitude placed me in a lower professional position. The institute also enforced a rule decreeing that classrooms are English-only, meaning that teachers were not allowed to use their first language inside the classroom. While I respected this rule inside the classroom, I typically allowed students to use their first language when they visited my office for specific help with English. I found that using Arabic with specific purpose such as with the grammar, explain instruction, helped my students master English more quickly and effectively. Fluid and flexible approaches to language teachers to leverage students' first language to facilitate students' entrance into their imagined community of bilingualism. Codeswitching (fluid and flexible use of native and second languages in verbal communication) and translanguaging (fluid and flexible use of native and second languages across multiple modes of communication) help students make sense of their own multilingual worlds (García, 2009). Fluid and flexible approaches to language teachers to leverage students' first language to facilitate students' entrance into their imagined community of bilingualism. As a teacher, I would look at translanguaging "as an instructional strategy to link classroom practices with those found in students' social, cultural, community, and linguistic domains of their lives" (Creese & Blackledge, 2010, p.112). I am currently pursuing that degree as mentioned earlier. I now move from my past to my imagined academic future.

Progression: My Imagined Future as an English Learner, Educator, and Scholar

While I taught throughout my undergraduate and master's degrees, I always thought about the future and that having a PhD would enhance my skills as an educator. I always wanted to accomplish that, and frequently shared my future plans with my students. This served to help us both, since looking to the past helped us to look to the future. We were not merely talking about our past and being a prisoner of it; we were also talking about how to overcome past and present challenges in our futures. The goal of my future self is to establish my name in the field of TESOL and inspire other NNES teachers not be afraid to tell their story and earn their right to enter the field of teaching English. After I earn my PhD, I see myself as being perceived as a professional English teacher by the students, parents, and administrators. However, I am not

sure if the stigma of NNES will go away or will persist. My future imagined community is to be a part of the movement (Kamhi-Stein, 2016) that would help to remove the stigma with which NNESs are labeled. I hope to shed light on the fact that NNESs have to struggle to establish their identity in their professional career, a struggle NES do not contend with. My goal is to change my future workplace to one in which I am seen as a language user who has the skills to teach English, without my ability being automatically questioned.

Analysis and Synthesis: Implication for my Future and Praxis

Through the narrative, I am framing the stories that I have created in my head and trying to convey them in a way that might help to explain the idea of identity in the field of TESOL. We go through ongoing stories with both the public and the private spheres of our lives (Pinar, 2004). The struggle that I have experienced is multi-layered. For sure, showing my religious preference by wearing hijab did present me as an outsider. I also struggled because I came from a different educational system. Even after studying outside and gaining a degree did not help me as an instructor at King Abdulaziz University. I would say that this struggle comes from the idea of desiring to be accepted and respected by new members in any context. I know now that the struggle to be perceive oneself—and to be perceived by others—as a legitimate speaker of English may be an ongoing struggle that changes form with the social context (Amin, 2004; Thomas, 1999). I will forever be struggling with my identities and sense of belonging. I think that is something I need to work on and also teach to our students to help them navigate their multiple identities. I know that there has been one major shift in my identity after learning about the idea of perception. I currently perceive myself as bilingual and multi-competent (Cook, 1999). English, the language of globalization, is a language I have the right to claim as my own as do others globally (Davies, 2003; Braine, 2005). I, a teacher who has experienced learning a second language, belong to this imagined community of English speakers that has empowered me to "expand [my] range of possible selves" (Kanno & Norton, 2003, p. 246). Also, I help our students to understand the reality that it is not our goal as teachers to help them sound like native speakers. On the contrary, as teachers, our goal is to help students know how to communicate with another language and to present themselves as unique individuals. Having an awareness of what emerging bi- and multi-lingual students experience in educational settings and acknowledging that each learner has a different past, present, and future image of self will enhance instructional practice. As one can notice from my story, it was never my goal to sound like a native English speaker (NES) while learning English. I realized, however, that learning English is an ongoing process that will continue even after I have earned my doctorate.

Yet, these beliefs and introspections of the self did not come without a struggle. Now, after almost eight years of studying in U.S. universities, I can confidently claim English as one of my languages. I have refused such categorization as NES or NNES, used in many studies in the field of TESOL. I agree that the focus should be directed toward many other factors e.g., education, preparation, training, and experience; (Kamhi-Stein, 1999; Liu, 2004). Now, I see myself as a multi-lingual and multi-competent English teacher and user (Cook, 1992, 1999). I believe learning a language cannot be kept separate from learning its related culture, and I will stress to the students that English is a global language; everybody has the right to own it, and it is not only for native speakers.

Acknowledgments

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ASIAN EFL JOURNAL

The EFL Professional's Written Forum

Authenticity of Self-expression Tasks in EFL Textbooks: Teachers' Voices

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Abstract

Opportunities for students to express themselves in the target language are a pivotal aspect of any language class. While the authenticity of the language represented in textbooks has long been a topic of interest among researchers, that of self-expression tasks (SETs) is scarcely examined. That is, previous discussions on authenticity have made language elements a separate entity rather than an overall view of communicative events. This study sets out to investigate to what extent topics of SETs in eight secondary school English as a foreign language (EFL) textbooks used in Thailand are authentic and to explore teachers' intervention strategies to facilitate self-expression. A mixed-methods approach was employed, involving content analysis of SETs followed by a survey, and then a series of interviews. Siegel's (2014) list of topic themes was employed as a starting point to help identify and categorize SETs. A

total of 281 SETs were identified in the corpus generating 17 topic themes, namely, *extra-curricular activity*, *place*, *relationship*, *academic life*, *lifestyle*, *self*, *food/drink/health*, *animal*, *famous people*, *apparel*, *transportation*, *entertainment*, *festival/celebration*, *holiday/vacation*, *environment*, *technology*, and *belief* (arranged in frequency order). A side-by-side comparison between the textbooks shows that the distribution of SETs varied widely from textbook to textbook. The results unveil the gap between the topics of textbook SETs and those that teachers perceived to be relevant and attractive to learners. Although topics related to *extra-curricular activity* appeared most frequently in the corpus, participating teachers suggested that those related to *self* (relevancy) and *entertainment* (interest) should be considered in order to best engage learners in the learning process. Issues related to the use of textbook SETs included reliance on superficial tasks and prefabricated content and the absence of contextualized content to support SETs. Contextualizing SETs and providing learners with supplementary materials appeared to be favorable teachers' intervention strategies. A number of considerations for policymakers and teachers can be drawn from the results of this study. Policymakers should encourage local publishers to produce EFL textbooks designed specifically for Thai learners with an emphasis on contextualized content. They should also provide appropriate support to teachers to develop in-house materials. It is important that teachers provide their students with opportunities to express themselves in a wide range of topics that are related to their needs and desires. Textbooks should be used selectively. Teachers should not rely solely on exercises and tasks in textbooks, and the use of alternative learning resources should be considered to supplement the textbook.

Keywords: *self-expression tasks, authenticity, EFL textbooks, secondary education*

1. Introduction

Textbooks serve as one of the most influential sources of learning English. Previous studies, however, raised issues revolving around what was presented in English as a foreign language (EFL) textbooks and called for investigations of different types of content. One of the major concerns is the issue related to authenticity, one of the determinants of whether the textbook fulfills learners' needs and desires in language learning, especially when the focus of English language teaching (ELT) has shifted from 'form' and 'structure' to 'meaningful interactions' between English users regardless of their nationality. Sufficient contextualization of textbooks influences learners to interact and communicate with others since it makes language lessons socially and culturally relevant to them, leading to more effective language learning and better

learning experiences (Huang, 2019). Nevertheless, scholars tend to agree that a large number of EFL textbooks fail to recognize learners' identities and contexts as the guidance to material development (Matsuda, 2012; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013). Although there are countless attempts to address this issue, the spotlight was often on the language elements *per se*. Previous discussions on authenticity have prioritized language elements as a separate entity rather than an overall view of communicative events (Siegal, 2014). There has been a dearth of research concerning to what extent the textbooks facilitate EFL learners to express themselves in a range of relevant situations. This study sets out to investigate the authenticity of self-expression tasks (SETs) and teachers' intervention strategies to facilitate self-expression.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Learner Identities in ELT

The 20th century witnessed the growth of English as an International Language (EIL). The concept of EIL was best known for its recognition of non-native English speaker's (NNES) identities in ELT. That is, the spotlight has swung from native English speakers (NESs), who had been the sole authority of correct language forms or norms of expression, to NNESs. This is simply because English has earned the status of the only world language pervading all facets of society (Crystal, 1997). The paradigm shift in ELT practice and emerging research tends to oppose the dominance of content related to NESs and promote the value of NNES identities, leading to a focus on NNES norms more willingly than NES norms. Simply put, users of English started to perceive the language as a *lingua franca* connecting people across the globe regardless of nationality rather than a tool for interacting with NESs (Seidlhofer, 2001). It is irrefutable that the learning and teaching of English now go beyond language grammar and structure. The cultural interchange between users of English and their identities has been found to be among the key elements facilitating learners and users of English to achieve intercultural communication, which is one of the major goals of ELT. The traditional trend of ELT illustrated the difficulties learners confront in comprehending the culture of NESs (Shin et al., 2013). To put it differently, there are great differences because of the cultural contexts of NESs and those of NNESs. Previous literature on cultural issues in ELT has suggested that content representing any aspects of NESs can be decoupled from the learning process (e.g., Seidlhofer, 2001; Jenkin, 2006; Gass & Selinker, 2008). In fact, learners will have more chances to interact with other NNESs, because NNESs vastly outnumber NESs, (Jenkins, 2006). This implies that learners should be prepared to interact not only with NESs but also NNESs, giving more pedagogic options to classroom teachers and materials development.

A large volume of research on EIL and other related concepts has addressed the significance of learners' cultural contexts and their background experiences. Alptekin (2002) reports that the growth of language skills is expedited when learner identities were expressed through the use of the target language. When learners find what is presented to them in the target language relevant to them, the learning process becomes much less complicated. It is indisputable that in the learning of English exposing learners to a broad range of cultures is vital; however, local content should not be understated (Gass & Selinker, 2008). For these reasons, it is crucial that teachers recognize the value of local content and allow learners to sufficiently express themselves in a wide variety of situations that they are likely to encounter in their daily lives. Since teachers can play an influential role in promoting learner identities, at least in the classroom, investigating their perceptions toward the authenticity of materials and their intervention strategies will help develop a better understanding of how to utilize materials in a way in which learners can be provided with sufficient opportunities to express themselves.

2.1 Language Authenticity of EFL Textbooks

The issue of authenticity of instructional materials has been debated in the field of ELT for decades. Several definitions of the term 'authenticity' in the scope of language teaching and learning have been proposed. In the 1980s, scholars viewed it as the language created and used by NES (Little et al., 1989). In response to such definition, ELT materials produced during that period were designed in the direction that 'real' language used in NESs' contexts was prioritized as it was believed to boost the authenticity of the materials. This resulted in an overreliance on NESs' contexts. However, the scope of authenticity is not limited to simply what is presented in the language; it also deals with other elements such as text content, text types, topics, communicative functions, and settings. In communicative language teaching (CLT), for example, the process of selecting communicative functions has always been crucial because it influences meaning-making in natural interactions. Communicative functions of language can be simply defined as the purpose of communication or, to put it differently, what an individual intentionally or unintentionally conveys. A communicative function is performed when an individual gets the message across by using a specific communicative approach. For instance, a boy asks for a cookie when he is hungry. In this scenario, 'asking for' serves as a verbally communicative function of language which is intentionally performed. It is, however, suggested that communicative functions should not be treated as a standalone facet of language learning. Krashen and Terrell (1983) proposed three components that communicative goals

should be expressed through, including situations, functions, and topics. In ELT, the selection of communitive functions depends very much on the topics and themes being introduced. Since there are countless situations where English is used, the issue of which communicative functions to focus on remains underresearched. The issue of communicative functions aligns well with Andon and Wingate's (2013) concept of 'interactional authenticity' which is characterized by language activities that learners are expected to be involved in. Such language activities cover a wide range of circumstances such as giving directions, making requests, apologizing, refusing, and offering help. However, in many cases, communicative functions presented in ELT materials did not reflect day-to-day interaction. Waliyadin and Petraki (2020) found that EFL textbooks used in Indonesia failed to provide sufficient real-world examples of speech acts and pragmatic information. For example, describing given pictures is undoubtedly not the communicative function found in normal life, except perhaps for those who work as a kindergarten teacher. Andon and Eckerth (2009) assert that such kind of activity gives learners opportunities to practice and process the target language. That is, although language activities may not bear a resemblance to real-world communication, they may serve as a pedagogic transmitter contributing to the growth of target language proficiency. Nevertheless, no one can argue that in terms of real-world communicative functions, English lessons become much more relevant, and learners are more connected to the learning process.

2.2 Authenticity of Topics

Nation and Waring (1997) defined topic as a major component of language instruction affecting a wide range of vocabulary that learners will experience in the lesson. When it comes to topic selection, it is recommended that they are socially relevant so as to facilitate the learning process and empower learners (Cummins, 1994). Advocates of the concept of 'willingness to communicate' (WTC) have confirmed the significance of topics. WTC is not a new concept; it has been recognized in the field of ELT for decades, and received even more attention when it is linked to EFL contexts. MacIntyre et al. (1998) explain that if learners are familiar with the topic, their self-confidence in language ability is boosted. Conversely, being introduced to irrelevant or unfamiliar topics will reduce their WTC. Investigating how situational WTC in the second language emerges in a conversation, Kang (2005) reports that topics were one of the interacting situational variables that co-construct different psychological conditions. The researcher explains that familiarity with the topic gives learners a sense of security when they speak. Siegel (2014), who investigated the authenticity of topics in Japanese EFL textbooks, found that topics selected for classroom instruction somehow influence confidence, WTC, and

the learning process of learners. Although other previous studies on topics presented in EFL textbooks confirm the correlation between topics and learners' WTC, when it comes to learners' interests, there has been a debate over which kinds of topics should be selected. In the case of cultural representation in EFL textbooks, for example, the question still exists as to which one of the four types of cultural content (Jin & Cortazzi, 1999) should be prioritized. While advocates of English as an international language (EIL) insist on local and international content in line with the new position of English and the corresponding belief that it is feasible to set aside the cultural context of NESs from the learning process (e.g., Alptekin, 2002; McKay, 2002; Jenkins, 2006), others, especially authors of commercial textbooks, still prefer cultural context of NESs (Matsuda, 2012; Vettorel & Lopriore, 2013; Thumvichit & Kattiyavara, 2020). There have been conflicting views between commercial production and modern ELT trends. Topics selected for commercial textbook production tend to lean towards NNESs rather than NESs. For example, topics for reading passages such as White House, Thanksgiving, and Double-decker buses were presented in EFL textbooks as they were meant to transfer cultural content along with language elements. However, 'counterhegemony' is feasible if 'transformative agency' against mere reproduction of structure is in sequence (Mambu, 2014, p. 8). The selection of such topics contradicts the findings of Wolf's (2013) study revealing that the vast majority of EFL learners participating, Japanese in this case, preferred domestic topics over international topics.

It is important to note that the authenticity of material does not only concern the linkage between the classroom and real-life experience but also the interaction between learners and the material. Although several theoretical frameworks for examining the authenticity of materials have been proposed over the past 20 years (Gilmore, 2007), McGrath's (2002) concept remains influential and highly adaptable to suit a variety of purposes. He suggests that eight criteria should be taken into consideration when selecting authentic materials: (1) relevance to the course and learners' needs, (2) intrinsic interest of the topic, (3) cultural appropriateness; (4) linguistic demands; (5) cognitive demands, (6) logistical considerations; (7) quality; and (8) exploitability. In the current study, we adopt the first three criteria of McGrath's (2002) framework because they can be observed through the lens of classroom teachers and measured by using the topics of SETs.

3. Methods

3.1 Textbook Sampling

We examined eight EFL textbook series used in Thai secondary schools. These series were selected because they were approved by the Ministry of Education (MoE). Before official approval for use, the textbooks underwent a series of reviews by the advisory members of national experts in concurrence with the national standards. The MoE claimed that the textbooks were reviewed on the basis of criteria set in the Basic Education Core Curriculum 2008. All of them are integrated skills textbooks. The first volume of each title was selected making up a corpus of eight EFL textbooks. Produced by well-known international publishers and composed by different authors, the selected textbooks were used at the first level of secondary education, known as *Mathayom Suksa 1*[1]. To avoid ethical and copyright issues, the codes *T1 - T8* are used to refer to the textbooks.

3.2 Identifying Topics of SETs

Content analysis was employed as it provides space for interpretation of written materials and allows a combination of qualitative and quantitative perspectives. Since this study concerns self-expression opportunities that learners receive, only productive exercises that allow learners to talk/write about topics related to their own contexts were gathered. SETs identified here could be as simple as introducing oneself, describing ones' daily routines, and conversing about hobbies.

Regarding topics of SETs, Siegel's (2014) 13 topic themes adapted from Wolf's (2013) six topic themes were employed as a starting point to categorize the identified tasks. The 13 topic themes include *animal*, *food/health, language, money, relationship, social issues, academic life, culture, entertainment, extra-curricular activities, living situation, place/travel,* and *self*. This coding scheme, however, was subject to change as new themes emerged. As coding proceeded, the list of topic themes was modified until reaching the final scheme that covers all the SETs found in the corpus.

As far as the subjectivity of coding is concerned, an inter-coder reliability test was conducted. That is, a university lecturer with extensive experience and knowledge in ELT and textbook analysis was invited to serve as the co-coder. Due to the labor-intensiveness of the coding job, the co-coder was assigned to code only 20% (56 units) of all the identified tasks.

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[1] *Mathayom Suksa* refers to the schooling offered at secondary school levels. It is divided into a lower (*Mathayom Suksa 1-3)* and upper level (*Mathayom Suksa 4-6)*.

Prior to coding, the co-coder was provided with the coding protocols. Cohen's kappa, κ, was used to calculate the inter-coder reliability with a result of .899, which is considered as 'almost perfect agreement' (Landis & Koch, 1977). The dissent between coders was discussed until reaching the agreement.

3.3 Data Collection

This study used a mixed-methods approach, employing a questionnaire followed by a series of interviews. The research design is 'characterized by the collection and analysis of quantitative data followed by the collection and analysis of qualitative data' (Creswell, 2003, p. 215). While the questionnaire data inform patterns among the population at large, interview data provide deeper insights into participants' attitudes, thoughts, and actions (Kendall, 2008). The questionnaire was divided into five sections: demographic information, EFL textbooks, cultural representation, self-expression, and authenticity of self-expression topics. The questionnaire items were five-point Likert-type statements. The content in the questionnaire was reviewed by a panel of experts to confirm the validity and by an institutional review board (IRB) to ensure best ethical practices. The questionnaire was administered via an online survey platform, allowing participants to complete the questionnaire at their convenience.

A total of 129 Thai teachers of English who taught at the lower secondary level participated in this study. The use of snowball sampling with an online survey platform did not allow us to identify the response rate or the number of teachers who saw the invitation. In accordance with the Declaration of Helsinki, we inform the participating teachers of their right to withdraw and assure them of confidentiality of their identities prior to the participation. The average score of each item was calculated and reported for further discussion. Table 1 shows the demographical profile of the participants.

Table 1: Demographic data of the questionnaire respondents

Demographic variables	Number (N = 129)	Percentage
Age		
21-25	53	41.08%
26-30	34	26.35%
31-35	20	15.5%
36-40	13	10.07%
41-45	9	6.97%

Experience in teaching English at the higher education level		
Less than 1 year	11	8.52%
1-3 years	38	29.45%
4-6 years	19	14.72%
7-9 years	33	25.58%
10+ years	28	21.7%
Highest educational degree		
Master's degree	27	20.93%
Bachelor's degree	102	79.06%

Afterward, semi-structured interviews were conducted with three of the teachers who had completed the questionnaire. The names *Ava, Nisha,* and *Suthee* are all pseudonyms (see Table 2). The interviews were designed in such a way as to address the key features of the questionnaire findings and gain a better understanding of teachers' intervention strategies to facilitate self-expression. Due to the nature of a semi-structured interview, other relevant questions could be added to obtain more information. The participants were interviewed individually via telephone for around 30 minutes. Each interview session was audio-recorded, transcribed verbatim, and translated into English for the sake of reporting data.

Table 2: Demographic data of the interview participants

Pseudonym	Teaching Experience	Highest degree	Nationality and L1	Employment status	Textbooks
Ava	5	Master's degree	Thai/Thai	Full-time	Commercial textbooks
Nisha	7	Bachelor's degree	Thai/Thai	Full-time	Commercial textbooks
Suthee	9	Bachelor's degree	Thai/Thai	Full-time	Commercial textbooks

## 4 Findings and Discussion

4.1 Topics of SETs

A total of 281 SETs were identified. Side-by-side comparison between the textbooks shows that the distribution of SETs varied widely from textbook to textbook (see Table 4). *T8* provided more SETs than the others, followed by *T5* and then *T3*. Less than 20, however, were found in *T1* and *T7*. The SETs were categorized into 17 topics (see Figure 2). It is worth noting that our final list of topics is not identical to Siegel's (2014) framework, which we employed as a starting point, because the list was adjusted to ensure the coverage of our data.

Figure 1: The frequency of SETs in the EFL textbooks
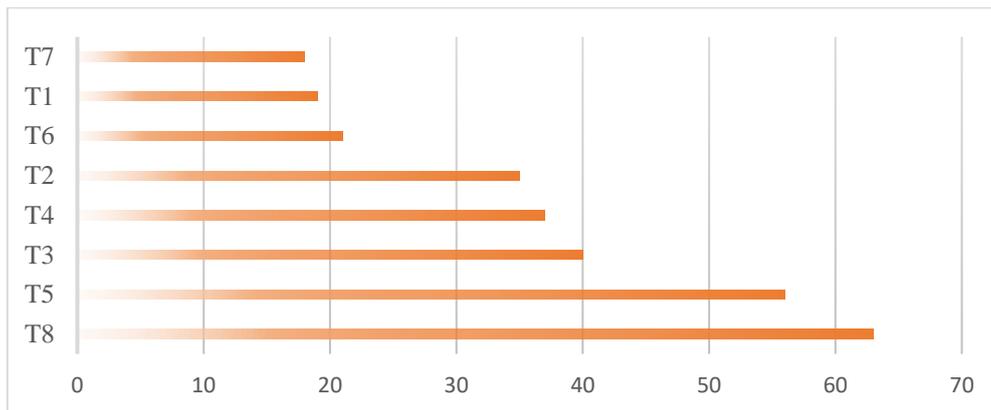
The SETs identified were categorized into 17 topic themes (see Figure 2). Found in all the textbooks, *extra-curricular activity* was the most frequent topic theme, followed by *place*. An example of a SET under *extra-curricular activity* is when learners are asked to converse about activities they undertake in their free time. As for *place*, the task can be as simple as describing the places they like to visit or tourist destinations in the country. This was followed by *relationship*, *academic life*, *lifestyle*, and *self* respectively. *Belief*, on the other end, was the least frequent topic theme with only a few instances identified in the corpus.

Figure 2: The frequency of topics of SETs
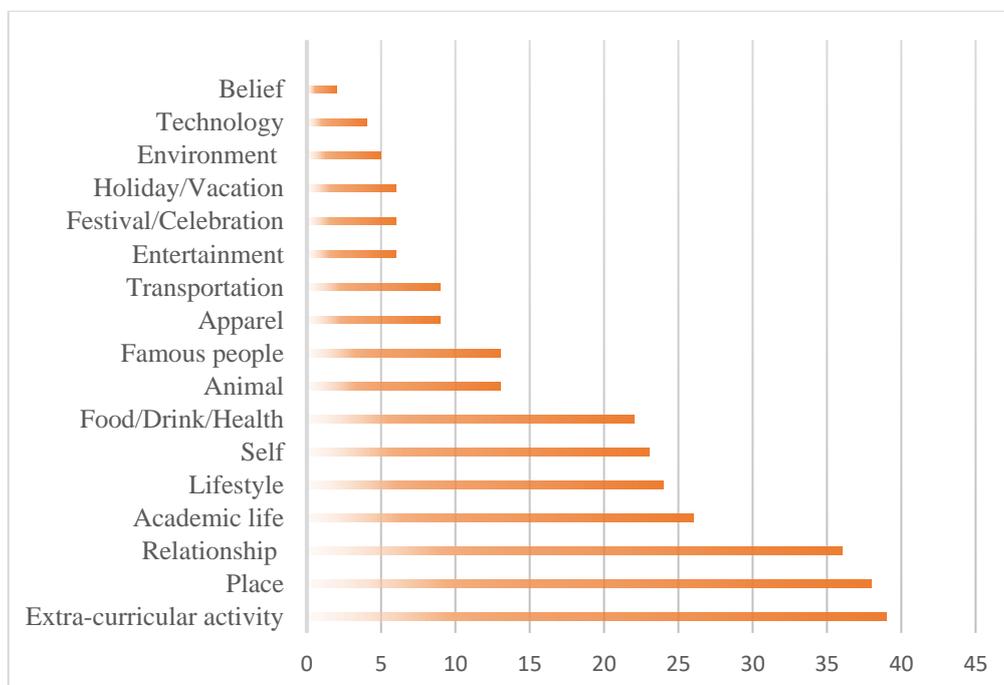
4.2 Attitudes toward the Use of EFL Textbooks, Cultural Representation, and Self-expression

Quantitative Findings

As seen in Table 3, textbooks were perceived as an integral component of ELT; however, the majority of respondents thought that they could teach without textbooks. Almost all the respondents believed that following textbooks page by page was not a viable pedagogical practice. As for cultural representation in EFL textbooks, they tended to believe that EFL textbooks should include and prioritize culturally relevant content. Nevertheless, this does not mean that content related to NESs is not necessary. Most of the respondents agreed that content related to the learners somehow facilitated the learning process. Talking and writing about topics contextually associated with the learners themselves were understood as a vital element in ELT as they encourage English communication, elevate self-expression, and give learners confidence in using English. The findings presented here suggest that the value of including aspects of the learners' own cultures and identities in classroom lessons is well appreciated by teachers.

Table 3: Teachers' attitudes toward the use of textbooks, cultural representation, and self-expression

Statement	Mean score
The use of textbooks	
Textbooks are necessary for English language teaching.	4.14
English teachers can teach without textbooks.	3.86
English teachers should not follow the textbook strictly.	3.8
English teachers should not rely solely on exercises and activities presented in textbooks.	4.12
Cultural representation in EFL textbooks	
Thai food (e.g., Som Tum, Pad Thai, Tom Yum Goong) and attractions (e.g., Wat Phra Kaew, Kao Yai National Park, Bhumibol Dam) should be introduced in EFL textbooks.	4.85
Learners' cultures should be prioritized in EFL textbooks.	4
Learners learn more effectively if the content is relevant to them.	3.51
Self-expression	
Learners should be given opportunities to talk/write about topics related to their context.	4.76
Talking/Writing about learners themselves encourage them to use English to communicate.	3.48
It becomes easier for learners to use English in the topics related to their context.	3.74
Learners are more confident when talking/writing about topics related to their context.	3.27

Qualitative Findings

When asked to what extent they relied on textbooks for classroom instruction, *Ava* and *Suthee* said that textbooks were their main instructional material. *Nisha*, however, used the textbook only occasionally. She justified this by explaining:

(1) *It isn't necessary to use the textbook all the time……..I feel that the textbook that I am using is a bit too hard for my students……..to be honest, my students' English skills are very poor. The textbook doesn't seem to interest them at all, so I always use external materials or design my own.* (Nisha)

It is undeniable that many EFL learners in Thailand do not perform at the level they are expected to. Since 2015, the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) has served as the standard for teaching, learning, planning, and assessment in Thailand. The original CEFR divides learners into six sequential divisions ranging from A1 to C2 based on the language proficiency of learners. For lower secondary students (*Mathayom 1 – 3)*, the MoE expects learners to be able to demonstrate the proficiency described in A2 at the completion of the course, and thus, the imported textbooks used at these levels are designed in accordance with the CEFR descriptors, outlined by the publishers. *Nisha*'s concerns over the compatibility between her students and the textbook are understandable because most of her students, if not all, might fall below the expected level, posing difficulties in using the textbook.

When *Ava* and *Suthee* were encouraged to describe their use of the textbook, they put it this way:

(2) *I normally use the textbook when I teach……..It has colorful pictures and a lot of exercises that I can use……..I think it tells us what to teach like vocabulary or grammar. It also helps save time because I have many classes to teach.* (Ava)

(3) *I think the textbook is designed for students at different levels……..The textbook was distributed to all students. It will be a waste if we don't use it……..I use it most of the time. It tells what to focus on and where to begin……..Sometimes I use other materials, if I find it interesting.* (Suthee)

For *Ava* and *Suthee*, textbooks were the main resource for teaching and learning. Their responses concur with previous scholarly guidance on the extensive benefits of using textbooks. For example, Azier and Azier (2018) note that textbooks give teachers and learners convenience by providing the systemic structure of syllabus and exercises. As *Suthee* mentioned, teachers are given directions on which linguistic elements to focus on and are offered a logical sequence of what-to-do. It can be implied that the general advantages of using textbooks are well recognized by the teaching community, but that is not to say that commercial

textbooks are superior to teacher-produced materials. Sheldon (1988) argues that a textbook is often perceived to be more credible than teacher-produced materials. However, the responses of the participants did not indicate, at this point, whether the textbooks that they were using fulfilled their learners' needs and desires.

Consistent with the survey, they were then asked if it was necessary for EFL textbooks to represent Thai cultural identity. *Nisha* said:

(4) *It is necessary because I think textbooks can help raise the value of Thai culture and traditions among students……..Students these days tend to overlook their own cultures……..Even English textbooks can help preserve Thai culture, so I want to see more content about Thai people or places.* (Nisha)

Nisha believes that EFL textbooks can play a role in promoting Thai culture among young learners who might not yet be fully aware of their own cultural identity. The importance of representing learners' own cultural identity was also recognized by *Suthee.* He added:

(5) *Students need to be able to talk about Thailand in English……..so they can explain it to foreigners. I have noticed that when we talk about things related to Thailand, students seem to participate more actively in discussion……..because they are familiar with the content.* (Suthee)

It was suggested that with the inclusion of contextually related content, English becomes more relevant to learners and thus elevates learners' willingness to participate in class discussion. In this way, learners are able to make use of their prior knowledge to benefit their learning as they link the content to their personal experience, creating an interactive learning atmosphere. Socially and culturally relevant lessons make language learning more effective and offer a better learning experience (Huang, 2019).

As far as self-expression is concerned, the participants were asked whether if learners feel more at ease using English when they talk/write about themselves. For this question, they were encouraged to reflect on their teaching experiences when they assigned their students, for example, to share their personal information such as favorite food, after-school activities, and preferred career, rather than made-up information. *Ava* stated:

(6) *I am not sure, but I feel that they tend to complete the task more easily if it is about themselves……..They probably feel more comfortable too……..But sometimes it is difficult for them because they don't know the words.* (Ava)

Based on *Ava*'s response, once learners are asked to talk/write about themselves, using English to communicate can be easier. This may be due to the fact that they do not have to look anywhere else for information or are not compelled to employ artificial and/or irrelevant information. However, self-expression will be more challenging if learners lack the vocabulary related to their context. Such limitation is best explained by the scenario in which learners know the term 'spaghetti' but not 'egg noodle'. *Nisha* elaborated:

(7) *I always asked my students to share their stories……..I think it is important for students to be able to share information about themselves……..you need to be able to talk about yourself first before talking about others……..They are motivated to use English more when the topic is about themselves.* (Nisha)

Nisha was aware that self-expression opportunities are a crucial component of English language learning. She suggested that learners should be allowed to practice expressing themselves before they can discuss topics related to others. Self-expression opportunities are also believed to boost learners' motivation.

4.3 Authenticity of SETs
Quantitative Findings
This section presents and discusses the authenticity of SETs through the lens of teachers. Since this study took on the first three criteria of McGrath's (2002) authenticity framework, the respondents were encouraged to voice their opinions regarding the degree of relevancy, interest, and appropriateness of each of the 17 topic themes (revisit Figure 2). While the degree of relevancy and interest was measured through five-point Likert-type statements, the appropriateness was measured with multiple-choice items. According to the participating teachers, all the topics were appropriate for lower secondary students. Table 4 compares textbook topics with teachers' perceptions based on the degree of relevancy and interest.

Table 4: A comparison of textbooks and teachers' perceptions

Rank	Textbook	Relevancy	Interest
1	Extra-curricular activity	Self	Entertainment
2	Place	Lifestyle	Famous people
3	Relationship	Food/Drink/Health	Extra-curricular activity
4	Academic life	Academic life	Belief
5	Lifestyle	Relationship	Food/Drink/Health
6	Self	Place	Technology
7	Food/Drink/Health	Extra-curricular activity	Apparel
8	Animal Famous people	Apparel	Technology
9	Apparel Transportation	Technology	Lifestyle
10	Entertainment Festival/Celebration Holiday/Vacation	Transportation	Relationship
11	Environment	Environment	Self
12	Technology	Belief	Transportation
13	Belief	Festival/Celebration	Festival/Celebration
14		Holiday/Vacation	Academic life
15		Animal	Place
16		Famous people	Holiday/Vacation
17		Entertainment	Animal

There were mismatches between topics relevant to learners and topics attractive to learners. Topics related to learners' own lives were considered more relevant, such as those related to *self*, *lifestyle*, *food/drink/health*, and *academic life*. The dominance of *self* concurs with the authenticity analysis by Siegel (2014) indicating that topics related to *self* were most conversed about by Japanese L2 users. Nevertheless, teachers admitted that topics related to *entertainment* and *famous people* could be of great interest to learners even though they felt that such topics should not be prioritized considering the needs and tasks that learners undertake in their everyday lives. The level of relevancy and interest did not align well with the frequency of topics covered in the textbooks. For example, the most frequent topic, *extra-curricular activity*, was not the topic that teachers felt most relevant to learners. Another example is *entertainment*, which was ranked first as the most attractive topic but not the one most frequently covered in the textbooks.

Qualitative Findings

This section began with the question of what teachers consider when they are selecting topics for their students. According to their responses, relevancy and interest are recognized as the key elements. *Suthee* stated:

(8) *If I have to choose a topic to teach my students, I will choose the one that helps them improve their everyday communication skills……..I want to focus on everyday communication……..So, I think it is important for them to learn what they experience in their lives, such as introducing themselves, talking about food, and talking about their favorite activities.* (Suthee)

When the focus is on day-to-day communication, teachers might select topics that they see as relating to their students' everyday experiences. *Suthee*'s response justifies the rationale behind teachers' choices of topics such as *self*, *lifestyle*, and *food/drink/health* when taking relevancy into consideration. This also explains that teachers considered the level of relevancy of the topics as correlating with everyday utility and function rather than structure and grammar. On the other hand, *Ava* prioritized her students' interests because when they are engaged in topics of interest to them, they become active participants in the lesson. She explained:

(9) *I choose topics that interest them……..when we talk about something that they are interested in such as actors, movies, and hot news, I feel that they pay more attention……..They are eager to respond to my questions.* (Ava)

When asked if they find SETs in the textbooks relevant and/or interesting to their students, they all agreed that the tasks seemed reasonable for enhancing everyday general communication. However, some issues related to textbook SETs were raised. *Nisha* noted:

(10) *The tasks are okay if we only think about normal communication……..but they are not so interesting if you ask me……..The tasks seem too broad……..I mean, I understand   that it wants to focus on general contexts rather than Thai contexts.* (Nisha)

Nisha's response indicates that SETs provided in the textbook were not sufficiently contextualized. Since the textbooks were not designed specifically for learners of a particular country, there is a limit to what SETs can elicit. As Siegel (2014) pointed out, textbooks seem to focus on 'universal' and 'superficial' tasks (p. 371). In reality, simple SET topics such as favorite sports and hobbies require quite distinct in-depth vocabulary knowledge and detailed information for precise expression. This issue was elaborated on by *Suthee*. He pointed to the gap between other exercises and SETs. While SETs allow learners to talk/write about what is

relevant to them, other exercises tended to present content in NES contexts. This by no means suggests that EFL textbooks should focus entirely on learners' contexts as previous discussions on cultural representation in EFL textbooks have confirmed the importance of exposure to other cultural contexts (Alptekin, 2002; McKay, 2003).

At this point, we can at least assume that there were some issues associated with the authenticity of SET topics and the use of SETs. The participants were then encouraged to describe the intervention strategies that they used to facilitate self-expression. *Ava* explained:

(11) *As I said earlier, I like to stick to exercises in the textbook……..but there are times when I ask students to do the exercises differently……..I remember once, students were required to give directions from point A to point B on the map provided in the textbook……..We skipped that exercise, and I got them to give directions from the school to another place in the vicinity.* (Ava)

Despite being criticized for using prefabricated content in the presentation of the target language, such content, which is against the authenticity paradigm, continues to appear in EFL textbooks. In *Ava*'s case, learners were assigned to operate an artificial map, which presented unreal places and streets. Although the giving-directions exercise that she mentioned was not considered a SET in this study, she turned it into a SET by giving her students the freedom to choose a place familiar to them and utilize their prior experience to complete the task. On the other hand, *Nisha* continued on with her point about the missing link between other exercises and SETs under the same themes. She added:

(12) *When I find content that are not attractive or important to students, I use my own materials……..I asked students to read a passage about an important day in Thailand before asking them to tell their classmates what they do on that day.* (Nisha)

With the inclusion of content related to learners' prior experiences in other exercises, learners are facilitated in developing a better understanding of the language used in certain contexts before carrying out SETs. Imagine that a reading passage about the *Songkran Festival* is assigned to learners before asking them to write about their activities on *Songkran* day. In this way, learners can refer to the reading passage while they are writing.

Conclusion

This paper reports on the results obtained from an analysis of the authenticity of SET topics covered in eight EFL textbooks used at the secondary level as well as teachers' intervention strategies to facilitate self-expression. The number of SETs varied widely from textbook to textbook. Some textbooks provided a great deal of SETs to compensate for the absence of contextualized content. The 17 topic themes were perceived as appropriate by teachers. This study shines a light on the gap between the frequency of topics covered in the textbooks and teacher-perceived relevancy and interest to learners. For example, while textbooks tended to focus on topics related to *extra-curricular activity*, teachers considered sharing learners' information (*self*) was the most relevant topic. However, topics relevant to learners' needs might not attract their attention. Teachers confirmed that the 'right' topic has the potential to enhance learners' willingness to communicate and influence the learning process. Issues related to the use of textbook SETs included a reliance on superficial tasks and artificial content and the absence of contextualized content to support SETs. Contextualizing SETs and providing learners with supplementary materials appeared to be useful for teachers' interventions to facilitate self-expression.

Some considerations for policymakers and teachers can be drawn from the results of this study. Policymakers should encourage local publishers to produce EFL textbooks designed specifically for Thai learners with an emphasis on contextualized content. They should also provide appropriate support to teachers to develop in-house materials. It is essential that teachers provide their students with opportunities to express themselves in the topics that are related to their needs and interests. Teachers may consider using any of the textbook adaptation strategies in order to maximize the benefits of textbooks (Mede & Yalçın, 2019). Finally, teachers should not rely solely on exercises and tasks in textbooks and thus other learning resources should be considered as supplementary materials.

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An Investigation of the Factors that Determine Student Satisfaction with EFL Online Classes

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Abstract

This paper explores the factors which determine EFL student satisfaction with online classes during the lockdowns of the COVID-19 pandemic at a South Korean university. The sparse prior research related to online EFL student satisfaction has largely neglected to explore the importance of the teacher and the social aspect of the students' educational experiences, possibly because of the asynchronous nature of many distance learning programs. Research of online student satisfaction outside of the field of ESL has shown these factors to be important. New innovations with video conferencing software, such as Zoom, have enhanced the opportunities for students to interact with teachers and other students. With the sudden imperative of teaching classes online and new technology available to teachers, it is an opportune time to investigate further the factors which determine student satisfaction. Previous studies of online courses have shown a positive correlation between student satisfaction and achievement, making it vital that educators have a good understanding of the factors which influence satisfaction. The study used a 5-point Likert scale questionnaire to evaluate overall student satisfaction as well as the level of satisfaction of the individual aspects of the course. The data were analyzed using multivariate linear regression in SPSS. Data from 205 students were used in the final model with five variables found to significantly determine overall course satisfaction (teacher, self-efficacy, linguistic, social, and system). The paper also describes the

areas where students were the least satisfied with their experiences. Ways in which satisfaction can be boosted in these areas is discussed. This knowledge can be used by educators to help improve their online educational offerings.

I. INTRODUCTION

In February 2020, South Korea saw a sudden spike in the number of COVID-19 cases. Universities across the country responded quickly by postponing the beginning of the spring semester which was due to start in the first week of March. The severity of the global pandemic soon became clear and universities decided to begin the semester by switching from traditional face-to-face classes to online lessons. What was thought to be a temporary measure eventually became the norm for the whole semester. Many teachers found themselves teaching classes online for the first time and with no training.

Most universities in South Korea require students to complete at least one year of English conversation classes which are usually taught by native speakers. The classes are typically taught using English without the use of Korean. English education is mandatory from 3rd grade of elementary school through to the end of high school, so that students entering university usually have at least a basic ability in English. Traditionally English education in South Korea focused on learning grammar and sentences by rote (Min, 2008). In an effort to improve the speaking fluency of English learners, there has been a push since the 1990s to teach using a communicative approach.

The sudden implementation of online classes presented a key challenge for educators teaching English conversation. How would students practice their speaking skills in large online classes? Fortunately, the easy to use video conferencing software launched by Zoom in 2013 was available to meet the needs of teachers and students. Zoom allows teachers to create virtual classrooms where participants can communicate verbally and with a written chat. Teachers can use a whiteboard in a similar way as they would in a traditional classroom and the class can be separated into breakout rooms where students can practice conversations in small groups or one-to-one.

In order to improve the educational experiences of students taking online classes, faculty and school policy makers should have a good understanding of the factors which influence student satisfaction. However, there is limited research on student satisfaction of online EFL learning, and of the studies that have been conducted in this field (Jung, 2016; Suwantarathip, 2019; Wu

& Liu, 2013), there is no clear consensus of the most important factors.

Student satisfaction can be defined as an emotional response to the quality of the product and service which the learner experiences (Browne, Kaldenberg, Browne, & Brown, 1998). Long (1985) describes student satisfaction as a pleasant feeling or attitude towards the learning environment, which is a major goal in itself of adult education. Previous studies of online courses have shown a positive correlation between student satisfaction and the quality of learner outcomes and achievement (Asakereh & Dehghannezhad, 2015; Rashidi & Moghadam, 2014), as well as student retention (Jung, 2016). Therefore, due to the importance of student satisfaction and the sudden necessity of online classes it is important to further the research at this time.

The author was not able to find any previous research of online EFL student satisfaction in the setting of South Korean universities. However, Jung (2016) studied the factors impacting online EFL learner satisfaction in South Korean secondary schools. The study consisted of 285 respondents (grades 10 to 12) from 12 secondary schools who used e-Learning in a variety of ways. It concluded that attitude toward using technology, computer self-efficacy and outcome expectation were factors which influence overall satisfaction. One limitation of this study is that it did not consider the students' perception of the teacher or the social aspect of their learning experiences. These are two factors shown in the general education literature to be important factors which determine overall satisfaction. An explanation for this omission might be that some of the students involved in the study were using the internet of their own volition without guidance from the class teacher. The paper is not clear to the extent of the e-Learning being part of the class curriculum.

The role of the teacher in determining student satisfaction was also largely absent in a study of 360 blended learning EFL university students in China by Wu and Liu (2013). Their survey did include questions related to teacher feedback and encouragement, although these were grouped with other factors not directly related to the teacher. This did not allow their paper to state that the instructor was a determining factor of student satisfaction. Their research concluded that determining factors of student satisfaction were learning climate, perceived enjoyment, perceived usefulness, system functionality, social interaction, content feature, and performance expectations.

A study of blended learning EFL university students in Thailand by Suwantarathip (2019) included questions related to the instructor, but did not include other factors such as social interaction. 415 respondents were surveyed who were taking face-to-face and online classes. The study found that teacher perceptions were correlated with overall satisfaction; however,

regression analysis did not find perception of the instructor to be a statistically significant determining factor of overall satisfaction. Only attitude towards blended learning was concluded as a factor which determined overall satisfaction.

A reason why the teacher and social interaction might have been overlooked in the prior research is that many online EFL classes have been asynchronous with students having limited contact with each other and the teacher. The sparse examples of research related to online EFL student satisfaction and the missing variables from the prior research highlight the need for further exploration of this topic during a period when online education has suddenly become the preferred method of teaching and innovations in video conferencing are enhancing the level of interacting within online education.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Satisfaction is a multidimensional and subjective variable which can be affected by many factors (Griffiths, Johnson & Hartley, 2007). These factors can be grouped into general categories and analyzed to determine their impact on overall satisfaction. A review of the literature highlights the factors which researchers have found to be important. Asakereh and Dehghannezhad (2015) grouped these factors into six categories in their study of face-to-face EFL classes: linguistic, social, materials, teacher, system, and psychological. The categories of technology and demographic factors can be added to this list. Each of these will be reviewed in turn. The research in the area of online EFL is sparse, so to get a complete picture of the factors which affect satisfaction, it is necessary to also consider face-to-face EFL education, as well as online education in general, and not limited to only EFL. Linguistic factors are uniquely related to the study of languages. A study by Qutob (2018) at a private school in Saudi Arabia found that student satisfaction with their perceived acquired speaking skills was positively correlated to their overall satisfaction of the classroom environment. The linguistic factors which were linked to overall satisfaction included vocabulary learned, effect on fluency and relevance to real life communication. These findings are supported more generally in educational research within universities where perceived learning has been shown to be highly correlated with student satisfaction (Swan, 2001).

Even while studying online, the social aspect of learning is still very important for students. A study of Chinese university students taking EFL classes in a blended learning format (Wu & Liu, 2013) found a significant relationship between social interaction and satisfaction. Similarly, Swan (2001) found that university students who were content with their level of interaction with the teacher and discussion with classmates were more likely to be satisfied overall with

their asynchronous online course. However, her study did highlight that students thought they learned less when group work was worth a higher percentage of their course grade, with students stating the difficulty of getting group members to collaborate and work together.

Technology advances are changing the way learners interact with study materials. Web-streaming services such as YouTube allow students to rewind and replay, and to access the material where and when they want (Dziuban, Moskal, Brophy-Ellison, & Shea, 2007). In a study of secondary school students studying EFL online in South Korea, Jung (2016) reported that the quality of learning materials had a positive effect on their learning experience, suggesting that students enjoy studying with up-to-date content. In the context of classroom EFL learning, Qutob (2018) reported that perceptions of speaking activities, class discussion topics and difficulty level of the course book were correlated with overall satisfaction. The importance of EFL learning materials was also highlighted in a study of university students in Vietnam (Tuyen, 2018). In a questionnaire gauging satisfaction of learner outcomes of the four English skills: speaking, listening, reading and writing, many students expressed their dissatisfaction with their experience. The students expressed their frustration that the teachers simply followed the activities in the book, even though the tasks were not designed for real-life situations and were not relevant to all students' proficiency levels, while grammar exercises taught nothing new and were boring.

In an examination of the factors that determine university student satisfaction of online courses, Bolliger and Martindale (2004) reported that variables related to the teacher were the most important. The items related to the instructor included communication, feedback, preparation, subject knowledge, teaching method, encouragement and accessibility. However, in a study of student and teacher perceptions of online and face-to-face classes, Otter et al. (2013) reported that online university students felt disconnected from the teachers and perceived classes to be more self-directed to the point that a teacher was not needed. Even though emerging technologies, such as video conferencing and chat rooms, provide enhanced opportunities of increasing collaboration between students and teachers, it might be the case that teachers are not making full use of the benefits of these new technologies (Abrami, Bernard, Bures, Borokhovski, & Tamim, 2011), leaving students feeling isolated. The research of Swan (2001) also supports these findings that when students have less access to their teachers, they feel dissatisfied and learn less, indicating that it might not be possible to automate teaching. The role of the teacher in increasing student satisfaction was found to be essential in a study of face-to-face EFL students at an Iranian private institute (Rashidi & Moghadam, 2014). Teachers who were perceived to care about their students, who responded to students' needs and gave

timely feedback on progress were the most successful at boosting satisfaction and ultimately achievement. The importance of timely feedback and frequent interaction between teacher and students has also been reported in blended EFL settings (Lee, 2018; Wu & Liu, 2013). The value of effective student-teacher interaction was further highlighted in a study at a university in Australia of 761 online students of all majors (Palmer & Holt, 2009). A clear explanation of what was required to get good marks was also found to be significant as a determining factor of overall satisfaction in their regression analysis, which used individual Likert type items, as opposed to Likert scales which were used in this present study.

One of the key advantages of asynchronous online learning is that it allows students to study when they want to (Coldwell, Craig, & Goold, 2006). However, in synchronous online classes that use video conferencing software, students will not have this advantage, because classes will be scheduled at set times. Asynchronous learning can feel like a correspondence class where students might not even be aware of other students. However, in a synchronous class group video call, the size of the class becomes important. Large classes can make speaking activities burdensome, causing students to feel shy and uncomfortable (Sim & Pop, 2016).

South Korea has a high level of technology adoption. It has the highest percentage of smart phone ownership in the world (Taylor & Silver, 2019). However, even though Korean students are tech-able, computer related problems can still cause them to feel dissatisfied. Jung (2016) reported that students who were more confident using e-Learning computer systems had higher levels of satisfaction with their course. Technological problems and a lack of access to technical support can cause online students to feel distressed and frustrated (Hara & Kling, 2003). In a study of Spanish online university students, Martín-Rodríguez, Fernández-Molina, Montero-Alonso, and González-Gómez (2015), reported that technology factors influenced satisfaction, with the suitability, design and features of the online learning system being important.

Psychological factors or learner characteristics which might influence student satisfaction is an area which is lacking in the literature. In a study of online EFL students at a Taiwanese university, Shih, Chen, Chen, and Wey (2013) reported that conscientiousness was found to be correlated with satisfaction. Jung (2016) reported that expected grade had a positive effect on satisfaction. Throughout the duration of a course, teachers often give students scores from homework and quizzes which count towards their final grade, giving them an idea of what their final grade might be. Palmer and Holt (2009) reported that how well the students thought they were doing in the unit and their confidence in learning online were significant factors in determining overall satisfaction. A student's belief in their ability to learn can be described as self-efficacy.

A review of the literature often shows that the convenience of online learning is one of its key advantages (Coldwell et al., 2006; Dziuban et al., 2007; Owston, York & Murtha, 2013). Students save time and money (Suwantarathip, 2019) by not having to travel to the university. However, in all the research that has been reviewed there was no attempt to quantify this convenience by measuring the distance a student would otherwise have to travel if they were attending traditional lessons in the classroom. It might be the case that students who live farther away from the university are more satisfied with online classes than those that live near the campus.

Research Questions

The need for further research surrounding online EFL student satisfaction is shown by the sparse prior research in this field. Of the research that has been conducted, there is a neglect of the teacher and social factors which have been shown to be important in face-to-face EFL classes and in online classes in general. With new innovations in video conferencing software changing the possibilities of how languages are taught online and the sudden imperative of teaching classes online, it is an opportune time to investigate further the factors which determine online EFL student satisfaction. To that end, this research seeks to answer the following questions:

1. What factors determine university student satisfaction in EFL online classes in a South Korean setting?
2. What factors are EFL online students least satisfied with?

METHOD

1. Participants

This study was conducted in the spring semester of 2020 at a private university in South Korea. Undergraduate students of all majors at the university must complete two semesters of English in their freshman year. A semester consists of two-hour classes every week over a 15-week period. The students were level tested before the start of the semester and given a class level: beginner which corresponds to a Common European Framework (CEFR) level of A2, low-intermediate with a CEFR of B1 or high-intermediate with a CEFR of B2. They could then register for classes to suit their timetable. Classes have a maximum of 20 students. The students are aged between 18 and 23 years old. The majority of Korean university students have been studying English since elementary school. The classes are normally traditional face-to-face lessons; however, because of the global COVID-19 pandemic, they were taught online

throughout the semester.

Five teachers' classes were involved in this study. Four teachers were native speakers of English, including the author of this study, and one was a non-native speaker. The students are taught the four language skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), with an emphasis on speaking and listening. The classes were taught using a variety of methods, including video conferencing using Zoom, videos made by the teacher shared on the university website or YouTube, activities from a textbook, and supplemental worksheets.

Instruments

Students were asked to complete a questionnaire designed to investigate the students' satisfaction with the online EFL course. The attribute questions used in the questionnaire partially replicated those used by Asakereh and Dehghannezhad (2015) in their investigation of student satisfaction of EFL traditional classes in an Iranian university. Additional questions relating to teaching online were informed from the preliminary research. The questionnaire consisted of 22 attribute questions and two for overall satisfaction with a Likert response scale of 1 (very unsatisfied), 2 (unsatisfied), 3 (neither satisfied or unsatisfied), 4 (satisfied) and 5 (very satisfied). The attribute items were grouped into seven categories or scales: linguistic, social, materials, teacher, system, technology, and self-efficacy. A Cronbach's Alpha test was performed on the items in each scale to measure the reliability of the scales. The lowest score was 0.764 for the self-efficacy scale. This shows that items used in the scales are consistent and measure the same observation. The questionnaire Likert item questions are shown in table 1.

Finally, students were asked to complete five demographic questions. The questions relate to age, gender, study time, travel time, and class level. Time spent studying each week will be used as a proxy for the psychology factor conscientiousness, as this attribute does not fit the satisfaction rating of the questionnaire. The demographic questions are shown in table 2.

The questionnaire was first written in English and then professionally translated into Korean. Due to the sudden outbreak of COVID-19 and the subsequent decision to teach classes online there was not time to pilot the questionnaire. The questionnaire was sent to 730 students by e-mail in the tenth week of the semester. The students were informed that the survey was anonymous and would not affect their grade in any way. A total of 225 students returned the questionnaire by e-mail. 20 responses were not included in the study, either because they were incomplete or they were received in the final week of the semester, when students' responses might not reflect their true opinions during the semester because they might give positive

answers due to a relief of finishing the course (Hara & Kling, 2003). This gave a moderate response rate of 31 percent.

Method of Analysis

The individual Likert items were summed to create a multi-item Likert scale of each category and the dependent variable of student satisfaction. Multi-item scales are preferable to single-items when measuring complex constructs as they are more reliable and precise (Loo, 2002). SPSS version 16.0 was used to create a Pearson's correlation matrix, and to run multivariate linear regression using the stepwise method in order to calculate the factors that determine overall student satisfaction. Using multivariate linear regression will help to give a better understanding of the relationship between the dependent and independent variables by showing the strength and direction of causality, while the stepwise method was used because of its ability to manage a potentially large number of independent variables. Descriptive statistics will be used to identify the factors that students are the least satisfied with.

RESULTS

1. Descriptive Statistics

[Table 1]

Questionnaire Likert Item Questions and Response Tally with Mean and Standard Deviation

Scale	Item	Question	1	2	3	4	5	Mean	Standard Deviation
Linguistics	1	How do you rate vocabulary learned?	4	1	31	86	83	4.19	0.849
	2	How do you rate effect of class on accuracy?	4	3	29	72	97	4.24	0.891
	3	How do you rate effect of class on fluency?	3	10	35	70	87	4.11	0.956
Social	4	How do you rate cooperation between you and classmates?	10	21	76	47	51	3.53	1.118
	5	How do you rate proficiency level of classmates?	6	9	76	63	51	3.70	0.987
	6	How do you rate opportunities to communicate with teacher and classmates?	6	16	45	50	88	3.97	1.109
	7	How do you rate your ability to communicate with native speakers?	5	13	45	69	73	3.94	1.025
Material	8	How do you rate difficulty level of study material?	3	7	33	68	94	4.19	0.926

			1	2	3	4	5	Mean	SD
	9	How do you rate sufficiency and amount of study activities?	2	5	30	60	108	4.30	0.878
	10	How do you rate study and discussion topics?	1	6	41	70	87	4.15	0.875
	11	How do you rate audio and visual material?	1	3	31	56	114	4.36	0.826
System	12	How do you rate class times?	0	2	19	52	132	4.53	0.704
	13	How do you rate number of students in the class?	0	1	30	44	130	4.48	0.758
Tech.	14	How do you rate university website?	4	19	53	56	73	3.85	1.070
	15	How do you rate ease of use of computer software?	3	11	50	52	89	4.04	1.014
Teacher	16	How do you rate feedback on your mistakes?	2	4	30	51	118	4.36	0.872
	17	How do you rate access to teacher?	2	3	32	51	117	4.36	0.866
	18	How do you rate teacher's instruction method?	0	3	24	53	125	4.46	0.757
	19	How do you rate teacher's relationship with you?	2	3	33	48	119	4.36	0.872
	20	How do you rate clarity of explanation of what is required to get good grades?	1	5	22	56	121	4.42	0.816
Self-efficacy	21	How do you rate the level of your self-confidence to communicate in English in this class?	8	22	62	57	56	3.64	1.110
	22	How do you rate the grade you're expecting to get?	1	13	4	75	73	4.00	0.931
Overall satisfaction	23	How do you rate your enjoyment of this class?	3	5	37	49	111	4.27	0.940
	24	How do you rate your overall satisfaction of the class as a whole?	2	2	17	91	93	4.32	0.750

Table 1 shows the Likert item questions from the questionnaire and a response tally with the mean and standard deviation. The items which students were most satisfied with were in the system scale. The mean response for satisfaction with class times was 4.53 on the Likert scale, and the mean for satisfaction with the number of students in the class was 4.48. The mean value was also high for items in the linguistic, materials, and teacher scales.

The results from this table can be used to answer the research question as to what factors EFL online students are least satisfied with. The students were least satisfied with items in the social scale. Cooperation between the student and classmates had the lowest mean of 3.53. This figure shows overall satisfaction for the sample population; however, 15 percent of students

responded very dissatisfied or dissatisfied. In the self-efficacy scale, satisfaction with self-confidence to communicate in English in class was also low with a mean of 3.64 and 15 percent of students gave a very dissatisfied or dissatisfied response.

In the technology scale, satisfaction with the university website had a relatively low mean of 3.85. 11 percent of students gave a very dissatisfied or dissatisfied response. However, the other item in the technology scale, ease of use of computer software, had a more positive response with a mean of 4.04.

[Table 2]

Questionnaire Demographic Questions and Response Tally

	Answer	**Tally**
Gender	Male	84
	Female	121
Western age	18/19	97
	20/21	73
	22/23	28
	24+	7
Hours per week studying for this class	Less than 1	58
	1 - 2	124
	2 - 3	23
	More than 3	0
Travel time from university (one way)	Less than 1	68
	1 - 2	69
	2 - 3	37
	More than 3	31
What is your class level?	Beginner	79
	Low-intermediate	47
	High-intermediate	79

Table 2 shows the responses to the demographic questions. The majority of the students in the classes were female at 59 percent. 47 percent of students were aged 18 – 19, and just 3 percent were aged 24 and over. The majority of students spent between 1 – 2 hours studying for the class at 60 percent, while no students reported that they spent over 3 hours studying. Most of the students would have otherwise spent between 1 – 2 hours travelling one-way to get to university at 34 percent. The students in this sample population were evenly presented from the different class levels with 38.5 percent beginners, 23 percent low-intermediate, and 38.5 percent high-intermediate.

Statistical Assumptions

The data were examined to check statistical assumptions. There were no missing values. The dependent variable was not normally distributed, because the data were from a Likert scale; however, as the sample size is reasonably large, this is acceptable. One regression outlier was identified with a minimum standard residual greater than -3. Regression outliers are where there is a discrepancy between the observed value and the value predicted by the model. Five multivariate outliers were identified in a Mahalanobis test. Multivariate outliers are observations with an unusual pattern across several variables. Bakker and Wicherts (2014) recommend that outliers should not be carelessly removed because doing so increases the probability of finding a false positive and their presence does not strongly compromise the statistical conclusions. As a result, both the regression outliers and the multivariate outliers were reviewed and it was decided to keep them in the model as they were not serious. The number of respondents used in the final model was n=205.
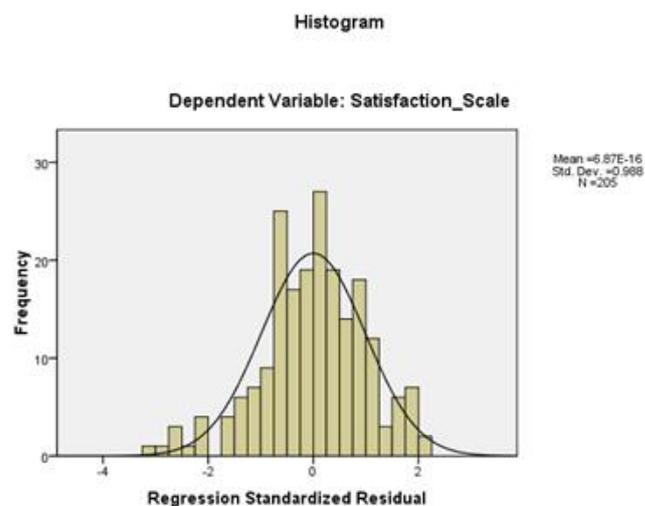
[Figure 1]

Histogram of the standardized residuals

Figure 1 shows a histogram of the standardized residuals with one outlier. The residuals should have a bell-shaped distribution. This chart shows a normal distribution of the residuals, which is a basic assumption of linear regression. It demonstrates the effectiveness of the model at predicting the dependent variable of overall student satisfaction.

[Table 3]

Pearson's Correlations Matrix

	OS	LG	SC	MT	TC	SS	TN	SE
Satisfaction (OS)	1							
Linguistic (LG)	0.718**	1						
Social (SC)	0.668**	0.571**	1					
Materials (MT)	0.693**	0.658**	0.643**	1				
Teacher (TC)	0.762**	0.728**	0.706**	0.751**	1			
System (SS)	0.606**	0.477**	0.475**	0.608**	0.704**	1		
Technology (TN)	0.628**	0.585**	0.555**	0.564**	0.671**	0.554**	1	
Self-Efficacy (SE)	0.730**	0.556**	0.523**	0.498**	0.633**	0.399**	0.500**	1

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The attribute variables were checked for multicollinearity by calculating the Variance Inflation Factors (VIF). Multicollinearity is present when two or more variables are highly correlated. All the VIF values were below 5, which indicates that multicollinearity was not problematic. A Pearson correlation matrix (Table 3) was also examined. The OS column shows the correlation between overall satisfaction (OS) and the independent variables. All of the variables are positively correlated with overall satisfaction, with the highest correlation being with the teacher (0.762). The other columns (LG through SE) show the correlation between the independent variables. The highest correlation coefficient in the matrix among the variables was 0.751 (teacher and material). This indicates that some multicollinearity existed between the variables; however, it was deemed to be acceptable as all coefficients were below 0.8 and the VIF levels were all below 5.

Regression Analysis

Multivariate linear regression using the stepwise method was performed to establish the questionnaire scales and demographic variables which determine student satisfaction. Five independent variables were statistically significant in the final model of student satisfaction:

teacher, self-efficacy, linguistic, system, and social.

The variables for material and technology, as well as all the demographic variables were excluded from the final model as they were not statistically significant with a p-value greater than 0.05. The stepwise method does not give values for the omitted variables.

[Table 4]

Coefficients

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig
	B	Std Error	Beta		
(Constant)	-0.029	0.402		-0.073	0.942
Teacher	0.068	0.031	0.156	2.234	0.027
Self-Efficacy	0.307	0.038	0.360	7.994	0.000
Linguistic	0.153	0.035	0.234	4.435	0.000
System	0.202	0.057	0.170	3.533	0.001
Social	0.068	0.022	0.155	3.057	0.003

Table 4 shows the regression coefficients of the explanatory variables in the final model in the order of their effect on overall satisfaction with teacher having the greatest effect. The non-standardized regression equation can be written thus:

$$Y = -0.029 + (0.068 \times teacher) + (0.307 \times self\text{-}efficacy) + (0.153 \times linguistic) + (0.202 \times system) + (0.068 \times social)$$

These figures show the positive correlation between the variables and the dependent variable, and can be used to determine a student's overall satisfaction. The figures are not directly comparable, because each of the variable scales contained a different amount of item questions; however, this does not affect the conclusions of the model.

[Table 5]

Model summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std Error of the Estimate
1	0.762	0.581	0.579	1.022
2	0.839	0.705	0.702	0.860
3	0.854	0.730	0.726	0.825
4	0.863	0.745	0.739	0.804
5	0.870	0.756	0.750	0.787

Table 5 shows the model summary. The stepwise regression method adds one variable at a time to the model until there are no more statistically significant variables. It orders the variables by the highest correlated to the dependent variable as shown in the correlation matrix (Table 3). The R squared increases with each model as another variable is added and the explanatory power of the model rises. Model 5 was the final model with five independent variables.

Because the dependent variable was not normally distributed, it is better to interpret the adjusted R square of 0.750. This shows that the variables account for 75% of the change in overall student satisfaction. This suggests a reasonable goodness-of-fit of the model, but there are potentially other significant factors which account for student satisfaction which are not included in the model.

[Figure 3]

Model of student satisfaction
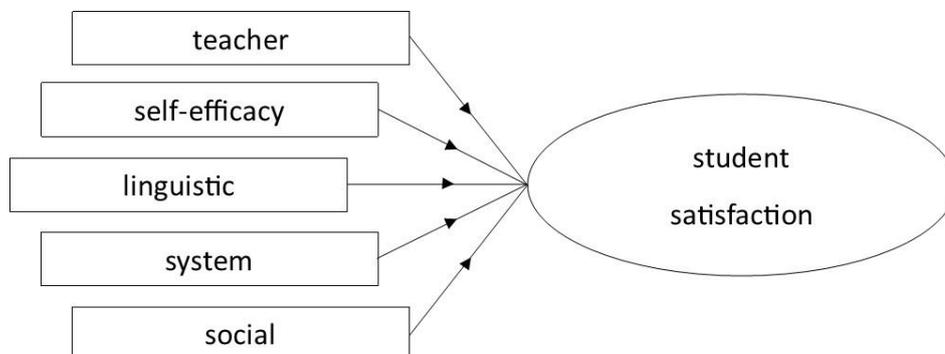
According to these results, the final model of the factors which determine student satisfaction is represented in Figure 3. The most important factor is teacher, followed by self-efficacy, linguistic, system and finally social.

V. DISCUSSION

The final model suggests that the teacher is the most important factor which influences overall student satisfaction. The teacher independent variable accounted for 58% of change in overall student satisfaction (see Table 5). The questionnaire items included in the teacher subscale related to feedback, accessibility, teaching methods, relationship and explanation of requirements. In order to increase student satisfaction, teachers should clearly define what students need to do to get good grades and give timely feedback. It is important for instructors to be accessible and to increase interaction with students (Swan, 2001). However, students often expect teachers to respond immediately. Therefore, teachers should ensure that the students' expectations of how soon they will get a response should be realistic (Coldwell et al., 2006). To help ensure teachers create an optimal learning environment for their students, education policy-makers should invest in the continued training of facility members (Asakereh & Dehghannezhad, 2015). As Bolliger and Martindale (2004) simply concluded, "instructors who teach in the online environment should be good instructors".

The second most important factor that explained student satisfaction was self-efficacy. Students that perceive themselves to be more effective learners are more satisfied with their learning experience. Bandura (1977) stated that expectations of performance can be increased by (1) performance accomplishments, (2) watching others, (3) verbal persuasion, and (4) physiological states. Teachers can implement these processes in the online EFL class by giving ample opportunities to practice the target language, have students demonstrate the language to the class when using web conferencing software, give encouragement and positive feedback, and help to create a relaxing and stress-free environment. By implementing these measures teachers will help to boost the self-confidence of students when speaking in front of the class, which was one of the areas where students were the least satisfied.

The third most important factor identified by this research is linguistic factors. Items in this category of the questionnaire included vocabulary learned, and effect on grammar and fluency. Ultimately the purpose of students taking the class is to improve their ability to use English. This result matches findings by Qutob (2018). It is of note that the results of the correlation matrix show linguistic factors were highly correlated with the teacher (0.728). This suggests that the best way to improve a student's satisfaction with linguistic factors might be to focus

on teacher training to help promote more effective education.

Education system also influenced student satisfaction. This category included questions regarding class times and the number of students in the class. The flexibility of online learning where students can study when they want and at their own pace is often cited as one of its main advantages (Coldwell et al., 2006; Roblyer, 1999). However, as video conferencing tools such as Zoom become more popular and classes become more synchronous, how classes fit into students' busy schedules has become more important. Martín-Rodríguez et al. (2015) suggest alternative timetables for learning and evaluation might help to raise student satisfaction. Coldwell et al. (2006) also reported that one of the biggest disadvantages of online learning is that some students dominate class discussions. Large classes can exacerbate this problem, as students can feel anxious and avoid communicating, while in smaller classes, students feel more confident and have more opportunity to practice, leading to a higher perception of capability (Khazaei, Zadeh, & Ketabi, 2012).

Finally, social factors were found to be predictors of overall satisfaction. This supports the findings of Wu and Liu (2013), who recommended that teachers interact with students frequently and participation points should be given to motivate students to interact with each other and to share learning experiences. Social factors were also identified as factors which the students were least satisfied with, making this an important area for educators to focus on making improvements. This can be done by teachers utilizing new technologies. Video conference classes not only enhance the interaction between teacher and students, but can also be used to promote speaking practice between students. Zoom has a function where a class can be split into breakout rooms, allowing students to practice their speaking skills one-to-one or in small groups. Video conferencing software can also be used for homework assignments where students arrange a meeting and conduct a conversation, which can easily be recorded and submitted to the teacher.

The material and technology variables were excluded from the model, because their effect on overall satisfaction was not shown to be statistically significant. Material might have been excluded from the model, because it is highly correlated with the teacher variable (as shown in Table 3). Students who are satisfied with the instruction material are also likely to be satisfied with the teacher, and vice versa. However, linear regression was not able to separate the relationship between these variables. As material was shown to be highly correlated with overall satisfaction, the importance of this factor should not be overlooked.

Technology might not have been a determining factor because of the high level of technology adoption in South Korea; however, the university website was identified as a factor which

students were relatively unsatisfied with. Improving the usability of the university website is beyond the scope of individual teachers, but in this situation, teachers can use other software to share information and materials with students, such as the communication platform Microsoft Teams or instant messaging groups.

None of the demographic variables were statistically significant. Notably, this study was not able to determine a statistically significant relationship between the distance a student would otherwise have travel if they were attending traditional classes and their satisfaction of online classes which they can take at home. One reason for this might be that the sample size was too small. Another possible explanation is related to students who had paid for dormitory rooms on campus. These students had the shortest distance to travel to the university and yet they might be the most dissatisfied with their online experiences, because they had paid for a dorm room which was of no benefit to them.

VI. CONCLUSION

To answer the first research question of what factors determine university student satisfaction in EFL online classes in a South Korean setting, this study has shown those factors to be the teacher, self-efficacy, linguistic, social, and system. To answer the second research question of what factors are EFL online students least satisfied with, the study found those be social, self-confidence to speak in front of the class, and the university website. However, due to the study being conducted at only one university and the limited sample size, some caution should be used when generalizing these results to the wider student population. This knowledge can be used by teachers and policy-makers to help highlight areas where improvements in their educational offering can be made.

This research paper has highlighted the importance of two factors which have been largely overlooked in previous online EFL studies, namely the instructor and social interaction. Just as in other areas of education, whether online or face-to-face, the instructor and social interaction are important factors in determining student satisfaction.

Further research could explore the effectiveness of policies implemented to improve the educational offering in the areas highlighted in this study which affect student satisfaction. If this study were to be replicated, it would be helpful to conduct small group interviews to discuss some of the issues and opinions identified in the analysis. This would allow for a deeper understanding of the origin of those opinions and how areas deemed to be lacking can be improved.

This research did have some limitations. The questionnaire was not adequately prepared and piloted before it was given to the students because of the sudden and unexpected cancellation of face-to-face classes. The teacher category had an excess of question items, while some other categories only had two items. A more balanced number of questions in each category would have been better. Further research also highlighted other aspects that could have affected student satisfaction which were not included in the questionnaire, such as previous experience of studying online (Dziuban et al., 2007) and access to a computer (Coldwell et al., 2006).

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Constructing WhatsApp-based Speaking Instructional Material (WABSIM) for EFL Teaching and Learning: A Need Analysis

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Abstract

Today's English teaching and learning speaking in the digital era at the university level is full of challenges but promotes many possibilities. WhatsApp, the most popular social media used for communication, can be interactively utilized to study speaking about daily conversations in a flexible way anytime and anywhere to solve students' speaking problems as well as one of the teaching and learning media in the disruptive era. This research was trying to develop WhatsApp-based speaking instructional material (WABSIM) for the Basic Speaking subject to help students speaking English effortlessly and fast about daily topics. This research was the first step of Research and Development (R&D) of the ADDIE model i.e., to analyze students' needs to learn Basic Speaking through WhatsApp instructions. The research took place at the English Education Study Program of one private university in South East Sulawesi, Indonesia. Sixty-eight (68) students participated in giving information regarding to the students' needs through an online survey in the Google Form. It revealed that students wanted to learn the Basic Speaking materials integrated with mobile technology in the form of social media of WhatsApp to make the learning is fast, enjoyable, fun, more communicative, more collaborative, and help them learning anytime anywhere, in and outside the classroom more independently. Also, students need real-life topics, authentic, interactive, and presenting domestic and international viewpoints in the WABSIM. Besides, the developed speaking materials should cover the audio and visual materials to cover students' learning styles varieties, and the materials should include the speaking components such as vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, fluency, comprehension, and task. Data resulting from the needs analysis informed the researchers of crucial issues to consider in developing WABSIM for the

design, development, implementation, and evaluation in the next phase of this project. Further, students' preferences and learning goals can be integrated with perspectives from the mobile learning literature and the affordances of WhatsApp to facilitate communication, collaboration and interaction in ways that have the potential to accelerate English language learning on the part of university students. There would be value in conducting similar needs analyses for other mobile learning instructional material development processes internationally, both for comparison with the Indonesian results here and in order to inform those development processes.

Keywords: *Need analysis, mobile technology, social media, speaking skill, WhatsApp, WABSIM*

Introduction

Mobile learning is considered to have potential as today's learning model. Mobile technologies allow learning anytime and anywhere (Popescu, 2011, p.90) and can support lifelong learning. According to Arif (2019), an innovative revolutionary approach towards learning is identified through mobile in this 21st era. A needs analysis was conducted to determine the speaking models, speaking situations, speaking styles, speaking components, speaking contents, speaking contexts, speaking topics, speaking activities, and speaking material adaptation in the form of WhatsApp-based (WAB) instruction that suit with challenges and opportunities offered in this era. Instructional approach is crucial and it helps educator meets students' needs in learning activities (Maming, et al., 2020).

Karademir, et al (2019) suggests that a platform for English language learning is needed particularly speaking materials which enable students to access them anytime, anywhere. This allows students to communicate actively, build confidence in speaking, extend their learning and flip the speaking classroom. A few studies have explored the provision of English teaching materials in general, but none has developed instructional materials for teaching speaking skills for university students using WhatsApp (Speroff, 2016).

Kukulska-Hulme et al. (2015) argue that mobile technologies in the classroom provide an additional platform for interaction and communication and that these technologies expand and extend the territory where language can be rehearsed and practiced. By developing materials based on a need analysis, it is expected that it will be possible to actively engage the students to communicatively perform oral communication in English in their day to day interactions both on campus and in society more generally. This frequent practice in authentic

contexts has the potential to promote students' independent learning, motivation, and enhance their speaking skills (Maulina, Noni, Basri, 2019). The findings of this analysis, the proposed speaking module called WhatsApp-Based speaking module (WABSIM) is developed and evaluated.

Literature Review

Social Media in EFL Teaching

Social media differ from traditional or industrial media in many ways, including quality, frequency, usability, immediacy, and permanence. Social media operate in a dialogic transmission system (many sources to many receivers) (Pavlik & MacIntoch, 2015). Social media like Twitter, Facebook, and Instagram are primarily used as media for sharing pictures and text (Munir, 2017) while WhatsApp, Facebook chat, BBM, LINE, Yahoo Messenger, and Skype are chatting media (p.75). Kietzmann, Hermkens, McCarthy, and Silvestre (2011, pp. 243-247) present a framework that defines social media using seven functional building blocks: identity, conversations, sharing, presence, relationships, reputation, and groups.

One of research sample of developing learning resource integrated with the social media in EFL teaching was a research by Sakkir (2017). She conducted a study on the use of Facebook in developing writing instructional material. This work revealed that students in the English Department at STKIP Muhammadiyah Rappang achieved significant writing achievement improvement through using Facebook. She found that writing material developed via Facebook can assist students in solving their writing problems, and that the students highly valued the use of Facebook in teaching English writing.

WhatsApp, the most popular social media among undergraduate students according to Ahad and Lim (2014), could positively influences students' ability to speak daily topics and connect with peers online anytime, anywhere, and to anyone. Minalla (2018) states that WhatsApp, especially WhatsApp groups, can reinforce EFL learners' verbal interactions beyond the classroom context, which means that learners can be independent in learning with the materials. Vygotsky's Constructivist Learning Theory (1978) suits the use of WhatsApp. This theory aims to develop the students' social interaction as well as to raise and share information.

Need Analysis

Brown (1995) identifies the term 'needs analysis' (also called 'needs assessment') in an educational context in terms of the activities involved in gathering information that will

serve as the basis for developing a curriculum which meets the learning needs of a particular group of students. Piskurich (2015, p. 90-92) proposes that there are two types of needs analysisespecially in relation to instructional material development namely audience analysis and learning analysis.

Audience analysis (which in this research is called 'student needs analysis) is done prior to learning and product analysis in designing a program. According to Piskurich (2015) audience analysis aspects include age, gender, educational experience, interests, prerequisite knowledge and skills, and many other characteristics that can help the designer to properly evaluate both the learner and the program (p.92).

In addition, Piskurich (2015, p.90) proposes that learning analysis is done through three processes: (1) working with the manager (which in this research is working with the lecturers to define what required, (2) gathering data concerned with the program of developing the instructional material, and (3) analyzing the possible learning to decide which of them the program must cover. The topic, learning objectives, task, content, procedures, and additional information to support the content are considered in doing the learning analysis.

Table 1

Aid proposed by Piskurich (2015, pp. 103-104)

Type	Purpose	Sequence	Best Method	Product
Audience Analysis/students need analysis	To determine the characteristics of the target learners that will be critical for program development	Might be done anytime during the design process, but always before developing program material	Questionnaire and interviews with learners and others who know the students' characteristics	A list of general characteristics that the designer needs to consider when creating course material
Learning Analysis/learning needs analysis	To discover the learning needs of the organization, a work group or individual contributors To determine the critical learning necessary to meet a training need	This is done in the beginning before designing the program or Done in lieu of job analysis	Interview or focus group	A list of training needs for the targeted level of the analysis and a determination of which of those needs might be addressed. A prioritized list of the critical learning that

Type	Purpose	Sequence	Best Method	Product
				must be mastered to meet the needs.

In the analysis phase, educators verify the needs of the students in order to determine the educational objectives and what needs to be taught to achieve the educational goals. In this study, two kinds of analyses consisting of audience analysis and learning analysis proposed by Piscurich (2015) were used to identify common characteristics of the students and the critical learning needs to inform the development of a set of WhatsApp-based speaking instructional materials.

Research Methods

Research Design

In conducting a needs analysis as the first step to develop the WABSIM, researchers adopted an 'ADDIE' approach as a research and development (R&D) model. ADDIE stands for Analyze, Design, Develop, Implement, and Evaluate. The ADDIE model is an iterative instructional design process, where the results of the formative evaluation of each phase may lead the instructional designer back to the previous phase. The end product of one phase is the starting product of the next phase.

This paper is focused on the 'Analyze' phase as the fundamental point before designing, developing, implementing, and evaluating the intended teaching and learning module used for EFL teaching in an Indonesian university.

Participants

Sixty eight students who agreed to participate as respondents in this research were from the third and the fifth semester students of the English Education Department of Muhammadiyah University of Kendari in the academic year 2018-2019. These respondents have had experienced about the teaching and learning of the Basic Speaking course previously in the second semester. They have had the perspectives about the lesson was.

Research Instrument

An online questionnaire used in this study was in the form of a Google Form. To gain data about students' needs for developing the WABSIM for Basic Speaking subject; researchers modified a questionnaire from Munby's (1978), Thronburry (2005), Piskurich

(2015). The questionnaires were posted and filled out online through the Google Form. The form is captured in Figure 1.
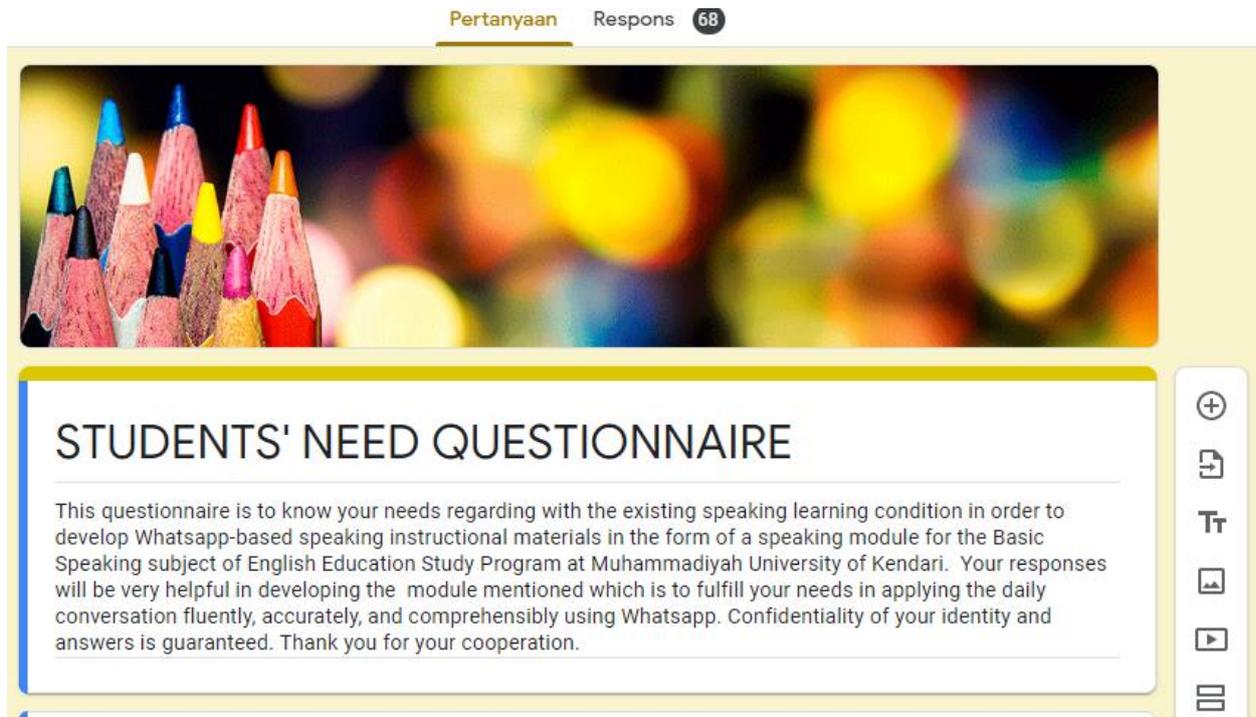
Fig. 1 Students' Need Questionnaire

Data Collection

The questionnaire for the student needs analysis and the learning needs analysis was distributed and responded using a Google form, with a link to access the form shared through the WhatsApp group. Responses from students about their learning needs were in the form of Likert Scale. Students' demographics analysis cover the information about age, gender, speaking background experiences using WhatsApp on campus and outside of campus. In addition, students' learning needs analysis include target needs: speaking model, speaking situation, speaking component, speaking content, speaking context, speaking activities, speaking topics, as well as speaking material adaptation and readiness to study Basic Speaking unit lesson via WhatsApp-based instruction.

Data Analysis

The data were collected through a survey instrument composed of Likert Scale and other items, hosted on Google Forms. These data are represented in Tables 1-8 as both tallies of participants selecting a particular response and as percentages, and were interpreted qualitatively to inform the development of the proposed WABSIM for Basic Speaking.

Findings and Discussion

The students' needs analysis was the first step of the Research and Development model (R&D). Students' need analysis is crucial as the feasibility of a product should also be measured by the demands and needs of the users. In measuring the needs of the students, the researcher tried to find out the present condition of the students' capabilities in learning English, especially speaking and also their expectation. It includes their objectives in learning English, how they think English material should be delivered in terms of language orientation, the endorsement of the four language skills within the course, the learning topics, and their learning preferences. By the needs analysis, a researcher can design any materials which meet the learning needs. A needs analysis step was suggested by some researchers and experts on material development (Richards, 2001; Nation, 2010). They argued that it is imperative for conducting needs analysis before designing any materials, whether for English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Academic Purposes (EAP), and General English (GE).

Students' Demographics Analysis

Based on Table 3.1, it shows that 17.6% of students aged 18, 41.2% of students aged 19, 33.8% of students were aged 20, 4.4% of students were aged 22, and 2.6% were 21. Also, it shows that female students were the most dominant in this study, i.e., 83.8% and male students were only 16.2%. This is the phenomenon at this moment that female students who are enrolling in studying English at the English Education Department at the Muhammadiyah University of Kendari are the majority representative participants. They aged from eighteen to twenty-two. The majority of female students as the participant who took the role in this study did not guarantee that female students were not more superior to male like gender differences in language production (Maulina, 2018).

Table 1

Participant Demographics

No	Information	Answer	Frequency	Percentage
1	Age	18	12	17.6
		19	28	41.2
		20	23	33.8
		21	2	2.9
		22	3	4.4
2	Gender	Male	11	16.2

No	Information	Answer	Frequency	Percentage
		Female	57	83.8

Today's students are familiar enough with the social media called WhatsApp. The students in this study brought their smartphone to college every day to stay connected with friends, lecturers, and family members. Students in this study were very familiar with smartphones and had installed WhatsApp and used it daily already on campus and outside of campus, as seen in Table 2 as a part of this analysis.

Table 2

WhatsApp Use in Campus and Outside of Campus

No	Information	Answer	Frequency	Percentage
1	How often do you speak English on campus via WhatsApp?	Always	1	1.5
		Usually	17	25
		Sometimes	42	61.8
		Seldom	7	10.3
		Never	1	1.5
2	How often do you speak English outside of the campus via WhatsApp?	Always	0	0
		Usually	12	17.6
		Sometimes	43	63.2
		Seldom	12	17.6
		Never	1	1.5

Table 2 shows the students' speaking experiences in the aspect of using English via WhatsApp at college and outside of the college. 60% of students liked to communicate via WhatsApp, both on campus and outside of campus. The remaining 25% of students frequently used English when they were at the campus. Also, 17.6% of students tended to communicate orally through WhatsApp when they were outside of campus, for example, at home. It indicates that students in this research have been familiar with the friendly-user, cheap, and fast access to WhatsApp. The popularity of group communication in WhatsApp encourages students to work on the tasks assigned, particularly for daily conversation collaboratively and communicatively in a fast connection. This study is in line with the findings by Awada (2016), Mackey (2016), Yafuz (2016), Afful and Akrong (2019), and Madge et al. (2019). Students' familiarity in this mobile platforms enable them stay connected with friends, lecturers, and

family members as well as make them studying both in an asynchronous and synchronous pace and time.

Students' Learning Needs Analysis

There were nine aspects to know students' want, need, requirement, or necessity of the WABSIM. The aspects were speaking models, speaking situations, speaking styles, speaking components, speaking contents, speaking contexts, speaking topics, speaking activities, and speaking material adaptation in the form of WAB instruction discussed as follows.

Speaking Model

WAB speaking models are designed based on the students' wants. Face to face communication and distance communication through social media like WhatsApp, in and outside the classroom, guide students to get varieties of the speaking situation and get more speaking engagement that they can reduce anxiety to talk in English. WhatsApp speaking models that students preferred to apply in the Basic Speaking course is described in Table 3.

Table 3

WhatsApp Learning Model Needed

No	Information	Answer	F	%
1	WhatsApp Speaking model	WhatsApp audio call	11	16.2
		WhatsApp video call	3	4.4
		Both WhatsApp audio and video call	6	8.8
		WhatsApp audio recording	35	51.5
		WhatsApp video recording	13	19.1
		Both WhatsApp audio and video recording	19	27.9
		WhatsApp written chats individually	1	1.5
		WhatsApp written chats in groups	1	1.5

Note: students could choose more than one responses for this part

Table 3 shows that the speaking models that students would like to apply when speaking English via WhatsApp. Students were allowed to prefer more than one option in choosing their preferences. 51.5% of students preferred to speak English through WhatsApp audio recording (WAAR). Then, 19.1% of students wanted to speak English via WhatsApp video recording (WAVR), and 27.9% of them liked to talk in the WhatsApp using both audio and video recording. The lowest percentages showed for WhatsApp audio and video calling WAAC and

WAVC), i.e., 8.8%. The speaking materials which need to be developed must meet the students' learning needs by providing audio and video recording materials as examples for them to do speaking instructions during and after the lesson tasks and to imitate the model speaking naturally.

Speaking Situation

The information in Table 4 shows that most of the students (70.1%) supported using both formal and informal speaking situations in the speaking instructional materials developed for the next phase. 50% of students demanded to speak in two ways, namely, both with one person and in a group. The remaining 20.6% of students individually preferred only speaking with one person via WhatsApp, and 29.4% preferred in groups.

Table 4

Speaking Situation

No	Information	Answer	Frequency	%
1	English speaking skill needed	Formal	8	11.9
		Informal	12	17.9
		Both formal and informal	47	70.1
2	Speaking share model 1	With one person	20	29.4
		In groups	14	20.6
		Both with one person and in groups	34	50
3	Speaking share model 2	With the same person all the time	15	22.1
		With different people all the time	13	19.1
		Both with the same person and with different people	40	58.8

WhatsApp as a social medium enables students to collaborate, communicate, and connect with one person at the same time or at the particular times, and also with a group of people in the form of a group WhatsApp. Both formal and informal learning materials will be provided in balance when the materials are in the design and development phase. Such speaking models are designed to allow learners to be able to use various types of reasoning as appropriate to the situation in their speaking exercises and solve different kinds of daily topics in innovative ways. Speaking situations can be explicitly designed by mixing formal and informal situations

for students to be able to lead students to prepare themselves easy in self-adapting the communication situation.

Speaking Styles

There are four kinds of students in learning speaking. Some students like to study speaking visually. They liked to see images, videos, audios, illustrations provided in the material. Besides, some students liked both audio and visual items during the learning, and some like to act out. Further, the rest accept all kinds of speaking learning styles. In this research, the percentages of students speaking learning styles are provided in Table 5 as follows.

Table 5

Speaking Styles

No	Information	Frequency	%
1	Audio	20	29.9
2	Visual	9	13.4
3	Audiovisual	18	26.9
4	Kinesthetic	1	1.5
5	All four styles	19	28.4

Having the result of seeing students' speaking learning styles, the researcher assumed that in learning Basic Speaking, students needed WAB speaking material in the form of audio (29.9%) and audiovisual (26.9%). Also, they needed a kind of visual material (13.4%) in the module that was going to develop. It was quite a minor kind of student who liked to act out speaking learning (1.5%). However, some students liked to put all the learning styles together when learning Basic Speaking (28.4%). Further, students need speaking materials that enable them to produce communicatively and collaboratively actively. Those kinds of speaking learning styles are essential to consider in developing the WABSIM for Basic Speaking subject. Students' speaking learning styles are considered for designing WABSIM that the materials can cover and meet students' learning preferences. Vocabulary lists, reading texts, Audio, videos, and other illustrations need to be provided.

Speaking learning materials bring those students in heterogonous styles effectively comprehend the learning. Original and authentic speaking materials are helpful and will familiarize students with the natural way of learning speaking, talking about daily conversation.

Speaking activities are designed to motivate students with different learning styles to manage and demonstrate the inside and outside WAB speaking tasks effectively. The design of the speaking tasks ensures each student participates actively and cooperates effectively with teams. Individual accountability and commitment play an essential role in handling various English tasks (Albino, 2017; Astuti & Lammers, 2017). They further disclose that when students were believed to handle more than one English task, they produced spoken English more and got comprehensible inputs. The findings from this study affirm that the students' learning styles are identified as communicative and concrete learners (Willing, 1988) because the students' learning styles are fit in type to the characteristics of the four learning styles.

Speaking Component

There are six speaking components (Brown, 2004): pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension, and task.

Table 6

Speaking Component

No	Information	Answer	Frequency	Percentage
1	Speaking components to be improved	Pronunciation	28	41.2
		Grammar	26	38.2
		Vocabulary	31	45.6
		Fluency	14	20.6
		Comprehension	9	13.2
		Task	11	16.2
		All components	32	47.1

Note: students could choose more than one responses for this question

Table 6 is about speaking components that the students would like to improve in learning Basic Speaking via WhatsApp-Based Instruction. There were six speaking components to be improved during their learning Basic Speaking using WhatsApp as the medium to help them associate their vocal performances daily on campus and outside of the campus. Firstly, 45.6% of students agreed that they desired to improve their vocabulary. It followed by pronunciation with 41.2% agreed in this component. Then, they also agreed to enhance their grammar with 38.2%. Further, fluency (20.6%), task (16.2%), and comprehension (13.2%). 47.1% of students agreed that it was important to improve the six components. Therefore, speaking components that most prioritized in the development phase were vocabulary, pronunciation, grammar, fluency, task, and comprehension aspects. Brown

(2004) argue that including these six elements in the speaking curriculum and their mastery by students becomes the key for both educators and students to effectively use in communication.

Speaking Content, Context, and Activities

Table 7 shows the content of WhatsApp-based speaking instructions that must be involved in the next stage, namely designing and developing the speaking instructional materials. Half of the students (52.9%) who responded this questionnaire agreed that both written and audio/video dialogue of daily conversation topics with an easy grammar and vocabulary content must be provided in the learning materials. 25% of students agreed with written dialogue, and 22.1% agreed with the audio and video speaking materials. Furthermore, it shows that 57.4% of students agreed with the context of overseas speaking learning topics, and 42.6% agreed with domestic topics. In addition, it shows that students liked to do speaking activities when studying daily conversation topics for Basic Speaking subject via WhatsApp-based instructions in the form of groups (57.4%), in pairs (45.6%), role plays (30.9%), and small interviews (23.55), 17.6% of students wanted to apply the five activities integrated during their learning. The least preference appeared with the demonstration activity, namely 2.9%.

Table 7

Speaking content, context, and activity

No	Information	Answer	Frequency	Percentage
1	Speaking instruction content	Written dialogue of daily conversation topics with an easy grammar and vocabulary content	15	22.1
		Audio/video dialogue of daily conversation topics with an easy grammar and vocabulary content	17	25
		Both written and audio/video dialogue of daily conversation topics with an easy grammar and vocabulary content	36	52.9
2	Speaking context	Domestic	29	42.6
		Overseas	39	57.4

No	Information	Answer	Frequency	Percentage
3	Speaking activities	Dialogue in pairs	32	45.6
		Dialogue in groups	39	57.4
		Role plays	21	30.9
		Interviews	16	23.5
		Demonstrations	2	2.9
		All five activities integrated	12	17.6

Note: students could choose more than one responses for question 4

First of all, Contents are in line with the relevant technologies utilizing WhatsApp and additional listening resources from videos in the learning process. Those technologies have been a great inspiration for students and have made them want to learn more about learning materials (Bahadorfar & Omidvar, 2014). These technological tools are much more exciting and provide fun and enjoyable learning, thus, motivating them and helping them to enhance their language learning fruitfully. Moreover, these tools help students learn at their own pace and promote autonomy in them. Contents of the Basic Speaking is by providing both audio and video recording materials as the examples for them to do speaking instructions during and after the lesson tasks as well as to imitate the model speaking naturally.

Secondly, domestic and international contexts of materials enable students to enrich their insights as well as put students to culturally aware of both the context. Both daily domestic issues and international issues would like to be selected carefully in order that students can show their confidence when doing speaking activities. The material presented will be covering two settings, domestically and internationally, in the form of illustrations, figures, photos, videos, and more. In the WAB Basic Speaking materials, the researcher presented a learning context in a familiar situation, both domestic and international issues that suits students' needs.

In this research, students' wants that both local and international context must be explicitly written in the WAB speaking instructional material. It is how including the communicative and collaborative speaking activities that students could think to learn both cultural values in talking about daily topics. The communicative and collaborative contexts work to effectively manage students to be aware of the technology used to think in solving several speaking problems and understand how to work effectively in preparation for their advanced speaking level and future career. Students' wants were supported by the interview results from the speaking lecturers, which highlighted that the material of Basic Speaking course must be explicitly written about the 21st-century skills demand in both contexts, local and international. It is in line with Tomlinson (2011) who stated that the content of the

instructional material developed should be contextualized to reverse the local and global world where the teachers and students live in. The mixing context of speaking material designed to support learners to be able to interact effectively with others (i.e., know when it is appropriate to listen and when to speak, respond open-mindedly to different ideas, and leverage social and cultural differences to create new ideas in speaking exercises and tasks). The exercises related to cross-cultural materials help prepare students to understand and develop skills and abilities in cultural diversity, intercultural communication, empathy, aptitudes for working collaboratively and networking across cultures and interacting with people from different social and cultural backgrounds (Sun, 2015).

Furthermore, It is crucial to prioritize the most until the least speaking activities that must be in the learning material. Therefore, the researcher would like to create materials with lots of group and pair activities followed by small interview activities and role-plays. These four speaking activities will in the materials developed. Also, these speaking activities enable students to practice speaking skills in and after the classroom using WhatsApp by speaking models they need as assigned.

Speaking activities are designed to enable students to work together to share their thoughts, questions, ideas, and solutions in several speaking tasks and exercises. A collaborative learning activity provided through the WAB speaking instructional material helps the students to develop and achieve their communication skills. Learning together allows the students to overcome their speaking anxiety and nervousness, to develop social skills and critical thinking skills, to promote mutual interaction, and to help prepare students for the challenges in the coming era such today has been started very challenging for all students around the globe with the corona virus disease (COVID-19) outbreaks. Students would get used to communicating in English in both situations face to face and online confidently for their future life, where collaborative and communication skills are highly required in many careers (Aliyu, 2017; Trilling & Fadel, 2009, p. 54).

Speaking Topics

Table 8 shows 8 (eight) topics out of 15 (fifteen) that must be covered in the WhatsApp-based speaking instructional materials for the Basic Speaking subject, based on the highest to lowest percentages chosen by students. The speaking topics are daily activities (74.6%), free time activities (64.2), holidays (62.7%), food and drink (55.2%), places (52.2%), family (49.35), people (47.8%), and books (38.8%). Eight (8) topics were included in the material

development, four (4) topics for mid-term part and other four (4) topics for final-term. They were ranked from the highest percentage chosen to the lowest.

Table 8

Speaking topic

No	Information	Answer	Frequency	Percentage
1	Speaking topic	Animal	21	31.3
		Books	26	38.8
		Clothes	16	23.9
		Daily activities	50	74.6
		Free time activities	43	64.2
		Family	33	49.3
		Food and drink	37	55.2
		Holidays	42	62.7
		Jobs	28	41.8
		Movies	27	40.3
		Places	35	52.2
		People	32	47.8
		Shopping	15	22.4
		Time	18	26.9
		Weather	16	23.9

Note: students could choose more than one responss for the topics they like most to study

Daily topics for Basic Speaking subject are designed from the most preferred topics that students want to the least topics chosen. Familiar daily topics enable students to talk actively and can easily transfer their previous knowledge comprehensively and communicatively. Daily topics are required by students, particularly university students, in their academic lives and everyday tasks (Nizam, Musa, & Wahi, 2010). The decision about sequencing the course contents in terms of the Basic Speaking topics is taken based on 'need' criteria because the topics are arranged in order of importance to the students' needs in personal and social lives (Richards, 2001). Besides, the topics for the WABSIM need to be sequenced in order to get logical relationships from one to the other topics according to a theme or storyline (stated by a lecturer in the interview). The logical sequence of the topics was then linked to the grammar rules to be taught and practiced altogether in classroom interactions.

Material Adaptation and Readiness to Utilize WhatsApp

Table 9 shows that students (73.5%) agreed with both materials made by the lecturer herself and materials adapted from the existing books or from up-to-date websites. In addition, they agreed with the plan for developing speaking instructional resources in WhatsApp-based

form. The integration of WhatsApp in teaching speech for conversation supports the learning and teaching in the classroom and beyond the classroom. Yafuz (2017) claim that WhatsApp messenger improve the homogeneity of students' success in EFL learning. In addition, WhatsApp isequipped with a conversation platform that allows the development of relationships (Solomon and Schrum, 2017).

Table 9

Material adaptation and readiness to utilize WhatsApp

No	Information	Answer	Frequency	Percentage
1	WhatsApp-based speaking material for collaboration, communication and connection	Agree	63	92.6
		Disagree	5	7.4
2	Existing speaking material	Made by the lecturer	26	38.2
		Adapted from the existing books or materials from websites	42	61.8
3	Speaking materials are needed	Materials made by the lecturer	8	11.8
		Materials adapted from existing books or websites	10	14.7
		Both materials made by the lecturer and materials adapted from existing books or websites	50	73.5

Researchers would consider more by linking all items analyzed in this analysis phase. Besides, they agreed with the plan for developing speaking instructional resources in WAB instructions form. The integration of WhatsApp in teaching speaking for daily conversation supports the teaching and learning inside and outside the classroom.

WhatsApp, as the platform for communication, has facilities that provide features to address students' needs. The features such as recordings and callings in the form of audio and video would help engage students to speak more, and this could improve students' interpersonal communication with the easy features available (Boczek and Koppers, 2020).

WhatsApp as a social medium enables students to collaborate, communicate, and connect with one person at the same time or at the particular times, and also with a group of people in the form of a group WhatsApp. Both formal and informal learning materials will be provided in balance when the materials are in the design and development phase.

Conclusion

Data resulting from the needs analysis questionnaire informed the researchers of key issues to be considered in constructing WABSIM for implementation and evaluation in the next phase of this project. Students' preferences and learning goals can be integrated with perspectives from the mobile learning literature and the affordances of WhatsApp to facilitate communication, collaboration and interaction in ways that have the potential to accelerate English language learning on the part of university students. There would be value in conducting similar needs analyses for other mobile learning instructional material development processes internationally, both for comparison with the Indonesian results here and in order to inform those development processes.

Acknowledgement

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Maximizing EFL Students' Exposure to Listening and Speaking through MALL: Daily Voice WhatsApp Messages Between Students and the Teacher

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Abstract

Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) has been widely used and researched recently. However, more experimental studies are required to investigate the potentials of different MALL applications. The aim of this research is to experimentally investigate the effect of using MALL via WhatsApp application on EFL students' listening and speaking skills. Students' perceptions of this learning experience are also investigated. The study adopts the mixed methods approach. Tests for listening and speaking were designed and administered to 43 English major students at Jouf University, KSA. A detailed mixed (open-ended/closed-ended) questionnaire was designed to investigate students' perceptions of the experience. Results of the study revealed that the usage of MALL improved students' listening and speaking skills. Results also revealed that participants have positive perceptions of using MALL in language learning. The majority of participants are willing to use MALL in learning English both at the time of the experiment and in their future endeavors as learners and teachers of English. The most frequently perceived benefits of MALL are the increased exposure to listening, improved speaking ability especially fluency, enhanced self-confidence during speaking, and improved pronunciation of difficult words. Some participants expressed some difficulties when using

MALL including the loss of enthusiasm after some weeks of study, heavy load of tasks, and some technical problems related to internet access. The study recommends the incorporation of MALL in EFL language learning and teaching processes.

Keywords: *EFL; MALL; WhatsApp; Listening; Speaking; Perceptions*

1. Introduction

1.1. Theoretical framework

Technology, especially internet-based, has become entrenched in our modern life. This led educators to devise new learning theories, methods and techniques that make use of this digital space. The use of Mobile Assisted Language Learning (MALL) to engage in learning foreign languages via connections to educators, and peers – is one of these endeavors. MALL is one application of blended learning in which learning is carried out through the use of mobile devices (Hosseipour, Biria & Rezvani, 2019). Trifanova et al. (2004, p.3) define mobile devices as "...any device that is small, autonomous and unobtrusive enough to accompany us in every moment". Blended learning refers to the type of learning in which technology is incorporated in the process of learning thus allowing for face-to-face as well as online activities. Blended learning has many benefits for learners including developing their learning autonomy, allowing for interactive and collaborative learning, and motivating learners to spend more time learning a language (Hosseipour, Biria & Rezvani, 2019). Though MALL has been widely used and researched, more experimental studies are required to find out the pedagogical potentials of different applications such as WhatsApp. The main objective of this study is to investigate the potentials of using WhatsApp application in the process of learning English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia. The results of the study could be very helpful for syllabus designers, and instructors in various levels.

Three theoretical principles guide MALL. These principles are comprehensible input, negotiation of meaning, and comprehensible output. Comprehensible input refers to target language input which is within and a little beyond second language learners' current language levels (Mitchell & Myles, 1998). Negotiation of meaning is a collaborative attempt in a conversation among speakers, to overcome communication problems and maximize comprehension (Long, 1996). Whereas, comprehensible output refers to the correct form of utterance finally reached by the speaker and that the conversational partner can understand (Swain, 1985). These principles are apparent in MALL. Learners can receive comprehensible input from their teachers and their peers through various applications such as WhatsApp.

Through these applications, learners can also negotiate meaning as they can ask for clarifications of what is posted. They can also produce comprehensible output through commenting and responding to the different posts. All these principles can be traced back to the natural approach and the communicative approach of language learning. they can also relate to learner-centered approach, sociocultural theory and the constructivist view of learning especially social constructivism, which focuses on the idea that learners can achieve through social communication what they cannot achieve alone (Nah, White & Sussex, 2008).

MALL can also be linked to more recent theoretical frameworks of learning such as connectivism and inclusivity. Connectivism refers to the idea that learning happens through connecting with others through digital devices and inclusivity refers to the idea of incorporating a variety of techniques that meet variant needs of students inside the class (Kop & Hill, 2008). Both ideas are clear in MALL. When using smartphones and their applications in learning a language, learners learn through connecting with their peers and their instructor through digital devices and applications. Moreover, the incorporation of smartphones inside the language class together with other face-to-face techniques helps achieve the idea of inclusivity.

1.2. Literature review

MALL has been extensively used lately. It has been used with programs that were initially designed for personal computers such as Instagram (Gonulal, 2019), pedagogical electronic support systems such as blackboard (Elsawy, 2018) and electronic dictionaries (Elsawy, 2019). It has also been used with especially designed applications for mobile devices such as SMS (Farangi, Kamyab, Izanlu, & Ghodrat , 2017) and WhatsApp (Ahmed, 2019; Alghamdy,2019; Hamad, 2017; Martínez, 2016; Manan, 2017). It has also been used to compensate deficiency in language labs (Al-Otaibi, AlAmer & Al-Khalifa, 2016) and as a tool for a variety of software such as podcasts (Phillips, 2017), electronic infographics (Asamadani, 2019) and electronic audiobooks (Azar, & Nasiri, 2014). This extensive varied use of MALL is due to its various potentials.

MALL offers flexible and variable activities that meet the diverse needs and levels of language learners. This type of language learning emphasizes learners' autonomy in selecting the suitable activities and carrying them out whenever and wherever they choose (Kacetl, & Klímová, 2019; KukulskaHulme, 2010; Leis, Tohei, & Cooke, 2015). This leads to enhanced learner motivation (Kacetl, & Klímová, 2019). A review of published research in Scopus and the Web of Science showed that MALL is effective in enhancing EFL learners' motivation (Klímová, 2018). MALL enhances motivation as it enables learners to personalize their

learning and helps them to self-regulate the process of learning (Can & Şimşek, 2018). MALL also provides learners with creative interesting appealing language activities that enhance their motivation (Moreira & Gomez, 2011; Pellerin, 2012; Ryabkova, 2019). This focus on learner-centered interesting activities also enhances learners' self-confidence specially in speaking as it eliminates the stress of face-to-face interaction. (Bradley, Lindström, & Hashemi, 2017; Kacetl, & Klímová, 2019; Lina, Moni, & Basri, 2019; Phillips, 2017).

Moreover, one of the benefits of MALL is the enhancement of learners' collaboration, which has been proven crucial to successful learning (Shadiev, Hwang, Huang & Liu, 2018). MALL activities allow for abundant opportunities for collaboration overcoming the obstacles of space and time (Miangah &Nezarat, 2012). MALL also provides a type of spontaneous informal learning as learners use smartphones naturally in different aspects of their lives (Darmi & Albion, 2014). This helps in lowering the anxiety filter that hinders the learning process. Finally, smartphones are ubiquitous. Thus, it is easy for almost anyone to start taking part in MALL programs. This is very much true in Saudi Arabia. The general authority for statistics in Saudi Arabia (2016) stated that their survey results say the ratio of the Saudi households that have cell phones hit 97.26 %. This fast proliferation of smartphones in Saudi Arabia is striking and draws the attention of educators to find ways of making use of this wide-spread technology in learning English as a foreign language.

These above-mentioned benefits of MALL help enhance different aspect of language learning including vocabulary, grammar, listening, speaking, reading and writing (Al-Ahdal & Hussein,2020; Liu, Holden, & Zheng, 2016; Miangah, & Nezarat, 2012; Ryabkova, 2019). MALL also helps in improving the testing process of these aspects of language learning.

First, it has been found that MALL enhances the acquisition and usage of vocabulary through especially designed word learning applications, podcasts, Instagram and similar applications (Elaish, Shuib, Ghani, & Yadegaridehkordi, 2019; Hosseipour, Biria, & Rezvani, 2019; Gonulal, 2019; Phillips, 2017; Rodríguez, & Cumming, 2017; Wu, 2015). Moreover, MALL applications Such as SMS can help the development of EFL mastery of grammar structures (Farangi, Kamyab, Izanlu, & Ghodrat , 2017). However, Heil, Wu, Lee, and Schmidt (2016) observed that most of the activities and tasks incorporated in MALL tend to give students opportunities to practice vocabulary in isolated form rather than practicing vocabulary in context.

Second, oral skills can be enhanced through MALL as it provides learners with appealing authentic opportunities for practicing listening and speaking (Al-Otaibi, AlAmer & Al-Khalifa, 2016; Asamadani, 2019; Azar, & Nasiri, 2014; Bradley, Lindström, & Hashemi, 2017; Nah,

White, & Sussex, 2008; Novack, Hong, Dixon, & Granpeesheh, 2019; Pellerin, 2012; Ryabkova, 2019). WhatsApp application was used as an aid by Manan (2017) to enhance speaking skills of university students in Indonesia and was found to be effective. However, in Manan's study, the learners did not use WhatsApp to send voice messages; they just used WhatsApp to revise what they have learned and then did the speaking activities face-to-face. From another perspective, Learners perceived MALL as an innovative interesting way of enhancing opportunities to learn different language skills especially listening and speaking (Ariyanti, Setiawan & Wedawati, 2020; Nah, White, & Sussex, 2008; Obari, & Lambacher, 2015; Shadiev, Hwang, Huang, & Liu, 2018).

Third, MALL provides authentic settings for the improvement of EFL reading and writing proficiency and helps learners have more positive perspectives about the processes of reading and writing (Bipinchandra, Shahb, Putehc, Din, Rahamat, & Abd Aziz,2014; Hosseipour, Biria, & Rezvani, 2019; Martínez, 2016; Novack, Hong, Dixon, & Granpeesheh, 2019; Ryabkova, 2019; Wu-Yuin Hwang, et al, 2014). For instance, the use of MALL together with tight collaboration among EFL learners gained learners' appreciation as they felt that it helped them achieve better in acquiring writing skills (Shadiev, Hwang, Huang, & Liu, 2018). Similarly, it has been found that using MALL within specific and familiar environments to improve writing skills, received high appreciation of EFL learners. They perceived the experience to be fun and consequently enhancing their motivation to improve their writing skills (Wu-Yuin Hwang, et al, 2014). MALL has also proved to gain EFL learners' positive perceptions when used for developing academic writing skills at the university level. Learners felt that MALL provides them with engaging and innovative activities that enhances their writing skills easily (Hosseipour, Biria, &Rezvani, 2019). Even parents are willing and encourage their young children to use mobile devices for learning a second language (Chen, Mayall, York, & Smith, 2018). In the field of reading, Ahmed (2019) found out that WhatsApp was effective specially in improving learners' reading skills as they used to read articles send by the teacher on WhatsApp and comment on them.

Fourth, MALL can be used to provide teachers with various easy-to-use techniques for testing different language skills including listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary. (Al-Ali, 2015). Moreover, mobile devices allow for formative assessment, immediate feedback and interactive post-test activities that greatly enhanced learners' progress in the foreign language as it enhances motivation and collaborative skills (Titova, 2015). In addition, the use of MALL provides different new techniques for teacher, peer and self-assessment of the four language skills (Pellerin, 2012). These benefits of MALL for developing

and testing different aspects of language could be due to its ability to create an engaging environment conductive to productive behaviors (Bernacki, Greene, & Crompton, 2020).

Despite all these above-mentioned benefits of using MALL, there are some challenges that face its usage. For example, some teachers are less inclined to use smartphones in their teaching because of their unfamiliarity with the technology. (Park, & Slater, 2014 ; Elsakova, Kuzmina, & Kochkina, 2019). Another problem that was revealed when applying some applications of MALL is the study habits of learners. Most learners are not familiar with using mobiles for learning purposes and they are happy with their own habits of studying the second or foreign language (Gaved, & Peasgood, 2017; Nah, White, & Sussex, 2008). These problems could be solved by spreading the culture of the benefits of using smartphones in the learning process among teachers, students and parents. Heil, Wu, Lee, and Schmidt (2016) revealed a challenge of a different nature. They found out that many MALL programs did not vary the type of activities used to suit the different styles of learners and did not provided explanatory feedback for learners. However, these challenges can be overcome with continuous refining of MALL programs.

In Saudi Arabian context, it has been found that EFL learners have positive attitudes towards using social media through mobiles (Alshabeb & Almaqrn, 2018) and WhatsApp application (Hamad, 2017) in improving language learning. However, these studies focused only on students' general attitudes towards using mobiles in learning English. These studies did not use any interventions related to any specific aspect of language learning. On the conrary, Alghamdy (2019) did not find statistically significant differences between those who used WhatsApp and the control group related to the overall language achievement. The main objective of the current study is to incorporate a clear experimental intervention to improve learners' listening and speaking skills through MALL, specifically WhatsApp, as well as to measure learners' perceptions related to this concrete learning experience.

1.3. Research questions and hypotheses

1. What is the effect of using MALL via WhatsApp application on improving EFL listening skills? To answer this question the following hypothesis was tested:

- There are no significant mean differences at .05 level between the experimental group and the control group on the listening posttest.

2. What is the effect of using MALL via WhatsApp application on improving EFL speaking skills? To answer this question the following hypothesis was tested:

- There are no significant mean differences at .05 level between the experimental group and the control group on the speaking posttest.

3. What are students' perceptions of using MALL via WhatsApp application for improving listening and speaking skills?

2. Method

2.1. Participants

Forty-three English majors at Jouf University, Saudi Arabia participated in the experiment. Convenience sampling was used as it was the only possible sampling procedure available to the researcher. The participants voluntarily agreed to participate. All the participants were males as students in Saudi Arabia are separated based on gender. Participants were between 18 and 21 years old. They were at their first level at the university and their level of English was low intermediate. The participants were automatically divided into two groups by the admission system. The researcher assigned one of the groups as the experimental group (n=23) and the second as the control group (n=20).

2.2. Measures and covariates

2.2.1. The listening test

The test consists of 34 multiple-choice items. The items are based on 20 short conversations. Each multiple choice item has four alternatives. The items vary in difficulty and the skills they measure. The items measure three main skills: listening for details, listening for main ideas and inferring information not directly mentioned. Table (1) shows the distribution of the items on the skills.

Table 1. Distribution of the items of the listening test on the skills

Skill measured	Items
Listening for details	3-5-7-9-10-11-13-15-26-27-28-32-34
Listening for main ideas	12-24-29-31-33
Inferring information not directly mentioned	1-2-4-6-8-14-16-17-18-19-20-21-22-23-25-30

A panel of jury, consisting of three processors whose names are mentioned in the acknowledgments, verified the construct validity of the test. The reliability of the test was calculated using the split half method. Spearman-Brown Coefficient was 0.936.

2.2.2. The speaking test:

The test consists of three sections. The first section is a starter in which participants are asked to introduce themselves. The second section is a long prompt in which participants are introduced to a topic to talk about through a long description. The third section is a short prompt in which participants are introduced to a topic to talk about through a short description.

An analytic rubric was designed to score the test. The rubric consists of four dimensions: fluency, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. The rubric has a four-point scale with clear indicators of performance.

The construct validity of the test and the rubric was determined by the panel of jury. The reliability of the speaking test was determined by the split-half method. Spearman-Brown Coefficient for the speaking test was 0.946. The inter-rater reliability of the rubric was calculated. Cronbach's Alpha for inter-rater reliability of the rubric was .934.

2.2.3. The questionnaire of participants' perceptions of using MALL in listening and speaking:

A mixed closed-ended /open-ended questionnaire was designed to measure participants' perceptions of the experience of using MALL in improving listening and speaking. The questionnaire consists of 25 items (21 closed-ended items with a four-point Likert-type scale from strongly agree to strongly disagree, 1 multiple-choice item, and 3 open-ended items). The four-point scale was used based on the researcher's experience to avoid students' inclination to choose the neutral option and to get clear view of participants' perceptions. The questionnaire investigates four dimensions of the use of MALL in improving listening and speaking: participants' willingness, difficulties participants face, participants' preferences, and participants' perceived benefits. Table (2) shows the distribution of the items on the four dimensions.

Table 2. Distribution of the items of the questionnaire on the dimensions.

Dimension	Items
Participants' willingness	1-2-3-4-5-6
Difficulties participants face	7-8-9-10-11-23
Participants' preferences	12-13-14

Participants' perceived benefits	15-16-17-18-19-20-21-22-24

Item 25 is a free item in which participants could write their suggestions related to their experience of using MALL in listening and speaking.

The validity of the questionnaire was determined by the panel of jury. The reliability was calculated. Guttman Split-Half Coefficient for the reliability of the questionnaire was .65.

2.3. Research design

The study uses a mixed quantitative/qualitative design. It uses tests for measuring listening and speaking skills in a pretest-posttest control-group-design experiment in order to answer the first two research questions. Besides, it uses a mixed closed-ended/open-ended questionnaire to measure students' perceptions of using MALL in maximizing exposure to listening and speaking to answer the third research question.

2.3.1. Experimental intervention

Participants in the experimental group studied the course of listening and speaking (1) from the book of interactions speaking and listening (1). A WhatsApp group was established to aid the students' development of their listening and speaking skills. The experiment lasted for 8 weeks. Every morning, the instructor posted a task on the group for the students. Students listened to the task and responded to it during the day. At the end of the day, the instructor provided oral comments on students' responses. Tasks differed from one week to another.

Week 1: During week one the instructor tried to familiarize the participants on using WhatsApp group in English not in Arabic. Students at Jouf University, English department used to establish a WhatsApp group for their courses to help each other in different assignments or tests related to the course. However, they never used English in these groups. They used their native language all the time. During the first week, the instructor explained to them the purpose of the group and why English will be the language of the group and how this can help them improve their language skills.

Week 2: Every morning, the instructor introduced a task and gave students a model. Long prompts were used to give students ideas to talk about. The instructor provided a three-minutes talk about each task. The purpose of this long prompt was to give participants the opportunity to listen to English more. Students were required to post one-minute voice message during the

day. Participants were also encouraged to listen to classmates' voice messages on the group. At the end of the day, the instructor provided oral comments about the messages. The tasks of the first week were:

1- Introduce your self

2- Describe the weather in Saudi Arabia. What is the best season in Saudi Arabia for you and why? What advice would you give for a friend who is visiting Saudi Arabia for the first time concerning the weather?

3- What is the worst accident or bad time you have encountered? What happened? How did you overcome the problem? What did you learn from it?

4- Who is your best friend and why? How did you meet him? What activities do you do together?

5- What is your favorite hobby? How often do you practice it? How did you come to like it?

Week 3: short prompts were used. The instructor did not give a model but students were encouraged to listen to their classmates' voice messages on the group. Students were required to post one-minute voice message. At the end of the day, the instructor provided oral comments on the posts. The tasks of week 3 were:

6- Which country would you like to visit most? Why?

7- Who is your favorite teacher? Why?

8- What is good about your college?

9- What type of clothes do you like most? Why?

10- Tell us a story you have heard or read

Week 4: the instructor set the task in a long prompt clarifying all the possible aspects of the task. The instructor provided an example about 3 to 5 minutes long. Participants were required to post their voice messages in response to the long-prompt task. Students were required to post one and a half –minute voice message. At the end of the day, the instructor provided oral comments on the tasks or posts a voice message encouraging students who did not participate to do so. Tasks of week 4 were:

11- Do you know any joke or riddle to share? Do you like to hear jokes or riddles? Do you think it is important to have someone how has a good sense of humor?

12- Do you give money for charity or volunteer? Do you think people should give money to the needy? Why? What charity would you like to participate in?

13- What job would you like to have in the future? How do you prepare yourself to get this job? What is important to pass a job interview? Do you think it is easy to get a job in your country? Why?

14- Do you like change? How much have you changed from your childhood? What changes would you like to have in the future?

15- Do you have a computer? Why? Do you think the smartphone is enough and you do not need a computer? Do you think desktop computers will disappear? Why?

Week 5: Participants were asked to post a voice message about a topic of their choice. The instructor chose a topic for himself every morning and gave a long voice message about it. The instructor's voice message was 6 minutes long. Students were required to produce two-minute voice messages. Students were also required to listen to one of their classmates' voice messages at least.

Week 6: Participants were given a variety of tasks. One day they were given a long prompt; the second day they were given a short prompt. The third day they were given the freedom to choose the topic and so on. Tasks introduced by the instructor during week 6 were:

1- How do you spend your spare time? Do you hope for more free time? How are your activities in your free time now different from your activities when you were younger?

2- Do you like to read more or listen and watch clips on smartphone and why?

Weeks 7/8: Participants were given the chance to count the number of their voice messages on the group. They were given the opportunity to post any voice message they have missed during the semester. Those participants who had already participated every day were encourage to post more voice messages about topics of their choice. All participants were encouraged to listen to their classmates' various voice messages on the group. To maximize their exposure to listening, the instructor provided a long voice message every day commenting on the posts and encouraging participants to go on posting their voice messages and listening to their classmates' voice messages.

2.3.2. The control group setting

Participants in the control group studied the course of listening and speaking (1) from the book interactions listening and speaking (1) doing all the activities in the book as the experimental group. Students in the control group did various activities to help them improve their listening and speaking skills. These activities were done both inside and outside the

classroom. These activities included pair work, group work, role plays and various homework assignments.

2.4. *Statistical Analysis*

2.4.1. The homogeneity of variance test and the normality tests were used to investigate the homogeneity and normal distribution of the experimental and the control groups on the listening pretest. Table (3) shows the results of the homogeneity of variance test.

Table, 3: The homogeneity of variance test of experimental and control groups in the listening pre-test

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
0.291	1	41	0.593

The results show that there are no statistically significant differences in variance between the experimental and the control groups in listening (p> 0.05).

Shapiro-Wilk's test results were 0.164 for the control group and 0.150 for the experimental group (p > .05). These results together with the visual inspection of their normal Q-Q and box plots shows that the pre-listening exam scores were approximately normally distributed for both control and experimental groups, with a skewness of .026 (SE = .512) and a kurtosis of -1.375 (SE = .992) for the control group and a skewness of -.294 (SE = .481) and a kurtosis of -1.038 (SE = .935) for the experimental group. Figure (1) shows the normal Q-Q plot.
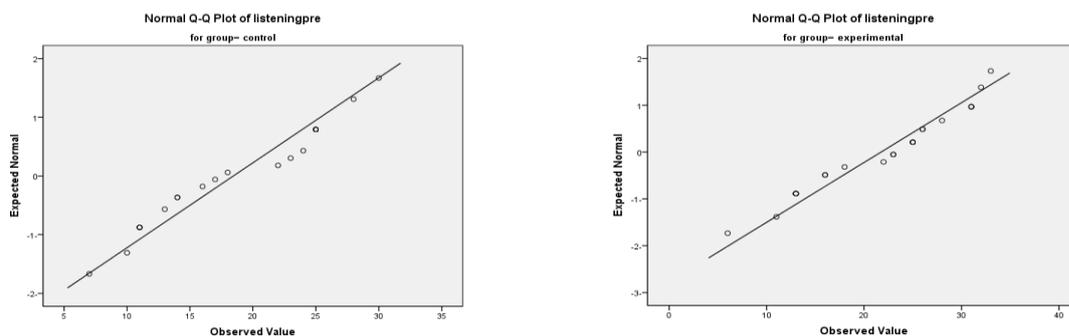
Figure, 1: Normal Q-Q plot showing the normal distribution of both control and experimental groups regarding listening pretest scores

Since the two groups are equal in variance and approximately normal in distribution, the study employed t-test for independent samples to compare posttest scores of listening.

2.4.2. The homogeneity of variance test and the normality tests were used to investigate the homogeneity and normal distribution of the experimental and the control groups on the speaking pretest. Table (4) shows the results of the homogeneity of variance test.

Table, 4: The homogeneity of variance test of experimental and control groups in speaking pre-test

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
1.064	1	41	.308

The results show that there are no statistically significant differences in variance between the experimental and control groups in the speaking pretest (p> 0.05).

Shapiro-Wilk's test results were 0.022 for the control group and 0.004 for the experimental group (p < .05). These results together with the visual inspection of their normal Q-Q and box plots shows that the pre-speaking test scores were not normally distributed for both control and experimental groups, with a skewness of .679 (SE = .512) and a kurtosis of -0.748 (SE = .992) for the control group and a skewness of 0.026 (SE = .481) and a kurtosis of -1.657 (SE = .935) for the experimental group. Figure (2) shows the normal Q-Q plot.
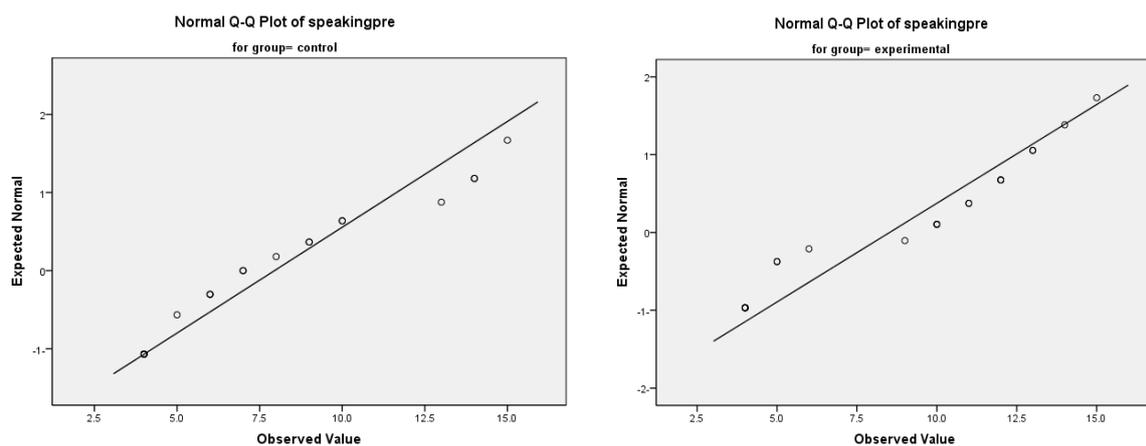
Figure, 1: Normality Q-Q plot showing the abnormal distribution of both control and experimental groups regarding speaking pretest scores

since the two groups are not normally distributed, the study applied Mann-Whitney U Test to compare posttest scores of speaking.

2.4.3. To statistically analyze the questionnaire, descriptive statistics are used. The researcher used SPSS (version 19) in all statistical analyses.

3. Results

3.1. The effect of MALL on improving EFL listening skills

T-test for independent groups was conducted to test hypothesis one measuring the differences between the experimental and the control groups in listening posttest. Table (5) shows the results.

Table 5. T-test for independent groups of the effect of MALL on improving EFL listening skills

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	t-value	Sig. (2-tailed)
Experimental	23	27.00	6.908	-3.218-	0.003
Control	20	20.00	7.348		

It is clear that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the posttest of listening skills ($p < 0.05$). Thus, the use of MALL was effective in improving EFL listening skills. This is illustrated in figure (3). When measuring the effect size, it turned out to be 0.599, which is considered a large effect size.

Figure: 3. Mean differences in the listening posttest
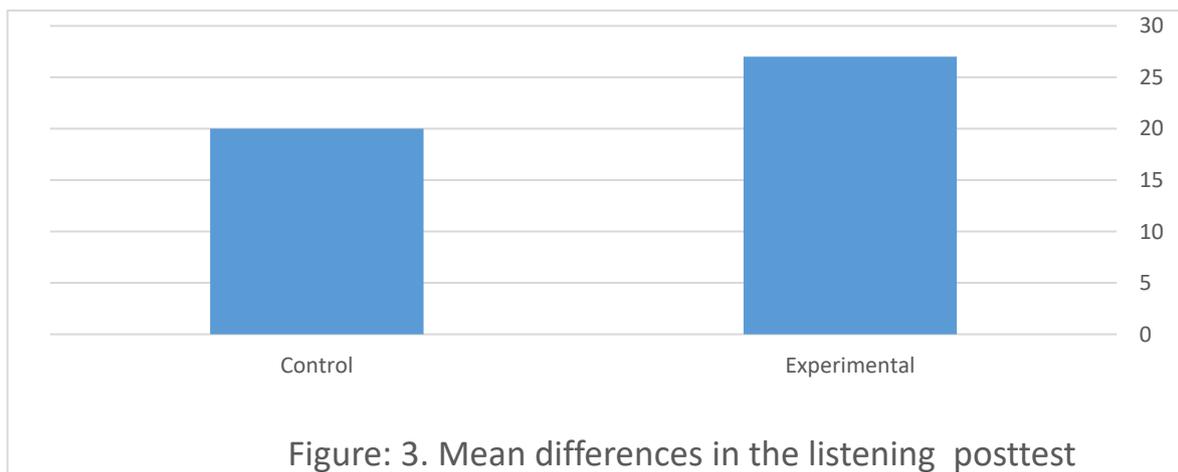
3.2. The effect of MALL on improving EFL speaking skills

Mann-Whitney U Test was conducted to test hypothesis two investigating the differences between the experimental and the control groups on the posttest of speaking. Table (6) shows the results.

Group	N	Mean Rank	Z-value	Sig.(2-tailed)
Experimental	23	27.37	-3.023	0.003
Control	20	15.83		

It is clear that the experimental group outperformed the control group in the posttest of speaking ($p < 0.05$). Thus, the use of MALL was effective in improving EFL speaking skills. This is illustrated in figure (4). However, when calculating the effect size, it turned out to be 0.22, which is considered small effect size.

Figure: 4. Mean ranks of the speaking posttest
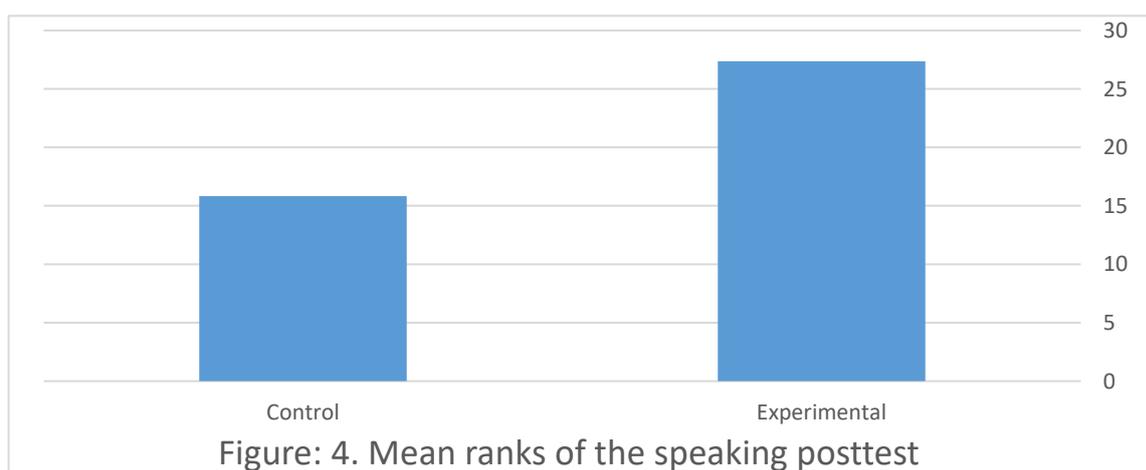
3.3. Students' perceptions of using MALL in listening and speaking

The first dimension of the questionnaire, participants' willingness to use MALL in listening and speaking, consists of six items. Table (7) presents the frequencies of each item.

Table 7. Frequencies of participants' willingness to use MALL in listening and speaking

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I posted WhatsApp voice messages only to satisfy the teacher.	9.5	19	42.9	28.6

I posted WhatsApp voice messages because it helped me improve my speaking skills.	81.8	18.2	0	0
I intend to use MALL in the future to improve my language skills.	59.1	36.4	0	4.5
If I work as a teacher, I will use MALL to improve my students' listening and speaking skills.	36.4	50	13.6	0
Using WhatsApp in listening and speaking was fun.	40.9	45.5	9.1	4.5
Listening to classmates' voice messages was enjoyable.	31.8	59.1	9.1	0

The table clarifies that the majority of participants were willing to use MALL in listening and speaking. Posting WhatsApp voice messages because this helped improve speaking skills got 100% agreement (81.8 strongly agree and 18.2 agree). The intention to use MALL in participants' future endeavors to improve language skills follows with 95.5% agreement (59.1% strongly agree and 36.4 agree). Feeling that listening to classmates' voice messages was enjoyable got 90.9% agreement (31.8 strongly agree and 59.1% agree). The intention of using MALL in teaching in the future got 86.4% agreement (36.4% strongly agree and 50% agree). Feeling that the use of WhatsApp in listening and speaking was fun got the same percent of agreement 86.4% (40.9% strongly agree and 45.5% agree). Finally, posting WhatsApp voice messages only to satisfy the teacher got only 28.5% agreement (9.5% strongly agree and 19% agree) while 71.5% of the participants disagree (42.9% disagree and 28.6% strongly disagree). This indicates that the participants were willing to use MALL in listening and speaking for its benefits not because the teacher required it.

The second dimension of the questionnaire, difficulties facing participants when using MALL in listening and speaking, consists of six items (five closed-ended, and one open-ended). The frequencies of the closed-ended items are presented in table (8).

Table 8. Frequencies of participants' perceptions of the difficulties that face them when using MALL in listening and speaking

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Posting WhatsApp voice messages daily was time-consuming.	9.5	14.3	52.4	23.8
Posting WhatsApp voice messages daily was boring.	9.1	27.3	45.5	18.2
It is difficult to listen daily to the teacher's explanation and model on WhatsApp.	9.1	9.1	27.3	54.5
Listening to classmates' participations gave me bad models as they have pronunciation errors.	13.6	22.7	22.7	40.9
I lost my enthusiasm about participating in the WhatsApp group for listening and speaking after the first two weeks.	18.2	27.3	50	4.5

It is clear that the biggest problem facing participants was losing enthusiasm after the first two weeks as 45.5% of the participants felt that. This goes along with what the researcher noticed during the experiment as participants began to fall behind in posting their daily voice messages after the first two weeks. However, 54.5% of the participants sustained their enthusiasm until the end of the project. 36.4% of the participants felt that posting voice messages on WhatsApp daily was boring. This is consistent with the observations of the researcher during the experiment as some participants kept asking to limit the posts to three or four days only not every day. This also corresponds to some of the suggestions participants presented at the end of the project. However, the majority (63.6%) of the participants did not have this feeling. 36.3% of the participants thought that listening to classmates' voice messages gave them bad models of pronunciation. However, the majority (63.7%) of the participants did not agree. This means that they thought it was helpful to listen to classmates' voice messages. This goes along with the results obtained in the perceived benefits of using MALL in listening and speaking presented later. As for time consumption, only 23.8% of the participants expressed that posting voice messages was time consuming. This means that the majority of the participants (76.2%) did not feel any time pressure on them during the project. Only 18.2% of the participants expressed that it was difficult to listen daily to the teachers' given model on WhatsApp. This goes along with the results obtained in the section related to the perceived

benefits as the majority of the participants valued the listening to the models presented by the teacher on the WhatsApp group.

As for the open-ended item in this dimension (item 23), participants wrote some difficulties that faced them during the project. These difficulties are ordered according to their frequency:

1. Posting voice messages daily

2. Posting a voice message about a topic of their choice

3. Increasing the required length of voice messages weekly

4. Technical problems especially internet access

5. Speaking about unfamiliar topics

6. Unknown words

This list of difficulties is consistent with the results of the closed-ended items. However, losing enthusiasm, which got the highest agreement percentage in table (8), did not appear directly in this list. Participants provided extra difficulties that were not included in the closed-ended items such as technical problems and increasing the required length of the voice message weekly.

The third dimension of the questionnaire, participants' preferences when using MALL in listening and speaking, consists of three items. Table (9) shows participants' perceptions in this dimension.

Table 9. Frequencies of participants' perceptions of their preferences when using MALL in listening and speaking

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Long prompts helped me more than short prompts.	63.6	27.3	9.1	0
I prefer to post voice messages about topics of my choice more than given topics by the teacher	27.3	27.3	27.2	18.2
When I listen to classmates' voice messages, I prefer to listen to high-level students' participations.	50	40.9	9.1	0

It is clear that participants preferred long prompts to short prompts as 90.9% of them agreed on this. The same percent of participants (90.9%) preferred to listen to high-level classmates' voice messages. 54.6 % of the participants agreed that they prefer to post voice messages about topics of their choice not topics imposed by the teacher.

The fourth dimension of the questionnaire, participants' perceived benefits of using MALL in listening and speaking, consists of nine items (seven closed-ended items and one multiple choice and one open-ended). The results are presented in table (10).

Table 10. Frequencies of participants' perceptions of the benefits of using MALL in listening and speaking

Item	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Using MALL helped me listen to English more.	81.8	18.2	0	0
Using MALL helped me speak English more.	63.6	36.4	0	0
Listening to the teachers' model of the task helped me give a better speech.	50	50	0	0
Listening to classmates' voice messages helped me give a better speech.	18.2	68.2	13.6	
I became more fluent in speaking English because of daily WhatsApp voice messages.	50	40.9	4.5	4.5
Using WhatsApp technology helped improve my listening skills.	27.3	59.1	13.6	0
I feel more comfortable and relaxed when speaking English through WhatsApp than speaking English in face-to-face settings.	59.1	18.2	18.2	4.5

The table shows that the first three items got 100% agreement. However the benefit of increased exposure to listening came top with 81.8 % of the participants strongly agree. The improved speaking came second with 63.6% of the participants strongly agree and the benefit of listening to the teachers' voice messages came third with 50% of the participants strongly agree. The benefit of improved fluency followed with 90.9% agreement. The benefit of

listening to classmates' voice messages and the improved listening had the same percent of agreement 86.4%. The benefit of overcoming speech apprehension came last with 77.3% agreement though it is still a very high percentage of agreement.

As for the multiple choice item in this dimension (item 22), participants indicated that posting their own voice messages was the most beneficial aspect of the project as this item got 66.7% agreement. 23.8% of the participants felt that listening to the teachers' voice messages was the most beneficial aspect. While only 9.5 % of the participants felt that listening to their classmates' vice messages was the most beneficial aspect of the project.

As for the open-ended item in this dimension (item 24), the researcher obtained the following benefits ordered according to their frequency:

1. Improvement in speaking skills
2. Improvement in listening skills
3. Learning new vocabulary
4. Improved ability in Pronouncing difficult words
5. Overcoming embarrassment of talking face-to face
6. Listening to classmates' voice message
7. Improved fluency of speaking
8. A lot of repetition helped students
9. Improved pronunciation
10. Listening to the teachers' voice messages
11. Improved ability to speak about oneself

This list is generally consistent with the results of the closed-ended items. However, participants provided extra valuable benefits such as learning new vocabulary.

Item (25) was a dimension-free item as it asked participants to provide any suggestions to improve the use of MALL in listening and speaking. Analysis of participants' responses showed the following suggestions ordered according to their frequency:

1. Continuity of using MALL in future courses
2. Limit the number of required participations to two or three times a week
3. To make open discussion on the WhatsApp group
6. Participants should decide how many times to participate not the teacher
7. Design topics to all participants to use different tenses
8. Teacher should provide a score after each voice message
9. To include telling stories as a topic for voice messages

4. Limit the listening to the teachers' voice messages and not to listen to classmates' voice messages

5. Use more creative topics for the voice messages

These suggestions are consistent with all the previous dimensions. For instance, suggestions no.2 and 6 are consistent with students' feeling of the heavy load of the tasks discussed in the challenges. Suggestions no. 1 and 4 are consistent with the benefits of MALL presented earlier.

4. Discussion

Based on the results presented, the use of MALL via WhatsApp application has improved participants' listening skills. This improvement may be due to the greater exposure of listening that learners got through MALL. Every day, learners were exposed to more than one audio post by the instructor as well as dozens of audio posts by their peers. Participants expressed that this greater exposure of listening to the foreign language was one of the most important benefits of incorporating MALL in their listening and speaking course. This result agrees with results obtained by various researchers such as Novack, Hong, Dixon, and Granpeesheh (2019) and Ryabkova (2019) who found out that MALL had improved listening skills of EFL learners. Also this result agrees with Azar, and Nasiri (2014) who found out that audio books on mobiles improved listening skills. Besides, this result supports the results of Asamadani (2019) who used infographics through mobiles to enhance listening skills and Al-Otaibi, AlAmer and Al-Khalifa (2016) who incorporated the use of mobiles in language labs to enhance listening skills. The current result is also consistent with Hamad (2017) who found positive effects of WhatsApp application on learners' language skills. However, the current result is not consistent with the study of Alghamdy (2019). Alghamdy did not find significant differences between students who used WhatsApp and the control group regarding their overall language achievement. This mismatch could be because Alghamdy used WhatsApp for a relatively short time and in a holistic way. The current study tried to focus on only two skills, which are listening and speaking via daily activities on WhatsApp.

Moreover, the use of MALL via WhatsApp application has relatively improved participants' speaking skills. This improvement may be because learners could practice speaking more than usual through the use of WhatsApp application as they could send voice messages daily and wherever they were. Another reason for this improvement as participants reported could be the

enhanced self-confidence and the lower anxiety rate they encountered during the use of MALL activities. This result supports the results obtained by Manan (2017) who found that WhatsApp use improved students' speaking skills. The current result is also consistent with Pellerin (2012) who found out that MALL improved learners' oral skills. This result also agrees with Lindström, and Hashemi (2017) who found out that MALL enhances speech tempo and self-confidence in speaking the foreign language. Besides, this result agrees with KukulskaHulme and Shield (2008) who found out that MALL can support collaborative speaking activities and strengthen their positive effect on students' oral proficiency.

Results showed that participants had positive perceptions towards the use of MALL in improving listening and speaking skills though they have encountered some challenges. Participants expressed their willingness to use MALL both during the experiment and in their future learning and teaching of English as a foreign language. This agrees with Shadiev, Hwang, Huang, and Liu (2018) who found out that users of MALL had positive attitudes towards it and expressed their intention to use it in their future learning processes. Participants, in the current study, were willing to use MALL as it was enjoyable for them and helped them improve their listening and speaking skills as they had reported.

Moreover, participants expressed many benefits of using MALL, which is consistent with previous literature. For instance, participants have declared that MALL increased their exposure to listening to English, improved their speaking especially fluency and it helped them overcome speaking apprehension. They perceived the improvement in their speaking to be the most beneficial gain from MALL. This agrees with Phillips (2017) who reported learners' appreciation of MALL as a factor helping them improve their speaking skills. One benefit that was reported by participants was that MALL helped them pronounce difficult vocabulary correctly thus helping them acquire these vocabulary items. This is against what Schmidt (2016) found out. Schmidt found out that MALL programs presented vocabulary in an isolated manner and consequently did not help learners acquire these vocabulary items. This difference could be because the current study presented vocabulary within the context of listening and speaking not in isolation.

Results of the current study showed that students have perceived some challenges of using MALL. The most common challenges were to maintain their interest in using MALL as time passed and the heavy load of work. Those two problems were not mentioned by previous studies to the best knowledge of the researcher. This could be because Saudi EFL learners have some motivational issues. However, these problems could be because learners are not familiar with using MALL. This is similar to what Nah, White, and Sussex (2008) have discovered

related to the nature of learners' study habits, which inhibited some benefits of MALL activities.

Participants expressed their preference of long prompts over short prompts; listening to more proficient classmates' voice messages than less proficient ones; and talking about topics of their choice rather than topics imposed by the teacher. This aspect of learners' preferences when using MALL was not given enough attention by previous studies. These preferences of learners could help designers of MALL programs in the future to design activities that are more appealing to language learners.

A final remark to be noticed in the results of the current study is that there was strong consistency between what students wrote in the open-ended items of the questionnaire with their responses in the closed-ended items in all dimensions. This adds to the reliability of the results of the questionnaire.

Theoretically, this study provided an experimental evidence for the effectiveness of MALL in improving oral skills. However, one limitation of this study is that it was conducted on only male participants and that the number of participants was relative small. Another strength of the study is combining the experimental evidence with descriptive evidence gathered through the questionnaire of learners' perceptions of MALL.

Practically, the study gives deep insight into the use of MALL. This could help EFL teachers in all levels to use MALL programs with their students as they can find detailed procedures for using MALL especially in improving listening and speaking skills. The study also highlights learners' preferences when using MALL. This can help program designers in designing MALL programs that go along with learners' needs.

5. Conclusions

Results of the study revealed that the usage of MALL improved students' listening and speaking skills. Results also revealed that participants have positive perceptions of using MALL in language learning. The majority of participants expressed their willingness to use MALL both at the time of the experiment and in their future endeavors as learners and prospective teachers of English. The most frequently perceived benefits of MALL are the increased exposure to listening, improved speaking ability especially fluency, enhanced self-confidence during speaking, reduced speaking apprehension and improved pronunciation of difficult words. Some participants expressed some difficulties when using MALL including the loss of enthusiasm after some weeks of study, heavy load of tasks, and some technical problems related to internet access.

To sum up, based on the results, the study recommends the incorporation of MALL in EFL language learning and teaching processes because of its positive impact on students' progress in achieving language proficiency especially in oral skills. Moreover, the study recommends that sufficient orientation should be given to both learners and instructors before the incorporation of MALL programs to familiarizes both of them on the benefits of using MALL. Further research could experimentally investigate the effectiveness of MALL in the areas of vocabulary acquisition, grammar mastery, reading skills and writing skills.

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The Effect of Content-Based Instruction on the Development of Speech Comprehensibility of Tertiary EFL Learners in Japan

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of one-year content-based instruction (CBI) in a Japanese university on Japanese EFL learners' speech comprehensibility development. This study adopted a pretest-posttest design and recruited 36 first-year Japanese undergraduate students, classifying 19 students in a CBI class as the experimental group and 17 students in a traditional EGP class as the control group. The speech samples of both groups were recorded at the beginning and the end of the year. Then, 12 untrained native English speaker raters evaluated the speech recordings using a comprehensibility rating scale. The results showed that one-year CBI implementation contributed to significant gains in students' English speech comprehensibility. This finding suggests that CBI has pedagogical effectiveness on L2 speech comprehensibility development. The author discusses the finding by focusing on task

characteristics in the CBI class where students enrolled and the theoretical rationales for each task leading to the speech development.

Keywords: content-based instruction, speech comprehensibility, EFL learners

Introduction

In a second language (L2) pronunciation and pedagogical research field, comprehensible L2 speech rather than native-like L2 performance has been viewed as a realistic and attainable goal for L2 learners to achieve successful communication (e.g., Saito, Trofimovich, & Isaacs, 2016). Therefore, speech comprehensibility has been attracting more and more attention as a global measure of L2 speech, and the term is also used in the speech evaluation criteria of popular high-stakes language tests such as the TOEFL iBT® test (ETS, 2019). Because of the growing attention to L2 speech comprehensibility, many empirical studies examined learners' L2 speech progress in terms of comprehensibility. Some longitudinal studies on learners' L2 speech comprehensibility development were reported mainly in ESL contexts or explicit pronunciation teaching classes in EFL contexts (e.g., Derwing, Munro, & Thomson, 2007; Saito & Saito, 2017). However, few studies have examined the learners' speech comprehensibility development in EFL and non-explicit L2 teaching contexts despite the pedagogical importance.

Furthermore, L2 speech comprehensibility is considered crucial in a university-level academic situation such as content-based instruction (CBI) courses because students are required to perform academic speaking tasks (e.g., discussion and presentation) more smoothly there. The CBI has been increasingly introduced into Japanese higher education for students to expand their knowledge of specialized content in English and improve their English skills. Although such content courses are theoretically expected to develop learner's L2 oral skills because those classes can provide much exposure to and use of the target language to promote L2 acquisition (Harada, 2017), there is little empirical evidence of the pedagogical impacts of

the CBI on students' L2 speech development in EFL contexts. In order to bridge these research gaps, this study investigated the effects of one-year CBI implementation in a Japanese university on the development of the Japanese students' English speech comprehensibility.

Background

Content-based instruction

Content-based instruction (CBI) is a general term for a language teaching approach that integrates particular content instruction and language teaching aims (Brinton & Snow, 2017; Snow, 2014), regarded as "the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills" (Brinton, Snow, & Wesche, 2003, p.2). Snow (2014) referred to CBI as "an umbrella term for a multifaceted approach" to second or foreign language education and noted that the teaching style would differ according to factors such as educational contexts, course objectives, and target population.

As an important study to capture characteristics of CBI, Met (1999) used two classifications, content-driven and language-driven, to identify the degree of attention to language and content in typical CBI classes (see Figure 1). Various CBI models can be placed on a continuum from a content-driven approach to a language-driven approach (Met,1999; van Lier, 2005). In other words, CBI is considered to cover all approaches to content instruction in L2. Therefore, the name of the approach varies depending on the course objectives and the balance between language and content instruction.

From a historical perspective, CBI originally appeared on the educational scene in North America in the early 1960s and had its roots in immersion education (Brinton & Snow, 2017), where learners put or immerse themselves into the L2 environment to study a variety of subject matters via L2 (e.g., math, science, and social studies). Then the inseparable relationships between language and content in education and the importance of their integration were argued in the 1980s (e.g., Mohan, 1986), creating the pedagogical basis for the CBI approach.

Subsequently, the teaching principle of CBI, the language and content integration, was backed up by several SLA research theories, and CBI spread widely throughout the world because of the theoretical underpinnings.

Content-driven					Language-driven
Total Immersion	Partial Immersion	Sheltered Courses	Adjunct Model	Theme-Based Courses	Language Classes with frequent content use
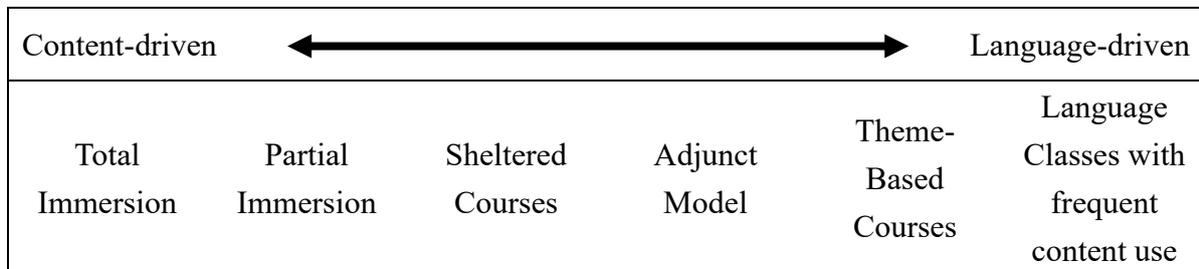
Figure 1. Content-based instruction continuum and the typical courses (adapted from Met, 1999)

Theoretical rationales for CBI from SLA research

Fitzsimmons-Doolan, Grabe, and Stoller (2017) discussed rationales behind CBI from the three theoretical perspectives of SLA: input (i.e., exposure to a target language through reading or listening), output (i.e., speech or written production by learners), and interaction (i.e., student-to-student or student-to-teacher communication). Language practitioners and researchers are in common agreement that these three elements in instructed language learning are essential for learners to promote their L2 abilities. Some previous CBI studies argued that learners could receive rich opportunities to engage in several language tasks, including those fundamental elements for L2 development in the CBI classroom (e.g., Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al., 2017; Harada, 2017). This section focuses on the rationales for CBI, overviewing previous literature on the three crucial components of SLA (input, output, and interaction).

First, it is widely acknowledged in SLA research fields that successful language learning requires extensive L2 input (Ellis, 2014). Learners cannot improve their L2 skills if they do not have many chances to obtain L2 input; in other words, the more they are exposed to the target language, the faster they will learn it. In addition, not only the quantity but also the quality of

input plays a vital role in the development of L2 skills. Krashen (1982; 1985) claimed that language acquisition could occur if learners receive "comprehensible input" that can be understood in a context by focusing on the meaning rather than the linguistic form. Krashen also argued that the input should be modified or simplified (e.g., caretaker speech and teacher talk) along with contextual supports (e.g., visual aids) for learners' L2 comprehension and development.

Second, L2 output, including writing and speaking, plays a necessary part in language acquisition. Swain (1985) argued that in addition to receiving a sufficient amount of L2 input, the L2 output produced by the learners' speaking and writing was required to facilitates the acquisition. By producing the target language, learners can recognize the gap between what they can express and what they want to express but cannot, and also can be aware of formal and syntactic features of the language, leading to the development of the syntactic processing skill (Swain, 1985, 2005).

Third, L2 oral interaction is a notable factor contributing to language acquisition because of the property that both input and output co-occur (Ellis, 2014). Long (1996) claimed that interaction promotes language acquisition when a speaker and a listener confront a communication problem and negotiate with each other to understand the meaning. When communication fails during an interaction, learners will attempt various linguistic modifications to make the input comprehensible such as paraphrasing the utterance or asking the interlocutor to paraphrase it. Reception of modified input through such mutual negotiation of meaning can facilitate language comprehension and acquisition. Additionally, the negotiation of meaning through interaction can also elicit more output from learners and allow them to modify their own output in response to feedback from the interlocutor (Ellis, 2014; Long, 1996, 2015).

CBI can maximize the amount of L2 input that learners receive in the classroom because the L2 is a medium of instruction, and the learners in CBI classes can more frequently

encounter lexical and grammatical items closely related to the content topics than in traditional language classes (Fitzsimmons-Doolan et al., 2017; Harada, 2017). Moreover, Brinton and Snow (2017) argued that the instructor in CBI classes can make academic subjects more comprehensible by using instructional techniques and contextualized support (e.g., paraphrasing, frequent comprehension checks, and the use of visuals) for students to fully understand the academically challenging content, which is in line with Krashen's claims that input must be comprehensible by modifying it or by contextual supports (1982; 1985). Thus, it has been argued in CBI studies that much exposure to academic language and complex concepts with learner-friendly support for comprehension can result in L2 acquisition (Brinton & Snow, 2017; Grabe & Stoller, 1997).

Furthermore, CBI can provide L2 learners with meaningful contexts for the target language use via relevant academic content and cognitively demanding tasks; therefore, they can receive many L2 output and interaction opportunities in CBI classes. Especially, the meaningful L2 use through collaborative work or problem-solving tasks (e.g., group discussion) can elicit purposeful communication and negotiation of meaning among learners or between learner and teacher, which can motivate their L2 learning and facilitate their language skills (Brinton & Snow, 2017; Genesee & Lindholm-Leary, 2013; Harada, 2017). Because of the rationales and expected benefits of CBI supported by previous SLA studies, the teaching approach spread from North America to various countries, including the ESL and EFL contexts.

CBI in Asian EFL contexts

Due to the pedagogical rationale behind CBI, as mentioned above, a number of curriculum development based on the CBI approach has been carried out in Asian EFL contexts. For example, Genc (2011) pointed out some existing problems of the current English teaching courses (e.g., lack of English classes for academic or professional purposes) in a Turkish university and proposed a new content-based curriculum to fill the gap between learners' needs

and the current foreign language curriculum. The study showed the rationale and the process of designing the new content-based curriculum in Turkish EFL contexts to provide a model of a content-based language teaching program in EFL tertiary education.

In another study, Cheng, Chang, Chen, and Liao (2010) conducted a needs analysis of CBI in a Taiwanese EFL context to examine English department students' needs for CBI course styles: content-driven and language-driven. Participants were sophomores and above who had completed or nearly completed the required language training courses for first- and second-year undergraduates. A questionnaire survey revealed that the students preferred a language-driven course and found their current language training courses inadequate to develop their language skills.

CBI in Japanese EFL contexts

As mentioned above, the tertiary-level CBI has been widely implemented in Asian EFL contexts with varying ratios of language and content teaching according to local situations and needs. In Japan, not until recently did universities introduce content-based programs where English is the medium of instruction except for several Cristian universities (e.g., International Christian University).

The recent trend of globalization is influencing curriculum development in Japanese higher education. In the early 2010s, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT), the government agency responsible for the promotion of education in Japan, launched the project "Global 30" to promote the internationalization of an academic environment of Japanese universities and to foster highly skilled human resources which can be active internationally (Hino, 2017; MEXT, 2017). The project encourages several selected universities to establish a system to accept international students (e.g., the development of English-medium instruction programs) and to build networks among universities for the quality enhancement of education and academic research (Brown, 2017; Morizumi, 2015). In line with

the globalization of universities, some universities created content-based programs where English is the medium of instruction (e.g., Content and Language Integrated Learning in Sophia University).

Because of the growing English needs and in response to the social expectation (e.g., improvement in English proficiency and professional skills of university students), the School of Education's Department of English Language and Literature at Waseda University conducted needs analysis to find potential problems of the current curriculum, to clarify learners' needs, and to design a new curriculum (Harada, 2017). From the contextual analysis, the department's faculty members noticed some problems in the current curriculum. First, there were not enough chances to brush up their English skills due to a lack of sufficient English exposure. Second, there was a lack of support for first-year students to take advanced specialized content classes in their senior year. Therefore, the faculty members decided to design two preparatory CBI courses on English language and literature that could help students enhance their academic English skills and expand the content knowledge required to survive in the subsequent academic years. In the CBI courses, students are expected to develop four skills: reading (e.g., reading academic material), listening (e.g., listening to the academic lecture), writing (e.g., taking notes and writing reports), and speaking (e.g., pair/group discussion and oral presentation). Detailed information on the CBI courses is described in the method section (the experimental group, teaching contexts).

Comprehensibility

In a recent pronunciation teaching and research field, the traditional focus on achieving native-like pronunciation has been regarded as inappropriate and unrealistic for L2 learners. Levis (2005) differentiated two contradictory principles, the "nativeness principle" and "intelligibility principle," to overview the paradigm shift in the goal of L2 pronunciation. The nativeness principle aims to achieve accurate pronunciation and native-like accent in a certain

target language, which was a dominant paradigm in pronunciation teaching before the 1960s (e.g., Lado & Fries, 1958). However, the native-like pronunciation supremacy was lost because some research on language acquisition from a biological perspective argued that the acquisition of native-like pronunciation could be difficult after childhood (Lenneberg, 1967; Scovel, 2000).

On the other hand, the intelligibility principle focuses on pronunciation easily understood by a wide range of listeners, claiming that L2 learners' speech needs to be understandable even with a foreign accent (Levis, 2005, 2018). The intelligibility principle has two similar but different constructs: intelligibility (e.g., actual understanding) and comprehensibility (e.g., ease of understanding). These terms can be distinguished in how they are operationally defined for the measurement. Intelligibility can be operationally defined as the listener's actual understanding of a speaker's speech production measured by orthographic transcription of the speech (Julkowska & Cebrian, 2015; Levis, 2018; Munro & Derwing, 1995). In contrast, comprehensibility was operationally defined as listeners' perceived ease of understanding of a speaker's speech production measured by intuitive scale ratings (Levis, 2018; Munro & Derwing, 1995; Trofimovich & Isaac, 2012). Although some previous studies offered different interpretations or operationalized definitions of the two constructs due to different research backgrounds and objectives (e.g., Smith & Nelson, 1985; Nguyen & Ingram, 2016), this study adopts the definition of speech comprehensibility by Munro and Derwing's empirical research (1995) based on a psycholinguistic approach.

Munro and Derwing (1995) found no clear correlation between L2 speakers' foreign accent and speech intelligibility and comprehensibility, suggesting that successful communication could be achieved even if L2 users have a strong foreign accent. Because of the influential study (Munro & Derwing, 1995), language researchers and practitioners have encouraged L2 learners to accept a foreign accent by their L1 and achieve an intelligible and comprehensible L2 speech for mutual understanding. In addition, Munro (2017) introduced the possible case of L2 communication that listeners might find speakers' utterances cognitively demanding to

understand even if they achieved a complete grasp of their utterance (full intelligibility). Therefore, L2 comprehensible speech has been prioritized as a realistic and attainable goal to ensure smooth communication (Derwing & Munro, 2009; Saito et al., 2016), and the comprehensibility rating has been widely adopted as one of the global measures to assess L2 learner's speech production (e.g., Galante & Thomson, 2017; Saito & Akiyama, 2017; Saito & Saito, 2017).

Empirical research of L2 comprehensibility development

Derwing, Munro, and Thomson (2007) investigated the development of L2 speech comprehensibility of adult Mandarin and Slavic English learners in ESL contexts in two years. The results showed that even though the initial oral proficiency levels of the two groups were the same, the Slavic speakers had a small significant gain in their L2 speech comprehensibility, whereas the Mandarin speakers' speech comprehensibility was not developed. The results were derived from the differences in the amount of exposure to English outside the ESL class due to the difference in motivation for L2 communication. Their study suggested the effects of input in L2 communication on the L2 comprehensible speech development.

In EFL contexts, some empirical research on L2 comprehensibility development was conducted in short-term explicit L2 pronunciation teaching situations. Saito and Saito (2017) examined the effects of suprasegmental instruction (e.g., word stress and intonation) of three hours over six weeks on the comprehensibility development of Japanese EFL learners at a beginner level. The results showed the explicit suprasegmental instruction contributed to significant gains in learners' speech comprehensibility and revealed a large effect size for the pronunciation instruction ($d = .85$). The large effect size can be interpreted as the result of explicit teaching of pronunciation even in a short instruction period. Therefore, their study suggested that explicit pronunciation teaching was highly effective for L2 comprehensibility development for beginner-level EFL learners with a limited amount of L2 interaction.

The purpose of this study

CBI has developed as a curricular approach to language and content learning and has been spreading around the world. An increasing number of CBI courses have been offered at universities in Japan as a part of curriculum development for the expected benefits for learners' language skill enhancement. However, the long-term pedagogical benefits of CBI in EFL contexts have not yet been sufficiently clarified. L2 speech comprehensibility has also been paid attention to as an L2 global measure for a successful communication criterion in the current English as an international language situation. As reviewed above, some empirical studies on L2 speech comprehensibility development have been conducted in a language learning course in ESL contexts or explicit L2 pronunciation teaching classes in EFL contexts. However, few studies have attempted to explore the effects of different types of L2 instruction that are not explicit pronunciation teaching on comprehensibility development. Investigating the effects of CBI, which is the integration of language and content instruction, on L2 speech comprehensibility development of EFL learners can contribute to the L2 teaching research field.

Thus, the primary goal of the study was to examine the pedagogical impacts of CBI on the development of EFL learners' comprehensible speech compared to a conventional EGP (English for general purposes) class, offering empirical evidence to support the expected benefits of CBI for L2 speech development described in previous studies (e.g., Harada, 2017). To bridge these research gaps, a research question was formulated as follows:

Do Japanese EFL learners achieve a significant gain in speech comprehensibility through one-year-long CBI implementation compared to the learners in a traditional EGP class?

Method

Participants

Speakers

The participants were 36 first-year Japanese undergraduate students at a private university in

Japan. Nineteen students (7 males, 12 females; *M* of age = 18.3 years) who took a CBI class were categorized as an experimental group and 17 students (10 males, 7 females; *M* of age = 18.2 years) who took a conventional English as a general-purpose (EGP) class as a control group. The background survey showed that all the students started to learn English in public education from the upper grades of elementary school or junior high school (*M* of the starting age = 12.0) and received six-year English education in secondary school. Besides, they had no overseas experience for more than two months, and there were very few English conversation classes in a secondary school; most of the classes were grammar-based instruction. Therefore, all of them were classified as typical EFL learners with limited exposure to English outside of the classroom. Their English proficiency levels were assessed by an online placement test that students were required to take before registering for English courses. They were placed at the intermediate, pre-advanced, and advanced level by the test's placement criteria. The experimental group consists of 4 intermediate, 13 pre-advanced, and 2 advanced-level students, while the control group does 1 intermediate, 10 pre-advanced, 5 advanced-level students, and 1 missing data. According to the online placement test's criteria, the intermediate level was equivalent to 57–64 points on the TOEFL iBT® test, pre-advanced to 64–80 points, and advanced to above 80 points; thus, the participants' English proficiency levels were broadly estimated as B1 to B2 (independent user) level in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001).

At the beginning of the project, the two groups were equivalent to each other in terms of their English speech performance level (comprehensibility). An independent sample *t*-test found no significant difference between the two groups in mean scores of comprehensibility at a *p* < .05 level (see the Results section in detail).

Raters

Twelve native English speakers (10 males, 2 females; *M* of age = 23.2 years; range 19–28 years) were recruited from Japanese universities (6 undergraduate, 6 graduate) for the

comprehensibility rating. All were international students, and their length of residence in Japan ranged from 1 to 3.5 years (M = 2.4). Therefore, they were relatively familiar with Japanese-accented English; their mean self-report score of the familiarity with Japanese-accented English was 5.33, ranging from 4 to 6 on a 6-point scale (6= *very much*, 1 = *not at all*). All reported having normal hearing.

Teaching Contexts

The experimental CBI group

Students in the experimental group were required to enroll in two CBI courses, "Introduction to Language and Communication," where the main theme was language education and introductory linguistics, and "Introduction to Literature and Culture" on the topic of English literature and culture. Both courses are a semester-long course (90 minutes per lesson × 15 lessons); students took one in the spring semester and the other in the fall semester per week (30 lessons in total). The classes were conducted primarily in English and in small groups of less than 20 students to interact more freely with other students and the lecturer. A questionnaire survey the students answered at the pre-test and post-test sessions reported that the percentage of English use in class was more than 90% (M of percentage = 92.3), indicating that English was a medium of instruction in the CBI class. The question on how well students understood the class resulted in a mean score higher than the median (M = 5.18, range 3–7, *1 = Not at all, 7 = completely understandable*), showing relatively high comprehension of the class.

In addition, students engaged in many academic tasks in English during the lesson (e.g., note-taking, lecture-listening, presentation, and group discussion) because the CBI courses were also expected to serve as a bridge course to further content-based courses that students would take in the subsequent academic years. According to the course syllabus of both CBI courses and research report by the two content-based courses' developers (Orii & Wake, 2018), students were required to give several oral presentations on the course content during one

semester and thus to engage in the following activities in English to improve their L2 skills used in the oral presentation: (1) checking and confirming information; (2) giving an introduction; (3) expressing and supporting an opinion; (4) presenting facts; (5) giving a summary; (6) paraphrasing; and (7) agreeing and disagreeing. Similarly, according to the questionnaire of the present study, it was self-reported that more than half of the in-class tasks were student-centered activities in English such as presentation and group discussion (e.g., confirming information) on the academic content (*M* of the percentage of teacher's lecture = 48.4, *M* of the percentage of students-centered activities including presentation and group discussion = 51.6). In short, students in the CBI class received much exposure to English (input) and rich opportunities to output English speech and interact with other students in English.

The control EGP group

Students in the control group took one or two English for general purposes (EGP) classes (90 minutes per lesson) as required foundation courses per week through one academic year (30 lessons in total). The questionnaire survey reported that students in the EGP classes were mainly working on traditional English learning tasks such as reading and listening to English texts. According to the survey, the percentage of English use in class was less than 30% (*M* of percentage = 27.8); the EGP class was conducted mainly in Japanese. These results indicated that the control EGP group was fundamentally lacking in English use in the classroom and that opportunities of output and interaction in English as well as input were relatively limited compared to the experimental CBI group.

Data Collection

Speech stimuli

Speech samples were elicited from a speech task to tell the speaker's personal experiences, their

recent challenging events (see Appendix A). Participants were given one-minute preparation time before speaking and were required to complete their speech within two minutes. In a CBI class, students are required to make a spontaneous or impromptu speech in academic oral tasks (e.g., group discussion); therefore, we considered a free-constructed task more appropriate rather than a highly controlled speech production task such as a read-aloud task of written prompts. Our speech elicitation task was designed to be free-constructed and more impromptu one under time pressure based on the target situation's properties.

Speech recording procedure

Participants' speech samples were recorded at two different periods: at the beginning of the one-academic year (pre-test, in April or May) and at the end of the year (post-test, in December). At the pre-test session, participants were asked to answer a background questionnaire on their profiles (e.g., starting age of English learning, overseas experiences, and course information) and perform the speech task. At the post-test session, they were instructed not to talk about the exact same story they had described at the pre-test session to minimize a task repetition effect on speech performance. Their speech samples were recorded individually in a quiet soundproof booth at a speech laboratory in the university. The recordings at both test sessions were conducted using TASCAM DR-100MKII, a high-quality linear PCM (Pulse Code Modulation) recorder with a 44.1 kHz sampling rate, a 16-bit depth.

After collecting the speech samples, the volume and peak intensity of the speech data were normalized using Audacity, an audio software for multi-track recording and editing. Besides, all initial fillers, hesitation, and false starts of the speech were removed, and then the recordings were cut off to the initial 30 seconds, in line with previous research methods using 20–30 seconds of speech recordings for listener judgments (e.g., Derwing, et al., 2007; Crowther, Trofimovich, Isaacs, & Saito, 2015).

Speech rating procedure

A 9-point scale (1 = *hard to understand*, 9 = *easy to understand*) was used for speech comprehensibility ratings, in line with many previous studies (e.g., Derwing & Munro, 2009; Galante & Thomson, 2016; Saito et al., 2016). Each speech rating session was individually conducted in a quiet speech laboratory at the university. Native English-speaking raters received a brief instruction on speech comprehensibility and the rating procedure (see Appendix B). Prior to the main rating section, raters carefully confirmed the definition of comprehensibility (i.e., ease of understanding) and how to use the 9-point scale. Next, the speech task was shown to raters, and they familiarized the speech topic to minimize content familiarity effects on speech rating. Then they practiced the speech rating with 10 speech samples not included in the main analysis. Finally, 72 speech samples (36 × 2-time points) were presented to raters in a randomized sequence, and they completed the ratings with a few minutes break during the session to alleviate their fatigue. Following the rating session, they answered a background questionnaire to check their language profiles (e.g., their first language and length of residence in Japan).

Data Analysis

Following rater consistency evaluation and descriptive statistics calculation, we carried out a repeated-measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) for comprehensibility score with Time (pre, post) as a within-subjects factor and Group (CBI, EGP) as a between-subject factor to examine whether there was a significant difference in speech comprehensibility development between different types of instruction.

Result

Cronbach's alpha coefficients for each comprehensibility rating were computed to assess inter-rater reliability. All raters were highly consistent in their comprehensibility rating both on the

pre-test (α = .91) and post-test (α = .90). Those scores satisfied an acceptable level of Cronbach's alpha coefficients, above .70–.80 (Larson-hall, 2010, p.171), indicating the high degree of agreement among raters for their comprehensibility judgment.

To confirm any pre-existing differences between the experimental and control group in their English-speaking ability, their speech performance at the pre-test sessions was analyzed using an independent sample t-test. The result revealed no significant difference in mean scores of speech comprehensibility between the two groups on the pre-test, $t(34) = -1.349, p = .186$. Prior to intervention, therefore, the two groups were comparable in terms of their English speech comprehensibility.

Descriptive statistics of comprehensibility scores on the pre-test and post-test for each group are summarized in Table 1. On the pre-test, the mean score of comprehensibility for the CBI group was 4.58 (SD = 1.25, 95% CI [4.02, 5.15]), and that for the EGP group was 5.12 (SD = 1.11, 95 % CI [4.59, 5.65]). On the post-test, some differences appear; the mean score was 5.78 (SD = 0.88, 95 % CI [5.39, 6.18]) for the CBI group, and that was 5.32 (SD = 1.43, 95 % CI [4.64, 6.00]) for the EGP group. While the mean score for the CBI group was lower than that for the EGP group on the pre-test, the results were reversed on the post-test. The gain score between pre-test and post-test for the CBI group was also higher than that for the EGP group (CBI = 1.20, EGP = 0.20).

Then, a repeated-measures ANOVA (Time × Group) was conducted to determine if the difference in mean scores of comprehensibility was statistically significant and to investigate the effect and interaction of the two independent variables, test time (Time) and instruction difference (Group), on the dependent variable, comprehensibility score. The within-subjects factor was Time (pre-test and post-test), and the between-subjects factor was Group (CBI and EGP). The result of the repeated-measures ANOVA for comprehensibility scores revealed a significant effect of Time, $F(1, 34) = 8.353, p = .007$, partial $\eta^2 = .197$, and a significant Time × Group interaction, $F(1, 34) = 4.247, p = .047$, partial $\eta^2 = .111$. The significant Time × Group

interaction suggested that the presence or absence of changes in comprehensibility scores between the pre-test and post-test could be different for each group. Figure 2 illustrates the mean scores of comprehensibility across time and groups.

Finally, we carried out post-hoc Bonferroni-adjusted paired samples t-tests to interpret the significant Time × Group interaction. The significance level was adjusted from .05 to .025. The paired samples t-tests revealed that the CBI group achieved a significant improvement in their speech comprehensibility over time, $t(18) = -3.602, p = .001$, with a large effect size ($d = .826$), whereas there was no significant improvement for the EGP group, $t(16) = -0.572, p = .603$, with a small effect size ($d = .138$). These results indicated that one-academic-year CBI implementation led to a significant gain in students' English speech comprehensibility.

Table 1

The descriptive statistics of speech comprehensibility scores on pre-test and post-test

Group	Time	*M*	*SD*	*SE*	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
CBI	Pre	4.58	1.25	0.29	4.02	5.15
(*n* = 19)	Post	5.78	0.88	0.20	5.39	6.18
EGP	Pre	5.12	1.11	0.27	4.59	5.65
(*n* = 17)	Post	5.32	1.43	0.35	4.64	6.00

*Note. M* = Mean. *SD* = Standard Deviation. *SE* = Standard Error.
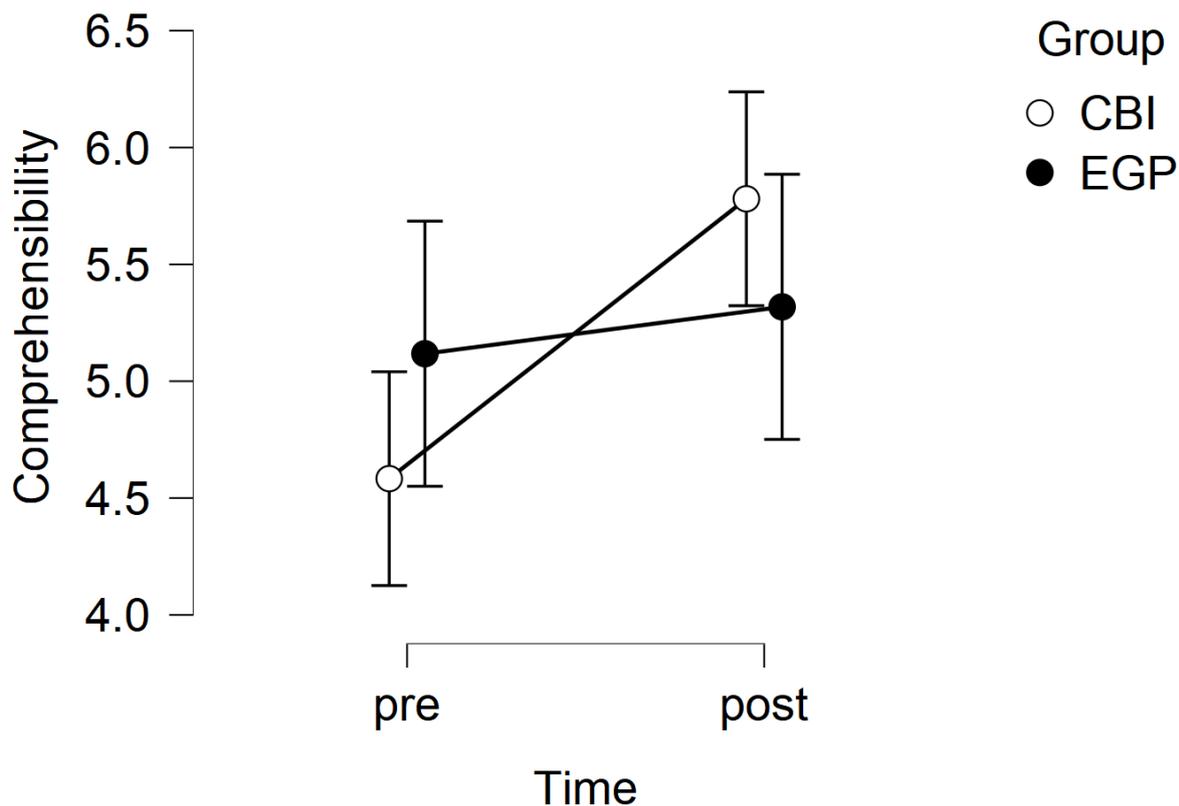
Figure 2. The gain of speech comprehensibility score through the one-academic year. Error bars indicate a 95% Confidence Interval. The comprehensibility rating scale ranges from 1 to 9 (1 = *hard to understand*, 9 = *easy to understand*).

Discussion

This study was designed to investigate the educational effects of the one-year-long CBI implementation on EFL learners' speech development, and we found significant improvement of their English speech comprehensibility in the experimental group (CBI class), but not in the comparison group (traditional EGP class). These results demonstrated the potential effectiveness of CBI on learners' comprehensible L2 speech progress. We discuss the results in terms of task characteristics in the CBI courses where the students enrolled and from theoretical perspectives of L2 acquisition, including input, output, and interaction.

One possible reason for the experimental group's L2 development could be a large amount of comprehensible input in the CBI courses. Theoretically, many influential previous SLA studies emphasize the importance of input, especially comprehensible input, of a target

language as a key factor to facilitate the language acquisition (e.g., Ellis, 2014; Krashen, 1982; 1985), and it was also considered the rationale for the improvement of language skills in CBI (Brinton & Snow, 2017; Grabe & Stoller, 1997). The CBI courses that the experimental group registered were conducted mostly in English, as evidenced by the result of the questionnaire, which showed that the average percentage of English used in class was 92.3 percent. The teachers delivered lectures of academic content in English, and the language used by the students during oral tasks such as group discussion and presentation was also English; therefore, students were able to receive a great deal of input of the target language. In addition, a notable feature of the input in the CBI class was that it was understandable for students. The questionnaire found that students in the CBI courses obtained a relatively high score of the class comprehension (*M* = 5.18, range 3–7, *1 = Not at all, 7 = completely understandable*), indicating that the students were able to generally understand the academic and specialized content in English. Because the CBI courses' content included academic and specialized topics such as introductory linguistics and English literature, lecturers' English might have been modified or delivered in plain and comprehensible English to help the students' comprehension of the challenging topics. Moreover, because the CBI courses were a bridge course for first-year university students who were not used to taking classes conducted in English, it could be essential for lecturers to deliver the difficult content in English in a comprehensible manner. Thus, such a role as a preparatory course and the property of CBI that an instructor offer supports to make the challenging content understandable to learners (Brinton & Snow, 2017; Grabe & Stoller, 1997) could maximize the amount of comprehensible input to facilitate L2 development and to support learners' content comprehension in the CBI courses. Consequently, rich exposure to L2 input for content understanding served as foundation of the learners' L2 speech development. Additionally, the result that the group with more exposure to L2 showed significant gain in speech comprehensibility is consistent with the previous study (Derwing et

al., 2007), reconfirming the importance of L2 input for L2 speech comprehensibility development.

Furthermore, the significant gain of L2 speech comprehensibility of the experimental group could be attributed to the plentiful opportunities for L2 output and interaction in the CBI courses. Theoretically, L2 output is considered to make learners aware of morphosyntactic features of their production and facilitate L2 acquisition (Swain, 1985). According to the self-reported information in the questionnaire and the CBI course syllabi, students engaged in several oral presentation tasks regarding the course content and language use activities to improve their L2 oral skills for the presentation (e.g., presenting facts, giving a summary, and paraphrasing). In the presentation tasks, it can be inferred that students paid more attention to their own speech to convey the meaning appropriately and smoothly as Swain (1985) claimed that output could cause the development of the syntactic processing skill. For example, students were required to grasp the difficult academic content in English and summarize the content in their own words in the presentation tasks. They attempted to find more appropriate words, expressions, and forms of language and paraphrase a lot for smooth content delivery. It can be interpreted that these opportunities for output allowed the students to focus on their speech and to achieve more comprehensible speech.

Besides, L2 interaction can provide learners with the negotiation of meaning, resulting in more chances to get input and elicit more output (Long, 1996), and some previous studies argued that CBI can offer learners purposeful communication and negotiation of meaning via relevant contents and tasks (e.g., Brinton & Snow, 2017). According to the questionnaire, the students in the CBI courses participated in group discussion of academic topics such as confirming the term and concept, which suggests that the students were exchanging opinions on the academic topics and negotiating with each other for mutual understanding during the discussion tasks. It is possible that they made efforts to make themselves understood through the negotiation of meaning such as choosing and changing words to explain the difficult term

and concept of academic topics. It could be interpreted that this trial-and-error process of purposeful language use for mutual understanding contributed to the improvement of their L2 speech comprehensibility in line with previous SLA studies to argue that negotiation of meaning via L2 interaction can facilitate L2 abilities (e.g., Ellis, 2014; Long, 1996).

Last, it is noteworthy that the effect size for CBI instruction ($d = .826$) was large, whereas that for EGP was small ($d = .138$) according to Cohen's criteria (1988). The results suggest that a one-year-long CBI implementation is very effective for learners' L2 speech comprehensibility development and that EGP class might not be effective even for a long time. The large effect size could derive from the characteristics of CBI mentioned above, plenty opportunities of L2 input, output, and interaction in the meaningful contexts via content learning. Compared to the effect size of the previous research to examine the impacts of explicit L2 pronunciation instruction on comprehensibility development ($d = .85$, Saito & Saito, 2017), CBI can be as effective for comprehensibility development as L2 pronunciation teaching although the length of implementation is different. Thus, the large effect size suggests the great potential of CBI as an effective language teaching approach for EFL learners.

Conclusion

In order to contribute to the field of research on L2 teaching in EFL contexts and offer empirical evidence to support the potential benefits of CBI for L2 speech development, this study examined the pedagogical impacts of one-year-long CBI implementation on tertiary EFL learners' comprehensible speech development. Results found that the experimental group significantly improved their L2 speech comprehensibility, whereas the control group did not achieve any significant improvement. The findings supported the expected effects of CBI on learners' L2 speech development; in short, CBI with a large amount of comprehensible input and many chances of purposeful L2 use in a meaningful context to learn specific content can promote L2 speech development of EFL learners who received limited exposure to the

language. In conclusion, long-term CBI implementation with rich opportunities of input, output, and interaction via content learning can help EFL learners obtain more comprehensible L2 speech and achieve successful communication.

Despite the implications for the pedagogical effectiveness of CBI, this study has a methodological limitation that should be noted. English native-speaker raters had relatively high familiarity with Japanese-accented English. The result was possibly because they were international students in Japan and had many opportunities to communicate with Japanese in English. Therefore, it is possible that their evaluations of Japanese students' English speech were more lenient than the native speakers' ratings in other studies. Future studies require the recruitment of more strictly controlled raters from overseas via online recruitment and rating sessions to solve this problem.

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Appendix A

Speech material

Describe <u>the toughest (the most challenging) event</u> you have experienced for the past few months.

You should say:

- What happened?

- When it happened?

- Where it happened?

- Why do you feel the event is the toughest (the most challenging)?

You will have to talk about the topic for about 2 minutes.

You have 1 minute to think about what you are going to say.

Appendix B

Rating Instruction

YOUR TASK

1. Listen to each speech sample (30 sec for each).

2. Then, rate the speech based on the following rubric: Comprehensibility.

Word	Explanation
Comprehensibility	This term refers to **how much effort it takes to understand what a speaker is saying**. If you can understand (what the personal story is all about) with ease, then a speaker is highly comprehensible. However, if you struggle and must listen very carefully, or in fact cannot understand what is being said at all, then a speaker has low comprehensibility.

BEFORE YOU BEGIN

1. Ensure that you use the following scale all the time, Comprehensibility:

2. (1 = hard to understand, 9 = easy to understand)

3. You are required to use the entire scale (1-9) as much as you can.

4. Only after you finish hearing the entire speech, you can rate the speech.

5. We will check every listener's inter-rater reliability. So, please stay focused during the whole rating session.

6. You will have a few breaks during the rating.

RATING PRACTICE

	Comprehensibility								
	hard to understand				neutral			easy to understand	
#1	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
#2	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
#3	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
#4	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

#5	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
#6	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
#7	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
#8	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
#9	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
#10	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9

Text Chat as a Mediating Tool in Providing Teachers' Corrective Feedback in the ESL Context: Social and Cultural Challenges

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Abstract

Corrective feedback (CF) has been proven to be effective in Second Language Acquisition (SLA). With the increased usage of technology in the field of education, learning a second or foreign language in a computer mediated environment is widely discussed in current literature, thus paving the way for research on computer mediated corrective feedback (CMCF). As such, CMCF, especially through tools such as text chat, has gained increasing attention from researchers. Nevertheless, the scholarly focus has often been confined to certain aspects such as peer CF or CF given by native speakers (NS) in telecollaboration projects. As teachers could provide step by step scaffolding to make learners notice their errors and correct them, teachers' CF in text chat environment could be more useful. However, text chat has rarely been discussed as a mediating tool to provide teachers' CF. Addressing this potential gap in research, the present study aims to explore the perspectives of university teachers and students on the potential of using text chat for teachers' CF, while discussing the challenges they would encounter in the process. Applying the sociocultural theoretical framework, the study discusses text chat as a mediating tool and the role teachers could play in assisting learners in the zone of proximal development.

The data were collected from five Sri Lankan university teachers and two groups of university students (five in each group) through individual and group interviews, respectively. An Affinity Diagram was employed to analyse the data thematically. The study suggests that teachers' CF through text chat could play a significant role in a context where learners have high second language anxiety which could be a result of their social, cultural and historical

context. Students favour CF through text chat, mostly because it may reduce their anxiety of speaking the language. The study further reveals that teachers are still using conventional means of technology though learners prefer using the technology of their generation. Teachers, however, stated that their CF in the traditional pedagogy where most of the time, CF is given in front of the whole class does not seem to work successfully. Therefore, recognising the potential of the text chat as a mediator of CF in a particular challenging sociocultural context, they seem to be examining alternatives to their traditional pedagogy. The results also indicate that text chat, being a popular means of communication among teachers and learners, and as learners could go through the history of the text chat and learn about their language errors, provision of teachers' CF through text chat could be possible and useful.

The present study contributes to the theoretical and practical discussions on the use of computer mediated pedagogical tools in English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom. The findings of this study will be useful for teachers who are seeking interactive pedagogical tools to be used in the language classroom. Further, our results will also support future researchers to design studies to examine the interventions between teachers and students in text chat, as well as to evaluate the efficacy of teachers' CF through text-chat to improve the language skills of adult second language learners.

Keywords: *Text Chat, Corrective Feedback, English as a Second Language, Affinity Diagram, Sociocultural Theory, Sri Lankan Context*

1. Introduction

A fundamental premise to sociocultural approach to language learning is that learning is not independent, but mediated and that it cannot be separated from the context in which it is carried out (Wertsch, 1991). In sociocultural theory, Vygotsky tries to confirm that "higher mental functions cannot be adequately developed only by maturation and direct interaction of a person with the environment", but requires "some form of external and intentional mediation" (Kozulin, 2018, p.38). This is where computer mediated corrective feedback (CMCF) could play a significant role in language learning. Framed within this approach to language learning, this paper intends to explore the potential of text chat to act as a mediating tool in the provision of Corrective Feedback (CF) to adult learners of English.

CF could be considered as one of the most debated topics in the literature (Al-wossabi, 2019). On the one hand, many studies have confirmed the necessity and efficacy of CF (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ellis, 2009; Sato & Lyster, 2012; Alzahrani, 2016; Hajri & Al-Mahrooqi,

2013). On the other hand, CF is seen as ineffective in language learning (Truscott, 1999) especially if the learners have high anxiety (Dekeyser, 1993) because high anxiety learners fail to notice CF (Rassaei, 2015).

However, the central idea of the sociocultural approach to learning, that learning takes place in dialogical interaction has prompted many studies that investigate how computer mediated communication (CMC) could support language learning (Alastuey, 2011). Synchronous (real-time), asynchronous (delayed time), text-based, and voice-based CMC have been the areas of interest. Among text-based and voice-based CMC, text-based CMC seems to be given more attention due to its similarity to oral conversations (Alastuey, 2011). Further, text chat is considered as a conducive learning environment that reduces learner anxiety (Kern, 1995; Satar & Özdener, 2008) and helps learners focus on the linguistic form (Yilmaz & Granena, 2010). Therefore, it could be assumed that CF would be better taken in by learners if provided in the text chat environment.

In addition, it is already proven that there could be individual differences among learners vis-à-vis language proficiency, cognitive development, learning objectives and learning styles, and these factors seem to affect learner motivation, language intake and task performance (Zhao, 2005). Thus, it is imperative that new teaching/learning activities that address learners' individual differences should be introduced to improve their language skills. Hence, text chat, which is a means of computer mediated text-based communication, could be presumed as a pedagogical tool that could cater to the individual differences of learners.

However, there is scant research pertaining to the provision of CF through text chat with the mediation of the language teacher. From a sociocultural perspective, mediation can occur in three ways: via symbolic tools, via a human mediator and via specially designed activities (Kozulin, 2018). Thus, text chat could play the role of the mediator. The teacher could act the role of the human mediator whilst tasks could play the role of specially designed activities in providing CF to adult learners. Vygotsky's zone of proximal development also provides an explanatory framework to understand how teachers' intervention in text chat could support adult learners' second language acquisition (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Framed within the sociocultural approach to language learning, this paper intends to explore the potential as well as social and cultural challenges of using text chat (one-to-one) as a mediating tool to provide teacher's CF to adult ESL learners. This was carried out by examining the perspectives of Sri Lankan ESL teachers and students in higher education.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Theoretical framework

Sociocultural theory is based on the concept that the action is mediated and that it cannot be separated from the context in which it is carried out (Wertsch, 1991). Thus, it is understood that learning is also not independent but mediated, and it cannot be separated from the social environment. Zone of proximal development and mediation are two significant notions that are discussed in sociocultural theory in light of second language acquisition. The zone of proximal development is defined as the distance between a child's actual development level as determined by independent problem-solving and the potential development as determined by problem-solving guided by an adult or any other more capable peers (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). Mediation, the focal point of sociocultural theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) is the "involvement of a third factor into the interaction between two objects, events, or persons" (Kozulin, 2018, p.23). According to Vygostskian Sociocultural theory, learning could take place in three ways: genetically, with the impact of social life and with the mediation of tools and signs (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). In terms of second language acquisition (SLA), learning a second language does not happen genetically; therefore, it must be mediated by either social life or some tools, or both. Here comes the importance of CF and text chat since they could play a significant role in SLA as mediating tools.

2.2. Using Computer Mediated Communication (CMC) for Language Learning

In the past few decades, research on Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) has witnessed a shift away from the conventional means of technology such as multimedia and stand-alone programs whilst the focus has been centred on the communicative and interactive aspects of technology (Hoven, 2006; Leow, 2015). Therefore, CMC has become popular in its interactive, communicative and social nature (Leow, 2015; Satar & Özdener, 2008) and for its potential of "collaborative construction of knowledge" (Alastuey, 2011, p. 419). Warschauer (1996) discovered that CMC in language classrooms could increase the motivation of learners. CMC seems to be a potential environment for language learners to improve their language skills (Payne & Whitney, 2002; Takase, 2016; Warschauer, 1996; Warschauer, Turbee, & Roberts, 1996) and to practice the language in authentic environments (Lee, 2001, 2008). This view was further acknowledged by Garrote (2018) who claimed that through CMC, language learners could well be exposed to the target language for a longer time than in the physical classroom.

Many scholars have realised the benefits of text-based CMC, in terms of improvement of oral language skills and expression of emotions. Payne & Whitney (2002) discover that

synchronous text-based CMC could indirectly have a positive impact on oral language skills of the students and that the chat room could play as a *conversation simulator* for language learners (p. 25). Comparing the pedagogical tasks given in the CMC and face to face environments, Salaberry (2000) uncovers that the first signs of morphosyntactic development of learners could be seen in CMC environment than in face to face environment. Moreover, Derks, Fischer, & Bos (2008) in their review of past studies, reveal that there is no difference between text-based CMC and face to face conversations in terms of expression of emotions. The results also indicate that the use of emotions is more visible in text-based CMC than in face to face conversations. Thus, extant research has already confirmed the benefits of CMC in terms of language learning.

2.3. Text chat as a pedagogical tool for language acquisition

Text chat which was introduced as *Conversation in Slow Motion* by Beauvois (1998) is a synchronous text-based communication discussed under CMC. As a means of CMC, it has recently gained the attention of many scholars in SLA research. Herring (2011) argues that text-based CMC plays a more significant role than voice-based CMC. She postulates that text-based CMC is quite similar to the oral conversation and that internet users use "talked", "said" and "heard" than "typed", "wrote" or "read" when discussing text-chat while some authors of published work unconsciously use words like "speakers", "talk" and "turns" rather than using words like "writers", "typed exchanges" and "messages"' (p.1 &2).

Text chat seems to play a vital role in CMC since it can pay simultaneous attention to form and meaning. In text chat, learners can reflect on their messages because they have sufficient time to compose their messages. Yet, it does not appear as merely written communication, for it contains interactive features of conversation (Tare et al., 2014). Because of the reflective element of text-chat, it supports the morphosyntactic development of the language (Salaberry, 2000; Tare et al., 2014). As Payne & Whitney (2002) point out, text chat could indirectly improve the conversation skills of learners. This improvement could be possible because it creates opportunities for learners to use authentic language in practical situations (González-Lloret, 2011; Sung & Poole, 2017) that leads to more language production (Kern, 1995; Sadoux, 2017; Takase, 2016). Moreover, text chat provides an ideal environment for learners to focus on the linguistic form (Yilmaz & Granena, 2010). It reduces communication anxiety (Kern, 1995; Satar & Özdener, 2008) and provides a beneficial environment for language improvement (Hamzah, 2004; Sung & Poole, 2017; Wang, Han, & Chen, 2016; Coyle, 2017; HassanAl-Ahdal & Hussein, 2020). Satar & Özdener (2008)

discerned that Synchronous Computer Mediated Communication (SCMC) in the form of text chat or voice chat is a sound platform for the learners to improve their speaking skills either as an additional task in the classroom or as a distance learning task.

2.4.Computer Mediated Corrective Feedback (CMCF)

CMCF has attracted the attention of many scholars in the last decade. They have studied the CF given through tools such as Word processor, track changes (Abuseileek, 2013), email (Akbar, 2017), video chat (Akbar, 2017), Google Docs (Chong, 2019), MS Word (Tabatabaei, Khan, Gavidelnia, & Ramzi, 2017) and PDF files (Rassaei, 2019). Many studies have proven the effectiveness of CMCF regardless of different study designs, tools, settings, types of CF, participants, language and skills taught.

Few studies in the extant literature have examined the role of CF in text chat (e.g.: Wigham & Chanier, 2015; Lee, 2001; Lee, 2008; Liu, 2017; Giguère & Parks, 2018; Oskoz, 2007; Murphy, 2010; Loewen & Erlam, 2006; Baralt, 2013). They have confirmed that text chat could provide a conducive environment for the provision of CF (Lee, 2001; Lee, 2008; Baralt, 2013; Liu, 2017). Lee (2001) explored the types of CF that the students use in text chat (regardless of the proficiency level of the learners): comprehension checks, clarification checks, requests and self-repairs. Giguère & Parks (2018) uncover three types of CF that are used in ESL and FSL (French as a Second Language) eTandem chat exchange: explicit feedback, recasts, and negotiation of form. Baralt (2013) posits that recasts would be the best in text chat environment with simple tasks. Akbar (2017) reports that CF could be seen in both synchronous CMC and asynchronous CMC, and that recasts were common in synchronous CMC while clarification requests were common in asynchronous CMC.

Loewen & Erlam (2006), despite the inability to confirm the benefit from CMCF, revealed that even the L2 learners of the beginning level are able to communicate through text chat. Murphy (2010) claims that CMCF promotes quality interaction among learners and better comprehension of a reading text. This view was further recognised by Wigham & Chanier (2015) who claimed that CMC is a potential environment for the provision of CF that does not interrupt the learners' flow of communication. Sauro (2009) also supported this view claiming that SCMC in the form of text chat could support language gains. Kim (2014) explores that a task-based CMC environment in the form of text chat could make learners notice their errors through CF. However, challenging the previous studies, Kim (2014) reveals that there is less learner uptake in this environment since learners feel that it is unnatural and unnecessary to type a sentence to respond to recasts in the chat.

Lee (2008) conducted a study to examine how CF is used in expert-novice interaction. The study reports that experts are able to provide step by step scaffolding to learners to make them notice their errors. However, the study also reveals the fact that experts should be guided not to over-intervene the interaction. The results further indicated that CF in text chat could support the learners to focus on form and that it could be possible only with a good understanding of how CF functions. While confirming text chat as a potential tool in the language pedagogy, Park (2005) who examined the CF exchanged between language learners (peers), shows that the peer CF would not be sufficient to improve the accuracy of the language. Lee (2001) also discovers that online learner-learner interaction does not support students to produce an accurate and coherent conversation. Liu (2017) found out that compared to NNS-NS dyads (high or low proficiency), high proficiency NNS-NNS dyads had more negotiations, interactions and strategy use.

Therefore, this study attempts to discuss how teachers could provide CF through text chat and what social and cultural challenges could affect the process. Thus, the following research question was formed: What is the potential of initiating text chat as a mediating tool to provide teacher's corrective feedback to adult learners of English as a Second Language?

3. Method

3.1. Data collection

Data was collected through individual interviews with five Sri Lankan university teachers and group interviews with two groups of ESL learners (Sri Lankan university students). These were semi-structured interviews, and the aim was to explore their perceptions on the potential of using text chat as a pedagogical tool to provide teacher's CF. Both teachers and learners were interviewed after receiving their informed consent.

Interviews of students were conducted in their mother tongue, which is Sinhala, and they were translated into English before analysing while teachers' interviews were conducted in English medium. Teachers' views on various areas were explored: ESL students, teachers' usage of computer technology in the classroom, CF and CF through text chat. Through teachers' interviews, their general perspectives on ESL students were examined to understand the appropriateness of the pedagogical tool in question for the target audience. Teachers' usage of computer technology in the classroom was also explored through a few questions to examine the current status of the classroom in terms of the technology used and to understand the appropriateness of the pedagogical tool in question for teachers. Their perceptions of CF and CMCF (through text chat) were also examined to answer the research question of the study.

Further, through students' interviews, their perspectives on several more aspects were explored: ESL, CF and CMCF, students' and teachers' usage of CMC, their motivation to speak English in the classroom. Through students' interviews, their perspectives on ESL were first examined to understand the learning context. Their perspectives on CF and CMCF were also reviewed to see the potential for the provision of CF through text chat. Further, students were asked about both students' and teachers' usage of communication tools in learning English to explore the current status of the language classroom in terms of CMC. And their motivation to speak English in the classroom was also delved into, to discover whether they have anxiety towards speaking English, assuming that CMCF in text chat would work better than oral CF if they have high anxiety.

3.2. Participants

Five teachers and two student groups (five in each group) were employed in the study, and they were selected through the convenient sampling technique. None of them had previous experience in providing/receiving CF via text chat though they were familiar with text chat in terms of communication. Three teachers represent three different state universities while two teachers represent one private university. Teachers from both state and private universities are selected not with the intention to compare with each other but to understand their views better. Out of these universities, all universities are located in Colombo district which is the central commercial city of the country, except one state university which is situated outside Colombo. One group of students was from a state university whilst the other group was from a private university which is under the purview of the Ministry of Higher education, and both are located in Colombo district. In Sri Lanka, only 16%-20% of students who sit the A/L examination become eligible for the state university entrance (Department of Census and Statistics, 2018) and they are entitled to free education. From the rest of the students, some enter non-state universities where there are fee-levying degree programmes. A summary of the details of the participants in the study is given in table 1.

Table 1. *Demographic details of the participants*

	Gender	Age	University	Experience in teaching English	Formal English Education (Years)

Teacher 1	Male	_	State University	Nearly 20 years	_
Teacher 2	Female	_	State University	More than 10 years	_
Teacher 3	Female	_	Private University	Nearly 10 years	_
Teacher 4	Female	_	Private University	More than 5 years	_
Teacher 5	Female	_	State University	Nearly 1 & 1/2 years	_
Student Group 1	1 Female and 4 Male	18-23	State University	NA	9-15
Student Group 2	1 Female and 4 Male	18-23	Private University	NA	9-15

3.3. Data Analysis

Data collected from both individual and group interviews were first anonymised. Then they were analysed thematically using an Affinity Diagram (Holtzblatt & Beyer, 2017). The Affinity Diagram is considered as the "simplest way to organise field data" (Holtzblatt & Beyer, 2017, p.127). A unique feature of the Affinity Diagram is that the themes are emerged from the data, not predefined. In the current study, two Affinity Diagrams were created separately for teachers' perceptions and learners' perceptions because it was essential to compare their perspectives. Interviews were transcribed and printed on paper. Then they were cut into pieces containing just one point. Then, randomly selected pieces were pasted on the wall in random order. Next, they were put into groups of four or five under several categories. Thus, notes were arranged into a hierarchy that reveals all issues and themes across all participants. The data were thus grouped on a wall, so that the wall could voice the complete story of the subjects in question. Table 2 indicates the themes that emerged from two affinity diagrams.

Table 2. *Main themes emerged from data*

Main Findings	Themes emerged in the analysis of teachers' interviews	Themes emerged in the analysis of students' interviews
Weaknesses in the English education system, as well as the social, cultural and historical background of the country, have caused negative sentiments of people towards the English language.	Social, cultural and historical background of the country has caused negative sentiments of people towards the English language.	Bad experiences in the ESL classroom, lack of resources in schools to learn English, lack of exposure to the English language and the postcolonial attitude of the society towards the English language have caused negative sentiments among many learners towards the English language.
Students in the Sri Lankan context learn English mainly for upward social mobility	People learn English for upward social mobility: they do not have intrinsic motivation.	Students learn English to pass examinations and for upward social mobility; they do not have intrinsic motivation.
There is a gap between the supply and demand in terms of English education in universities	Teachers do their best to teach English.	English language classrooms are more conventional.
Text chat could be a useful pedagogical tool in second language teaching.	Text chat could support language learning	Text chat could be helpful for learners with high anxiety to improve their conversational English, to learn to use more natural language, but oral conversations could be helpful for learners with low anxiety to improve their conversational English
A Supportive environment is essential for language learning	Teachers have to be friendly and supportive.	A supportive environment is essential for language learning.

Only conventional stand-alone computer mediated tools are used in teaching English.	Teachers use conventional stand-alone computer mediated tools.	The technology of the students' generation is not used in the language classroom.
Error correction must be done strategically.	Errors must be corrected appropriately.	Corrections are necessary to notice the errors but must be corrected without embarrassing the students.
Challenges for text chat could be due to the social and cultural context	There are some challenges for initiating CMCF as a pedagogical tool due to some issues related to ethics in the society, the workload of teachers and resources in universities.	Some have a distant relationship with teachers

4. Results

As presented in Table 2, a wide range of themes emerged from the two affinity diagrams. This section aims to analyse these findings, which would answer the research question of the study.

4.1. The impact of social, cultural and historical context on language anxiety among ESL learners

Adult learners desire to possess language proficiency, especially for upward social mobility. Yet, they are hesitant to speak English due to certain reasons that could be credited to the negative effects of the social, cultural and historical context. Most of the ESL learners fear to make mistakes assuming that they would be humiliated and discriminated by society. The English language is considered as a *class marker* in the society; the minute one starts speaking in English, that minute the learner is judged on his/her social class. Due to this reason, learners hesitate to speak English. However, students desire to possess a good command of the English language because it paves the way for upward social mobility;

> *"It is the language that you learn for upward social mobility, but it's also the language you hate because it's the language of the "Suddas" (teacher 1).*

Sudda(s) is a Sinhalese term which could be considered as a derogatory term to refer to a foreign person with the white skin. This comment of a teacher shows the love-hate

relationship learners have with the English language. Furthermore, the findings indicate that the reasons behind the low English language proficiency of learners are the unpleasant experiences they have experienced in the ESL classroom, lack of exposure to the language and the inadequate training they received throughout their school time. All these factors have ultimately resulted in creating fear/inferiority complex in learners to communicate in English.

4.2. The conventional use of technology and the potential of using mobile phones in the ESL classroom

The current status of the ESL classroom in terms of the technology used was also examined to understand the prerequisites for introducing text chat as a pedagogical tool. Teachers use primary stand-alone means of technology such as multimedia to play PowerPoint slides, audio and video in the ESL classroom in universities. It was also revealed that none of the teachers or the students was aware of classroom learning apps except for one teacher who used *Kahoot* in the class.

Further, students mentioned that they are allowed to use mobile phones in the ESL classroom. They use mobile phones to take pictures of the notes on the board, to google the meaning of a word, to translate phrases or for any other subject related matter. Some students check their messages when they are bored. Students also revealed that they use google translator when referring to books written in English medium. Teachers' interviews contained the fact that most of the teachers allow students to use mobile phones for various purposes. Teachers think that students should be allowed to use their smartphones even inside the classroom if it is used for learning purposes. Further, there was one teacher who saw no issue in students using their phones to browse social media in the class:

> *"I don't mind if they once in a while go to social media whatever and relax and come back to the lesson. We can't listen for 1 1/2 hours or for 2 hours. For me, it's totally fine" (teacher 5).*

However, teachers do not seem to approve learners' use of laptops in the classroom. In their view, students tend to play computer games if they have a laptop with them in the classroom, and that disturbs not only the player but also the other students in the classroom.

4.3. The positive attitudes of university teachers and students towards Corrective Feedback

When students were asked about their perception of CF provided by the teacher, all of them mentioned that they prefer to be corrected. However, they were with the view that corrections

could lead to learners' anxiety as well if it is not given appropriately. It is somewhat challenging for these students to build up their confidence to speak in front of the others; therefore, if they are disturbed by corrections while they are speaking, that would jeopardise their confidence. It was also found in the teachers' interviews that teachers are seeking new pedagogical tools. For example, one teacher thought that there should be new ways of approaching the students when correcting their erroneous utterances:

> *"There has to be some sort of change because I feel like the kids nowadays are not*
> *really taking in the kind of feedback, we give for the way we have given it to them,*
> *so we have to find another way to getting through to them" (teacher 4).*

4.4. Potential for providing corrective feedback through text chat

All students and teachers who were interviewed used smartphones and communicated with each other through social media networks such as WhatsApp, Viber, Instagram, Messenger, etc. Thus, they were familiar with text chat or voice chat or with both. Teachers mentioned that they usually communicate with students through social networks like WhatsApp to share lecture materials, additional reading materials or educational videos. They believed that it is easy for them to keep in touch with students through social media, and students preferred to chat with teachers.

Both students and teachers asserted that both teachers and the learning environment must be friendly and supportive to motivate learners to speak English. Students also mentioned that they prefer to practice speaking with someone more fluent rather than speaking with peers in groups. Due to this reason, they prefer communicating with teachers through text chat, for they get the opportunity to talk with someone more fluent. Moreover, they can get their language errors corrected. Further, it was found out through interviews with students that they are willing to learn the English language in new ways; they mentioned: *"The technology of that generation should be used in teaching" (student group 2).*

Students believe that text chat would be useful to receive CF due to several reasons: text chat helps them to (1) notice their language errors: (2) improve their grammar, (3) learn more natural language, (4) receive the individual attention of teachers, and (5) eliminate their inhibitions:

> *"When we are chatting with someone, we get closer to the person than in face to*
> *face conversations. So, it is easier for the learner to get rid of the mental block they*
> *have." (student group 2)*

Teachers also think that text chat would be useful as a pedagogical tool to provide CF because: (1) it is very popular and trendy among young people, (2) it is something that learners love to do, (3) students like to chat with teachers, (4) students can refer to the chat history and learn things even later, (5) some students have improved their language through text chat at gaming platforms, (6) It is very convenient and effective in terms of the place and time, (7) it does not result in learner inhibitions, (8) it will not hurt their ego because the conversation is only between the teacher and the student, and (9) it requires only basic technology that both teachers and learners can have access to.

The study also uncovered another challenge that both students and teachers encounter in the English education system in the universities. On the one hand, teachers complain that students with lower proficiency in the language hardly speak in English in the class. On the other hand, students complain that teachers give priority to the fluent students and that the rest of the students do not get an opportunity to speak in the class: *"There (in the class), most of the students are fluent. They are more fluent than us. So, we don't get the chance. We just sit and watch"* (student group 1).

Moreover, while teachers assume that they take their maximum effort to teach English to learners, students claim that the teachers take more conventional means in teaching the language. This indicates the gap between students' requirements and teachers' understanding of the students' requirements. Therefore, the current study suggests that initiating text chat to provide CF to learners could solve these issues as it helps teachers to pay individual attention to learners and to engage adult learners in learning by using the technology that is preferred by them.

4.5. Challenges for the provision of corrective feedback through text chat

In the students' perspective, the provision of CF through text chat would be challenging since some students have a very distant relationship with their teachers. In teachers' views, use of text chat for this purpose would not be that effective due to a few reasons: (1) some teachers do not want to chat with students because they prefer a distant relationship with them, (2) Workload of the teachers is high, (3) there is no enough technology in some universities; (e.g. Some do not have computers, some have issues with the power supply, some do not have strong Wi-Fi or no Wi-Fi at all), and (4) it could raise some (culture-based) ethical issues if young female teachers have to chat with male students of their age.

5. Discussion and Conclusion

This study set out to explore the potential of using text chat as a mediating tool to provide CF to adult ESL learners. The study employed semi-structured interviews with university teachers and students. The qualitative analysis of data produced several findings, and the findings were discussed under few main themes: the impact of social, cultural and historical context on language anxiety among ESL learners, the conventional use of technology and the potential of using mobile phones in the ESL classroom, the positive attitudes of university teachers and students towards CF, potential for providing CF through text chat, and challenges for the provision of CF through text chat. This section aims to discuss those themes that answer the research question, in light of the sociocultural approach to language learning.

5.1. Text Chat as a culturally sensitive pedagogical tool

Sociocultural theory reflects that the individual is inseparable from his/her social, cultural and historical context (Lantolf &Thorne;2006). Thus, learning is a dynamic social activity that is situated in the learner's physical context (Wertsch, 1991). Therefore, the social, cultural and historical context should first be considered when examining the pedagogical potential of text chat in providing CF.

One finding of the study is that the learner's social, cultural and historical context affects the learner's anxiety. Attanayake (2020) claims that most of the learners in Sri Lanka encounter two types of anxiety: foreign language anxiety and anxiety generated due to the postcolonial societal attitudes which most of the western scholars are not very familiar with. In this society, English is considered not as a communication tool but as a double-edged weapon that could be used to show one's power (Canagarajah, 1993). As (Goonetilleke, 1983) points out, some ESL learners have a love-hate relationship with the English language. Learners desire to possess the English language proficiency for upward social mobility, but they dislike learning the language because of the difficulties they have to go through in the learning process. Thus, they do not seem to have intrinsic motivation, but a *socioeconomic necessity* to learn English (Canagarajah, 1993).

Learners seem to have different identities (Canagarajah, 2004). While some learner identities offer wider opportunities for learners to use the language, some identities may limit such opportunities and create learner inhibitions. However, as the sociocultural approach proposes, such learner identities are created by the broader social context which entails social, cultural and historical background (Vygotsky, 1978 cited in Johnson, 2009). Consequently, when learners have already gained bitter experiences, they always try to avoid the circumstances or people that could bring them such experiences. In such a context, where

anxiety is common among learners, text chat would play as a safe zone for them to notice their errors without accelerating their anxiety. The findings of the study are in line with Kern (1995), Beauvois (1998) and Freiermuth (2002) where they claim that text chat helps to eliminate the communicating anxiety of students. This situation could be a liberation for the students (Sadoux, 2017) who are often being discriminated or marginalised in the ESL classroom, and will encourage egalitarian participation (Warschauer, Turbee, & Roberts, 1996; Beauvois, 1998). Thus, text chat could be a culture-neutral pedagogical tool that allows the learner to communicate with less anxiety.

5.2. Text-chat as a mediator for provision of teacher's CF

The central concept of the sociocultural theory is mediation (Lantolf &Thorne, 2006). Vygotsky claims that "higher forms of human mental activity are mediated by culturally constructed auxiliary means" (Lantolf &Thorne, 2006, p. 59). These auxiliary means could be found in cultural activities such as "educating children" and "playing" where "cultural artefacts (for example, books, paper, technology…)…interact in complex, dynamic ways…" (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 59). Hence, text chat could be considered as a culturally constructed auxiliary means, and it would play a significant role as the mediator in the provision of teacher's CF.

Learners prefer to use the technology of their generation in the classroom. The analysis confirms that text chat through mobile applications such as Viber, WhatsApp, Instagram and Messenger have become popular among young people, as smart mobile phones are commonly available among undergraduates in Sri Lanka. The study also reveals that undergraduates use mobile phones for several purposes: to acquire vocabulary skills, to translate from one language to another, to communicate through social media networks and for various other educational purposes. Moreover, teachers allow students to use mobile phones in the classroom. Thus, text-chat proves to be a culturally sensitive auxiliary means that has the potential to act as a mediator for the provision of CF in the ESL classroom.

Moreover, university teachers seem to be in search of an effective means of providing CF to learners who are already affected by many negative experiences in the process of learning English. Furthermore, both teachers and students seem to believe that learning English must be enjoyable, and that learning should take place in a friendly and supportive environment. Thus, both students and teachers prefer new ways of teaching/learning. The analysis also confirms that students and the teachers are familiar with the basic technology. Therefore, it could be assumed that if these teachers and learners are exposed to and trained to use some more computer mediated tools, they will be able to use them aptly. Both teachers and students

believe that there is potential for text chat to be a useful pedagogical tool since that reduces the limitations of time and space. They could access text chat through mobile phones at any time and from anywhere (Ally, 2009). The analysis also suggests that entertaining learning experience with the use of mobile phones could help motivate students to learn English.

An issue that was revealed in the study was the teachers' inclination to give opportunities for the students who are more fluent in the ESL classroom. Consequently, less fluent students are ignored and further demotivated. In such a context, there is a possibility for initiating text chat where sufficient individual attention could be given (Freiermuth, 2002). Thus, text chat could mediate the provision of CF to learners (Michel & O'Rourke, 2019; Wang et al., 2016). Further, the current study supports the perspective that computer mediated communication helps the learner use more natural target language (González-Lloret, 2011; Sung & Poole, 2017). Thus, text chat could play a significant role as the mediator in providing CF while helping the learner to reduce their anxiety to gain entertaining learning experience in a more friendly and supportive learning environment and to be treated equally in the ESL classroom.

5.3. Teachers to assist through Synchronous CMCF as learners progress in the ZPD

The Sociocultural theory claims that learning takes place in rather than as a result of the interaction (Ellis, 2009), and it is then transferred within the individual (Antón, 1999). This synchronous process helps the teacher to create a learning environment where the learners could be exposed to and process the target language (Leow, 2015). Further, in this dialogic interaction, the teacher could assist learners (through CF) to highly engage in language production (Antón, 1999), to promote accurate use of language (Shintani & Aubrey, 2016), to involve in the negotiation of meaning and linguistic form (Antón, 1999) and to easily notice the CF given by the teacher (Kim, 2014; Lai & Zhao, 2006; Tudini, 2003). The findings of this study reveal that students prefer their language errors to be corrected by a teacher, but they do not want to be embarrassed in front of the class. Teachers also believe that they have to be cautious when providing CF, as not to jeopardise the learner's self-esteem. Thus, text chat could be a potential pedagogical tool that gives more opportunities for teachers to offer scaffolded assistance to learners to develop in their ZPD.

5.4. Conclusion

In answering the research question of the present study, the analysis of the interviews with university teachers and students suggests that there is pedagogical potential for text chat to be

used to provide CF to adult ESL learners. However, there could be a few challenges due to the social and cultural context. Built within the frame of the sociocultural approach, the study suggests that text chat would be a mediator to provide CF while teachers could assist learners in their ZPD. Further, this research does not suggest that text chat could replace the ESL classroom pedagogy, but it could act as a mediating pedagogical tool to provide CF to learners in the ESL classroom.

5.5. Implications for future study designs

This study explores the perspectives of teachers and students stimulating future research trajectories that investigate how the intervention between teachers and students works in the provision of CF through text chat in the real classroom context. This study could also lead to an experimental study that investigates the efficacy of such interventions for the provision of CF. It would also be necessary to investigate the possibility for one teacher to provide Synchronous CMCF to several learners simultaneously through text chat.

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An Implication of Milton Model of NLP for ESL Learners

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Abstract

Language teaching is an imperative domain of academia, across the globe. For the purpose, many effective methods, techniques, and approaches have been developed to improve the language teaching-learning process. NLP was introduced into a post modern era as a post modern method. The proponents of this new paradigm believe that language teaching process can be made effective by programming the students' minds for effective learning. Neuro-functioning of human brain is structural that can be programmed through a variety of techniques, is the core philosophy of NLP. Moreover all the communication which takes in the classroom is intended for the purpose of developing rapport and building learners' self

confidence and self reliance. Thus, a language teacher can train/ program his/ her students for better language output. NLP Milton Model focuses on the use of all such language patterns which Milton Erickson, a renowned therapists, employed with his clients such as: presupposition, mind read, lost performative, pace current experience, universal quantifier, embedded commands/questions, utilization, tag question, cause and effect, modal operator, lack of referential index, conversational postulate, unconditional acceptance, and tasking. The previous studies have not investigated the language patterns which the whole NLP seems to develop its concepts upon. To a great surprise, there is not enough material available to investigate the worth of these language variants. This study, has hitherto aimed at the exploration and explanation of language patterns proposed by Milton Erickson to discover their potential in ELT. The study has presented various examples of language patterns which can be employed by language teachers for effective pedagogy. Also, it reinforces the idea that the NLP principles are analogous to the principles of humanistic philosophy in the English language teaching practices.

1. Background of the Study

There are a few prominent language learning approaches which have had huge impact on English language teaching practices across the globe. The four significant approaches as characterised by Delbio and Ilankumaran (2019) are Cognitive, Linguistic, Socio-cultural ,and Neurolinguistic. The intricate dimensions of psycholinguistics and pedagogy initiated the discussions on Cognitive approach where John B. Carroll(1965) and Kenneth Chastain(1971) are the main figures who were applied linguists as well as cognitive psychologists. The cognitive approach deals with input related factors or a unified competition model where a learner ascertains the potency of a scrupulous relation between form and function in the second/foreign language system. The cognitive theory recommends an unequivocal cognisant learning. In fact, it prefers the conscious ways to learn the grammatical elements of the language. Cognitive theory also highlights those crucial aspects of language learning where the feelings of fear, anxiety, and embarrassment act as hurdles/distractions for second language learners. The lack of attention, motivation, and interest may deprive learners of smooth and effective learning process. The Linguistic approach to language teaching has given an entirely new perspective to nature of a target language and a detailed understanding of its theoretical components. This approach further added two aspects: pedagogical and universal grammar.

Pedagogical Grammar reveals an incongruity between the description of a second language and the requirements to teach it effectively. Linguistic descriptions may be excessively exhaustive, methodological, conjectural, technical, or hypothetical. On the other hand, Universal Grammar as also commonly termed as the "innateness hypothesis" exhibits language learning as completely different matter from any other learning since all general syntax which every language possesses is universal. Vygotsky (1978), a Russian therapist, proposed the Socio-cultural Theory of Cognitive Development. According to him, any child progresses at two levels: social and individual. Society and psychology both contribute equally. The zone of proximal development, a significant aspect of his theory, considers society responsible for the inside growth. The Neurolinguistic approach suggests the ways of communication in a second language acquisition process. Implicit competence and explicit knowledge have been termed as two crucial elements of effective communication. Explicit knowledge refers to conscious or direct ways of acquiring knowledge. However, implicit competence proposes the unconscious or indirect ways and Neuro-linguistic programming falls under this approach (Delbio & Ilankumaran, 2019). This study aims at investigating the following questions:

- How does Neurolingusitic Programming make its connection to English language teaching?
- To what extent, Linguistic patterns of Milton Model in NLP which have been accredited for bringing huge change in behaviour can be proved of mammoth significance for ESL learners?

1. Neurolinguistic Programming-From What to Why

Neurolinguistic Programming has three crucial elements. The first word Neuro refers to the processes which activate the neurological system. The second part of linguistic is related to the way that determines how language influences the experience including the verbal as well as non verbal mode of language. The third part of programming is assumed to code that experience (Ready & Burton, 2010). There are various other definitions of NLP as given below:

- According to Rogers (1983), it is an incredible way if dealing with "realness or genuineness".
- Gibbons, Limoges, Nowotny, Schwartzman, Scott and Troll (1994) perceive NLP as multifaceted and multidisciplinary as it possesses features from various theories and approaches (Gibbons et al, 1994).

- Robert Dilts and Todd Epstein (2017), in their book 'Dynamic learning', offer a variety of ways to make learning an effective and enjoyable process. They perceived NLP as a source to improve memory, encourage personal strength and determination.

- Revell (1997) takes NLP as a guide to give people opportunities to accomplish their objectives

- Lavan (2002) think NLP can bring change in not in individuals as well as the whole organizations.

- In Tosy and Mathisons' belief (2003), NLP supplies equally a theory as well as a method for bringing change to human behaviour.

- Yemm in 2006 recognizes NLP techniques as guiding principles.

- Lazarus in 2010 takes NLP as a series of techniques to achieve certain outcomes.

- Singh and Abraham in 2008 take NLP as a tool to improve efficiency

- According to John Andy Wood (2013), NLP is a mode of interpersonal communication.

- Freeth (2013), asserts that all humans are subjective entities, and differ in experiences and beliefs so they all need programming in a variety of ways.

- Judith Mercer (2014) takes NLP as a potent tool recognize the hidden capabilities to achieve one's goals.

- Kandola (2017) considers NLP as employing behavioural communication and perceptual tools to alter one's thoughts and hence actions.

The term Neurolinguistic Programming (NLP) was first introduced in early 1970s by John Grinder (a linguist) and Richard Bandler (a mathematician) They declared NLP as a set of techniques and strategies which are based on certain linguistic variants to achieve certain results/outcomes (Clayton, 2017). . The three most accredited and privileged names which exceptionally influenced Grinder and Bandler were identified as: Fritz Pearls, Milton Erickson, and Virginia Satir- the renowned family therapists (NLP – Neuro Linguistic Programming – Modelling human excellence)

The linguistic variants which they acclaimed as capable enough to exercise certain power and force on human mind, have been discussed in this study. They all possessed certain common and mutual beliefs and employed similar strategies to stimulate their clients' reactions and change their behaviour. However, before going through the exploration of these linguistic variants, it is crucial to first understand the concept of NLP. Various definitions have been elaborated and discussed in the last three decades in connection to explore the concept of NLP.

The fundamental reason to coin this terminology of NLP for Grinder and Bandler was to model the behaviour of successful people. Modelling is the crucial force underneath the concept of NLP. The function of modelling is to keep imitating the object of success till the time ones achieve the goals which are desired (Bandler & Grinder, 1979). It is a skill meant to find out how the person who has the particular skill perceives an idea of achieving it and what could be the right beliefs that facilitate him to do it perfectly (O'Connor & McDermott, 2001). According to Freeth (2013), NLP was developed as an extension and comprehensive elaboration of stimulus- response theory. The more one keeps doing a certain task in a certain way, the one gets perfection. The behaviour which once proved to be accurate will always be so.

In order to comprehend, how success is related to language that humans use in their communication, they developed the concept of Neurolinguistic Programming. Their colleagues: Leslie, Cameron-Bandler, Judith DeLozier, and Robert Dilts(1979), provided their full support to develop this concept (Barker, 1985). They all made enormous efforts to communicate with people to reach to a conclusion regarding the set patterns of language they employ on others. Together, they characterized NLP as a science of observing excellent behaviour in order to model that behaviour to get success. For this reason, Modelling is the core philosophy and crux of the whole concept of NLP which was further extended to other patterns and discoveries (Bozoğlan, 2010).

Teaching English as a Second/Foreign Language: An Overview

Marckwardt (1972, p.05) notices "changing winds and shifting sands" in the history of ELT. McKay (2002) asserts that teaching an international language needs crucial attention to be focussed on few significant political and social issues which serve as hurdle in acquisition. Kumaravadivelu (2003), considers it a wrong assumption that there are eleven methods in ELT (Grammar Translation, Direct, Audio-lingual, Silent way, Natural language, Oral Approach, Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response, Communicative, Situational Language Teaching, and Community Language Learning). He finds a considerable overlap among all of them in terms of their theoretical underpinnings and practical applications. According to Richards (2005) all the methods overlap due to a variety of similar techniques and strategies. Pennycook (2010) and Kumaravadivelu (2012), also raised questions on effective pedagogy to teach English considering it a lingua franca. Finardi and Porcino (2014), there are no new teaching methods- but an addition to already existing techniques. For instance, Communicative Language

Teaching (CLT) is similar in various aspects with task based, participatory, and content and Language Integrated Learning.

Why NLP in ELT

Though there are ELT critics who have not still recognized NLP as an English teaching method or approach, they cannot deny its existence for successful pedagogy for numerous and diverse reasons. Now we will see the critics with this perspective. Daniels, Zemelmen, and Bizar (1999) identified few learning principles to make classes learner centred as he emphasises upon:

- learners' interests
- Experiential principles (learning via practical exercises)
- Expressive freedom (learners' freedom to express)
- Collaborative learning (relation between learners and between learners and teacher)
- Cognitive principle (learners' cognitive abilities to make decisions).

NLP focuses on all the above-mentioned aspects. It focuses as much on learners' interests as on practical learning via storytelling and guided fantasy (Bozoglan, 2010). It focuses on their desire to learn via giving them immense exposure and freedom. NLP principles guide teachers to collaborate with learners to understand their cognitive potentials. All these factors ultimately motivate them to do whatever is expected from them.

Further, NLP is all about bringing a change in one's behaviour through the use of language. Kamaravadivelu (2003) in Beyond Methods: Macro-strategies for Language Teaching, considers no method as the "best method" owing to the fact that it is a teacher in a classroom who may bring results. He while entirely paying attention to the role of teachers in a classroom has divided the role of teachers into 3 categories:

- Teachers as passive technicians
- Teachers as reflective practitioners
- Teachers as transformative intellectuals

Now NLP can be noticed following the above learning principles as well. NLP fits very well in this criterion of change agent. The first role of teacher refers to the behavioural psychology, where teachers have to be merely facilitators in delivering the content and content is far more important than the teachers himself. Teachers as reflective practitioners considers teacher's role as cultural and context specific for solving learners' problems. The third role of

teachers presents them as change agents who cooperate with learners, experts, and activists to transform their learners.

Secondly, the significant part of NLP is the use of language. Language has a tremendous effect on the ways which may help its users to persuade, control, mitigate, exaggerate, and manipulate any experiences they acquire via their senses. Anyone may experience incentive to bring about any realization or success only via simply listening to the words of either his/her own or somebody else's' since words are strong enough to evoke or stimulate any type of emotions or reactions.

Also, language facilitates its users to express their experiences and observations effectively. Humans gain experiences via the usage of their five senses: sight, hearing, touch, smell, and taste. Experiences are always gained via these systems known as representation system in NLP. According to O'Connor and McDermott (2001), sensory system possesses about 2 million bits of information per second. However, human mind is able to deal with 134 bits of information only. According to NLP Meta model, humans filter this information to draw meaning through the processes of: deletion, generalization and distortion (James, 2003). In fact, we may enliven our communicative abilities by learning the magic of words. It can be learned if one delves deeper in the independent and self-governing area of Neuro-linguistic Programming (NLP). To conclude, language is used to gain experience, to chew on the experience and consequently to put across the experience.

So now we will explore and explain the significance of teacher talk in ELT with its connection to NLP. An analysis of teachers' discourse is a critical and crucial area of inquiry. Vygotsky (1962) acknowledges the fact that language boosts learning and influences thought processes (neurology in NLP) of learners (McLeod, 2018). According to Krashen's input hypothesis (1998), an understanding of learners' cognitive states is a crucial for effective pedagogy. They should only be given knowledge which is one step ahead of their already existing knowledge. For this reason too, teachers' discourse with their learners play a vital role to understand what they want to learn and what they already know. Brown (2007) also reinforced Krashen's idea (1998) and emphasized the significance of language exposed to learners in correspondence with their existing cognitive maps. Similarly, according to Ghabanchi, Moghaddam, and Malekzadeh (2011) highly motivated language learners can de-motivate learners of their cognitive states are not kept in mind. The affective filter of learners can be lowered only if teachers remain positive through their interactions with their learners. According to Richards W. Schmidt (1990), teachers should use variety of language patterns while dealing/interacting with their learners to achieve better results.

Millrood (2004) confirms teachers' discourse as directly related to learners' performance/outcomes they produce. Mortiboys (2005), also reinforces this idea that teachers must be made aware of their language patterns. They are a key factor to establish rapport in a classroom. Inceçay (2010) conducted the study on teachers' discourse in a classroom of 16 Turkish young learners of English (who were learning English as a foreign language). He examined the various patterns of teachers' discourse and concluded the existence of two broader and significant categories in teachers' discourse: construction and obstruction. He affirms teachers may either facilitate or hinder the process of learning with their language patterns. Turner, Meyer, Midgley, & Patrick, in 2003, declared teachers' feedback as occupying significant contribution for their learners' success. They identified a remarkable relationship between teachers' clear and explicit instructions and learners' positive feedback. The use of encouraging remarks plays a vital role in learners' success. Webb, Nemer, and Ing (2006) also considered discourse of teachers in classroom as highly influential to mould the minds of their learners in a positive direction.

Language and NLP Milton Model

The NLP Milton Model can be summarized in the form of the following worth mentioning principles (Bandler and Grinder, 1975):

- Any aspect of human behaviour can be inspired to be turned into positive ideology
- Accept the people for who they are and inspire them to be changed
- Always accept the individual, social, emotional, and cognitive diversities.
- Lack of rapport is only due to lack of conformity with individual behaviour
- All the available resources exist within people; one only needs to activate them.

The language patterns of NLP Milton model seem to have been driven from Chomsky's concepts of surface and deep structures. Surface structure refers to the words that are uttered. Deep structure refers to the underlined thoughts, emotions, and feelings. Now the question arises that how these deep and structures are related to NLP? Deep structure is a hidden desire to express what one intends to. However, surface structure is an actual expression of those desires and intentions. It often happens to humans that they cannot express what they want. They sometimes find themselves unable to express whatever they go through in their mind. However, it was not the case with Milton Erickson who was observed by Grinder and Bandler. Grinder and Bandler found Milton highly capable of grasping the attention of his clients to

receive his desired results. He was found to use such language patterns which could easily inspire the minds of his clients.

The Milton Model and ELT

NLP Milton Model is the result of observation of language patterns employed by the famous therapist Milton Erickson. Milton model uses indefinite and indistinguishable language patterns. The purpose of Milton model is to achieve a profound and thorough understanding of others' state of mind while acting being explicit and meticulous. The veiled intent is to develop a reminiscent approach. The language patterns make the conscious mind slightly confused and thus pass through the conscious mind in order to reach directly to the unconscious mind. While being in the unconscious state of mind, is a right strategy to accept whatever is commanded or addressed (Beardsell, 2019).

Practical Applications and Implications of NLP Milton Model for ELT

The Milton Modal is based on numerous and diverse language patterns which act in accordance with manipulation of mental state. This study has exploited few language patterns including the major as well as the minor categories as proposed by Grinder and Bandler (1975). For effective English language teaching, language teachers require to be certain of the following facts about their learners:

- What are they seeing?
- What are they hearing?
- What are they feeling?

The above mentioned three aspects correspond to three main pillars of Neurolinguistic programming; three main learning styles: visual, auditory and kinaesthetic. If teachers develop an understanding of these leaning styles, learning process may be fun for learners as well as teachers. In a university, the basic mode for teaching is delivery of lecture i.e., the use of language. Language may either be general or specific. In every conversation among teacher and learners, a certain meaning is conveyed that may either positively or negatively influences the learners. Since NLP understands language as an expression of our inner thoughts, it has huge potential to perform wonders. For this purpose, a very interesting example as a personal

experience of Sibley (2006) in his article: NLP Language Patterns for increasing students' Learning is given below:

Figure 1 – The Charisma Pattern. (from James and Shephard, 2001)

Using this pattern, charismatic speakers start off their speech slowly in a low pitched voice using kinesthetic (K) predicates. Then they pick up speed and pitch a bit and begin mixing in some auditory (A) predicates. And finally, they pick up speed and pitch a bit more and add in visual (V) predicates. In this way, they match the preferred learning styles of the people in the audience in the order of their information processing speed.

This allows them to 'pick up' the people one after the other. It's like adding in 'rounds' when singing a fun song in a large group so everyone is involved.

Once everyone is involved, they'll continue to follow the speaker through his presentation as long as he gives them a rich experience – usually by using many of the other language patterns discussed later in this paper.

In my classroom, this is what I sometimes do. I start off slowly acknowledging some kinesthetic aspect of their current experience:

"Good morning everyone........You are …all in your seats… so you must

be ready to go, right?........How are you today?........ Is the room warm

enough for you? Great

"Good morning everyone........You are …all in your seats… so you must be ready to go, right?........How are you today?........ Is the room warm enough for you? Great." (visual)

"Judging from the chatter as I entered the room, …It sounds to me like most of you…at least…are jazzed up and ready to rock and roll?" (audio)

"Well, have I got a show for you today. I've converted some more of my old notes into PowerPoint so you don't have to watch me scribble on the board again. I'm wondering if you are curious to see what I have prepared." (Kinaesthetic)

After going through the examples as provided by Sibley (2006), I am sure that being teachers, you must have thought of once even that how could you establish rapport with all kind of learners, no matter what are you teaching them and how tough is it. The intrinsic factor to motivate is a by product of their learning styles: visual, auditory, and kinaesthetic.

Now we will explain and elaborate the significance of these language patterns for effective English language teaching practices:

Presupposition

A linguistic assumption or belief is understood as a Presupposition in NLP. Generally, presuppositions are supposed to get conformity from the intended audience. They can be employed in positive as well as negative ways. In a language classroom, positive presuppositions encourage learners, whereas negative can discourage them. Now if we try to draw the relation of NLP presuppositions with ELT, we should first observe the following instances: 'You know', a very common phrase in English language refers to the presupposition of awareness. Teachers also often use this phrase and it may develop confidence in their learners that they already know something. The second kind of presupposition is related to "adjective and adverbs", which refers to the usage of such words which let the learners think in a specific direction like" interesting" and "boring". If a teacher says that 'There are very interesting/boring examples. The use of adjectives affects the mind. However, positive adjectives affect positively and negative in a negative way. This subject is 'boring'/interesting will affect the learners' positive/ negative state of mind. The third kind of presupposition is related to time. Time demands the current occurrence of actions. It explains necessity of actions to be taken in a classroom. It may either urge learners to perform the action or to make them realize that contents under discussion are not worth doing. For example, if a teacher says' you can do it now/you can do it later. It sets the priorities to learn. These various kinds of presuppositions are crucial for pacing and leading in a classroom. Pacing and leading is crucial

pillar of NLP. It only occurs when teachers develop rapport with their learners. If language teachers' pace and lead their learners, there are many chances to establish rapport with them.

Mind Read

The conscious mind takes notice of the words and sends them to the unconscious mind. This is the place where the further processing initiates. . The conscious mind is, in fact, affected or compelled to reflect and then sends instructions to the unconscious mind. This way, unconscious mind is manoeuvred to work in a definite direction. It leads to establishment of rapport. If now we notice the following few sentences:

- I know you can do it well.
- I am sure you can do it well
- It may be confusing for you but you can do it
- It may be tough but you can do it
- You may face problems during this task but you will do it

Nobody can have any direct access to others' state of mind. It is only to pretend that one has for some reasons. Language teachers may do so for the following three major reasons:

➢ to establish rapport
➢ to create ease
➢ to develop intrinsic motivation

Lost Performative

The phrase, lost performative, is a combination of the two words: lost and performative. The phrase implies that performer has been lost; it cannot be located (Beardsell, 2019). The sentences containing a lost performative has a value judgement and usually start with "it is or it's". It is not mentioned or made clear in their usage that 'who has said whatever is mentioned'. In case of use of lost performative, suggestions and recommendations are proposed to the unconscious mind to be established willingly and swiftly.

Now there is an intricate philosophy to use lost performative. If language teachers notice inappropriate behaviour patterns in their learners as a hurdle for effective pedagogy, they may use these vague and obscure language patterns. We can now understand this philosophy with the help of the following instances that I can suggest being a teacher:

- Reading is a very good habit to grasp certain ideas and build knowledge.
- Listening to others'/native speakers may give you tremendous results.

- It is a known fact that writing must be good.

- Practice makes a man perfect.

- A good reader/listener is always a good writer/ speaker

The teachers aim at either to make their sentences absolute truths or unbiased values. Ultimately, they lead to acceptance from their listeners with vagueness of linguistic expression.

Cause and Effect

To know the outcome/product is the fundamental principle of NLP. This language patterns reveals the outcome as a motivational factor. In English language, gerunds are a very useful way to make Cause and Effect sentences. While using gerunds, teachers may inspire and motivate learners. Any sentences that include "ing" containing words and words such as - makes, creates, cause, triggers etc- are perfect examples of cause-and-effect relationship (Wingett, 2009) . For long, we have been paying attention to these few sentences:

- If you work hard, you get success.

- If you do not work hard, you fail.

- The more you read, the more you get.

- The more you practice the grammatical structures, the more you get to know their usage.

In fact, causes are the results/consequences and effects are the reasons. The above-mentioned examples first pace and then lead. Further, to inculcate responsibility, it is crucial to inculcate first a cause-and-effect pattern.

Universal quantifier

The generalised statements as we already studied and explored earlier lead to few interesting results for English language teaching. Generalization along with lack of referential index led to existence of universal quantifier. The usage of the words/phrases such as: all, everyone, no one, nobody, everybody etc, does not identify any individual. Its usage can be effective to give general remarks. Observe the following examples:

- Together you <u>all</u> should agree or disagree.

- You can <u>all</u> do it.

- I want <u>all</u> to have a look

- You <u>all </u>will give me answers now

- You all should speak one by one no matter right or wrong but respond.

All the above-mentioned linguistic presuppositions are only supposed to be plausible to get desired results. They were not necessarily uttered to be believed to be true by the teachers. Moreover, such use of words by teachers gives an understanding of the concept of presupposition of possibility, impossibility and necessity owing to the fact that all the utterance either restricts any actions to be taken or pay emphasis on the occurrence of any actions.

Modal operator

There are high level generalizations in case of using modals in NLP. It creates a situation where nobody gets pointed out specifically since it has got its connections with the humanistic philosophy. Individuals' feelings and emotions are the focal point and only meaningful motivational states are constructed so to assist a smooth learning process. On the other hand, its practice stimulates the inculcation of learners' prior knowledge. Its usage is related to the ordinal presuppositions where all actions are described before hand to create clarity. Consider the following examples:

- Every one now <u>should</u> talk about it
- You <u>must</u> do it
- You <u>can</u> do it

These are self imposed sentences where no reference has been given yet everyone has been expected to engage in the learning process. The structure further depicts motivation with the help of comparative deletion and presupposition of possibility. Now what would be the situation in case of observing the following few sentences:

- You know about "phrase" which is also part of your work sheet so you <u>should</u> be able to solve it.
- First we <u>will</u> talk about "phrase" and then we <u>will</u> move to "clause" so that you come to know better about this (ordinals).

Mind read along with embedded command and sequential order have been employed in these constructions to convey the message effectively.

- No one <u>should</u> look around now?
- We <u>must</u> now talk about clauses.

In these examples, no choice is given in the broader frame of apparently two choices. We can also see how double bind has been intermingled with modals of suggestion over here.

To be brief, for carrying out and achieving any tasks, modals have got significant role to play in a classroom environment.

Tag question

Tag questions are remarkably striking feature of language. They are often employed in communication to continuously grasp others' attention and keep theme engaged. This pattern may acquiesce valuable results in English language teaching too. Consider the following examples:

- Gentleman! Would you like to speak? Wouldn't you?
- You got it, didn't you?

The purpose of the above examples (while not authoritative) is to insert pressure indirectly on the learners to encourage them to speak. If question tags are added to ELT practices for instance:

- You know this, don't you?
- It is exciting, isn't it?
- It is easy, isn't it?
- It is not tough, is that?

Then we may acquire the following improvements in our learners' abilities:

- They may be engaged in any kind of topic under discussion in a classroom.
- They may develop confidence to ask questions.
- They may be active learners.
- They may deepen the understanding regarding a topic.
- They recognize a classroom as a comfort zone; their self esteem is not challenged.

Consequently, question tags are crucial aspect of English language teaching practices predominantly in the context of Pakistani public sector education system where teachers are authoritative figures. They do not let the learners turn out to be autonomous entities. Tag questions cannot only make students confident to initiate the conversation but they can also develop interest and create resistance (Lawson, 2019).

Lack of referential index

In case of no reference to any specific entity can bring commendable results. In a language classroom, this strategy may work in the following way:

- Someone else should tell me.
- Have you all done this?
- Together you all should agree or disagree.
- You can all do it.

- I want <u>all</u> to have a look.
- We should have some discussion now on this topic.
- You know we <u>should</u> listen to each other.
- You may be intelligent but not wise. Some are intelligent but not wise.

The sentences depicting lack of referential index are also known as global and generalized statements by NLP experts. Their usage is intertwined with the usage of modal operators. According to Matthew Barnett (2019), renowned certified NLP coach and trainer, the unconscious mind first processes the positive as compared to any negative. We must have noticed in our surroundings that there are people who quickly get along with others via their meaningful and positive interaction. They can persuade others to an extent that others do not even get the realization of being influenced. This is the upshot of positive interaction. To give reference to people directly possibly will result in face threatening situations. Talking to people in general ways can construct desired results. "People can change" is more appropriate to say then "you can be changed''. It may also give two other possible positive results: To low the affective filter and to build Rapport-a significant technique in NLP is about developing an inspiring and motivating interaction with others via the processes of mirroring and matching.

Pace current experience

Bandler and Grinder (1975), considered Erickson strategy to pace current experience as a very useful tool to not let the attention of his clients' mind diverted from the present situation. NLP coach, Ellerton, (2005), also related the connection of teaching material with the recent situation as a helpful took to bring the learners to one focused agenda. O'Brien (2012)observed experienced teachers using more descriptive words to lead learners in a positive direction as compared to new teachers. New teachers were found more concerned and conscious about the content. Consider the few examples given below:

- You are on this page.
- You are reading this manual.
- As you can see here on the board.
- Now look around and tell.
- What can you see around?
- As you are listening to me right now, several questions can come to your mind.
- As I have written this example on the board.

The above-mentioned examples reveal the following facts:

- pay attention to a specific agenda.

- Make Efforts to grasp their attention for active participation.

- Develop motivation to use their senses/representation systems.

- The usage of the words "around", "right now" etc makes the ongoing conversations verifiable (consulted upon or referred to as they exist in learners' surrounding).

- Statements of pacing current experience are self evident, obvious, undeniable, and become acceptable for people unconsciously to directly link them to the unconscious mind.

Conversational Postulate

Conversational Postulates refer to a two way process where equal correspondence in either yes or no is required by a speaker from the receiver (Ellerton, 2005). Such sentences have authority within them but that is not directly imposed upon others yet indirectly and implicitly implied. John Langshaw Austin (1975), a British Philosopher, was the first linguist who proposed the idea of doing things with words. Whatever communication we have is meant for going through certain actions since theory of language is meant for taking actions. Every utterance seems to have a specific intention towards its listener that may be different from its literal meanings. Locutionary act is the act of saying, illocutionary is the force as intended to be conveyed and Per-locutionary is the consequence of saying something on the listener. All these three speech acts are intertwined. The same terminology might be noticed with this linguistic tool of Conversational postulate in NLP. Language teachers may use them in the following way as the following examples are clear indication:

- Do you find any relevance?
- Would you like to begin?
- Would you like to brainstorm?
- Do you get this point?
- What's going to be a verb in this sentence?
- Shall I explain more?
- Is it understandable?
- Any idea?
- What examples come to your mind?
- Don't you think so?

The use of Conversational postulate in NLP and ELT is similar to the usage of question tags. It can be observed that the teachers' utterances are not simply the words but clue of an action to control pupil to progress in a definite direction. The utterances are more than the apparent surface meaning instead they have some deep meaning.

The above-mentioned examples reveal the following aspects:

- Stimulate a certain response
- inculcate a certain behaviour
- To pace and lead in an appropriate context
- encourage learners to probe deeply to understand
- To get an agreement/disagreement
- To establish rapport with the learners

Utilization

Utilization, a significant language pattern, depends on establishing rapport with learners (Alder, 2002). Rapport can be established with learners in the following way in a classroom:

- Via giving value to learners' opinion for instance: 'I can take Ali's opinion as an example of intercultural communication as you can see on this page.'
- Via utilising the current classroom which are available to learners such as: 'You are reading this manual', 'As you can see here on the board', 'Now look around and tell.' And 'As I have written this example on the board

The language pattern of Utilization is an ideal source to accomplish task, approve the current learning phase, and eventually build up rapport. The above-mentioned examples in fact, exemplify the utilization of spoken words along with utilization of all available resources in learners' surrounding. The examples attack unconscious mind and pace and lead the learners via establishing rapport and providing the learners with apt incentive.

Embedded Commands/ Questions

To provide suggestions is a fundamental aspect of teaching. However, the direct suggestions do not work appropriately. Any direct ways to ask questions may often be a source to embarrass learners. In addition, language teaching instructions work efficiently with an elaborated context by teachers. In order to expanding a context of the conversation to embed commands is intended to grab the conscious mind. According to an eminent NLP coach Matthew Barnett (2019), a larger context is- at times the crucial part of teaching.

- What idea do you get when you hear the word _____?

  You gave me the word _____so what are the other words which could possible relate to this word_____

- If I say he is very _____to me then what comes to your mind regarding the idea of _____?what are the other such words that you could possibly relate to_____

This way, teachers may give an opportunity to learners to get more answers to ensure their active participation. The more teachers probe deeply to inquire about the learners' mental states, the more answers they will get.

Unconditional Acceptance

Unconditional acceptance in NLP, is an expression preferred by the expert, Lehman (2014), in order to refer to appreciate any kind of response that teachers might receive. The opposing situation where only positive feedback is appreciated may lead to negative feelings. The negative feelings of humiliation and hesitation may increase the affective filter of learners and result into an unachievable target (Lehman, 2014). In my opinion, the responses such as : ok, yes, any other answer, might be, may be, anybody else, any other response, if anybody can further talk about it, you are closer to the right answer, quite possible, alright, good effort, great effort, yes if you further think about it are the best choices if you deem the responses for your learners inappropriate. Have you ever noticed how your one 'NO' really affects the learning process? As a matter of fact, "unconditional regard" makes learners confident and self reliant. They are also very effective to establish rapport with learners, inculcate positive feelings, lower affective filter, and boost emotional and cognitive filters.

Tasking

The language pattern of Tasking falls under the category of Presupposition of Order. It is supposed to let the learners know about the overall process in a certain sequence. We can develop a better understanding of tasking if we consider the following examples:

- You will give the answers once we finish reading this passage.
- Once I elaborate upon the topic, you will speak one by one as I want all to take part individually.
- First I will give you examples then you are supposed to give me your ideas.

◾ We have various and diverse aspects of this communication process but we will discuss them one by one starting from easy to complex situations.

The above-mentioned instances let the learners realize what they are going to do. They understand their learning objectives and become able to move in an appropriate direction without any ambiguity. This process saves them to be distracted and keep them focussed.

CONCLUSION

All the above discussed language patterns were developed by modelling the work of Milton Erickson, one of the foremost clinical hypnotherapists of the 20th century (Bandler & Grinder, 1975). It is an inevitable fact that all learning occurs at the unconscious level. At the learning stage, there is an integration of unconscious state with the conscious state. In other words, deeps structures offer the ways to surface structures and that is what is known as a learning state. The Milton Model is a set of language patterns that, when spoken to a person, assists them going into a trance state. Of teachers employ these language patterns which are termed as surface structures. They may gain access to learners' deep structures, which are their thoughts, feeling and emotions. In my humble opinion, while making a lesson plan, teacher should keep in mind the inculcation of these language varieties in their minds to use for making a learning process a fun for their learners.

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Past Learner's Voices on EFL Classroom Management in Depok, Indonesia

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Abstract

Voices of Indonesian EFL learners are relatively marginalised. Yet, as the users of the EFL instruction, their narratives are useful to cultivate other evidences to clarify what really happened in EFL classrooms. Due to the mobility constraints during Covid-19 pandemic, a technology-assisted narrative research conductible for researchers with visual disability was carried out to investigate past learners' voices on EFL classroom management. The aim of the study was twofold: to identify what classroom management areas have been successful and what classroom management areas are still lacking. Data were taken from narrative frame survey and interviews via WhatsApp messenger application. A five-step accessible procedure was developed to analyse the data. The study revealed that teachers were generally successful in terms of their speaking manner, physical appearance, being responsive to students' inquiries and integrating technology into classroom, but are generally lacking in terms of teaching performance, providing constructive feedbacks, target language proficiency, target language

use, and time management and commitment. Finally, the study proposes a policy recommendation to improve the quality of EFL classroom management implementation in Depok particularly and in Indonesia generally. In addition, it is also hoped that this study could inspire more research methodology accessible for individuals with disabilities.

Keywords: *accessible technology-based research, EFL classroom management, vision impairment, narrative enquiry*

1. INTRODUCTION

Online education in Indonesia during the current pandemic is found to have been exceptionally challenging. The switch to distance and online education is a sudden policy to best protect the society from the highly contagious virus (MOEC, 2020). Therefore, teachers and students including their parents without sufficient supporting facilities are finding this new mode of education uneasy. Teaching is not as direct, clear, and elaborative as the face-to-face classroom instruction (Morgan, 2020; Rusdiana & Nugroho, 2020). Due to their unfamiliarity, a significant number of teachers are found confused with how to deliver each lesson clearly, effectively and smoothly (Lestiyanawati, 2020; Morgan, 2020). Students, likewise, are somewhat depressed due to the burdens they did not use to have. Because many teachers simply give handouts and assignments (Lestiyanawati, 2020). Parents are as well forced to provide extra financial and tutorial support while having their own responsibilities.

This unexpected situation has made many people to hope for the "old normal" offline classroom routine. Yet, face-to-face English instruction in Indonesia has been a durable homework for the government. Yulia (2014) reported that the quality of English formal instruction has not given satisfactory result. Suryani and Amalia (2018) sadly revealed that more than 90% of high school students they studied did not even reach the threshold level of A1-CEFR despite the fact that they had received English instruction for many years. Some studies have tried to investigate what seems to be the problem. However, the experiences of learners as the users of the instruction have relatively been unexplored. Little has been done to explore what learners have to say about their personal experiences in receiving the English formal instruction. Due to this rarity, this study was conducted to investigate this other angle of evidences for a more comprehensive understanding about what areas of EFL classroom management are successful what areas are still lacking, and what possible recommendation to offer for a better implementation in the future.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. EFL classroom management

Despite its rarity, studies on classroom management in English as a Foreign Language context suggest some important understanding. A study conducted by Tahir and Qadir (2012) reveals problems encountered by 299 Pakistani EFL teachers leading to poor performance of their classroom management capacity. Unfavorable working conditions, large classes, syllabus and material preparation, inadequate facilities and expertise in integrating technology into classroom, classroom disorder, and problematic teacher-parent relationship have contributed negatively to the implementation of EFL classroom management. This signifies that classroom management requires expertise in handling matters internal and external to classroom complexities. Indeed, the ability to change the external forces into external motivation can help EFL teachers to develop a strong expertise not only in teaching performance but also in the target language proficiency (Basalamah Machmud, 2018). This highlights the essense of having a positive mind of any potential challenges that may occur.

Another study in Pakistani school context foregrounds other challenges to effective EFL classroom management. Ahmad et al. (2019) discovered that well managed classroom is not necessarily correlated positively with the quality of English teaching and learning. They revealed that the class they studied was relatively conducive but the target language was rarely used, meaningful language inputs were insignificant, feedbacks were not constructive, learning was superficially focussing on grammar and textbook-oriented exercises. These evidences contribute very little to improving students' English proficiency.

In Colombian context, a study carried out by Macias & Sanchez (2015) portrays a slightly different reality. The study uncovers the fact that managing a classroom is a major challenge for all 34 pre-service teachers, not exclusively for EFL teachers. External noises, hot temperature, bullying, absence of clear rules and appropriate responses to expected and unexpected behaviours, tedious teaching and instructional activities, status of temporary pre-service teachers cause chaotic classroom situation and misbehaviours. Participants who possess good personality, patient, friendly, kind, entertaining, managed their classes more efficiently. They gained better respects from the students, better encouraged students' participation, and engaged the students better. The key to these problems, based on the problems pointed out, is for teachers to possess good personality, have a sufficient instructional planning, establish clear rules and appropriate responses to students' behaviours, vary teaching techniques and instructional activities, be aware of all that happens in the class, listen to the voices of the

parents and students to cultivate realities beyond teachers' knowledge and assumptions, and create conducive environment.

Different from the previous studies focussing predominantly on teachers' viewpoints, Marashi and Assgar (2019) investigated Iranian EFL learner's perspectives through close-ended questionnaires. Having read the responses from 750 individuals, the study interpreted that the more effective teachers manage their classroom, the less the students feel nervous. In other words, the study inferred that teachers' capacity in managing their classroom can potentially improve students' motivation and engagement. Effective managers were argued to be strongly aware of the students' feelings, attitudes, learning progress, and other complexities allowing them to deal with challenges better. Moreover, as another finding, students tend to be more proficient in adopting learning strategies that could give a significant contribution to their English proficiency development. As argued, this was made possible due to the encouraging environment that classroom managers create. Yet, due to the nature of the research, learners' perspectives are largely limited. Much is still unknown about what learners have in their minds and hearts.

As discussed above, it is worth highlighting that classroom management in EFL context is likely more exigent. Apart from common classroom management challenges, target language use, language practice activities, anxieties in speaking in the target language, potential confusions or misunderstandings due to limited target language proficiency, longer waiting time generate more burden to EFL classroom managers (Macias, 2018). This is not to undermine the challenges distinctive to other content areas. Nonetheless, the unique characteristics of the requirements of a good EFL class make it more challenging for EFL teachers to create an order and silence whereas EFL classroom is usually seemingly disorder and noisy due to the lively communicative interactions among learners who practise the target language to a maximum degree. For EFL teachers to manage their class well, Harmer (2007) proposes ten important capacities: keeping a proper distance with learners (proximity), implementing the right degree of formality and informality (appropriacy), purposively navigating in the classroom (movement), aware of the situations, speaking audibly, purposively varying the tone and intonation, stage marking, arranging seats, organising the class, and monitoring students' progress.

2.2. EFL teaching in Indonesia

Studies have reported that many English classrooms in Indonesian schools do not contribute much to the improvement of students' English proficiency. They are found to have

preserved classical teaching and learning of the target language resulting in poor English proficiency of the students regardless the long durable time they have spent inside the English classroom in formal schooling (Mukminin et al., 2013; Yulia, 2014). Students normally sit at the same place relatively throughout the days for many years. At their desk, they listen to teachers' lectures usually in Indonesian and then do grammatical and written exercises, identical for all students. Then, students share the answers with each other. Rarely do they have opportunities to have intensive exposure to the target language and to use the target language in an interactive communication simulating the real function of a language.

The present English classroom routine contributes very little to students' English improvement and reading literacy. This is one reason why Indonesian students are relatively poor in literacy. Based on Program for International Student Assessment conducted by the Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development, Indonesian students scored below the average of all OECD countries on reading literacy and was ranked 64th out of 74 participating countries (OECD, 2016). When measured by CEFR standardised test, as reported by Suryani and Amalia (2018), 96% of all the student participants in their research in Jambi, Indonesia, did not even reach A1, the lowest level of CEFR. This reality uncovers how the many years of formal instructions of English subject in formal education are not likely to provide much help to students to acquire and develop the target language and reading literacy accordingly.

The unsatisfying reports suggest a reminder that it is critical to remain updated with an accurate picture of what is recently happening inside a classroom. Black and William (1998) warned that classroom is like a blackbox of an aeroplane for the education of a nation. If education in general does not appear to be positive, then there must be something wrong inside the blackbox. In other words, the quality of the education is likely to depend on the quality of what is happening inside the blackbox. As the school bell rings, the teacher comes into the classroom, the students sit at their tables, the door is closed, then the classroom routine starts; the relatively concealed process begins. This process repeats throughout the day, the week, the month, the year and continues for many years. The dynamics inside a classroom, both positive and negative, are gradually accumulated. If a classroom runs according to what is expected, then the students will accumulate the targeted knowledge and advance the expected skills. On the other hand, if what happens is the other way around, the students then will accumulate ignorance and linger incompetence.

As it determines the accumulated quality of a national education, classroom management has to be standardised. The overall quality of a national education is built upon the quality of

how every classroom operates. If all classrooms in a country run as expected, the quality improvement of the national education is achievable. To realise this, the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture established a standardised process of the formal instruction. It is through the decree no. 65 year 2013 that requires teachers to implement a set of classroom management procedure as the standardised process mandated by the government of Indonesia. Based on the decree, teachers of all subjects, regardless the different nature of each subject, are expected to demonstrate the following capacities, namely adjusting their voices appropriately; speaking understandably, audibly, politely; dressing properly; organising the seating appropriately; creating critical, encouraging, controlling and convenient learning; providing constructive responses, reinforcements, and feedbacks; adjusting the speed of the lesson accordingly; starting each semester with a clear syllabus orientation; and managing the time and administration according to the term schedule. These standardised capacities are expected to contribute positively to the eight national standards for a better quality education in the country.

2.3. EFL classroom management in Indonesia

In Indonesia, few existing studies on EFL classroom management are relatively restricted to the voices of teachers and researchers. Through interviews and focussed group discussions, studies tried to portray realities predominantly from the narrations of teachers as the actors and providers of EFL instruction (Habibi et al., 2017; Habibi et al., 2018; Ningrum, 2017; Ulfah et al., 2020; Utami, 2017). Rarely were these mosaics confirmed by the voices of the learners as a valid source of evidence to portray a more accurate and representative reality. Likewise, realities captured from a limited chance of observations were again most of the time triangulated by teachers' narratives, yet excluded what the learners experienced, thought and felt which would generate a more comprehensive understanding of the issue being investigated. Habibi et al. (2017) admitted that their reality was somewhat limited by the number of observations they could do and they found out that some narratives constructed by some of their teacher participants contradicted with their observation-generated facts. This example foregrounds a legitimate need for cultivating other evidences to be able to clarify what really happened in EFL classroom.

What the studies above mostly revealed is a series of challenges of EFL classroom management in Indonesia. Lack of students' classroom engagement, students' misbehaviours, students' unwillingness to speak in the target language, limited exposure and use of the target language, discouraging classrooms due to external crowds and noises and heat, students' and

teachers' inadequate time management, tedious instructions causing unexpected situations, limited use and facilities of technology have been found to be the major cryses in managing EFL classrooms in the country (Habibi et al., 2017; Habibi et al., 2018; Ulfah et al., 2020). Common causes of these problems were the large number of students in a disproportionate classroom, long desks and extremely limited space, limited learning duration, inadequate professional competence of EFL teachers and inconvenient environment (Habibi et al., 2017; Habibi et al., 2018; Ulfah et al., 2020). Other causes were the psychological nature of EFL learners (Ulfah et al., 2020; Utami, 2020), teachers' unsatisfactory proficiency in English and the common malpractice of EFL teaching occupying most of the instructions with grammar orientation and exercises thus ignoring the urgency of target language use in meaningful and engaging interactions (Yulia, 2014), not to mention teachers' low incentive causing them to hit and run to make a decent living but sacrifying their responsibility and actualisation as teachers (Habibi et al., 2018; Yulia, 2014).

On the other hand, the few studies also revealed some positive stories of EFL teachers in terms of their classroom management capacity. Indonesian EFL teachers investigated were found to have demonstrated the expected speaking and dressing manner (Habibi et al., 2017; Habibi et al., 2018; Ulfah et al., 2020). In terms of checking students' works and providing feedbacks, teachers narrated that they tried to do their best to perform this responsibility although with significant restriction due to the large number of students in a classroom (Habibi et al., 2017; Habibi et al., 2018; Rindu, 2020; Ulfah et al., 2020). Two teachers observed by Ulfah et al. (2020) were found to have performed several management strategies: arranging the students' seats, grouping the students, utilising the media, controlling the students, using humour, creating interactions, and managing the time. In the context of EFL for young learners, Utami (2017) reported that simple, fixed and repeated classroom language and rules effectively helped manage the learners and instructions. Rozimela (2016) added that by establishing rules, varying teaching techniques, and conducting groupings, student teachers managed to make high school learners disciplined, more engaged and more active in their learning.

The fact that studies on Indonesian EFL classroom management are still relatively limited shows a significant gap for more research. The studies available and sufficiently reputable are by nature restricted in how the studies protray the reality. Most studies are qualitative which generates a phenomenon in a specific context. This suggests limitation for generalisation and at the same time indicates the need to capture more realities and gather more evidences for a more representative and comprehensive understanding of how EFL classroom management in

Indonesia is progressing. For this reason, this study aims to gather evidences from the perspectives of the learners whose voices are still relatively unexplored. It is hoped that the study can foreground another mosaic that can illustrate a better picture of the discipline. Despite its limited scope, based on past learners' voices, this study is aimed to investigate what EFL management areas are successful, what areas are still lacking and what possible solutions or recommendations are needed to solve the shortcomings.

3. METHODS

3.1. Research approach

This study implemented a qualitative approach through a narrative enquiry to cultivate evidences through the lens of the learners. In education, narrative inquiry has been widely used to learn about teachers' perspectives and their teaching performance Mendieta, 2013; Mehrani, 2017; Zacharias, 2016). It is expected that the study can contribute to a more complete understanding of how EFL teachers manage their classrooms and offer recommendation for a better implementation in the future.

3.2. Accessible technology-assisted research for people with visual disability

People with visual impairment are mostly challenged by inaccessible technology. In research, they are constantly weakened by research procedure requiring sights. Colouring, coding, charts, graphics, visual display, computer applications not accessible with screen readers are great obstacles for researchers with vision impairment. Therefore, for this research, the researcher tried to find ways to conduct the study. He uses a screen reader, a text-to-speech application and technology applications accessible with his screen reader. He uses Microsoft word to create a research description, participant's consent form, and a narrative frame. He uses WhatsApp messenger application installed in a mobile phone for research document distribution, correspondence and follow up interviews. To use the mobile device, he activates the screen reader in the accessibility setting section. Finally, he uses Microsoft excel to create a database of the participants' answers collected from the narrative frames and interviews. Then, he again uses Microsoft excel to carry out the data analysis.

3.3. Participants

Due to the lock down implementation in many places in Indonesia, the researcher conducted a convenient sampling technique. He is aware that having an access to research data is profoundly important. Therefore, he asked his non-English major second-year university

students to participate in the research. These students spent their high school in Depok and therefore have insightful experiences of learning English in the targeted area of the research. Six participants having graduated from a private vocational high school, three private high schools and two public high schools in Depok finally took part in this preliminary study.

3.4. Participants' consent

To get the consent from the participants, the researcher distributed a document via online messenger application. The document gives a description of the research, a notification of the possibility to withdraw from the research at any stages, and a consent form the participants had to sign. In the document, they were also informed that their identity would be made concealed.

3.5. Data collection procedure

The researcher collected his data from a narrative frame and interviews. Narrative frame is a series of incomplete prompts that guide the participants in narrating their experiences (Mehrani, 2017; Mendieta, 2013; Zacharias, 2016). In the narrative frame, there were sixteen prompts which were developed from the list of classroom management tasks that the Indonesian Ministry of Education and Culture highlights in the decree no. 65 (2013). The prompts in the narrative frame were in the participants' first language. This is to enable them to speak their experiences and perspectives better (Mehrani, 2017; Mendieta, 2013; Zacharias, 2016). Interviews were conducted to deepen the participants' narration and simultaneously to clarify any unclear or unexplored data fragments.

3.6. Establishing the credibility of the research

To minimise the subjectivity of the researcher's bias, he implemented double clarifications. The first clarification was done through "member-checking" to establish accountability, clarity and accuracy of the data (Zacharias, 2016). After the participants took their time to complete the narrative frame, they returned the completed frame to the researcher. He rad the documents but then felt that there were still some confusion. The researcher then decided to ask the participants to re-read and make necessary revisions. At this stage, the participants had their second chance to make necessary clarifications, additions, reductions and elaborations. It was possible that in their first chance, they forgot certain details or they expressed their narration inappropriately which could cause misinterpretation or miscommunication. The second clarification was done through data fragment-checking. This second clarification was done during the analysis process to get things clearer and more

accurate. When reading fragments that remain unclear, the researcher would ask the participants through online messenger application. This stage was done mainly to have more credible data, not to cultivate other information.

3.7. Data analysis procedure

To draw a credible conclusion, the researcher developed a data analysis procedure derived from the constant-comparative analysis technique designed by Strauss and Corbin's (1990). It was originally for a Grounded theory research that they developed. Yet, this technique suits well with the nature of a narrative inquiry. Narrative inquiry is by nature iterative, emergent and interpretative (Zacharias, 2016). These principles require researchers to constantly compare the data fragments (iterative), see what emerges from the data (emergent) and make proper interpretations (interpretative). The interpretations are unavoidably subjective. Therefore, they have to be proper and one way to do this is through the double clarifications mentioned earlier: member-checking and data fragment-checking. Technically speaking, the researcher did the following five-step procedure.

3.7.1. Creating a data map

Due to the blindness of the researcher, he developed a procedure conductible for him. He is unable to deal with visualisations like colouring, underlining, charts, vision-requiring tables and so on which are painstaking obstacles for people with vision impairment. Whereas, he used a Microsoft excel which is accessible for people with vision impairment. He created a table of data map from left to right. Horizontally, the titles of the columns are for firstly the number, secondly the individual prompt list, thirdly the information and narration of participant 1, then the information and narration of participant 2, and so on till the last participant. This map enables the researcher to do the iterative reading or the constant-comparative analysis. He could constantly go back and forth horizontally and vertically.

3.7.2. Creating a table for emerging fragments analysis

As the data map was created, the researcher made a copy of it for further analysis. The data map original document was stored for his data base to anticipate any data losses. In case any fragments were deleted accidentally, the researcher would not lose them forever. He could easily retrieve those fragments from the original data map. In the copy of the data map, named as data fragment analysis, he had the complete data map. Then, he started to do the constant iterative and emergent analysis simultaneously. He created a table for data fragments analysis

next to the data map table. He adopted the classroom management tasks mandated by the government and theoretical concepts derived from the literature. twelve categories were generated: 1) speaking manner; 2) dressing properly; 3) organising the seating arrangement; 4) creating encouraging conducive atmosphere; 5) classroom rules; 6) giving responses and feedbacks; 7) adjusting the lesson delivery; 8) starting with syllabus orientation; 9) adjusting with the term schedule; 10) speaking English / Indonesian; 11) classroom activities and contents; 12 use of technology. The first category was to accommodate the first two tasks of classroom management, namely speaking audibly and speaking clearly and politely. The data fragments, after a few times of iterative reading, participants did not really discriminate between the two tasks. Therefore, the researcher decided to combine the two tasks into one merging category. Then, the last three categories were derived after several iterative analysis. A significant number of fragments did not fit the existing category and therefore required new categories to accommodate those fragments. These categories were derived theoretically.

3.7.3. Coding-classifying analysis

The next procedure was a coding-classifying analysis. At first, the researcher tried to do the coding and classifying stages separately. But he discovered this was extremely time consuming. Then, he decided to conduct the two stages simultaneously. The researcher adopted in-vivo codes, using the participants' original words. With clear concept in mind, he read the data, mentally coded, and removed the mentally coded fragments to the theme each fragment belongs to. At this stage, to ease the task, he deleted irrelevant fragments. This integrated reduction phase helped the researcher to finish this coding-classifying stage quicker. This stage finished when no more fragments left in the data map table.

3.7.4. Constantly-comparing, contrasting and relocating the classified fragments

As the coding-classifying analysis stage was done, the researcher continued the next process. He constantly compared and contrasted the classified fragments. He moved certain fragments that did not fit the first theme which actually matched more with a new theme. The researcher also cut parts of a fragment that belonged to another theme. Afterward, the researcher read all the classified fragments again to make sure that necessary fragments or parts of fragments had been relocated to a more appropriate theme. In this phase, the researcher conducted the data fragment-checking. He contacted respective participants to clarify fragments that were unclear.

3.7.5. Arranging the fragments from the most positive to the most negative sense to develop a storyline

As a final stage, the researcher tried to re-arrange the fragments. He created the third table to reorganise the fragments from the most positive to the most negative sense. The positive fragments revealed the extent to which teachers had successfully performed their job. The negative fragments uncovered what teachers were still lacking and therefore required government's attention to make necessary improvement. Finally, the researcher was ready to present his results and discussion in a relatively comprehensive manner.

4.   RESULTS

In terms of English teachers' speaking manner, the participants revealed positive insights. Teachers were reported to relax and speak clearly with sufficient audibility. No participants complained about teachers' inaudible voices. Neither did the participants foreground any use of rude language. Regarding this first classroom management capacity, participants having learned English in private and public high schools shared similar experience.

Similar to the findings of teachers' speaking manner, all participants shared positive perspectives about how their English teachers dressed. Some participants reported that the teachers dressed modestly and neatly. Others added that the teachers dressed like how teachers in general dress. The rest completed by expressing that the teachers wore standard attire for teachers, sometimes batik, and common shirt. Based on their voices, all participants having learned in a private vocational high school, three private high schools and two public high schools did not show conflicting narratives on how their English teachers appeared.

Unlike the first two groups of narrations, the voices of the participants were not completely positive regarding how teachers organised the seats. Most voices revealed the inflexible structure of school classrooms in Indonesia. P3 reported that in his classroom there were forty students and twenty long desks in four columns and five rows arranged frontward facing the board. Despite its fixed design, p3's teacher still managed to vary the instructions by having individual, pair and group works. Students were asked to join their long desks when working in groups. P2 had no complaints. According to him, as long as the students sat neatly and properly, they were free to sit anywhere in the room. In contrast, p6 experienced a more authoritative environment where students had to sit politely and neatly and face frontward. Students were not allowed to face backward. To a surprise, p4 reported that his teacher never bothered about the students' seating arrangement. The voices indicate that the common large

classes with their inflexible structure and limited space to some extent may have deskilled teachers' creativity to vary seating arrangement accordingly.

In line with the previous result, the findings showed the majority of the participants narrated less positive insights regarding the English learning atmosphere in spite of the presence of classroom rules. Some participants reported that in the classroom, teachers required students to dress and sit tidily, listen to the teacher, do their assignments, come on time, have no food and drinks, use no gadget, and a violation would lead to certain punishment like doing extra exercises and singing in English. However, only two participants reported their classes were conducive, quiet, and fun like in a tutoring institution class or "bimbingan belajar". Two other participants narrated could have been fun if teachers had focussed more on functional skills rather than grammatical theories. The rest of the fragments revealed the classes were stressing, boring, and sometimes unpredictably noisy and uncontrolled. One unexpected narration was that low performers or less competent students would tend to receive some sort of intimidation from their teacher. Here is the extract, "… jika ada murid yang tidak bagus dalam bahasa inggris, bahasa kasarnya mereka akan "dicecer oleh guru".

On the contrary, most participants expressed their positive view points on "giving responses and feedbacks" category. They in general confirmed that their English teachers were somewhat responsive towards students' inquiries and feedbacks. Teachers would provide help, re-explain the lesson, give further explanation, and provided other examples to assist their students. One participant said his teacher was happy to receive feedbacks from the students whether they were about the lessons or the teacher himself. Other participants, however, mentioned that teachers sometimes required peer feedbacks either individually or in a group. When a student asked or struggling, the teacher would ask other students to help. About students' works, two participants narrated that the teacher checked their works and scored them. Other participant revealed that the assignments were usually checked together in class. Yet, no narrations confirmed whether or not teachers returned all students' works with feedbacks in constructive and timely manner.

Regarding the lesson delivery adjustment, participants did not report much about it. One participant only mentioned that his teacher would give easy explanation and examples. Yet, another participant complained that his teacher's explanation was sometimes too fast so that he could not understand. The previous paragraph may clarify this. Once students were struggling, teachers would re-explain and provide easier examples.

Again, participants did not mention that their teachers started a semester with a syllabus orientation or explanation. One participant said that his teacher usually explained the teacher's

teaching style, classroom rules, and learning assessment in the first meeting. However, most participants narrated that their teachers would use the first meeting for a free class. They would usually introduce each other. In contrast, one participant mentioned that his teacher would start a semester with a review of lessons on English tenses.

As per the time management, most participants only mentioned that teachers usually used the last meeting for reviewing the previous lessons. Some revealed that the teacher explained the lessons again. Some other narrated that they reviewed independently in groups. Whereas, one participant protested that the teacher used the last meeting for another tenses review which to him was inapplicable and pointless. The extent to which lessons were covered in a semester was not revealed explicitly.

Besides capturing the above realities, participants also narrated insights about the use of the language and classroom activities and contents. These insights were comparably valuable and relevant to English teaching and learning. All participants uncovered that Indonesian language was still relatively dominant in class and therefore exposure to the target language was somewhat limited. The classroom activities were restricted to listening to teacher's explanation and doing written exercises. The lessons were largely conceptual. As a result, participants regret that they hardly had the opportunity for communicative practices.

Finally, voices of the participants illustrated the extent to which teachers utilised technology in their EFL classrooms. P5, graduating from a public high school, reported that her teachers would use a laptop, a speaker and a projector about twice or thrice a month for listening practices. Likewise, p4's teachers used the same devices but for more extended activities e.g. presenting slides of materials and also videos showing ways of pronouncing English words, examples of conversations, and related lessons. He also added that both the teachers and students used a smart phone to support the instructional process. Similarly, p2's teachers also used the same devices but only at the end of a semester to help review the covered lessons and extended activities. On the contrary, two participants revealed a more limited use of technology. Only smart phones were used to help the English instructions. Teachers and students used them to utilise applications like dictionary and search engine to help do their assignments.

5.   DISCUSSION

Based on the findings, it is clear that the English teachers of the participants of this study generally demonstrated the expected speaking manner. They were found to use polite, clear and audible language that echo the requirements of the Ministry of Education and Culture

(MOEC, 2013). This reality is in agreement with the findings of the studies conducted in two Jambi high schools (Habibi et al., 2017) and in an Islamic boarding high school also in Jambi (Habibi et al., 2018). Based on observations and interviews with the teachers, the researchers confirmed these positive characteristics of EFL teachers' use of voices and language. Indeed, as teachers, making sure that students can hear and understand what teachers explain is important to achieve a maximum learning result (Harmer, 2004).

By the same token, it is also clear that the EFL teachers of the research participants met the expected dressing manner requirement. The findings of EFL teachers' positive dressing manner echo that of other study. Teacher participants in the study conducted by Habibi et al. (2017) appeared properly and professionally. They argued that dressing politely, properly and even professionally is highly important. They added that teachers have to be role models for the students and therefore having desired physical appearance is essential as demanded by the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC, 2013). Yet, the dressing manner is nowhere mentioned as an integral part of classroom management capacity of EFL teachers (see Habibi et al., 2018; Macias, 2018; Macias & Sanchez, 2015; Ningrum, 2017; Marashi & Assgar, 2019; Tahir & Qadir, 2012; Ulfah et al., 2020; Utami, 2017).

On the other hand, it is understood from the findings that organising the students' seats based on different instructional activities was uneasy. Most participants experienced sitting in lines and bars with long and large desks facing the class board. This was due to the overcrowded classroom and seating arrangement. This may have caused the teachers to be less creative to adjust the seats to various instructional activities. Similar situation can be found in the common public education settings not only in Indonesia (Habibi et al., 2017; Habibi et al., 2018; Ulfah et al., 2020; Yulia, 2014) and in other country (Macias & Sanchez, 2015). Teachers were confused with how to deliver engaging instructions in such an overcrowded classroom due to the little room for performing fun activities (Habibi et al., 2018). Therefore, this condition generates a serious problem to the success of EFL classroom management (Macias & Sanchez, 2015).

Besides the negative experiences of sitting in lines, the participants' experiences were also not very positive regarding the learning atmosphere. Most participants felt the class was not engaging. The presence of some rules in a classroom could not automatically result in a fun learning environment. Encouraging learning atmosphere has to be created and this is one of the biggest challenges for EFL teachers in public education settings with overcrowded classes (Habibi et al., 2018; Macias & Sanchez, 2015; Ulfah et al., 2020). Another potential cause of tedious EFL classes could have been the result of poor pedagogy and inadequate proficiency

of the target language (Habibi et al., 2018; Yulia, 2014).

On the contrary, regarding EFL teachers' feedbacks, little was revealed. Most participants had positive impression about teachers' responsiveness to students' enquiries and opinions but the findings did not reveal much about teachers' feedbacks on students' works and the degree of constructiveness. This is in agreement with the findings of the study carried out by Habibi et al. (2017). The teacher participants in their study argued that they would do their best to respond to students' enquiries and opinions. Yet, they admitted that it was not possible for them to check and provide feedbacks on every work of every student due to the large group in a classroom. This resonates the findings of this present study. The participants did not say much about their teachers' feedbacks on their school works. In fact, to help students achieve maximum result and develop maximum skills, constructive feedbacks are profoundly impactful but unfortunately most feedbacks are found unhelpful and therefore not constructive (Hattie, 2008).

Similar to teachers' absence of providing constructive feedbacks, they were also reported to have been less successful in time management. Most teachers of the participants were reported to have not explained the syllabus to the students and they were also reported to have not provided sufficient and proper review of the lessons for the students at the end of a semester. This is in contradiction with what teacher participants conveyed to Habibi et al. (2017). In the interviews, the teachers claimed that they always explained the syllabus to the students in the first meeting. However, Habibi et al. (2017) admitted that the teachers' claim was not supported by any other evidences. On the other hand, Rinantanti et al. (2019) found out that EFL teachers are indeed showing low capacity in time management and instructional planning.

Apart from the time management, teachers of the participants were performing inadequate use of the target language and instructional activities. The participants revealed that Indonesian was relatively dominant and therefore students had little exposure and opportunity to practise and improve their English proficiency. Yulia (2014) confirmed this finding. In her study, Yulia found out that a significant number of Indonesian teachers of English possess low proficiency in English and consequently conducted the classical method which focuses on grammar and written exercises contributing very little to improving students' communicative skills in the target language. In the study conducted by Habibi et al. (2018) and Yuwono and Harbon (2010) revealed some sad facts of low salary as one major cause for poor EFL teachers' performances in their classrooms. Due to having low salary, some teachers had to do other jobs and therefore hardly had time for planning their lessons and developing their professionalism.

Finally, it can be seen that not all English teachers of the participants made use of the technology. Most of them, however, managed to use a laptop, projector and a speaker to deliver a better instruction and create a more meaningful learning experiences for the students. This finding is not completely in agreement with the studies of Habibi et al. (2017) and Rinantanti et al. (2019). They found out that English teachers in their research areas were found to be out-dated with technology. One major reason for this was the inadequate support of the technology facility that teachers encountered. Muslim et al. (2018) confirmed that in Indonesia, limited class time, poor ICT facility and slow internet connection make teaching English with technology still a significant challenge to English teachers. Indeed, inadequate support for EFL teachers have been relatively common in Indonesia (Yuwono & Harbon, 2010).

6. CONCLUSION

This present study has tried to cultivate other evidences of the implementation of EFL classroom management in Indonesia. Findings were all collected from the voices of Indonesian high school graduates who experienced EFL instructions in different high schools in Depok, Indonesia. Based on the participants' answers, their teachers were generally successful in demonstrating the expected speaking and dressing manner. The teachers were reported to use polite, clear, understandable language and wear polite, appropriate and professional attire. Another satisfactory success was the use of basic technology and teachers' responsiveness. Most teachers managed to make a good use of a laptop, a projector and a speaker to provide more meaningful learning experiences for the students. Yet, some teachers had not used these devices to improve the instruction. Similar to the case of technology utilisation, EFL teachers of the participants were relatively responsive to students' enquiries and opinions, yet they were relatively struggling to provide constructive feedbacks on every work of every student. Apart from the success, the study discovered that EFL teachers were still lacking in some major areas e.g. creating engaging and communicative and interactive instructional activities, adjusting the students' seating arrangement accordingly, conducting formative assessment, providing constructive feedbacks, managing the time, being committed to the academic timeline from the government, demonstrating sufficient English proficiency and providing more chances to students to have more target language exposure and practise in the target language. These major areas may constantly result in poor learning result and poor English proficiency of high school leavers if these inadequacies are not solved immediately.

Based on what this study has revealed, the following recommendations are important for a better quality of EFL classroom management and EFL instruction in the future. Firstly, EFL

teachers need to be given professional development training to improve their capacity in delivering excellent teaching, conducting effective classroom management, carrying out formative assessment, providing constructive feedbacks, developing instructional planning, managing the time adjusting the academic timeline, enhancing learning experiences with technology, improving English proficiency and finally delivering various instructional activities that allow students to have a lot of exposure and communicative and interactive practices. Secondly, factors external to classroom also need to be improved; number of students in each classroom has to be reduced, class space needs to be added or existing long desks have to be replaced by individual sets of chair and desk to allow more engaging activities, and finally more support, more facility and increased teachers' well-being are needed to improve the quality of teaching and learning in the future.

This study, however, is limited in several respects. It did not manage to achieve saturation when collecting the data. The participants were not available and accessible all the time and were unable to elaborate their narratives in a more detail. Besides, the study is also limited in size and scope and therefore the findings are relatively not generalisable. Due to these restrictions, it is recommended that further research needs to enlarge the size and scope to generate a better understanding of how EFL learners see the implementation of EFL classroom management. Adding to this, the narrative frame survey and interview need to be first piloted and modified accordingly in order to generate richer and more detailed narratives on the issue of interest. Finally, despite the limitations of the study, it is hoped that this present study can still offer valuable information that helps clarify how EFL teachers manage their classrooms.

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Pre-Service Teachers' Language Preference in MTB-MLE Classrooms of Northern Cebu, Philippines: A Pre-Deployment Training Module

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Abstract

Hinged on Krashen's Input and Affective Filter Hypotheses, Auer's Code-Switching, Giles' Accommodation, and Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Learning theories, this study which employs a descriptive research design generated an MTB-MLE training module for pre-service teachers based on the expressed needs of 14 purposively selected PSTs who demonstrated: 1. preference for the use of Cebuano-Visayan as the language of instruction, 2. some degree of difficulty in using Cebuano-Visayan as evidenced by their code-switching characterized by

retaining some English content words as well as affixing English verbs with Cebuano-Visayan morphemes; and 3. their linguistic ability and background as well as learner accommodation as crucial influences affecting their LOI preference. Despite the language difficulty, PSTs find their MT-Based teaching preference advantageous as it boosts confidence in classroom instruction; facilitate learner comprehension and encourage their participation.

Introduction

Amidst the international prestige of English language and its value in the global economy, the move towards education which values local, national, and international languages and culture is evident. This new paradigm of teaching advances the use of children's home language in the primary years of their formal education. The advocacy of mother tongue (MT) instruction is in light of a recent international push to achieve United Nation's Millennium Development Goals: Universal Primary Education or Quality Education for All. In the context of quality education, the choice of a language of instruction (LOI) is crucial. Language, Benson notes, is obviously the primary tool for effective communication in the classroom (cited in Valerio, 2015); a potent factor in education that matters significantly for it is through it that knowledge is transmitted.

Language being a vehicle for teaching and learning must be within the child's ability to use and understand. When instruction begins with a child's home language or MT, the way to understanding is far better and easier. The findings of UNICEF and other related studies (cited in Chilora & Harris, 2001) have revealed that children can easily recognize words when the language used in teaching is their first language (L1). Besides, other academic skills are readily learned when the language of teaching is MT. When the school opts to use the child's MT in teaching, children find their school as an extension of their home where they can enrich their life experiences. The use of the same home language in school enables children to connect their learning experiences at home and at school. Consequently, situating them in a class and teaching them in a language which is not familiar to them will definitely be a struggle difficult to cope with. Unsurprisingly, a great number of children drop out of school and several others fail.

For Young (2003), many children struggle to learn the academic concepts taught in foreign language hence they forego schooling. Contrastingly, using a language understood by

children facilitates learning. As children immerse in a new environment (school) they are yet bearing with them their home culture particularly their language. At the very start, they have to be taught using the language that they speak at home so they will not be inhibited to learn further considering that they notice language similarity despite newness of environment. In such a class, one could expect children's active involvement which leads to speedy development of literacy skills. Hence, teachers are challenged to be flexible, innovative and creative since learners take an active role in the teaching learning process. Teachers and children alike can freely interact because both share the same familiar language. Interactive dialogue is practiced which fosters active participation from the children themselves. This being the case in the classroom enables children to be active constructors of knowledge. Findings of previous studies that underscore the great opportunities of using the MT as the LOI have prompted several countries including the Philippines to adopt Mother Tongue Based – Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE).

In the Philippines, MTB–MLE commenced in June 2012. It is one of the provisions embodied in the K to 12 Curriculum upholding the assumptions of MTB-MLE which builds upon the learners' background knowledge gradually unfolding the lessons from familiar to unfamiliar. With this development, MT has become a new subject from Grades 1-3 and is the medium of instruction (MOI) from K to 3 (Corpuz, 2014). Its teaching as a subject aims to develop the language skills of speaking, reading, and writing in the children's MT. The same subject is taught starting Grade 1 to 3. MT as the MOI, on the other hand, is the language of teaching in all subjects from Kindergarten to Grade 3, except in language subjects, Filipino and English. Filipino is introduced for oral proficiency as earlier as second quarter of Grade 1. The same language is integrated in Grade 1 curriculum to develop reading and writing skills in the third quarter. These two along with the other language macro skills will be continuously developed from Grades 2 to 6.

This MTB-MLE implementation however is confronted by challenges. For one, a large number of studies revealed that teachers' lack of training is one considerable block in the success of MTB-MLE implementation. Paulson's (2012) study emphasized that teacher training matters significantly in developing quality education programs. For nations planning to make MTB-MLE part of the curriculum, UNESCO (2003) calls all educational institutions to consider the provision of training for MT instruction at the early stage of studying and intensify the training until would-be teachers are fully equipped.

The K to 12 Program implementation prompted Teacher Training Institutions to revise and realign their curricular program with the new education policy. To date, the Bachelor of

Elementary Education (BEED) program of Cebu Technological University (CTU) Daanbantayan Campus adheres to CHED Memo Order No. 30, s 2004. Since this memorandum was crafted before the enactment of MTB-MLE, it implies that pre-service teachers (PSTs) are not really prepared for MT-based teaching. Nevertheless, their unpreparedness does not necessarily mean their lack of awareness about the new program. They were taught of the K-12 teaching approaches of which MTB-MLE is one. Knowledge wise, the PSTs of CTU Daanbantayan are aware of the teaching approaches in K to 12. However, knowledge alone is not enough to guarantee a successful and effective implementation of MTB-MLE. PSTs need to be prepared and well–equipped with content, pedagogical knowledge and competencies among others as MTB-MLE teaching requires a different set of skills. An Association for Teacher Education in Europe (ATEE) policy paper notes "changes in society are leading to new expectations of the role of education which in turn is leading to new demands on the quality and competence of teachers" (cited in Karan & Morren, 2015, p. 10). The inclusion of MT-based education in primary schools puts additional expectations on teachers. To cope with the speed and complexity of change, it is fitting to start in the training ground – the Teacher Education Institutions. Bachore (2014) reveals the great need of quality training among pre-service and in-service teachers in the aspect of LOI.

It can be assumed that PSTs whether trained or not can easily adapt with MTB-MLE since their MT is the LOI in MTB-MLE classrooms. Nonetheless, the everyday language variety is truly different from the language of the academe. The PSTs of CTU Daanbantayan have been trained both in English and Filipino as they are products of the Bilingual Education Policy. They have been using and learning English and Filipino as early as Grade one and the same language policy has been applied up to their tertiary education. However, the new language education policy necessitates that PSTs must be equipped with competencies in the required language and academic content. There exists, therefore, an inconsistency with their training and practice teaching at the present time due to the implementation of MTB-MLE.

On the account of this lack of preparedness for MTB-MLE confronting PSTs in their practice teaching, this study investigates the language preference of the elementary PSTs of Cebu Technological University Daanbantayan Campus in the context of MTB-MLE implementation. In particular, this study explores their language preferences and language difficulties during their practice teaching providing the scientific basis in the formulation of a PSTs' training guide for MTB-MLE thereby affording future PSTs adequate preparation and appropriate training, which will eventually render them as a success factor in the MTB-MLE classrooms.

Review of Literature

This study assumes that elementary PSTs go for their preferred language of teaching despite the implementation of MT-based instruction in primary years. The PSTs' reason for choosing the language of instruction over the other is caused by several factors. Moreover, their decision to use the language of their choice implies their lack of preparedness or limited proficiency of the target language to teach the subjects using the appropriate vocabulary.

Such assumption is supported by Krashen's Input and Affective Filter Hypotheses, Auer's Code-Switching Theory, Giles' Accommodation Theory and Vygotsky's Socio-Cultural Learning Theory.

According to Krashen's Comprehensible Input hypothesis (cited in Hummel, 2014), the surest means of strengthening second language proficiency is by exposure to "comprehensible input" i.e., language that is one level beyond the learner's current level. Krashen (1982) states that if enough input is understood, then the necessary grammar would be automatically provided.

In addition to the comprehensible input, Krashen (1982) also recognized the effect of 'affective variables' in his Affective Filter hypothesis. This hypothesis states that each individual is innately embedded with filter mechanism which under some circumstance may block the language acquisition device (LAD). Conditions that affect language acquisition are primarily related to the learner's emotional state such as motivation, self-confidence and anxiety. The level of acquiring L2 is on the other hand relative to the level of their Affective Filters. Affective filter hypothesis explains a situation when two learners receive the same comprehensible input and yet one learner progresses and the other does not. The former has lower affective filter while the latter has high degree of affective filter blocking input from reaching LAD.

The Affective Filter theory suggests that language teaching involves providing reasonable lessons and presenting the same in a manner that is highly motivating and engaging. If a teacher encourages maximum learner participation instead of causing a threatening learning environment that instigates stress among learners thereby impairing learning, then s/he is an effective and successful teacher.

Relative to supplying 'comprehensible input' is to consider the participants' language. In this case, the participants in the classroom are the teacher and the learners. The former being the primary stimulus is expected to elicit the latter's response through an LOI crucial to understanding. By employing the required LOI, a teacher may have dispensed the lesson but it could also entail lack of understanding on the part of the learners who may be unfamiliar with

the LOI used. A shift therefore from the language of the academe to the learners' MT is necessary. The act of shifting languages available in a teacher's repertoire is indicative of code mixing.

According to Auer's theory, there are two kinds of code switching: discourse-related and preference-related. Auer (cited in Sadeharju, 2012, p. 36) defines discourse related as "the use of code-switching to organize the conversation by contributing to the interactional meaning of a particular utterance". This is done by inserting a particular word or expression (that is common and familiar) from one language into a structure from the other language. An example is when the participants conversing mainly in English insert a familiar expression in Filipino. Preference-related code switching, on the other hand, is a "negotiation between the language preferences of the participants". Consequently, one of the participants prefers to use the language which the other chooses. In classroom context for instance, either the teacher uses the learners' preferred language of learning or the learners use the teacher's choice of language of teaching.

Additionally, Auer (1998) claims that preference-related code switching is also related to speaker's language competencies. Given the choice of what language to use, it necessarily follows that the speaker chooses the language that s/he feels most of herself or himself. In the classroom context, learners naturally choose the language that they know and understand. On the contrary, teachers are bound to follow the LOI rule. Their profession dictates they conform to the educational mandate as to MOI. However, these teachers may break this LOI mandate for some reasons. One of the reasons could be their own lack of proficiency in the language hence they readily fill their language difficulties by code-switching to compensate for deficiencies in target language. Another possible cause is for the benefit of the learners. To some extent, learners have difficulty understanding the content when teachers use L2. Consequently, teachers choose to switch codes. The code-switching is then initiated by the teacher who uses a more familiar language to elicit learner participation and to ensure understanding. One common strategy for this teacher-induced code switching is translation. The teacher's L2 instructions are translated into the learner's MT to ensure understanding thus benefitting learners.

The act of the teacher adjusting his or her utterance for the learners' sake suggests of the teacher's effort to include everyone in the class. The teacher's choice of language as the MOI greatly depends on the learners' preference. In most cases it is the language which the learners comfortably use in their daily interaction. This sociolinguistic phenomenon can be explained by Gile's (1991) Communication Accommodation Theory.

Speech Accommodation Theory upholds that speakers adjust their speech according to, among other factors, the characteristics of the person to whom they are speaking. In classroom setting it is assumed to consider the language of work and the formality of the situation. Teachers know this rule fully well. Contrastingly, majority of the learners find the LOI and learning totally strange to them. The teacher on his part adapts the language of the learners. For a teacher doing this, he succeeds in accommodating his learners by using the learner's MT.

Accommodation of speech in consideration of the communication interlocutor(s) is oftentimes observed in language classrooms especially in multilingual settings. Being the primary provider of language input, teachers adapt this technique for instruction purposes. Considering the diversity of learners, teachers adapt to maximize classroom interaction supported by Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory.

According to Vygotsky (1962), language is the primary tool that an individual uses to connect with others and with the social environment. The interaction that ensues between and among students, teachers and the environment for instance, foster classroom learning. The teacher, as a more knowledgeable other (MKO) provides modeling of the knowledge to be learned and at the same time facilitates the learners' active construction of their own knowledge.

Prior studies outlined below have similar bearing to some extent with the present study thus giving it a solid foundation.

Duff and Polio (cited in Du, 2016) found that some teachers use L2 most of the times while others use most frequently the learners' MT. Moreover, they observed that teachers practice code-switching and that their language choice is influenced by factors which include: the institution's LOI mandate, the ease and convenience of using L1, and the use of L1 to better facilitate students' understanding.

Amadi (2012) found out that most teachers in primary schools in Nigeria strongly favored the employment of code-mixing through translation. Whereas Muraina and Jibril's (2011) findings were more inclined to transitional bilingual education, in which the MOI in the first three years of the children's schooling in all academic subjects is purely the learners' MT and then as learners progress to fourth grade, they are taught using English.

Macaro (2001) also revealed that there is a significant evidence of the practice of code switching by six student teachers. However, between the L1 and the L2 code-switching, the use of L1 was relatively low. They preferably use L2 and this language choice depends greatly on their acquired linguistic competence and language teaching pedagogies. Similarly, Kindayuka and Kiwara (2013) found out that majority of the teacher respondents prefer English

over MT. Although teachers sensed that most students have difficulty understanding English they still prefer to use it because of its economic value in the global market.

Contrastingly, Chimirala (2017) revealed that majority of the teachers in her study used regional languages and some preferred MT. Their language choice is mainly influenced by the effects of language to their learners. The teachers' use of the home and regional languages was mostly observed in explaining concepts and difficult words to facilitate comprehension. Similarly, Liu et al. (2004) revealed that while being cognizant of the importance of English for varied instructional purposes such as giving directions, questioning, teaching language skills, and reviewing, the teachers preferred to use L1 in giving grammar instruction, discussing sensitive content issues, teaching reading and assisting students' understanding. Among the reasons for their use of L1 are better understanding, less time consuming, and that it helps in speaking English.

The truth that the PSTs of this study are oriented to at least three languages, most probably they will shift from one language to another. Their knowledge of these languages provides them the option on what to use in teaching hence the undertaking of this study.

Bongcales' 2016 revealed that multilingual speakers converse mostly in Cebuano. These findings affirm the participants' (Cebuanos) inclination for their use of MT in almost all of their undertakings.

Franklin (cited in Du, 2013) enumerated several factors that teachers identified to have a significant influence in teachers' use of language. The teachers, Franklin disclosed, use language on the following bases: their competence of the target language that boosts their confidence in speaking, the class population, students' reaction when speaking using the target language, learners' ability with due consideration to the struggling students in class, and their physical disposition on a given day they hold classes.

These factors are taken into account for they may be more or less the same factors that PSTs in this study consider to be potential factors in their choice of a language.

Methodology

This study employs a descriptive research design which is most appropriate as it describes a specific educational phenomenon. According to Burns and Grove (201) descriptive research "is designed to provide a picture of a situation as it naturally happens." To acquire a more reliable data, triangulation is employed in this study conducted at Cebu Technological University Daanbantayan Campus in the northernmost tip of Cebu province.

Of the 39 elementary PSTs of CTU Daanbantayan, data were sourced from fourteen purposively selected elementary PSTs i.e one PST for every elementary school of Daanbantayan District 2. The data collection is done through class observation, administration of survey questionnaires and focus group discussion (FGD). An audio recording devise was utilized and the class proceedings were recorded with the permission of the PSTs during the series of class observations. The survey questionnaire consists of 44 items that include the participants' general information, learners' language variety, knowledge of MT, language preference, and reasons for code mixing.

A cascading technique of data collection is done in three phases:

Phase 1: Conducting Classroom Observation. Before the conduct of class observation PSTs were informed about the objectives of the study and the way the observation is carried out. Fourteen PSTs gave their consent thereby commencing the observation. Subsequent transcription of the recording focused on the PSTs' spoken language hence the exclusion of the learners' responses. Transcriptions were color coded to highlight the type of language used i.e. red for English, blue for Filipino and black for Cebuano-Visayan language. The word count technique is used in determining the PSTs' most preferred language.

Phase 2: Administering the Survey Questionnaire. To validate the findings in class observation, survey questionnaires were dispensed to the same PSTs. The researcher-made questionnaires which were pilot-tested underwent revisions. The data were then consolidated and compared with the initial findings.

Phase 3: Holding a Focus Group Discussion (FGD). The same PSTs underwent an FGD. A briefing on speaking in the language they are most comfortable with transpired before the actual FGD for them to be able to fully and clearly express themselves. The interview was conducted by the researcher herself who speaks mostly in English but switches to Cebuano-Visayan to avoid inhibiting the participants. Questions were delivered in English and the PSTs' responses (language use) were mixed. The conversations were again recorded to facilitate the retrieval of answers.

Following the sequence of data gathering, the responses were transcribed and then translated into English and to determine the language preference of elementary PSTs the simple percentage frequency and the weighted mean were used. The formulas are presented respectively.

$P = \frac{f}{n} \times 100$

where,

P is for percentage

f is for frequency of language spoken /used

n is the number of respondents

$$WM = \frac{\Sigma fx}{f}$$

where,

WM is weighted mean

f is frequency of the responses

x is the weight assigned to each response

$\sum fx$ is the summation of the product of frequency and the

weight

Results and Discussion

Most Preferred Language in the MTB – MLE Classroom

Table 1 presents the frequency of language use of 14 PSTs in teaching a particular subject in a particular grade level.

Table 1

Most Used Language in MTB-MLE Classes

Respondents	Subject	Grade Level	Languages						Total Words Spoken
			Cebuano-Visayan		Pilipino		English		
PST 1	MTB	1	1049	93%	0	0%	74	7%	1123
PST 2	MTB	3	682	89%	0	0%	81	11%	763
PST 3	English	1	41	6%	0	0%	665	94%	706
PST 4	English	1	642	88%	0	0%	91	12%	733
PST 5	English	3	872	91%	0	0%	88	9%	960
PST 6	English	5	1297	76%	0	0%	416	24%	1713
PST 7	Filipino	2	41	6%	654	90%	27	4%	722
PST 8	Filipino	5	793	62%	445	35%	41	3%	1279
PST 9	Filipino	5	17	2%	998	97%	15	1%	1030
PST 10	Science	1	829	86%	0	0%	136	14%	965
PST 11	Science	2	398	42%	0	0%	560	58%	958
PST 12	Math	1	1043	86%	0	0%	167	14%	1210

PST 13	Math	3	306	79%	0	0%	83	21%	389
PST 14	Aral Pan	5	4	1%	725	97%	14	2%	743
Total			**8 014**		**2 822**		**2 458**		13 294
Percentage			**60.28%**		**21.23%**		**18.49%**		100%

Findings reveal that Cebuano-Visayan is the most preferred LOI. Majority of the PSTs (60.28%) prefer mostly Cebuano-Visayan over Filipino and English. Filipino which ranks second (21.23%) is dominantly used in teaching Filipino and Araling Panlipunan subjects. English (18.49%) turns out the least preferred language in MTB-MLE classrooms whereas the MT, Cebuano-Visayan is extensively used.

Noticeably, 10 out of 14 PSTs mix Cebuano-Visayan and English languages while the other 4 PSTs mix Filipino, English and Cebuano-Visayan. The former are teaching English, MTB, Math and Science subjects that require either English or MT as the LOI while the latter are handling Filipino and Araling Panlipunan that require Filipino as LOI. Generally, Cebuano-Visayan is used in varying extents by all the PSTs who demonstrate a strong inclination for their MT. It could be because they share the same MT with their learners and it is as well the language of the community. This finding is least expected since the English classes observed outnumber the Filipino and MTB subjects.

The same findings were revealed by both the survey and FGD through which majority of the PSTs gave the same answer. Of the 14 PSTs, 10 were more inclined to use Cebuano-Visayan, 2 prefer Filipino and the other 2 favor English for LOI.

Table 2 shows the PSTs' language preference in teaching as reflected in the survey questionnaire.

Table 2

Language Preference in Teaching

Language Teaching Practices and Belief	Strongly Agree SA (4)	Agree A (3)	Disagree D (2)	Strongly Disagree SD (1)	Weighted Mean	Description
1. I prefer to use the dominant local language in teaching	2	10	2		3	A
2. I code mix when teaching	9	5			3.6	SA
3. I have no difficulty of any language that I use in teaching		8	6		2.6	A
4. I require a specific language from my learners		4	10		2.3	D

#					Mean	
5.	I speak the required medium of instruction	2	5	7	2.6	A
6.	I use the leaner's mother tongue in my teaching to encourage participation	10	4		3.7	SA
7.	I use local language/mother-tongue to explain difficult concepts.	9	5		3.6	SA
8.	I enjoy teaching in local languages	2	11	1	3.1	A
9.	Teaching in mother tongue improves learners' performance	3	11		3.2	A
10.	Teaching in mother tongue helps children to remain in school	1	10	3	2.9	A

Table 2 shows the PSTs' strong preference for the use of MT (Cebuano-Visayan) to explain difficult concepts and encourage learner participation. The data suggest that learners appreciate the use of MT in instruction and the PSTs succeed in reaching out to most of the learners resulting into maximum learner participation.

Furthermore, it can be inferred that learners' participation depends on the LOI. The PSTs choice of employing the learners' MT is the surest way to engage learners in class discussion. In fact, data in item 4 tells that majority of the PSTs allowed their learners to use their most preferred language in class participation. Although half of the PSTs speak the required LOI for a particular subject, the MT still comes out as the most preferred language because they also met some degree of language difficulty. Hence, they employ code-mixing English, Filipino and Cebuano-Visayan in their instruction.

. These findings agree with that of Liu et al.'s (2004) study of Korean EFL teachers who preferred L1 for giving grammar lessons, discussing content issues, and guiding students' comprehension; Amadi's (2012) study which revealed that most teachers in primary schools of Nigeria preferred bilingual code mixing L1 translated to L2; Mahroof's (2015) which reveals the overuse of MT by the majority of teachers; and Bongcales' (2016) study which concludes that Cebuano is the most preferred language of the multilingual leaners in oral discourse.

Being immersed in the training field, PSTs are expected to use the required MOI of a particular subject in a particular grade level. They are bound to follow the rule of LOI. However, this expectation fails. As reflected in Table 1, the English Grade 5 lesson taught by PST number 6 is delivered mostly in Cebuano-Visayan whereas the same English subject in Grade one handled by PST number 3 is dominantly taught in English.

PST 6 who should have delivered his lesson to Grade 5 students in English did it mainly using MT. This PST justifies his language teaching practice saying it facilitates students' understanding. Based on his teaching experiences with them, students show poor comprehension as they could hardly answer his questions in English. In effect, he resorted to

the learners' MT resulting into leaners' active participation. This somehow reflects GangaLakshmi and Naganathan's (2019, p. 277) reflective teaching as a pedagogical tool in "fine-tuning effectiveness of teaching" through "self-analysis" as well as Tung's (2018, p. 399) "integration of reflective practice" for teacher agency and involvement vital for the professional development on a "sustainable basis; whereas PST 3 demonstrated a code-mix of English and Cebuano-Visayan. In stark contrast to PST 6, this PST presented a lesson mainly in English. The use of translation from English to Cebuano was minimal. MT is mostly used to signal transition but English is extensively used in the presentation of the subject matter. This is where perhaps the PST finds no equivalent translation of some terms that are specific to the domain of English grammar.

The classroom discourses of PST 6 and PST 3 project a total contrast to the language of teaching policy. As mentioned, the K to 12 Curriculum mandates that MT must be taught as a subject from K to 3 and that all subjects in K to 3 must be taught in MT. It is precisely this reason that PST 3 translates every utterance in English to Cebuano-Visayan, the learners' MT.

The preference of Cebuano-Visayan by majority of the PSTs is indicative of two implications (1) they are overly exposed to the language which perhaps enable them to be proficient enough and use it with ease and comfort, and (2) they believe that the use of L1 ensures understanding and draws active participation in classroom interaction. The fact that Cebuano-Visayan is the dominant language of the learners, they choose to use it mostly to scaffold instruction which is primarily the concept of Vygotsky's social interaction theory. Their choice of LOI suggests of their learner-centered teaching approach. The two PSTs however justify their inclination for English as it is the language understood by majority of the people around the world. Moreover, they believe that being proficient in English will make them more competitive in the global arena.

Consistent with claims by Walsh (2006), two types of language is generally used in the classroom. The languages used by the PSTs can be classified as pedagogic language and social language. Pedagogic language is used in teaching the subject matter which includes providing language instruction, doing exercises and organizing the class. Ideally, subjects that require Filipino as the language of instruction must use Filipino as the primary language. The topics are likewise delivered in Filipino. The same is true with subjects that require English as the LOI. The mandated LOI of a particular subject is called pedagogic language whereas social language is used in classroom interaction. To engage all the learners in classroom interaction, the teacher has to use the language which learners comfortably use in their daily interaction that is - Cebuano-Visayan. This is confirmed by Krashen's theory of comprehensible input

hypothesis which espouses the principle that the teacher should use a language within the learners' level of understanding. Additionally, the PST's adjusting their social language to match with the learners' way of interacting is supported by Gile's Speech Accommodation theory. The PSTs accommodate their learners by showing solidarity with their learners' language use in class interaction. The PSTs resort to this since classroom interaction almost does not transpire when English is used.

The overall use of Cebuano-Visayan which is considerably high among the PSTs implies extensive exposure if not proficiency of the language to be used as MOI in primary years and learner-centeredness of the teaching approach.

Common Language Difficulties in MTB-MLE Teaching

The extensive use of Cebuano-Visayan as the PSTs MT despite its being the first language (L1) still reflects a certain degree of language difficulty which is expressed through code-mixing. Table 3 reflects the number of code-mixed words used in classroom instruction.

Table 3

Common Language Difficulties in MTB-MLE Classes

Respondents	Subject Taught	Grade Level	Frequency of Content Words				TOTAL
			Nouns	Adjectives	Verbs	Adverbs	
PST 1	MTB	1	20	2	14	2	38
PST 2	MTB	3	19	6	3	2	30
PST 3	English	1	9	5	7	2	23
PST 4	English	1	16	8	11	6	41
PST 5	English	3	20	6	11	3	40
PST 6	English	5	39	11	10	3	63
PST 7	Filipino	2	13	2	5	2	22
PST 8	Filipino	5	15	4	7	2	28
PST 9	Filipino	5	7	2	3	2	14
PST 10	Science	1	36	9	15	4	54
PST 11	Science	2	15	6	8	21	60
PST12	Math	1	13	6	9	2	30
PST 13	Math	3	21	7	5	2	35
PST 14	Aral Pan	5	13	2	3	2	20
	Total		256	76	111	55	498
	Percentage		51.41%	15.26%	22.29%	11.04%	100%

PSTs admit their ease and convenience in using MT in classroom instruction. But they too express their linguistic struggle when talking about a certain topic.

Results of the study show that 256 of the 498 content words (51.41%) are classified as nouns; 111 (22.29%) are verbs; 76 or 15.26% of the content words are adjectives and adverbs at 11.04%. Given the reality that PSTs resort to other languages within or between their utterances signals their difficulty of the language. As revealed, PSTs find more difficulty in translating the English nouns to Cebuano Visayan. This substantial finding is affirmed by Grosjean's Complementarity Principle (Grosjean,1997) which advances that bilinguals though natural translators often have difficulties translating when the domains are specialized. Bilinguals appear to be fluent but their knowledge of two or more languages does not cover all domains of life.

This is true in this study as there are proper nouns that were noted in PSTs' lesson delivery. Examples include *Baptist, Born Again, Earth,* and *Saturn,* among others. Another possible reason for code switching is that the speaker knows the exact term in a certain domain only in one of the languages or that the speaker is unfamiliar with the vocabulary in the given language thus opt to use the other language. Among the other nouns noted in code switching are the most frequently-used words: *example, number, page, board, answer, story, class,* and *row* among others. Usually, these words are found within sentences. Alternatively, all numbers are spoken in English except in Math 1 lesson. Though these nouns have equivalent translation in Cebuano Visayan but they are used readily. It could be inferred thus that English words readily used have become part of the PSTs' L1.

Meanwhile, verbs rank second as a difficult language. Some spoken verbs in English were *start, stand, sit, read, open, pass,* and *listen* among others. These words were mixed within and between sentences of usually either Cebuano-Visayan or English. More often, the PSTs use affixes with the English verbs as in: ***i***-*arrange,* ***gi***-*describe,* ***mag***-*draw,* ***mo***-*answer,* and ***na***-*feel* among others.

The common practice of affixing a Cebuano-Visayan morpheme to English base words (verbs) indicates that the PSTs have difficulty translating the same word to Cebuano-Visayan instead opt to affix L1 affixes.

Correspondingly, adjectives rank third as a difficult language in MTB-MLE classes. In contrast to verbs, all the adjectives except one are in English. The exceptional adjective is the word ***pinaka****honest*. The expression '***pinaka***'- is a Cebuano-Visayan prefix meaning "the most" indicating the superlative degree. This word was used by PST 3 in her MTB subject

about adjectives. Adverbs like *very* and *down* among others however were the least difficult for PSTs based on the number of words used.

Relative to the question of any language difficulty in teaching, majority of the PSTs agree that they struggle for appropriate vocabulary. The evidence of which is their practice of code-mixing. Everybody agrees that they code-mix when teaching for three major reasons: difficulty in explaining the term or concept, lack of vocabulary, and learners' show of poor understanding of the lesson.

Of the 14 cases of lesson episodes, Math Grade 1 is an exception owing to the PST's general use of the mother tongue thereby making it a particular example of the new language in education policy – a Math subject that is taught in the learners' Mother tongue.

The code-mixing strategy employed by all the PSTs serves as a pedagogical tool that helps them out in their language difficulties. The code-mixing practice by PSTs can be confirmed by Auer's preference-related code-switching. The PSTs use a variety of language which is common to both the teacher and the learners. It may be that the teacher starts with English instruction but when the teacher feels that students seem not to respond to the question using L2, PSTs switch to the learners MT. One common strategy for this teacher-initiated code switching is translation. The teacher's L2 instructions are translated into the learner's MT to ensure understanding.

The results point the advantage of being bilinguals. Nevertheless, Atkinson (cited in Mahroof, 2015) has to remind the PSTs that L1 though a pedagogic tool can also be a threat if it is overly used in the teaching of L2. By and large, Cebuano-Visayan as the PSTs' MT is extensively used in classroom discourse. If this would be the case even in English classes then MT loses its value as a pedagogical tool in learning English as L2. Therefore, its use must be selectively and rightfully practiced in classroom instruction.

Factors Affecting Language Preference

Based on a thematic analysis of the PSTs' reasoning of choosing a particular language for teaching, four themes emerged explaining the factors that influence the PSTs language choice in teaching. Reasons for their preferences are summarized in Table 4.

Table 4

Factors Affecting Pre-service Teachers' Language Preference

Themes	Frequency	Rank
Language policy (the required medium of instruction of the government)	1	4th
Status (the global or universal language)	2	3rd

Learners' preference (facilitative of students' understanding and participation)	5	2nd
Speaker's ability (convenient to be used and communication is better expressed)	6	1st

The factors that influence the language choice of PSTs in teaching are: speaker's linguistic ability, learners' preferred language, language' societal status, and language policy. A total of 6 PSTs gave answers relating to the linguistic ability of the speaker, 5 were concerned about their learners' preferred language, 2 chose a language with reference to its social status and 1 prefers the language in compliance with the mandate. Of the four themes, it is speakers' *language ability* that ranks first owing to the 6 PSTs - 4 of whom claimed that they feel most of themselves when using their MT in teaching. They find their MT convenient and easy to use especially when explaining concepts or in elaborating the lesson thereby choosing the language on the basis of their ability. Relative to this reasoning, 2 of the 6 PSTs said they can better express their opinions and can communicate better when using MT.

The PSTs' preference for the language that they are more familiar with for comfort and convenience in teaching suggests that these PSTs have little confidence in their English proficiency. Their acceptance that they have difficulty explaining the subject matter in English indicates their low proficiency level. It could also be inferred that their preference of Cebuano-Visayan is caused by the dominant language in the classroom. Since all their learners are Cebuanos, PSTs are confident using Cebuano-Visayan.

The PSTs' preference for Cebuano-Visayan is supported by Krashen's Comprehensible Input hypothesis. In a language classroom, the teacher is expected to provide the input to model the use of the target language. The mere fact that PSTs admit their difficulty in explaining the lessons in English, giving comprehensible input for them means shifting to their own MT. Eventually, they code-mix from L2 to L1. Initially, they may be speaking the mandated LOI but they switch codes to further explain the concepts and facilitate understanding.

Furthermore, Auer's Participant-Related Code Switching is employed to negotiate the participants' language in terms of the competence of the person who code-switched. The PSTs' strong preference for MT indicates their language proficiency. As they teach using the prescribed MOI, more often, they switch to their MT to elaborate the concepts. This further suggests that they are not proficient enough to articulate their thoughts in the mandated LOI, English. The PSTs conduct of participant-related code-switching is, according to Auer, done to boost the participants' language proficiency in one language, or to adapt to the speaking participants' language preference. Such is the case of the classes handled by the PSTs. Since

they are more proficient in their MT which is the same as their learners' MT, they were more inclined to use Cebuano-Visayan.

Closely related to the teacher's language ability is the learners' preferred language of learning. Interestingly, all the learners in this study speak Cebuano-Visayan. Of the 14 PSTs, 5 believe that using the learners' language is the most accessible way to get the learners actively involved thereby ensuring understanding. And teachers though bound to follow the LOI as a rule bend it in favor for the learners.

The PSTs choice of a language with reference to their co-participants' language preference upholds Krashen's Affective Filter Hypothesis. As they choose to speak the learners' MT, they make everyone feel welcome for the learners can participate in the class discussion using their MT. Participation is increased because the learners' anxiety (caused by the MOI) is decreased.

Likewise, Gile's Accommodation theory confirms the PSTs adjusting their speech to their learners' preferred language as accommodation. It is necessary to accommodate them for they are the co-participants in the teaching-learning process. The PSTs' use of the learners' MT empowers the learners to participate actively in knowledge construction. This explains why PSTs employ code-mixing because naturally there are academic terms that have no equivalent translation in the learners' MT.

Also, Chimirala's (2017) study which contends that when teachers strategize their teaching first in the language chosen by the learners and then in English, comprehension and participation, are ensured.

Contrastingly, the PSTs who chose English as a language of teaching assert that it is a universal language imperative for global competitiveness.

The preference for English as MOI is due to its *international status*. Although the PSTs claim that they are less proficient in it but they stress the value of learning its use for empowerment and advancement. With due consideration of its international acceptability, 2 prefer its use over MT.

Required medium of instruction by the government's language policy ranks the least influential of the factors. This revelation is contrary to what is expected considering majority of PSTs use Cebuano-Visayan in their instruction. It could be inferred that despite their awareness of the language of teaching policy they may still insist on using the language that they are more proficient in so they can elaborate the lesson fully well.

MTB-MLE for Elementary Pre-Service Teachers: A Training Guide

The training module which is conceived based on the expressed needs of the elementary PSTs includes three parts: (1) Overview of the MTB-MLE program and its related literature, (2) Application of the concepts and theories learned, and (3) English enrichment activities. This training guide is doable in a week or two depending on the number of PSTs and their responsiveness to varied activities embedded in this training module which is a useful tool to prepare PSTs for practice teaching. It aims to enable PSTs to: (1) demonstrate understanding of the key concepts of MTB-MLE, (2) prepare lesson demonstrations of MTB as a subject and MT as the medium of instruction, and (3) enhance oral and written proficiency in English language.

This training module however will only be made available upon request for this article needs to adhere to this journal's 7,000-word requirement for length. You may just email the main author, Prof. Tsereyl N. Verdida: tsereylverdida@gmail.com

Conclusion and Pedagogical Implication

Pre-service teachers find MT-Based teaching advantageous for them since they use Cebuano-Visayan with ease in facilitating comprehension and encouraging learner participation. Their strong preference for their MT boosts confidence in classroom instruction as they struggle less with it being the medium. LOI choice is greatly influenced by the PSTs' language ability and background to accommodate all learners by all means even if it meant violating the LOI mandate. The code switching strategy which is employed by all the PSTs enabled them to manage their language difficulties to successfully execute their task.

Such deduction along with the devised training module suggests the following pedagogical implications: first, integration of MTB-MLE training (right before PSTs deployment) in the programs of Teacher Training Institutes' and universities thereby equipping PSTs with the specific set of skills required in handling MTB-MLE classes. Such training will certainly increase proficiency among PSTs like Francisco's (2019) research-based training branded as Research and Extension on the Acquisition Development and Strengthening the Proficiency of the English Language Learners (READ and SPELL) which advanced the teachers' proficiency and "enriched their pedagogical styles" (Franciso 2019); second, PSTs' facility to strategize in tapping their language repertoire in relation to learner accommodation and the LOI policy; 3. responsible use of code-mixing as a pedagogical tool thereby minimizing if not eliminating violation of the LOI policy and threat in L2 acquisition especially in levels where MT is no longer the LOI; and 4. Learners' comprehension, active class participation and independent knowledge construction in all grade levels will be ensured.

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