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Foreword

Welcome to Philippine ESL Journal 2015 edition!

Volume 14, 2015 issue of the Philippine ESL Journal features four research articles that document interesting findings on ESL/EFL classroom and one article on the grammar of Philippine English.

The first article is on ESL reading. Dr. Maria Cequena's paper on "Metacognitive Strategy use: Effects on Metacognitive Awareness, Self-efficacy, Reading Performance and Motivation" documented how students' reading performance is related to metacognitive strategies, self-efficacy, and motivation. The second article on ESL writing by Ms. Roselle Pangilinan focused on how students with higher scores in their argumentative essays had utilized more strategic and appropriate engagement resources. The third article on EFL speaking by Feng Teng and James Wong reports on the findings of their study that applied Speed Speaking as a teaching strategy in a foreign language classroom. The fourth article by Fernand Kevin Dumalay and Gail Inumerable investigated the types of teacher's questions that triggered active interaction in the classroom. The last paper by Teri An Joy Magpale-Jang and Ramsey Ferrer occupied a gap in Philippine English research and discussed its pedagogical implications in the teaching of Philippine English.

The Editorial Board wishes to acknowledge the significant contribution of the pool of reviewers in this issue: Dr. Irish Sioson from Thaksin University, Songkhla, Thailand; Ms. Flora Debora Floris from Petra Christian University, Surabaya, Indonesia; and Dr. Maria B. Cequeña from University of Santo Tomas. Special thanks go to Dr. Andrew Bernardo for his assistance in facilitating the review process and in deciding which papers get accepted in this issue.

I would like to thank Dr. Carlo Magno, my very good friend and outgoing Chief Editor; Dr. John Adamson, ELE Managing Editor and Paul Silmaro for helping me with my questions and concerns. My gratitude also goes to my former student and now a colleague, Ms. Roselle Pangilinan, for accepting the role of Copy Editor for PESLJ.

Special thanks also go to Dr. Elaine Espindola, Dr. Francis Dumanig, Dr, Irish Chan Sioson, and Dr. Arianne Macalinga Borlongan for having accepted my invitation to be part of the Editorial Board.

The Editorial Board of Philippine ESL Journal hopes that this issue will contribute to a better understanding of the different areas of language teaching, linguistics, and ESL learning.

Leah Espada Gustilo, Ph.D.

Chief Editor

Philippine ESL Journal

Associate Professor

Department of English and Applied Linguistics

De La Salle University, Manila

Metacognitive Strategy Use: Effects on Metacognitive Awareness, Self-efficacy, Reading Performance and Motivation

Maria B. Cequena
University of Santo Tomas
(Nery_555@yahoo.com)

Maria B. Cequeña is a faculty in the Department of English at the University of Santo Tomas, Manila. She holds a Ph.D. in Reading Education from UP Diliman and a Master of Arts (MA) in English from Ateneo De Manila University. She is also an author and an editorial consultant of Trinitas Publishing, Inc. She has presented papers on metacognition and reading and web-based writing in local and international conferences. Her articles on metacognition and comprehension appear in the *Reading Association of the Philippines (RAP) journal* and in *Redesigning Pedagogy: Voices of Practitioners* as a book chapter published by Pearson Education South Asia in Singapore.

Abstract

The significance of reading in learning other disciplines has prompted educators worldwide to conduct research on how best to develop comprehension skills. This quasi-experiment investigated the impact of metacognitive strategies, on freshman high school students' metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, reading performance and motivation. The respondents comprised four heterogeneous classes, 168 freshman students from two schools. Two classes from each school were taught Philippine Literature using metacognitive strategies and the other two classes, using conventional method. The treatment period covered ten weeks with two meetings per week and each meeting lasted for one hour. Both groups were given pretests and posttests of standardized and researcher-made reading tests, Self-efficacy Inventory (SEI), Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI), and A Rhody Secondary Reading Attitude Assessment (RSRAA). The results of researcher-made reading test revealed that the experimental groups performed significantly better compared with the control groups (F-value of 34.93 at p<.001). However, the CEM standardized test revealed opposite findings as measured by the ANCOVA (F-value of 13.27 at p =.007). Finally, the findings showed a significant relationship between reading performance and self-efficacy and between self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness. This research provides an important direction to language teachers in their delivery of instruction for optimum leaning.

Keywords: metacognition, reading performance, motivation

Introduction

Reading is a well-researched topic in second language teaching. Educators' interest in the field may have sprung from its significant role in learning. As what Stevens, Slavin and Farnish (1991) said that reading is the foundation of academic successes in the future for it is a vital tool in learning all disciplines. Through reading, the learner is able to "bring meaning to the printed page" (Walcut,1967,

p.365).Understanding text meaning is a cognitive process of decoding symbols (Gough, 1972, cited in Kavanagh & Mattingley, 1972) and making sense of them through their existing schema or network of knowledge (Rumelhart, 1980, in Spiro et al., 1980). This decoding process is at first laborious for young learners, however as their cognitive faculties develop through formal training and experience, their decoding becomes automatized and meaning-making facilitated (La Berge & Samuel, 1974). That explains Al-Issa (2006) and Hudson (2007's claim cited in Cequena et.al. (2013) that topic familiarity affects the learner's comprehension.

With the complexity of the reading process, several studies investigated the factors that contribute to reading achievement. In most studies, metacognition plays a significant role in developing students' reading skills (Boulware-Gooden, Carreker, Thornhill, & Joshi, 2007;Ee, Chang & Tan 2004; Beckman, 2002; Serran, 2002; Borromeo, 1998; Miguel, 1996; Fan, 1994;   Barnette ,1988; Caverly, et al.,1995; Parcon ,1995).

Metacognition, as defined by Flavell (1979), is thinking about thinking. Metacognition consists of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive experiences of regulation. Metacognitive knowledge is further subdivided into three categories such as knowledge of person, task, and strategy. The person category refers to one's beliefs of himself and other people as cognitive processors. The task category includes the knowledge about the nature of the task as well as the processing demands required from the learner. Finally, the strategy category refers to the processes (strategies) which are likely to be effective in achieving goals in any cognitive undertaking.   Metacognitive experiences, on the other hand, involve highly conscious thinking that requires planning and evaluation. Furthermore, it requires the use of metacognitive strategies and regulation, aimed at making and monitoring cognitive progress (Flavell, 1979).

Moreover, Baker and Brown (1984) and Carell (1989) state that metacognition requires two sets of related skills. First is understanding what skills, strategies and resources a task requires (knowledge of task, skills and strategies) like finding main ideas, rehearsing information, forming association or images, using memory techniques, organizing material, taking notes or underlining and using test-taking techniques. Second is the knowledge on how and when to use these skills and strategies to ensure the task is completed successfully (e.g. monitoring on what strategies will work best for the completion of a reading task).Better readers have an enhanced metacognitive awareness of their own use of strategies, which in turn leads to greater reading ability and proficiency (Baker & Brown,1984; Barnette, 1988;Ee et al.; 2004; Schunk & Rice, 1985, Lau & Chan, 2003).

Metacognitive awareness is synonymous to self-regulation or one's knowledge of reading strategies that work best for comprehension (Baker & Brown, 1984).Self-regulation can be developed through modeling following the three phases: forethought, performance control and self-reflection. Forethought is simply a cognitive activity done prior to a reading task like goal setting and modeling whereas performance control is employed during reading like the use of learning strategies and feedback. Lastly, self-reflection is done after a reading performance, i.e. evaluation of their goal progress and adjusting strategies when necessary. Based on Zimmerman's framework, the learner can readily develop self-regulation in

reading through emulating a model (may be a teacher) in his/her goal setting strategy, use of learning strategies and evaluation of goal progress (Zimmerman,1997 cited in Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007).

Zhang (2001) investigated the Chinese learners' metacognitive knowledge or awareness of strategies and his findings indicated a close link between strategy use and reading proficiency. Results of his study also show a big discrepancy between high achievers and low achievers in their use of metacognitive strategies in which high achievers reported to be more aware of their strategy use compared to that of low achievers. Low achievers more often used lower level metacognitive strategies like rereading sentence and paragraph and using dictionary compared to high achievers who utilized higher-level metacognitive strategies such as anticipating text content and monitoring comprehension.

Moreover, some studies show how reading ability can be honed by using metacognitive strategies. Caverly et al. (1995) experimented on the effect of PLAN on a sixth grade class of low and average readers in a small-rural U.S. community. PLAN is a reading strategy with four distinct steps: (1) predicting the content structure of the text by mapping the author's ideas; (2) locating known and unknown information to enable students to relate prior knowledge to the author's ideas; (3) adding words or short phrases to their map to explain the concepts marked with questions marks; and (4) noting their new understanding by reconstructing the map if their predictions do not match the author's ideas. The experimenters provided both groups reading instruction strategies with their social studies textbooks two days a week and literature-based program for other three days. The low-level readers were given guided and independent practice of PLAN five days a week during their content mastery time. The average-level readers went to other mastery classes. This program continued for twelve weeks. After the treatment period, large differences between the low-level readers and average readers' mean scores were found, which were attributed to the application of PLAN, coupled with opportunities for guided and independent practice.

Parcon (1995) investigated the effectiveness of advance organizers in developing metacognitive skills and reading comprehension of technological texts of the 120 college freshmen with middle average IQ. She found out that the subjects (experimental group) who took the test with advance organizers like concept map performed markedly better than those who did not use advance organizers. In addition, Borromeo (1998) experimented on the effects of metacognitive learning strategies (MCLS) on third year high school students' reading comprehension. Findings revealed that students taught using MCLS (both high and low ability classes) performed better in reading than their peers taught without MCLS.

Furthermore, Beckman (2002) stressed that many students' ability to learn has been increased through deliberate teaching of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and that direct instruction of these strategies is essential for students with learning problems. Similarly, Serran (2002), in her comparative study, discovered that metacognitive strategies such as reciprocal teaching, buddy journals, and think aloud equally yielded significant improvements on the reading comprehension of

urban, middle-class, and poor, ethnically mixed Black and Hispanic eight graders who scored 1 to 4 years below their grade level on the McGraw-Hill Placement Test.

Although a plethora of studies have established the efficacy of metacognitive strategies on students' reading comprehension skills, Yuko's (2009) findings revealed otherwise that no correlation exists between students' metacognitive strategy use and their grades (results of comprehension exams and quizzes) in reading. In a similar vein, Manderville's (2012) quasi-experimental study yielded no significant difference in the reading comprehension of control group (traditional classroom) and treatment group who was taught metacognitive strategies such as think-aloud, self-questioning and question and answer relationship. However, "the findings indicated a significant difference in the reading comprehension of students engaged in question-answer relationship and self-questioning strategies but not for think-aloud" (p.3).

While several studies show that metacognitive strategies develop students' reading abilities, some research reveal the facilitative effects of reading motivation and self-efficacy on the development of reading skills. Motivation stimulates reading behavior. A more highly motivated reader spends more time in reading, exerts much effort and is more engaged in full comprehension than a less motivated reader (Guthrie & Wigfield,1997). Furthermore, social motivation to reading (children's and community activities) also increases amount of reading. Marrow (1996) and Wentzel (1999) found out that children who like to share books with peers and participate responsibly in a community of learners by completing needed tasks are likely to be intrinsically motivated readers. Lau and Chau (2003) and Unrau and Schlackman (2006) indicated that intrinsic motivation aids in the development of reading skills.

As reading motivation increases among learners who continuously get satisfied with reading outcomes (Matthewson, 2000 cited in Ruddell & Unrau, 2004), self-efficacy is developed (Bandura,1986). Self-efficacy refers to "a person's judgment, of his or her capability to perform the skills, action, or persistence required for the given outcome" (Bandura, 1994,p. 69). It also refers to the "personal belief that the students have about their ability to succeed at a particular task" (McCabe & Margolis, 2001, p.46). Students with low self-efficacy manifest physiological or emotional symptoms like anxiety, nervousness, rapid heart rate, and sweating. These symptoms often occur when they are faced with difficult or challenging tasks, thereby affecting their performance negatively. Conversely, the learners with high self-efficacy persevere at challenging tasks (Bandura, 1994). Hence, perceived self-worth strongly affects the degree to which the student becomes an effective learner in the instructional setting (Covington,1992; Schunk, 2003; Zimmerman, 2000; Schunk & Zimmerman, 2007).

Pintrich and De Groot (1990) cited in Tuckman (1999), in a correlational study of 7th graders' school achievement, identified the following variables as predictive of reading achievement: (1) self-efficacy, (2) intrinsic value, (3) test anxiety, (4) strategy use, and (5) self-regulation. Tuckman (1993) did a similar study, with college students as respondents. Findings of his study revealed three factors as predictive of achievement: (1) an attitude factor representing self-efficacy; (2) a drive factor, representing self-reported grade importance, and two behavioral measures that

reflected grade importance; (3) a factor that primarily represented ability (i.e. aptitude and achievement test scores), but also included cognitive strategy.

Furthermore, McCabe and Margolis (2001) stressed that students with high self-efficacy believe that even if they exert only a modest effort, they will learn to read unlike those with low self-efficacy, who believe that despite their considerable effort, they cannot learn to read. Although several studies indicated that self-efficacy influences reading achievement, Gibson (n.d.) found out a weak positive correlation between reading self-efficacy and reading proficiency in his study of the first grade students.

Different from the aforementioned studies which investigated the effects of metacognitive strategies, motivation and self-efficacy on reading ability, this research study focused on the effects of direct instruction of metacognitive strategies such as Caverly, Mandeville & Nicholson's (1995) PLAN (Predict, Locate, Add and Note) and Vacca &Vacca's, (2001) think aloud on metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, reading motivation and comprehension. The study also attempted to find out whether or not correlations exist among these variables.

Statement of the Problem

This study investigated the effects of metacognitive strategies on the freshman high school students' metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, reading performance and reading motivation. Specifically, the study sought answers to the following questions:

1. Is there a significant difference in the metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, reading performance and reading motivation of freshman high school students before and after the teaching of metacognitive strategies?
2. How do the experimental and control classes differ in four variables after the treatment period?
3. What level of metacognitive strategy use and metacognitive awareness are evidenced by the selected freshman high school students?
4. How do teacher and student respondents perceive the effectiveness of metacognitive strategies instruction in teaching Philippine literature in the areas of reading performance, reading motivation and self-efficacy?
5. Is there a significant relationship between and among metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, reading performance and reading motivation?

Methodology

Research Design

This quasi-experiment investigated the impact of the metacognitive strategies such as think aloud and PLAN (predict, locate, add and note) on the freshman high school students' metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, reading performance and reading motivation. PLAN is a graphic organizer that helps students summarize the content of a reading selection through making predictions, locating concepts from texts, adding new information to their concept map, and noting their new understanding. Think aloud, on the other hand, is a technique wherein the reader verbalizes his thoughts during reading. Think aloud activities include verbalizing a

confusing point, making predictions, linking new information to prior knowledge, visualizing the events of a text read, and monitoring strategy use while reading (Vacca&Vacca, 2001).

The treatment period covered ten weeks with two meetings per week and each meeting lasting for one hour with a total of twenty (20) hours. Each lesson was discussed for two days.

Participants

The respondents composed of four heterogeneous classes with 168 freshman high school students from two schools, one private and one public. Two experimental classes from School A(public) with 45 students, 16 males and 29 females, and School B (private)with 39 students, 16 males and 23 females, were taught Philippine Literature using metacognitive strategies. However, two control classes from School A with 45 students, 16 males and 29 females, and School B with 39, 19 males and 20 females were taught using the conventional method. Their ages ranged from 12-14 years old.

Control Class and Experimental Class from School A were taught by two teachers with very satisfactory academic qualifications, teaching performance and years of experience. Teacher A who taught the experimental group is a Bachelor of Science in Secondary Education, major in English with some units in Master of Arts in English, while Teacher B, who handled the control group, is also an education graduate, major in English with some units in Master of Arts, major in Educational Management. Both were experienced teachers handling freshman English for the past 10 years.

In the private school setting (School B), control and experimental classes were also handled by two language teachers who were matched in terms of qualifications and expertise. Both teachers are graduates of Bachelor in Secondary Education, major in English from reputable institutions and they completed their Master of Arts, major in English from a top university. They had been teaching English for 13 years during the time the study was conducted with both outstanding rating in their teaching performance as evaluated by their chair, peers and students.

All possible intervening variables such as teacher and environmental factors that might affect the results were minimized. However, only the sectioning of students could not be controlled. Control classes' mean scores in pre-tests using Standardized Reading Test and teacher-made reading test were a little higher than that of Experimental Classes. That is why Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was used as a statistical tool to eliminate differences of entry points in reading comprehension.

Research Instruments

The study utilized the following instruments:

Standardized Reading Test was developed by the Center for Educational Measurement which yields scores for vocabulary, comprehension, point of view, and study skills.

Researcher-made reading test comprises of 40 items of multiple choice type which measures students' understanding of vocabulary, noting details, making

inferences, summarizing, and deducing themes. Reading selections vary from poetry to excerpts from short story, drama and essay. A sample item includes: (1) What does valedictory mean? a. greeting, b. farewell, c. warning, d. signal. This reading test was evaluated by two language experts- one is an M.A. English who is a textbook author, evaluator and consultant, and the other is a Ph.D. English who is a textbook evaluator, too. The test items were modified according the recommendations of language experts. Some recommendations include: (1) use simple words suitable to the level of students; (2) replace difficult selections; (3) add two more questions for each text. After the modifications done, the revised reading test was pilot tested to two sections of freshman high school students (one section from a public school and another one from a private school). Then, item analysis was done. From the results of the item analysis, some poor and very difficult items were discarded and the test was again modified. This modified test consisting of 50 items was again administered to one section. The results of the item analysis refined further the reading test with only 40 items left after discarding some easy and difficult questions.

Mokhtari and Reichard's (2002) Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory(MARSI) measures three categories of reading strategies such as global, problem-solving and support reading strategies. Sample items for each category are as follows: Global reading strategy: "*I have a purpose in mind;*" Problem-solving strategy: *I read slowly but carefully to be sure what I'm reading;*" and Supporting strategy: *I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.*"

Reader's Self-Efficacy Inventory is a researcher-made questionnaire checklist which aims to determine the respondents' judgment of their reading abilities. The respondents were made to rate their abilities as readers by checking the appropriate scale from 1 to 5 with 5 as always and 1 as never. This Sample item includes, "*I can identify the main idea of the text I read.*" This self-efficacy inventory was evaluated by three language experts who also evaluated the modules prepared for this research. Some items were modified to make their meaning clear for the students as suggested by the evaluators. For instance, the original item, "*I can monitor my comprehension while reading,*" was changed to "*I can assess my understanding of the selection while reading.*"

Tullock-Rhody and Estill's (1980) **A Rhody Secondary Reading Attitude Assessment** (RSRAA) assesses the students' interest in reading, strengths, weaknesses, and attitudes toward reading. Sample item includes: "*You like to have a book whenever you have free time.*"

Interview protocol aims at determining the respondents' perception on the effectiveness of the metacognitive strategies on the variables tested in this study. Sample question includes, "*What activities helped you the most in recalling important information and in summarizing the text?*"

Students' portfolio comprises of their journals, letters and reflections that reflect metacognitive activity.

Modules comprise of literary and expository texts, lesson plans and worksheets.

Procedure

The quasi-experiment commenced upon the approval of the Principals of two schools. Two teachers of similar educational qualifications and experience taught the experimental groups and the other two teachers with similar expertise and years of teaching experience taught the control groups. Prior to the treatment period, the researcher gave an orientation to experimental teachers of two schools who participated in this study. The orientation was divided into three parts: lecture on metacognition and metacognitive strategies including researches conducted regarding its efficacy; demonstration teaching to illustrate how to teach a literary text using metacognitive strategies such as think aloud and PLAN; and workshop to find out whether the metacognitive strategies could already be executed by the English teachers in their own classrooms. After the workshop, there was an open forum to correct misconceptions and to clarify issues.

Aside from the orientation, the researcher regularly visited the experimental teachers after completing the lessons for every genre to discuss and model some reading strategies appropriate for each lesson like story grammar considering the elements of a short story. On the other hand, control teachers were given only a whole day orientation of topics to be covered and strategies to be used mostly Socratic Method and practice exercises which were explicitly stated in all lesson plans, reading materials, and worksheets provided to them.

Aside from metacognitive strategy training, these experimental teachers were also provided with a complete set of lesson plans along with reading texts and worksheets evaluated by three language experts (two of them are holding a doctorate degree in Language Teaching and both serving as officers in the Department of Education of the country while the other evaluator is an MA in Language and Literature, a textbook author and a consultant).

Prior to the introduction of the metacognitive strategies to the participants, the teacher participant modeled these strategies to the class and gave them opportunities for practice using the strategies. After every lesson, the students were made to evaluate whether the strategies used aid in understanding the meaning of the text.

Lesson presentation in experimental classes, utilizing metacognitive strategies, started with the motivation in which the teacher activated prior knowledge of the students. Then, vocabulary exercise was given to aid the students in their guided reading of the selection. Next, PLAN was introduced whereby the students were encouraged to predict possible content based on the title of fiction, poem, or any literary text under study in which students were given the opportunity to think aloud and express their ideas. They were given worksheets like concept

map for essay, story grammar and semantic map for a short story. Then, they were prompted to write down their predictions and put question marks before ideas which they were in doubt. As they read the first few paragraphs of the text, they were asked to locate ideas and write them down in the story grammar/concept map. Next, they were instructed to read the succeeding pages and to add ideas or to modify their story grammar/ concept web. After reading the selection, they noted whether their written output represented the main points of the selection. Some note activities prepared for each lesson include writing summaries and journals which ranged from letters to simple reflections.

The PLAN exercises prepared for these Philippine Literature modules were based from Caverly, Mandeville and Nicholson's concept of PLAN as used in informational text, however, the researcher modified it to suit the strategy for short stories and poetry.

However, the control groups were taught using the conventional method in which class session started with a motivation like asking the class what it is like to be a hero, followed by lesson presentation, discussion that is usually question and answer, and ended with a synthesis of the lesson, then a practice exercise or a quiz.

To monitor both control and experimental classes' reading performance as well as their teachers' use of metacognitive strategies in experimental groups and conventional method in control groups, a research assistant was tasked to observe these four classes throughout the duration of the treatment period. Some sessions were video recorded in which transcripts of teacher and student discourses were noted to confirm teachers' use of specified teaching strategies for both groups.

After completing the ten week- treatment period, the experimental and control groups were given pretests and posttests of the following instruments: CEM Standardized Reading Test, SEI, MARSI, RSRAA, and researcher-made Reading Test.

A day after the post tests, the researcher conducted a semi-structured group interview with the experimental group teachers as well as with15 participants in each experimental class to determine the impact of metacognitive strategy use on the four variables identified in the study. The focus group interviews were video recorded and transcribed in support to study's results.

Data Analysis Procedure

To interpret the data that were collected in this study, the following statistical techniques were utilized.

1. **Percentage** was used to determine the respondents' demographic profile.
2. **Average Weighted Mean** was utilized to get the mean differences of pretests and post test scores of the respondents' metacognitive awareness, reading motivation, and self-efficacy. The average weighted mean was used as data for t-test of variance.
3. The **t-test paired samples** was used to determine whether or not a significant difference occurs in the pretest and post test scores in the areas of reading performance, metacognitive awareness, reading motivation and self-efficacy.

T-test for independent samples was used to compare the performance of experimental and control classes in the four variables under study. **Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA)** procedure removed pre-existing differences between experimental and control classes.

4. The **Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient** (*r*) was used to test the level of significant relationship of variables under study such as reading motivation, self-efficacy, metacognitive awareness, and reading performance.

Results

1. Experimental Classes' Performance in four variables

Table 1 shows a significant difference in the pretest and posttest scores of the teacher-made reading test based on the paired samples *t-test* of 7.55 at *p*<.001. However, there is no significant difference in the metcognitive awareness, reading performance from CEM standardized reading results, reading motivation and self-efficacy of selected freshman high school students before and after the teaching of metacognitive strategies as indicated by the results of t-statistic.

Table 1
Comparison of the Pretests and Posttests of Experimental Classes

Variables	Mean	N	Standard Deviation	Paired Samples Test	df	Sig (2-tailed)
1. Metacognitive Awareness						
Pretest	3.21	84	0.52	1.13	83	0.26
Posttest	3.30	84	0.42			
2. Self-Efficacy Inventory (SEI)						
Pretest	3.16	84	0.51	1.89	83	0.06
Posttest	3.29	84	0.44			
3. Reading Performance Researcher-made reading test	20	80	5.92	7.55	79	3.8×10^{-11}
Pretest	25.35	80	5.63			(<.001)
Posttest						
CEM	34.35	84	8.36			

Standardized Reading Test Pretest Posttest	36.06	84	8.36	1.46	83	0.15
4. Reading Motivation (RSRAA) Pretest						
Posttest	3.11	84	0.36	0.36	83	0.72
	3.13	84	0.36			

2. Comparison of experimental and control classes' performance in four variables

Table 2 shows no significant difference in the metacognitive awareness, reading motivation and self-efficacy of freshman high school students who were explicitly taught metacognitive strategies, and those who underwent the regular literature program as indicated in the results of the t-statistic. It is only on reading performance that a significant difference occurred between the experimental and control groups. The results of researcher-made reading test revealed that the experimental groups performed significantly better compared with the control groups (F-value of 34.93 at p<.001). However, the CEM standardized revealed opposite findings as measured by the ANCOVA (F-value of 13.27 at p =.007).

Table 2
Comparison of the Pretests and Posttests if Experimental and Control Classes

Variables/Groups	Mean	N	Std Deviation	Paired Samples-test	df	Sig (2-tailed)	ANCOVA	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig (2-tailed)
1. Metacognitive Awareness (MARSI)												
Experimental groups	3.21	84	0.52	1.13	83	0.03	Source:					
Pretest	3.30	84	0.42				Between					
Posttest							groups	0.24	1	0.24		
	3.39	84	0.50								0.86	0.36
Control groups	3.37	84	0.62	-	83	0.83	Within	45.98	165	0.28		
Pretest				0.22			groups					
Posttest												
2. Self-efficacy Inventory (SEI)												
Experimental groups	3.16	84	0.51	1.89	83	0.06	Source:					
Pretest	3.29	84	0.44				Betwee	1.10	1	1.10		

Variable	Mean	N	SD	t	df	p	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Posttest							n groups				3.74	0.06
Control groups												
Pretest	3.40	84	0.51	0.64	83	0.52	Within groups	48.43	165	0.29		
Posttest	3.46	84	0.62									

3. Reading Performance

Researcher-made reading test

Experimental groups

Variable	Mean	N	SD	t	df	p	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Pretest	20.00	80	5.92	7.55	79	3.8×10^{-11}	Source between groups	1072.46	1	1072.46	34.93	2.06×10^{-8}
Posttest	25.35	80	5.64						157	30.70		
Control groups	35											
Pretest		80	5.81	24.36	79		Within groups	4820.19				
Posttest		80	6.99	22.15		0.0014						
	24.36											

CEM Standardized Reading Test

Experimental groups

Variable	Mean	N	SD	t	df	p	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
	22.15	84	8.36						1			
Pretest		84	8.86	1.46	83	0.15			165	1515.57	13.27	0.007
Posttest		84	12.63		83		Source between groups	1515.57		114.22		
Control groups	34.35	84	12.36	1.13		0.26						
Pretest	36.06						within groups	18846.39				
Posttest	39.10											
	41.57											

4. Reading motivation (RSRAA)

Experimental groups

Variable	Mean	N	SD	t	df	p	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Pretest	3.11	84	0.36	0.36	83	0.72	Source Between groups	0.21	1	0.21	1.70	0.20
Posttest	3.13	84	0.36									
Control groups	2.99							20.14	165	0.12		
Pretest	3.18	84	0.35	4.22	83	0.00006	within groups					
Posttest		84	0.34									

3. Experimental classes' level of metacognitive strategy use and metacognitive awareness

The Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSI) results in Table 2 indicates that the respondents utilized problem-solving reading strategies in

which they went back on track when they lost concentration, read slowly for understanding, paid close attention to their reading, and reread to increase understanding when text became difficult. Some of the reading strategies that they also used which obtained high mean scores include having a purpose when reading, activating prior knowledge, checking if guesses were right or wrong, and taking down notes as aid for better understanding of what they read.

Table 3
Level of Metacognitive Awareness of Experimental Classes

Indicators	Types of Reading Strategies	Weighted Mean	Rank
1. I have a purpose in mind when I read.	Global reading strategy	3.67	6
2. I take notes while reading to help me understand what I read.	Global reading strategy	3.50	9
3. I think about what I know to help me understand what I read.	Global reading strategy	3.64	7
4. I preview the text to see what it is about before reading it.	Global reading strategy	3.30	15
5. When text becomes difficult, I read aloud to help me understand what I read	Supporting reading strategy	3.10	23
6. I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text	Supporting reading strategy	3.08	24
7. I think about whether the content of the text fits my reading purpose	Global reading strategy	3.38	11.5
8. I read slowly but carefully to be sure that I understand what I'm reading	Problem-solving strategy	3.92	2.5
9. I discuss what I read with others to check my understanding	Supporting reading strategy	3.05	26
10. I skim the text first by noting characteristics like length and organization	Global reading strategy	3.06	25
11. I try to get back on track when I lose concentration	Problem-solving reading strategy	4.04	1
12. I underline or circle information in the text to help me remember it.	Supporting reading strategy	3.0	28
13. I adjust my reading speed according to what I'm reading.	Problem-solving reading strategy	3.27	16
14. I use reference materials such as dictionaries to help me understand what I read	Supporting reading strategy	3.21	20

15. When text becomes difficult, I pay close attention to what I'm reading.	Problem-solving reading strategy	3.92	2.5
16. I use tables, figures and pictures in text to increase my understanding.	Global reading strategy	3.04	27
17. I stop from time to time and think about what I'm reading.	Problem-solving reading strategy	3.25	17.5
18. I use context clues to help me better understand what I'm reading.	Global reading strategy	3.25	17.5
19. I paraphrase or (restate in my own words) to better understand what I read.	Supporting reading strategy	3.69	5
20. I try to picture or visualize information to help remember what I read.	Problem-solving reading strategy	3.18	21
21. I use typographical aids like boldface and italics to identify key information.	Global reading strategy	2.87	29
22. I critically analyze and evaluate the information presented in the text.	Global reading strategy	3.12	22
23. I go back and forth in the text to find relationships among ideas in it.	Supporting reading strategy	3.32	14
24. I check my understanding when I come across conflicting information.	Global reading strategy	3.38	11.5
25. I try to guess what the material is about when I read.	Global reading strategy	3.44	10
26. When text becomes difficult, I reread to increase my understanding.	Problem-solving reading strategy	3.73	4
27. I ask myself questions I like to have answered in the text.	Supporting reading strategy	3.25	17.5
28. I check if my guesses about the text are right or wrong.	Global reading strategy	3.62	8
29. I try to guess the meaning of unknown words or phrases.	Problem-solving reading strategy	3.36	13

Table 4 reveals that experimental classes used problem-solving reading strategies most in getting text meaning. This implies that majority of the students were not yet fluent readers who could readily understand whatever they read. Their reading is focused more on solving their reading difficulty by reading slowly, rereading, and paying close attention to words.

The students' reading performance measured by the CEM standardized reading test show that metacognitive strategies think aloud and PLAN had an effect on scanning (noting details), as indicated in Table 5. Though other cognitive skills

such as vocabulary, comprehension and study aids did not reflect significant difference, experimental classes' performance in these areas also increased.

Table 4
Mean of Reading Strategies Inventory of Experimental Classes based on MARSI Results

Global Reading Strategies	Problem-Solving Reading Strategies	Supporting Reading Strategies
3.25	3.58	3.24

Table 5
Comparative Results of the Pretest and Posttest of Experimental Classes' Cognitive Skills

Cognitive Skills	Mean Posttest/Standard Deviation	Mean Pre-test/Standard Deviation	Mean difference	Df	t-computed value	t-tabulated value at p=.05
Scanning	43.99 (16.02)	52.32 (20.11)	8.33	83	2.97*	1.96
Vocabulary	34.16 (10.20)	35.45 (11.74)	1.30	83	0.75	1.96
Points of View	47.50 (22.49)	45.23 (22.41)	2.27	83	-0.65	1.96
Comprehension	28.10 (8.16)	28.19 (7.35)	0.10	83	0.08	1.96
Study Aids	36.24 (15.83)	37.20 (14.65)	0.96	83	0.41	1.96

* significant at 0.5 level

Table 6 indicates that think aloud and PLAN had a positive effect on the experimental classes' self-efficacy as readers. Results reveal that the respondents can usually remember information from their readings; can identify the main idea sometimes; can usually formulate conclusion from their readings; and are sometimes aware of what reading strategies to use to make sense of what they read. These findings are perhaps the results of the experimental classes' exercises on semantic maps, story grammar, making predictions, and think aloud and summarizing narratives or expository texts during the treatment period.

Table 6
Level of Experimental Classes' Self-Efficacy as Readers

Indicators	Weighted Mean	Interpretation
1. I can readily remember information from any readings.	3.54	Usually
2. I can formulate conclusion from what I	3.50	Usually

	read.		
3.	I can readily evaluate which strategies work best that aid in my understanding of the text.	3.48	Sometimes
4.	I can relate my readings to my previous knowledge.	3.46	Sometimes
5.	I can identify the theme or main idea of what I read.	3.40	Sometimes
6.	I can predict outcomes from the given details and my predictions are generally close to the meaning of the text.	3.33	Sometimes
7.	I can see the relevance of the text to my experiences	3.33	Sometimes
8.	I can assess my understanding while reading. I know when problem arises in my comprehension of a text and the reason for comprehension failure.	3.25	Sometimes
9.	I can take down notes from the text	3.24	Sometimes
10.	I can outline and organize important points in any reading passage.	3.24	Sometimes
11.	I can state in my own words what the author says in the text	3.20	Sometimes
12.	I pose questions while reading which helps me comprehend what I read.	3.18	Sometimes
13.	I can readily understand what I read because I can identify the meaning of unfamiliar words.	3.15	Sometimes
14.	I can readily interpret figures of speech like metaphor or symbol used in the reading passage.	31.5	Sometimes
15.	I can verbalize my thoughts in trying to connect to the writer's indented meaning.	31.0	Sometimes

4. Students' journals reflective of metacognitive awareness

Students' journals reflect their metacognitive awareness. Excerpts from students' journals reflecting metacognitive awareness are as follows:

Student A: "*The essay is interesting and beautiful. Last year, I heard that Carlo Angelo Nunez died, we were in Kid conference in San Beda Alabang. But when I read this essay, I was really amazed. Carlo's dreams came true. For me, he is a good hero.*"

Student's journal entry is an evaluation of the reading text in relation to life, hence, metacognitive awareness is evident in his thought.

*"While reading this selection, I felt guilty and ashamed because I never help Gawad Kalinga (*a non-government organization which provides housing for the homeless and education for the less fortunate*) kids unlike what the other kids are doing. I was so touched by the kindness and generosity of what the other kids have shown to the less fortunate. I appreciate the project of Gawad Kalinga that can help the less fortunate families*

This entry reflects student's metacognitive awareness on what constitutes kindness and charity.

Another student reveals metacognitive awareness in his reflection below on what he wrote in his letter to Pule (a character in the short story read) and why he wrote such.

"In the letter I wrote to Pule or ApolinarioMabini, I focused on his being a paralytic, because even though he was crippled, he did not lose his faith, instead he wrote a poem, which improved the prison's life."

5. **Experimental teachers' and students' perception of the metacognitive strategies' effectiveness on developing students' reading performance, motivation and self-efficacy as readers**

To find out the perception of the teacher and student respondents regarding the effectiveness of metacognitive strategies such as think aloud and PLAN, one-on-one interview with the English teachers who handled experimental classes and focus group interview with fifteen students in School A (public) and twenty-five students in School B (private) were conducted. Results indicated that both teachers and students perceived that the metacognitive strategies such as think aloud and PLAN had a positive effect on students' reading performance, motivation and self-efficacy.

Experimental teachers strongly agreed that metacognitive strategies developed reading skills such as making predictions, noting details, summarizing, getting main idea, formulating judgment and writing skills. The strategies also encouraged maximum participation among students during discussion, improved reading interest and self-efficacy. An English faculty from School A said that during discussion, students really enjoyed the exercise on thinking aloud while making predictions about the possible story line of a fictional narrative or possible content of an expository text. They showed interest in reading most of the lessons. However, she had difficulty drawing responses from her class especially when asked to relate the lesson to their personal experiences. This may be due to their young age and very limited background knowledge and experiences.

An English teacher from School B said that the metacognitive strategies encouraged maximum participation during the discussion in which students expressed their ideas freely and they were also motivated to read the materials during the treatment period.

Responses of teachers were triangulated by students' responses during the focus interview conducted by the researcher. When they were asked what activities helped them recall important information in a reading selection, they all agreed that

story grammar and semantic map were very useful in recalling details. They also cited that vocabulary exercise facilitated their understanding of the selection. Furthermore, one student said, "*Making predictions develops my imagination.*" This statement clearly shows metacognitive awareness that the student knows exactly the purpose of making predictions. Most of them stressed that they were inspired by the stories and essays they read because they learned a lot of lessons.

6. **Correlation among metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, reading performance and reading motivation**

As indicated in Table 7, there is a low positive correlation between reading performance and self-efficacy in experimental classes (0.22) and a moderate positive correlation between self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness in experimental classes (r= 0.59). Considering control classes, a low positive correlation was noted between reading performance and reading motivation (r=.21). Other variables tested in this study such as reading performance and metacognitive awareness, reading motivation and metacognitive awareness and self-efficacy and reading motivation do not show any positive correlations.

Table 7
Comparison Table Showing Relationship of Variables in Experimental and Control Classes

Variables	Experimental Classes	Control Classes
	Value of r	Value of r
Reading performance and metacognitive awareness	0.20	0.05
Reading performance and reading motivation	-0.07	0.21*
Reading performance and self-efficacy	0.22*	0.01
Self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness	0.59*	0.04
Reading motivation and metacognitive awareness	-0.15	0.06
Reading motivation and self-efficacy	-0.10	-0.01

* significant at 0.05 level

Discussion and Implications

Results of the researcher-made reading test showed that experimental groups performed significantly better in the posttest than the control groups. Significant difference in the results of researcher-made reading test could be attributed to the parallel format in the said test and exercises/drills done during the treatment period.

However, CEM Standardized Reading results showed no significant difference in the pretest and posttest scores of the experimental groups. Comparing the reading performance of the experimental and control classes, control classes scored significantly higher in the posttest compared to the experimental classes at $p<.001$. Difference in the test format as well as reading texts could have been a factor in the disparity of pretest and posttest scores between the standardized reading and researcher-made reading tests. Standardized reading test reflected tests on both prose and non-prose forms and topics of selections are broad in scope whereas researcher-made test used only prose materials and familiar topics about school, family, animals, friendship and the like. This contention is supported by Al-Issa (2006) and Hudson (2007) cited in Cequena et al., (2013) who stated that topic familiarity facilitates text comprehension.

The non-significant effect of metacognitive strategy use on the development of students' reading skills corroborates Yuko (2009)'s and Manderville's (2012) research. It may also be deduced from this finding that both methods – the conventional and the metacognitive strategy use can be equally effective in developing reading skills. This may be attributed to the fact that both experimental and control groups utilized engaging activities based on real life experiences where students could relate to and all four teachers were dynamic and effective in the presentation of lessons.

However, considering the experimental groups' performance in standardized reading test, their scores may be lower compared to that of control groups because most of them were still operating in the lower levels of reading since they employed fix up strategies most of the time like rereading, going back on track and slowing down when text becomes difficult. Their decoding skills have not been automatized yet due to their limited linguistic knowledge (Gough, 1972; La Berge and Samuel,1974). Furthermore, Zhang (2001) ascertained that low achievers utilize lower metacognitive strategies such as rereading sentence and paragraph and reading it slowly to comprehend its meaning. Hence, teachers may introduce metacognitive strategies that will address the needs of young readers by providing them appropriate strategies according to their reading level to make learning enjoyable but without sacrificing the goal of education of developing higher order thinking skills among learners.

Another interesting finding is the non-significant difference in the metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, and reading motivation before and after the experimental groups' exposure to metacognitive strategies. As Matthewson (2000) cited in Ruddell & Unrau, 2004) stated, developing the motivation to read and building positive self-concept as a reader take some time. The non-significant results in reading motivation and self-efficacy variables are due to the fact that internal attributions like self-efficacy (Bandura, 1994) and motivation (Matthewson, 2000

cited in Ruddel l& Unrau, 2004)   develop over time.   Twenty sessions of intervention using metacognitive strategies may not be enough to effect a significant change on reading motivation and self-efficacy.

As regards the efficacy of metacognitive strategies, both teacher and student respondents perceived that the metacognitive strategies such as think aloud and PLAN have a significant impact on students' self-efficacy, reading performance, and reading motivation. Thus, educators may be trained in using metacognitive strategies in teaching reading to improve their instructional delivery.

Considering other variables under study, there is a significant relationship between reading performance and self-efficacy and between self-efficacy and metacognitive awareness. As what Schunk and Zimmerman, (2007), Zimmerman (2000), McCabe and Margolis (2001), Tuckman (1993) and Pintrich and De Groot (1990) in Tuckman (1999)   stressed that self-efficacy is a predictor of reading achievement, therefore, educators have to develop students' self-efficacy in order to hone further their reading abilities.

Conclusion

The findings of this research show that both metacognitive strategies and conventional method of teaching reading are equally effective in developing the reading abilities of students. What seem to be the most important factors that have contributed to the non-significant results in both groups' reading performance, motivation, and self-efficacy are instructional delivery and engaging learning activities. In both educational settings, engaging small group discussions on real life experiences relevant to literature lessons and lively interactions between the teachers and the students were evident and these could have been the major reason as regards the non-significant findings in both control and experimental groups in all the four variables tested in this study. Another reason can be attributed to the limitation of the study, that is, the selection of respondents was non-random and both groups were diverse in terms of reading abilities and reading motivation that were not matched prior to the experimentation due to the school mandate that sectioning could not be randomized.

Finally, to fully understand which is more effective between the two teaching methods, for future research directions, a follow up research considering similar variables may be conducted to a large sample size and that both experimental and control groups should be equally matched in terms of language proficiency and entry reading abilities and should be handled by only one language teacher to establish the validity of results. Structural Equation Model (SEM) may also be used to determine which of these variables as metacognitive awareness, self-efficacy, and reading motivation are strong predictors of reading ability.

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A Discourse Analysis of the Engagement Resources Used by Filipino College Students in Their Argumentative Essay

Roselle M. Pangilinan

De La Salle University, Manila, Philippines

Roselle M. Pangilinan earned her Bachelor's Degree in Organizational Communication from University of the Philippines, Manila, and graduated with a Master's Degree in Teaching English Language from De La Salle University, Manila. An Editor since 2008, she currently works in the Government Service Insurance System (GSIS) as a Technical Writer. Her research interests include discourse analysis, psycholinguistics, and second language acquisition.

Abstract

This is a partial replication of the original research conducted by W. S. Mei in 2006 entitled *"Creating a Contrastive Rhetorical Stance: Investigating the Strategy of Problematization in Students' Argumentation."* In the original study, Mei employs the appraisal framework (Martin & White, 2005), with a focus on the engagement system, in analyzing the evaluative resources and contrastive stance used by the students in problematizing their views. In an attempt to only partially replicate Mei's 2006 study, the current study gears its focus away from problematization and towards argumentation in the analysis of the engagement options. The said endeavor aims to create a research gap between the original and the current study by providing new insights into the use of the various engagement options by undergraduate students in Philippine setting. Twenty Filipino college students were chosen as participants in this study. The twenty essays subsequently underwent intensive discourse analyses, ten of which have been featured in this study. The results support Mei's finding that students with higher scores use more strategic and appropriate engagement resources compared to those students with lower scores. This study may contribute to further research on the engagement system in the context of argumentation. Other related findings and their pedagogical implications are further discussed.

Keywords: Appraisal framework, engagement system, contrastive stance, problematization, argumentation, discourse analysis

Introduction

This study partially replicates the original research conducted by W. S. Mei in 2006, in which Mei (2006) compares the problematization strategies used by students who garnered the highest and lowest scores in their essay exam. The current study supports Mei's finding that students with higher scores use more strategic and appropriate engagement resources in their argumentative essay compared to those students with lower scores. This study aims to provide discourse analysis on the types and patterns of engagement resources used by the sampled students in their argumentative essay examination. Similar to the original study, it uses the appraisal theory with a focus on the engagement system as its framework.

Significance of the Study

This study may provide other researchers with a better understanding and grasp of the different argumentative strategies employed by undergraduate students and the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of their use of the engagement resources as cited in the appraisal framework. It may assist other researchers in identifying some of the most common engagement options and argumentative strategies used by students, which may shed light to their current contrastive literacy and on how these can be further improved by undergraduate educators. It may also highlight distinct contrasts between high- and low-rated argumentative essays unique to Filipino undergraduate students.

Scope and Limitation

It should be noted at this point that the scope of the present study differs from that of the original one. This study is centered on *argumentation* rather than *problematization*, which was the focus of the original paper. To differentiate, problematization can be as simple as identifying a problem (Mei, 2006). In addition, Barton (1993, as cited in Mei, 2006) explains that problematization is a strategy where a writer can show that a view that has long been perceived as true can still be re-examined and re-reevaluated. In contrast, argumentation involves dealing with unresolved and unsettled issues that warrant opposing views (Wood, 2001). The type of examination given to the sampled students was an argumentative essay, in which they had to state their opinion and position on the legitimacy or inaccuracy of Jose Rizal's retraction, on the night before his death, of his later views on religion, politics, and

the Spaniard ruling—a long-standing debate among local and foreign historians. The nature of the essay examination given to the students therefore requires an argumentation-based rather than problematization-based analysis.

Review of Related Literature

Giving an essay-writing activity is one way of measuring a student's competency in English. It is also one of the most common writing tasks required in school. An essay is usually a short written piece intended for academic purposes and containing detailed information about a particular subject. The term was first used by the French writer Michel de Montaigne in 1580 and later in 1597 by Elizabethan scholar Francis Bacon, who introduced the term into the English vernacular. Thereupon, the term *essay* has been part of scholastic discourse (Mounsey, 2002).

Essays usually include one or several questions that a student must respond to clearly and intensively. Because of the technical constraint and strict rules that students have to follow in their essay-writing activities, most of them, especially those who treat English as a foreign language (EFL), find it difficult to articulate themselves clearly when writing. A student must carefully utilize his critical thinking skills in order to create an organized and sensible writing composition. As Flores (n.d., as cited in Bernardo & Estacio, 2013) states, critical thinking "involves active and skillful demonstration of higher-order thinking skills [analysis, synthesis, and evaluation] among learners" (p. 14). One type of essay that demands rigorous critical thinking skills is the argumentative essay.

According to Rottenberg (2001, p. 516), an argument is the "process of reasoning and advancing proof about issues on which conflicting views may be held." Brooks and Warren (1979) state that an argument is a type of discourse wherein a conclusion is plausible because the data, premises, and evidence supporting it all merit belief. This emphasizes the duality of every argument, the necessity to persuade an audience, and the hunger to win a debate. Wood (2001) describes an argument as a clear stance of an arguer backed up by evidence enough to convince an audience. Similarly, Ramage et al. (2001) define the process of argumentation as involving a change in an audience's psyche, a testimony to the element of persuasion in the course of argumentation.

Using Wood's (2001, pp. 5–6) remark that "argument is perspective, a point of view that people adopt to identify, interpret, analyze, communicate, and try to reach settlements or conclusions about the subjects that are at issue," it can be said that engaging in an argument is

an interpersonal activity which involves the conscious and deliberate efforts of an arguer to understand and capitalize on his thinking skills to communicate effectively with his target audience. This is where metadiscourse can provide a more insightful account of the *intra*personal and *inter*personal communication processes behind argumentation.

According to Hyland (2005), the term *metadiscourse*, which he defined as an "approach to conceptualizing interactions between text producers and their texts and between text producers and users" (p.1), was coined by Zellig Harris in 1959 to help in understanding language in use and guiding writers or speakers in perceiving a given text. Metadiscourse also signifies the idea that there is more to communication than mere exchange of information as it also involves the attitudes and beliefs of people. It also highlights the fact that when we negotiate, we make decisions about how we want to affect our audience (Hyland, 2005). To relate metadiscourse to argumentation, it is reasonable to note that a person who participates in an argument simultaneously engages in discourse and exposes his ethos to his target audience. He makes use of his own unique faculties and transmits them in the course of the communication exchange. He also adjusts his propositions and negotiates with the demands of his target audience in order to win the latter's approval. He is in constant pursuit of his spectators' endorsement as he tailor-fits his own schemes with theirs. He leaves vestiges of his personality on his discursive engagements. Hence, the rationale behind a person's argument can always be traced back to his character, beliefs, and schemata.

Hyland (2005) also states that metadiscourse "offers the framework for understanding communication as a social engagement by illuminating some aspects of how we project ourselves into our discourses and signaling our attitude towards both the content and the audience of the text" (p. 4). The appraisal framework (Martin & White, 2005) amply illustrates the attitudinal and interpersonal meanings embedded in discourse and in the social aspect of communication.

Framework for Analysis

The Appraisal Framework. As with the original study, this paper relies heavily on the new approach to the appraisal framework (see Figure 1), which has been developed in the last decade by researchers working within the paradigm of Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL), namely, J. R. Martin and P. R. R. White, works of whom are the basis of this study. SFL, which was developed by British linguist Michael Halliday, is a linguistic approach that is concerned with the textual, ideational, and interpersonal meanings that are ever-present in

all utterances and designed to interpret language in use in the context of semiotics and communication (Martin & White, 2005). The focus of this paper is on the interpersonal aspect of written discourse.
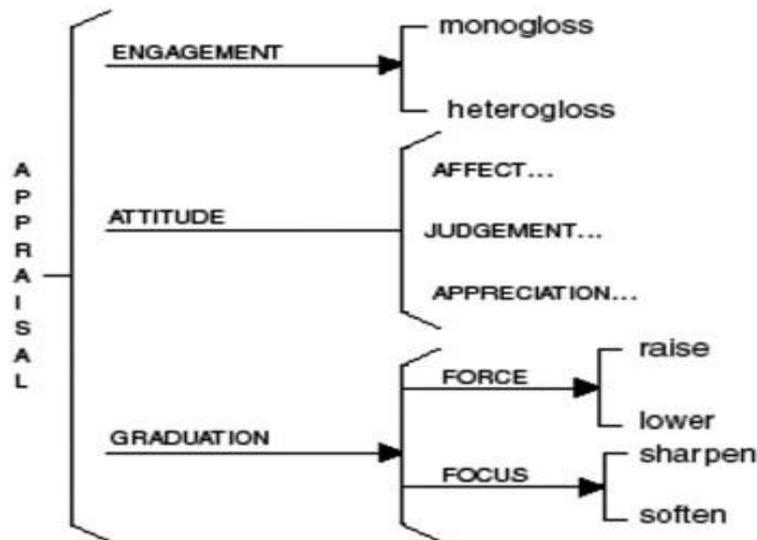
Figure 1: The Appraisal Framework (Martin & White, 2005, p. 38)

Appraisal in the current context comprises three interactive domains: *attitude, graduation*, and *engagement*. Attitude involves the valuation of people's emotions, judgments, and evaluation of things, while graduation is concerned with the management of the intensity of such valuations. Given that one of its objectives is to showcase the effectiveness or ineffectiveness of the argumentative skills of the students in their essay, this study will center on the third domain of appraisal—engagement —which "deals with sourcing attitudes and the play of voices around opinions in discourse" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 35). In the original study, Mei (2006) defines engagement as "the dialogic space afforded for the negotiation of values" (p. 5).

Mei (2007) states that the engagement system (see Figure 2) describes the ways in which negotiation strategies can be effective in creating a contrastive stance in a written discourse. By using the engagement system, a writer can fine-tune his commitment to his propositions by way of using various engagement resources and linguistic devices. It consists of several engagement meanings which point to the different positions available to a writer during a written communication exchange and which act as either an acknowledgment or denial of dialogic diversity.

As stated in Martin and White (2005), an utterance can either be *monoglossic* (relates to single-languagedness) or *heteroglossic* (relates to many-languagedness). Both terms are chiefly associated with the Russian intellectual Mikhail Bakhtin, whose interests include *intertextuality*, which is the relationship of a text to other texts, and *dialogism*, which relates to any two-way communication exchange (Chapman & Routledge, 2005). Bakhtin argues that language is never unitary and is always heteroglossic. It is his view that meaning is always intertextual because it has been and always will be historically and socially connected to all other speech acts, with language being "never completely original but is always an activation of voices that have been heard before" (Chapman & Routledge, 2005, p. 25).

A monoglossic perspective involves only one dominant voice. It relates to bald claims or *bare assertions*, which do not acknowledge alternative perspectives and which do not have any regard to subjectivity, bias, or factuality; in short, a bare assertion "denies dialogic diversity" (Mei, 2006, p. 6). In contrast, a heteroglossic view, which is similar to the notion of dialogism, conveys awareness of other perspectives and acknowledges the diversity in a text's communicative backdrop (Martin & White, 2005).

At this point, the different engagement resources will be considered in more detail. The following is an enumeration and exemplification of heteroglossic perspectives as cited in Martin and White's (2005) account of the engagement system.

Statements that express full commitment from the writer *contract* dialogic space, while those without or with very little writer endorsement *expand* dialogic space. That is, utterances which entertain dialogically alternative positions and voices are *dialogically expansive*, while those that act to limit or question their scope are *dialogically contractive*.

As can be seen in Figure 2, the *contract* option is divided into two, namely, *disclaim* and *proclaim*. Martin and White (2005) state that the disclaim option applies to utterances which dismiss a conflicting position. Disclaim is further split into two: *disclaim-deny*, which contracts dialogic space and directly rejects an opposing view (e.g., not, never, did not, failed to, etc.), and
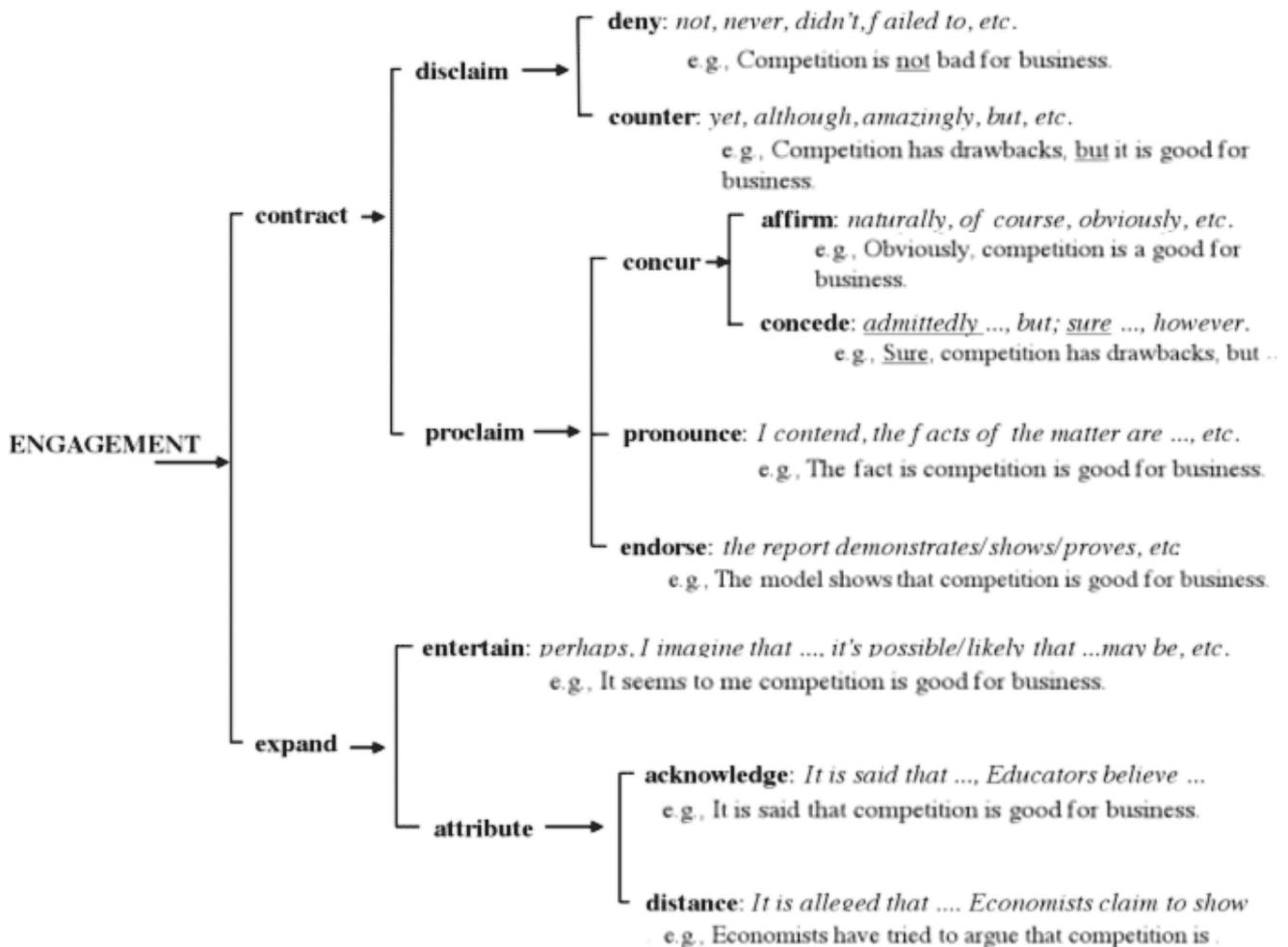
Figure 2: The Engagement System (Martin & White, 2005, p. 122)

disclaim-counter, which momentarily accepts a stance but later on rejects it (e.g., but, yet, although, amazingly, still, however, nevertheless, etc.).

The *proclaim* option, meanwhile, gives high regard to a proposition and therefore precludes all other views. It is divided into three: *proclaim-concur*, which allows little dialogic space as it commits strongly to a proposition (e.g., naturally, of course, obviously, admittedly, etc.); *proclaim-pronounce*, which although expresses strong writer attachment allows for a wider dialogistic space because the commitment given is geared towards the self rather than the idea (e.g., I contend that, the fact of the matter is that, there can be no doubt that, I am therefore convinced that, etc.); and *proclaim-endorse*, which is similar to proclaim-pronounce except that it is more geared towards the referred premise rather than the self, giving it a more objective tone (e.g., the study has demonstrated/shown/proven that, etc.).

The *expand* option, which invokes alternatives, can be categorized as either *entertain* (e.g., it seems, the evidence suggests, apparently, it's possible, I believe, it's almost certain, etc.) or *attribute*, which further branches out into two. These are *attribute-acknowledge*, which involves neutral reference to a proposition (e.g., Halliday argues that, many Australians believe that, x said that, x believes that, it is said that, the report states that, according to x, in x's view, etc.), and *attribute-distance*, which expresses extreme distancing from the referred source (e.g., the senator claimed to have, it is rumored that, etc.).

This study will rely heavily on the engagement system and will repeatedly refer to the different engagement options as they provide discursive, linguistic, and communicative bases to the text.

Research Questions

1. What are the patterns and variations that can be observed in the manner by which the students of high- and low-rated exams create a contrastive stance in their argumentative essay?
2. What are the engagement options used by the high- and low-rated students in supporting their argumentative points?

Methodology

Respondents. Twenty out of forty-nine Filipino students from a university in Manila were chosen to participate in this study. Mostly in their sophomore and junior year, the sampled students belong to one of the following disciplines: information technology, arts, and hospitality. The students are all enrolled in Jose Rizal class, which has a schedule of 1745hr–2115hr every Monday and Wednesday evenings. Tables 1 and 2 show the students' gender profile and their scores:

Table 1: Gender of Students

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Male	12	60%
Female	8	40%
Total	**20**	**100%**

Table 2: Student Profile

Student	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10
High scores	100	100	100	98	98	97	97	98	95	95
Gender	F	M	M	M	M	F	F	F	F	M

Student	S11	S12	S13	S14	S15	S16	S17	S18	S19	S20
Low scores	60	60	53	50	50	50	47	45	40	10
Gender	F	M	F	M	F	M	M	M	M	M

Instrument. Similar with the original study, only the top five and the bottom five exams were used as source of data. The sampled students were given the following essay question: *Do you believe that Jose Rizal truly retracted his latter views on religion, politics, and the Spaniard regime on the night before his death? Prove and support your answer by citing proofs presented and discussed in class.*

Data Collection. The examination was administered in one of the classrooms in the university at 1945hr on August 2, 2013. The submitted quiz papers were collated by the researcher and the data were tallied and analyzed accordingly.

Data Analysis. The students' essays were labeled according to their scores. To wit, S1 represents the student who got the highest score, while S20 received the lowest score. It should be noted that some students obtained similar ratings. For instance, S1, S2, and S3 all received a rating of 100%, while S14 through S16 all received a 50% score. The professor followed a specific rubric in grading the essay exam as he allotted 25 points for the introduction, 40 for the body, and 35 for the conclusion, totaling 100 points. Said rubric was

used to gauge the knowledge of the students about Rizal's life, from his early years as a devout Catholic up to the days nearing his death. In other words, the professor was mostly after determining how much his students knew about Rizal and how they were able to justify their arguments, rather than merely checking on their grammatical skills.

After the students' gender profile and scores were tallied, the students' use of engagement resources was analyzed. The unit of analysis used in this study is the written independent clause. The independent clauses were examined individually as well as collectively as they formed into paragraphs and became incorporated into uniform argumentative essays. The topic of the essay question was also reviewed for a better understanding and assessment of the effectiveness and ineffectiveness of the students' argumentative strategies. Intra-rating was conducted to analyze the data within two period intervals: first in August 2013 during the preliminary drafting of the paper and second in July 2015 during which further revisions were made in order to eliminate previous errors and double-check the consistency of data analysis throughout the study. External peer review was graciously provided by two distinguished professors from De La Salle University – Manila, who gave their valuable inputs and insightful suggestions to the improvement of this study.

Results and Discussion

It is important to note here that the discourse analyses of only ten out of twenty essays were shown in this paper, whereas Mei's study also showed ten out of twenty-seven essays. As previously mentioned, five from the high-rated essays and five from the low-rated ones were chosen to be featured in this study. Similar to the original study, sentences which were deemed irrelevant to certain points were excluded from the examples and indicated by ellipsis (. . .). A sentence from a new and separate paragraph is indicated by the pound sign (#). Also, some independent clauses that form part of a single sentence were analyzed separately to draw attention to each engagement resource used.

High Scores. According to Flores (n.d., as cited in Bernardo & Estacio, 2013), "students who have a firm grasp of what constitutes an effective argumentation paper write with an audience in mind, including the audience's potential opposition to the argument and their response to that opposition" (p. 32). In this study, the students who garnered the highest scores all demonstrated good judgment in presenting their arguments and persuading their target audience (the professor) towards their main proposition.

***Discourse analysis on S1's essay exam*:**

    i.   So many scholars believe that he retracted.

    ii.   Some says [*sic*] otherwise.

    iii.   One of those who believed that Rizal stood firm on [*sic*] his words and principles is [*sic*] Palma.

    iv.   I too believe that Rizal did not retract [all words in boldface].

    v.   The Catholic Church is firmly saying that Rizal retracted and they even showed proof of the retraction letter.

    vi.   I don't believe that he would just threw [*sic*] all of that and retract.

    vii.   The church is saying that Rizal retracted because they threatened him that he wouldn't be able to go to heaven if he did not retract.

    viii.   But Rizal doesn't [*sic*] believe in heaven.

    ix.   So many questions but there is only one plausible answer: Rizal did not retract [words in boldface] and the retraction letter made was a fake! [*sic*]

S1 received a perfect score in her argumentative essay. In sentence (i), she acknowledged the fact that a significant number of scholars believe the authenticity of Rizal's retraction by using the attribute-acknowledge option in "so many scholars believe," all the while setting enough dialogic space to maintain her neutrality to their proposition. Although she only used "some say" in sentence (ii) and "one of those who believed" in sentence (iii), which may be considered weaker pronouncements, it was clear throughout her essay that her proposition was in alignment with those who did not believe that Rizal retracted his later views. In fact, S1 immediately followed sentence (iii) with a declaration of her disbelief in Rizal's retraction, in boldface. As shown in sentence (iv), she used the proclaim-pronounce option in "I too believe" to assert her claim and align herself with those having similar beliefs. In contrast to sentence (ii), the use of "say" as an engagement term in sentences (v) and (vii) indicated attribute-distance, where the writer called attention to the claims of the Catholic Church, to which she was obviously against. In sentences (vi), (viii), and (ix), she respectively used the disclaim-deny option by saying that she did not believe that Rizal retracted and imperturbably turned his back on his fight against the Spaniards (vi and ix), and by saying that Rizal did not believe in the existence of heaven (viii), which is one of the major components of the belief system of the Catholic faith.

Discourse analysis on S2's essay exam:

    i.   I believed [sic] that Rizal did not retract what he has [sic] said or done against the Catholic Church.

    ii.   #Friars were not able to prove that Rizal did retract.

        In S2's introduction, he extensively and methodically identified Rizal's upbringing as a devout Catholic and the centrality of religion on his education and artistry. Afterwards, he contrasted such points to a lengthy account of the growing influence of Rizal's "heretic" written works to the Filipino people and Rizal's frequent brushes with the Church and the Spaniard regime. He only stated his proposition in the concluding section of his essay, as indicated in "I believe," a proclaim-pronounce option, in sentence (i). He then used disclaim-deny as signaled by the negation marker "not" in sentence (ii).

        S2 also received 100/100 in his essay exam. Despite the fact that there were only two sentences in his essay which contained engagement options, his effective argumentative strategies afforded him with the highest number of supporting points to his central claim. According to Brooks and Warren (1979), a person participating in an argument, in the name of strengthening his main proposition, has the right to make many and differing points, which may need to be defended individually and which may all correspond to their own, unique proposition. Nonetheless, they underscored that "if the argument is to have unity and coherence, such supporting points must be subordinated to the main proposition and have a significant relation to it" (p. 143). Based on Brooks and Warren's explanation, it can be said that S2 successfully utilized his numerous supporting points because he was able to persuade his target audience, in this case, his professor, to give him a perfect rating.

Discourse analysis on S3's essay exam:

    i.   Asked [sic] if Dr. Jose Rizal retracted, in my opinion, I believe he did not.

    ii.   . . . I agree with that because I thought of other religions.

    iii.   . . . Jose Rizal did not retract.

    iv.   . . . There is no valid proof that Rizal really did retract.

        A good argumentative essay provides strong support to its main claim. Rottenberg (2000) defines support as "any material that serves to prove an issue or claim" (p. 519). S3 also obtained 100% rating in her argumentative essay, and the majority of her work is filled

with supporting statements to her main proposition. By using the engagement option of proclaim-pronounce in the form of "I believe" in sentence (i), she declared her stance that she did not believe that Rizal committed retraction. In sentence (ii), she stated through proclaim-pronounce "I agree" her concurrence with Rizal's belief that a soul can be saved even outside the Catholic faith. By respectively saying that "Jose Rizal did not retract" and "there is no valid proof that Rizal really did retract" in sentences (iii) and (iv), S3 used the deny-disclaim option as she directly rejected the notion of Rizal' retraction.

Discourse analysis on S4's essay exam:

i. I believe that Jose Rizal did not retract his belief, and that he fought until the bitter end of his life.

ii. #I find it highly unlikely for an educated, liberal man who subscribes [*sic*] to his conscience as his source of faith (and rationality) to announce his belief and support for the Church, especially the very Church he devoted his life to overthrow.

iii. . . . Historians would contend that Rizal actually did retract so that he can marry Josephine Bracken.

iv. They say that they did get married under a priest,

v. but no evidence can be presented to verify this.

vi. . . . It could have been a case of forgery that was well kept that none of Rizal's allies could utter a word against their authenticity.

Out of all the respondents, I found S4 as having the greatest command of the English language. His essay was highly readable, coherent, and fluid, and he used a richer vocabulary compared to the rest of his classmates. His essay also had the highest number and variety of engagement resources. In sentence (i), through the engagement option of proclaim-pronounce, S4 asserted his belief that Rizal did not retract his later views. By using the phrase "I find it highly unlikely" in sentence (ii), he expressed the improbability that a sensible man such as Rizal would side with the enemy. The phrase "I find it highly unlikely" is similar to saying "I do not believe it is probable." It is categorized as a disclaim-deny option principally because of the inherent element of negation therein. S4 then used the option of attribute-distance in sentence (iii) as he detached himself from the arguments of certain historians who contend that Rizal retracted his later views in the name of love. The first clause of sentence (iv) is categorized as having an attribute-distance option in the form of "they say." It was then

opposed in the second clause by the disclaim-counter signaled through the conjunction "but."
In sentence (vi), S4 used the engagement option of expand-entertain as he inferred that the
signing of the retraction letter "could have been a case of forgery."

Discourse analysis on S10's essay exam:

    i.   Some say he retract [sic] because of his ideology.

    ii.   Some say he didn't because base [*sic*] on the observation of the letters between Pastel and Rizal he didn't convert or lose his religion.

    iii.   . . . We can say that if Rizal did retract then obviously the one who copied just did his/her job.

    iv.   . . . We can say that the friars may have plagarized [*sic*] the signage of Rizal.

    v.   . . . In the concept of perspective I can say that Rizal did not retract.

    vi.   . . . The one [*sic*] that holds [*sic*] the system are the friars therefore they could have done something with the document.

    vii.   . . . There's no way he could have hated Catholic [*sic*],

    viii.   but I believed [*sic*] he hated the friars.

    ix.   Even though I said that I believe he didn't retract there can be many possibilities but this is where my mindset falls on.

S10 received a 95/100 rating in his exam. He respectively used the engagement option
of attribute-acknowledge in "some say" in sentences (i) and (ii) as he tried to maintain
neutrality to both sides of the argument (retraction versus non-retraction). By using expand-
entertain through "we can say" in sentence (iii), S10 invoked dialogic alternatives to the
assumption that Rizal even made a retraction letter and that a certain copier just complied
with a directive given him. By respectively suggesting that the friars "may have plagarized
[sic] the signage of Rizal" and "they [friars] could have done something with the document"
in sentences (iii) and (iv), as well as stating "we can say" in sentences (iv), S10 used the
engagement option of expand-entertain, with all utterances pointing to his doubts over Rizal's
supposed retraction and hence to his inclination towards believing that no retraction took
place. Through the disclaim-deny option of "there's no way" in sentence (vii), he completely
rejected the idea that Rizal hated Catholicism. He then followed this with sentence (viii) by
announcing his belief that Rizal hated the friars through the proclaim-pronounce option.
Finally, in sentence (ix), S10 used the disclaim-counter option in the form of "even though,"

which in effect raised alternative claims without directly rejecting S10's original argument, which was leaning towards the non-retraction of Rizal.

S10's argumentative essay was interesting in the sense that it was embellished with rhetorical questions (e.g., Does a man define what he do [sic] base [sic] on his beliefs?), philosophical nuances (e.g., "the battle of obligation versus exilation" [no such word] and "the concept of perspective"), and adages (e.g., "A man does not define on [sic] what his actions and words are, but a man is defined on how true is [sic] his/her purpose in life."). According to Hyland (2002, in Mei, 2006, p. 20), "common conversational uses do not adequately prepare novices for ways questions work in academic genres to establish a particular relationship, draw readers into an argument and manage their understanding of an issue." In the current example, S10 evidently attempted to utilize questions and aphorisms to enrich his discussion and strengthen his argument; however, it only partially succeeded in doing so. Nonetheless, as Mei (2006) posits, "strategic uses of questions can also serve ideational and text-organizing functions in helping to structure the essay as a whole" (p. 20), a point which only further emphasizes the importance of teaching students how to use questions and other common conversational tools to effectively express different textual meanings in written works.

Low Scores. According to Redman and Maples (2011), even the most common mistakes in essay-writing can have an adverse impact on a student's grades. Examples of such blunders are the following: "failure to answer the question; failure to write using your own words; poor use of social scientific skills; poor grammar, punctuation, and spelling; and failure to observe the word limit" (p. 9). The following five essays have been analyzed according to the use of engagement resources and argumentation strategies, and they all exemplified varying degrees and combinations of errors in essay-writing.

Discourse analysis on S12's essay exam:
  i. There are different perspectives of people depending on their surroundings.
  ii. . . . This holds true in the discussion of Rizal's retraction.
  iii. #Rizal retracted in the sense that he still did not change his perspective in life and in religion.
  iv. He only retracted because he was pressured and was about to be executed,
  v. although there are speculations that the retraction letter is a fake,
  vi. because at the time of Rizal, copies were made by handwriting,

vii. and therefore there is no substantial evidence that Rizal retracted.

viii. #In conclusion, I believe that Rizal retracted but still believes [*sic*] his own perspective in life and in religion.

ix. . . . Rizal is [*sic*] a firm person that fights [*sic*] for his belief and we must respect him for that.

x. A person who is not and changes his decision is not the kind of man Rizal was, but I believe that Rizal retracted for the good of his countrymen.

S12 received a 60/100 score and correctly followed the basic three-part paragraph structure. The majority of S12's introduction acknowledged the fact that people have different perspectives on Rizal's retraction or reaffirmation of his later views, a rather good approach to begin an argumentative essay. However, in sentence (iii), he qualified the meaning of retraction by saying that the latter does not involve changing (or reverting to) one's (former) perspectives, which is obviously incorrect and completely distorted his entire argument. Nonetheless, his proposition might have simply meant that Rizal's retraction was fake; in such case, he should have plainly said that Rizal did not retract his later beliefs, which is the other side of the argument altogether. Sentences (v) through (vii) acted to support S12's claim on the untruthfulness behind Rizal's retraction, which again indicates that Rizal did not retract. However, S12 reiterated both in sentences (viii) and (x) his position that Rizal did retract through the proclaim-pronounce option of "I believe." He emphasized that Rizal kept intact his beliefs, although he did not state whether he was referring to Rizal's old or new beliefs, which was critical in the argument. As for sentence (ix), S12 used expand-entertain through the modal "must" as he defended Rizal as a person and his supposed decision to retract.

Discourse analysis on S13's essay exam:

i. Yes, Dr. Jose Rizal [*sic*] beliefs in terms of religion is [*sic*] different when [*sic*] he is [*sic*] in [*sic*] his childhood days from [*sic*] the time he suffered from [*sic*] the hands of friars.

ii. . . . He wrote to his priest friend Fr. Pastell his retraction involving his own beliefs in decision-making/judgment base [*sic*] on his own perspective.

iii. #Because of this [*sic*] kinds of words and doubts given and layed [*sic*] from Dr. Jose Rizal's letter to Fr. Pastell, I can say that Rizal's belief changed, not only simple swaying is [*sic*] what happen [*sic*] to him.

iv. From his letter to Fr. Pastell I can conclude that he is [sic] blinded with fury to [sic] the Spaniards [sic] wrong doings [sic] that he also started to doubt the church once he [sic] devoted into [sic].

v. . . . Man's suffering can [*sic*] change his beliefs.

vi. But for me even if I'm not Catholic but [*sic*] still I'm Christian,

vii. I believe in God's doctrines base [*sic*] from [*sic*] the Bible's teachings.

viii. I agree to [*sic*] Fr. Pastell.

ix. . . . Although we have different beliefs and judgment [*sic*] we still have to follow God's rules.

x. It will prevent people to [*sic*] think he [*sic*] is [*sic*] right and other people are wrong.

xi. Although some have different religion [*sic*] and have different kind [*sic*] of Bible but [*sic*] still we believe in God, and that is make [*sic*] us all one.

S13 immediately answers the question in sentence (i) by saying "yes," stating the changes in Rizal's religious beliefs from childhood up to the time the Spaniards ruled the country as proofs of his retraction. This is the first indication that S13 did not fully understand the question. He interpreted the act of retraction as an act of change—that is, Rizal's retraction involved the changes exclusively in his religious beliefs from childhood to adulthood—when what the question was referring to was the authenticity or fabrication of Rizal's supposed retraction on the night before his death of his religious, moral, and political viewpoints, specifically on his crusade against the Spaniards in the form of his written works. The retraction therefore concerns the withdrawal of Rizal's later views and a reversion to his former righteous beliefs, and not the changes that transpired in his life from childhood to adulthood, which was the interpretation of S13. Meanwhile, in sentence (iii), S13 used the expand-entertain option in the form of "I can say," which acknowledges that a given idea is just one of the many possible interpretations to a certain text. He then used proclaim-pronounce through "I therefore conclude" as he referred to the onset of Rizal's outrage and doubts over the church which he was once so devoted to, as evidenced in his correspondence with the Spanish friar, Fr. Pastell. S13 used the modal "can" as an expand-entertain option as he related Rizal as a man and the changes brought about by his suffering in seeing his country being abused by the Spaniards. It can be seen that S13 started to cite more of his personal situations and opinions about the topic in sentences (vi), (vii), and (viii) using the option of proclaim-pronounce "for me," "I believe," and "I agree," respectively, which are irrelevant to

his argument, making the latter weaker. In sentence (ix), he used the disclaim-counter option twice in "although" and "still" as he pointed out his belief that people still have to follow God's rules despite adhering to different principles in life, which he related to Rizal's later views towards the Catholic Church. He again used the expand-entertain option through the modal "will" in sentence (x) and also disclaim-counter in sentence (xi) in "although," "still," and "but," with the latter being unnecessary.

Discourse analysis on S15's essay exam:

    i.   Did Dr. Jose Rizal retract?

    ii.   In some ways he did.

    iii.   He retracted by writing his novel.

    iv.   #I conclude that Rizal retracted for the benefit of the citizen of the Philippines.

In the introduction part, S15 mainly cited the influence of Paciano, Jose Rizal's brother, to the latter's life, a move which no one else in the class used in beginning their argumentative essay. She began the body of her essay with a question, as can be seen in sentence (i). In engagement terms, the use of a question "opens up the dialogic space" (White, 2003, cited in Mei, 2006, p. 14), while according to Wood (2001), writers use questions to help them focus their attention to the flow of their argument. The answer to her question can be found on sentence (ii), establishing her position that Rizal retracted. Sentence (iii) is a supporting claim to her argument. At this point, it can be verified that S13 did not understand the essay question, which explains the low mark that she received. This is despite the fact that she stated that "I did not quite understand at first why Rizal had to retract but I understand now." She identified Rizal's written works (alongside his efforts to cure the sickly pro bono and to fight for the country's freedom) as indications of his retraction, which is evidently an incorrect discernment. Perhaps S15 surmised that to retract means to defend one's country. In sentence (iv), she used the proclaim-pronounce option in the form of "I conclude" as she expressed her belief that Rizal retracted for the welfare of the Filipinos.

Discourse analysis on S17's essay exam:

    i.   Retraction is something you have said or written and say that you did not mean it.

    ii.   The question is [*sic*] did Rizal retract?

    iii.   According to the people who reported it, nobody knows that Rizal retracted.

    iv.   But others showed that Rizal did not retract.

v.   . . . This is the reason's [*sic*] why Rizal did not retract! [*sic*]

S17 is one of the few students who provided a definition of retraction at the beginning of the essay. He also cited several questions in his work to emphasize certain points, as in sentence (ii). In sentence (iii), he used the engagement option of attribute-distance in "according to the people who reported it," setting maximum dialogic space between himself and the source of the proposition. S17 then used proclaim-endorse in sentence (iv) as he expressed his alignment with the proposition of "others" that Rizal did not retract his later views. Sentence (v) is proof of S17's endorsement of the claim of "others" to Rizal's retraction. Despite presenting a logical argument, S17 failed to receive a higher rating perhaps because of his distinctively poor grammar skills and lack of use of macro-markers and micro-markers, which could have made his points clearer and more cohesive.

Discourse analysis on S20's essay exam:
   i.   As far as I can remember and learned [*sic*] the past years.[*sic*]
   ii.   Dr. Jose Rizal has [*sic*] his own ways of retracting.
   iii. He used his creativity and imagination to retract.
   iv.   As I learn [*sic*] Jose Rizal retract [*sic*] by [*sic*] his books and letters.
   v.   He has [*sic*] a secret message to [*sic*] all the letters that he has [*sic*] publish [*sic*] and made.
   vi.   He didn't actually retract verbally,
   vii. but in silent action and doings [*sic*],he actually retract [*sic*] for me: [*sic*]

S20 received 10/100, the lowest among the group, with his essay comprising only a single short paragraph. As evidenced in the mark he received, S20's argumentation lacked strength and merit and had several conflicting points. In sentence (ii), he stated that Rizal retracted, and this proposition was echoed in sentences (iii) through (v), which mentioned the ways through which Rizal manifested his retraction. But towards the end of his essay, S20 denied both his original statement on Rizal's apparent retraction (vi) and afterwards reclaimed it (vii). As can be seen in sentence (vi), he used the disclaim-deny through "didn't" and then followed this with a disclaim-counter through "but" in sentence (vii). The essay of S20 is a good example of a poor argumentative essay in that it failed to establish a clear sense of opposition and it did not provide any supporting statements to the main premise. As Wood

(2001) remarks, "the success of the argument depends on the proofs, and weak support or faulty or unacceptable warrant weakens an argument" (p. 213).

Conclusion

This paper concurred with Mei's (2006) findings in her study on the Singaporean students' efforts to portray a contrastive stance through the strategy of problematization in that the present study also found distinguishing differences in the makeup of the high-rated essays compared to the low-rated ones. It attempted to provide a description and identification of the engagement resources used by Filipino college students in their argumentative essay. It also endeavored to present exhaustive discourse analyses of the students' argumentative essays by highlighting their different argumentative moves and their use of specific engagement options. By contrasting the features of high-rated essays with low-rated ones, their differences became even more remarkable.

The low-rated essays demonstrated common characteristics throughout the study. For one, the main proposition in such essays was oftentimes not clearly and immediately stated in the argument. It might even have been situated at the very end of the essay where very few points can support it. Such essays were also usually filled with lengthy discussions of unnecessary passages, rhetorical questions, and untimely injections of needless claims, which weakened the argument rather than fortified it. Some essays had excessively long introductory parts that the supporting details ended up crammed and were sacrificed towards the end, causing the argument to appear skewed. Occasionally, various claims were not supported by authentic sources, in effect making the argument appear as hearsays or mere opinions. Strong emotions were also present in some of the essays, which exposed the main proposition to bias. Whereas some essays presented two or more opposing main arguments, which completely distorted the concept of argumentation, some did not even contain a single clear standpoint. The lack of preparedness of the student, alongside his poor argumentative and grammar skills and insufficient knowledge, all play an important role in the soundness or weakness of his argumentation.

In contrast, the high-rated essays established the issue and main proposition at the beginning of the argument. They contained a wide range of vocabulary and were backed up by evidence, with each supporting point cleverly manipulated and defended. The high-rated

essays also exemplified the use of macro-markers and micro-markers, which helped sustained fluidity within the text.

The variety of engagement options used in the high-rated essays was clearly wider compared to that in the low-rated essays. Supporting points were rather riskier and more aligned with the main proposition compared to low-rated ones. The marked difference in the regulation of dialogic space afforded for the negotiation of values between the high-rated essays and the low-rated ones resounded all the way through, especially since the selected essays came from the extreme ends of the grading scale.

This study was able to substantiate the extent of use and applicability of the engagement system to argumentative essays. Phrases such as "the fact of the matter is," "it is alleged that," and "I completely agree" were assigned to different engagement options that indicated either dialogic contraction or expansion. Such ordinary expressions suddenly became more significant in terms of their implied attitudinal and interpersonal meanings. The evaluative and discursive stances embedded in such linguistic devices only serve to further enrich their discursive attributes.

This study can be beneficial for other researchers who are also interested in exploring the engagement system in the context of argumentation. Students from all disciplines can be trained to reinforce their argumentative skills by using the appraisal framework as the foundation and basis of their supporting points, pieces of evidence, and appeals. Teachers may need to be better informed of the major and minor struggles of their students in terms of defending their claims and discerning the weaknesses and fallacies committed by others, all in the name of healthy argumentation. Students can also apply the art of argumentation outside the academe by seeking the truth and learning the art of persuasion. Educators can relate the engagement system to the importance of teaching students proper referencing and citation. By teaching them about writer's commitment and how to detect it linguistically, students can learn how to strategically position themselves either towards or against certain propositions. In addition, citing properly allows for unbiased recognition of academic sources and adds to the overall credibility of a student's written work. Students can also be taught how to avoid errors due to overemphasizing or devaluing their claims by showing them how to calibrate their statements as they try to reconcile their own judgments with general truths.

The engagement system exemplifies the interpersonal aspect of discourse and assigns linguistic labels to the varying degrees of dialogism. It acknowledges the fact that discourse, which inevitably always involves human beings, can never be completely devoid of attitudinal and interpersonal nuances.

As this study obtained samples from a single class in one university in Manila, research featuring more respondents from different universities may be conducted in the future. In addition, as this serves as a partial replication of Mei's 2006 paper, it only focused on the qualitative, albeit intensive, analysis of the sampled essays. Thus, a tally of the frequency of engagement resources used, as well as other additional quantitative analyses, may significantly improve future research.

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Applying *Speed Speaking* into the Foreign Language Classroom

Feng Teng

Nanning University, China

(tengfeng@uni.canberra.edu.au)

James Wong

Nanning University, China

Feng Teng is a language teacher educator at the department of English, Nanning University, China. He is interested in doing research on vocabulary studies, listening and speaking. His recent publications appeared in ELTWO and TESL Reporter. Further correspondence can be sent to him at tengfeng@uni.canberra.edu.au

James Wong is a language teacher educator with extensive teaching experience in China. He currently teaches spoken English at Nanning University.

Abstract

Research efforts have been devoted to teaching speaking. In this article we summarized the main sources of difficulties in speaking and we introduced *Speed Speaking* (SS), a new method for teaching English. Based on Nation's (2007) four strands, a well-organized *Speed Speaking* lesson should consist of meaning-focused input, meaning-focused output, learning through deliberate attention to language items, and fluency development. *Speed speaking* provides teachers with a platform from which they can maximize the possible outcome in their own classrooms. It also provides a relaxed setting for students to escape their social fiefdoms, as well as to build new bridges, to interact with new voices, and to grasp some linguistic features. In addition, it also allows students to practice their critical thinking ability to solve problems.

Accordingly, it is worthwhile to incorporate *Speed Speaking* into our teaching.

Introduction

The importance of involving more students in spoken activities has never been undermined. This may be due to the fact that spoken activities motivate students in their foreign language study by getting them to engage in successful speaking. Among those activities, switching conversational partners in the English classroom has long been regarded as effective methods to trigger more learner-learner communicative interactions. Unfortunately, this classroom management method was not regularly applied by most of the foreign language teachers. Based on the value of switching conversation partners in teaching speaking, the present study proposed *Speed Speaking*, a new method for classroom implementation. *Speed speaking* (SS, also called *Mingle*, Borzova, 2014) is a teaching method especially suited for use in Chinese classrooms or a similar Asian context of teaching English as a foreign language (EFL).

SS is based on a social interview technique in which one speaks with a partner for a discrete unit of time and then rotates to a new partner. For use in the classroom, SS is a valuable tool for drawing out discussion, especially from students who are reticent to speak in class. This technique is particularly valuable for students who are much more willing to speak in a controlled and private setting than in a public forum. The distinctive features of this activity are that all learners need to work simultaneously, and switch from one classmate to another while listening, writing some notes, and speaking.

SS requires a relatively large classroom with movable chairs (stations). Two stations, which are called a "couplet," are positioned facing one another at intervals around the periphery of the room. There is one station for each

student in the class. Thus, a typical class of twenty students will have twenty stations arranged as ten couplets. In each couplet one station is positioned with its back to the wall (the exterior station) and the other station with its back to the center of the room (the interior station). Those students in the exterior stations remain seated in the same station for the duration of the exercise. Those students in the interior stations move to the next interior station each minute at the teacher's command (See Figure 1).
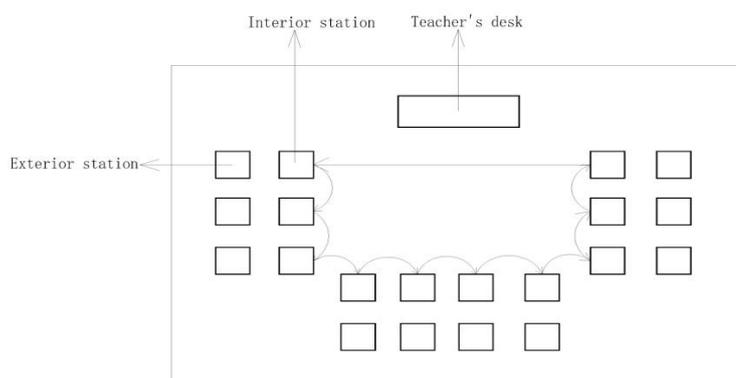
Figure 1. Configuration for *speed speaking*

It is best for the teacher to assign a specific student for each exterior station as this creates a sense of a fixed group. The teacher then instructs the remaining half of the class to find an open interior station. In assigning exterior stations, it is best to alternate more proficient and less proficient students. If all the students in the exterior stations are proficient, then they will likely always speak with less proficient students in the interior stations (and vice versa). Randomizing the placement of students according to ability ensures that at some point more proficient students will enjoy a deeper conversation. In an event of an odd number of students in class, there are two options. The first option would be adding an extra interior station to one of the couplets so that three students speak together. When the rotation occurs the students simply remain in that particular couplet for two rounds. The other option would be for the teacher to establishing himself as an exterior station. This invariably adds some excitement to the activity.

Once each student has been stationed in a couplet the teacher intentionally provides sufficient materials to highlight the diversity among students. For example, teacher hands out partial information about a map of a zoo to the students in the interior stations, who then fill out a table by collecting missing information from the students in the exterior stations. This is in line with the gap-difference principle (Nation & Newton, 2009). Exterior station students can also be assigned a homework assignment to bring in a picture, which interior station students are asked to speak about for one minute. Exterior station students offer discussion and commentary, and keep notes on the responses received. After each interior student has interacted with each exterior student a competition is held. The exterior students are asked to vote on which interior student offered the best response to his picture. The interior students are then asked to vote on which exterior student had the best picture. Students could also be asked to discuss proverbs, tell stories, or conduct a mock job interview in their couplets.

The organization of *Speed Speaking* is similar to real-life situations. This allows students to locate what information they need by asking the same questions from different people. As proposed in Robertson & Acklam (2000), this provides opportunities for constant repetition of some specific questions or collection of information from many students. Students will repeat some utterance many times, which gradually helps build their confidence in speaking English.

Speed Speaking also adds excitement to the class because students rotate and talk to their classmates in a relaxed way. The teachers only focus on those who need special support; they do not directly supervise the students. This invariably enlivens the lessons. In addition, to reach understanding, students need to repeatedly explain and speak as they move to a new partner. Accordingly, more students are involved.

It is widely acknowledged that instead of hoping students will eventually develop their speaking skills on their own, teachers should actively design

some spoken activities for students. This is why we introduce *speed speaking,* a method that involves switching from one interlocutor to another. However, speaking seems to be the most difficult for EFL students, especially those with limited English proficiency levels (Goh & Burns, 2012; Magno, 2009; Richards, 2008). This is not surprising because when EFL students are required to talk, they seemed to have a fear to speak in public. In addition, they were passive in speaking English. This was revealed by one phenomenon that EFL students put most emphasis on explicit rote memorization (Lee, 2013). Therefore, not only does their sense of speaking proficiency range from not being able to get the gist of what the speaker wants to say, but also to talk.

Another noteworthy point is the nature of EFL talk. Classroom English talk that is predominant in institutional setting is the main means for EFL learners to communicate. Distinct from natural conversation, the kind of communication to be conducted has already been determined in classroom talk, and it is restricted by the goals of the teachers and students (Heritage, 2005). Clearly, classroom talk has its own characteristic difficulties, and it is not in line with the criteria for natural conversation among native speakers. Hence, it is not surprising that learning how to speak English in an EFL context will present obstacles.

First, speaking English as a foreign language presents considerable challenge. Luoma (2004, cited in Richards, 2008, p.19) summarizes the following features of spoken discourse that makes speaking difficult:

- Composed of idea units (conjoined short phrases and clauses)
- May be planned (e.g., a lecture) or unplanned (e.g., a conversation)
- Employs more vague or generic words than written language
- Employs fixed phrases, fillers, and hesitation markers
- Contains slips and errors reflecting online processing
- Involves reciprocity (i.e., interactions are jointly constructed)
- Shows variation (e.g., between formal and casual speech)

For example, the use of fixed phrases, one of the difficulties mentioned above, gives conversational discourse the quality of naturalness. EFL learners need to learn, memorize, and accumulate thousands of fixed phrases, which is an incremental and complex process (Teng, 2014a). In other words, EFL students can only acquire fixed phrases bits and pieces (Schmitt, 2010). However, native speakers have a repertoire of thousands of fixed expressions that their use in appropriate situations creates natural and native-like spoken discourse (O'Keeffe et al., 2007).

Second, EFL learners often have some entrenched language errors, referred to as "fossilization." This is the persistent language errors in learners' speech, despite the progress they might have made in overall language development (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Despite persistent correction, this type of error is still difficult to eradicate. Although not all the fossilized errors trigger misunderstanding, some errors may not be understood, and thus influence learners' willingness to communicate.

Third, problems in speaking are aggravated by learners' tendency to formulate utterances in their native language (Thornbury, 2007). In other words, students' native language has a transferred influence on their spoken English.

Fourth, the deficiency of cultural knowledge often leads to learners' confusion and misunderstanding even if they have a rather advanced proficiency level (Beamer & Varner, 2001).

Armed with the above knowledge, it is necessary to figure out more difficulties that EFL student might have in speaking. Thus, it facilitates us to understand what might be beneficial or detrimental for teaching speaking in the classroom, and assigning the appropriate method for teaching speaking. This study attempted to address the following research questions:

1. What main difficulties do the teachers think their students may have in speaking English?

2. What main difficulties do EFL students think they may encounter in

speaking English?

3. What attitudes do teachers have towards *Speed Speaking*?

4. What attitudes do students have towards *Speed Speaking*?

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were 40 first-year students from business English major. The participants were 6 males and 34 females ranging in age from 19 to 21 in Nanning University, China. They were native speakers of Chinese. They had studied English for an average of 8 years. None of the participants have ever studied in a country where English is the official language. All the students have experienced the teaching method of using *speed speaking*.

Ten English teachers also voluntarily took part in this study. They were all experienced teachers with a Master's Degree in TESOL. They had applied *speed speaking* as a method in their classroom teaching.

Instruments

A survey questionnaire for students was constructed to seek information on the following two issues: First, the main difficulties for EFL students to learn speaking English. Second, the main benefits of applying speed speaking in classroom teaching.

The survey questionnaire, which is an open-ended format, covers typical questions as follows:

1. What main difficulties do you have in learning speaking English?

2. How do you think of applying *speed speaking* in classroom teaching?

Teacher's group discussion

Ten teachers were invited to a group discussion. The group discussion is also mainly concerned with the two issues in the survey questionnaire.

Procedure

The students first answered a checklist on demographic information. For example, their age, gender, how old when they first started to learn English, and whether they had studied in an English-speaking country. After this, they answered the two questions in the survey questionnaire. This paper-pencil questionnaire was completed in regular class hour. The whole process was in Chinese. This was to make students easier to complete the questionnaire. The whole process took about 20 minutes.

Ten teachers mentioned above took part voluntarily in a one-hour discussion. Teachers were informed that their opinions were kept confidential. As one of the teachers is from America, thus the group discussion was conducted in English. In order to conduct an in-depth discussion, the authors shared the data collected from students' questionnaires with the teachers.

Data analysis

The responses in the survey questionnaire were analyzed qualitatively. Cluster analysis was applied to form sources of variation for each question. The first author encoded the data and provided specific labels for each response. The responses with similar labels were then clustered to a common cluster. The clusters formed were reviewed by the second author.

An audio recorder was used to collect data from the group discussion. The first author transcribed the interactions after the group discussion, and the second author checked the transcriptions.

Results

Research question 1: What main difficulties do the teachers think their students may have in speaking English?

Ten English teachers were invited for a group discussion and here are three summarized excerpts:

Excerpt 1

It is normal to find students not comfortable in speaking class. The main reason is their issue of saving face, or shyness. One obvious reason is their inhibition; they would not like to end up as the laughing stock or get mocked or ridiculed by their peers (Ms. Qin).

Excerpt 2

One of the reasons that the learners do not want to speak English is the lexical barriers. They do not have sufficient words to express their idea correctly, for which they can speak a lot in their native language. It takes a long time for learners to move from pronouncing a new word, then recalling it, to appropriately introduce this word in a conversation (Ms. Zhang).

Excerpt 3

The reason that the students are not willing to speak English is related to the whole environment. A lack of creativity, which is a consequence of entire upbringing in EFL context connected to the culture. The culture makes them predictable social automatons and destroys anyone who dares to be different. The culture just kills creativity (Mr. Li).

Table 1. The main difficulties of speaking English explained by ten English teachers.

	Main problems	speaking %
1	Students lack of confidence	100
2	Class size	70
3	Students have a fear of making mistakes	70
4	'Teacher-centered' traditions	70
5	Anxiety and frustration	70
6	Lack of effective teaching method	70
7	Few spoken English courses	55
8	Students' limited vocabulary size	50

Research question 2: What main difficulties do EFL students think they

may encounter in speaking English?

This analysis was deemed necessary since the learner plays an active role in developing automaticity and fluency in speaking English. 40 students majoring in business English were invited for a survey questionnaire to understand how students regard their unwillingness in speaking English. Here are three excerpts translated from students' responses in Chinese:

Excerpt 1

"The main reason I barely speak English is that I do not have confidence. Although I really want to take part in some English activities, I am just too scared to speak English because when I speak, I will make mistakes" (Jack).

Excerpt 2

"When I want to speak English, I just find out that I don't have enough words to express my feeling. Although I spent a lot of time in memorizing some words, I still find that I have no English words to speak" (Elaine).

Excerpt 3

"When I try to speak English outside my class, other people will definitely laugh at me. They will regard me as crazy, because no one speaks English in my real life. I can never find a person who is willing to speak English with me" (Lily).

Table 2. The main difficulties of speaking English collected from students.

	Main problems	speaking %
1	Lack of confidence	100
2	I can't say what I want to say in English	90
3	Most of the teaching methods are not effective	90
4	Limited vocabulary size	70
5	Lack of fixed phrases	60
6	Always make mistakes	55
7	Lack of cultural knowledge	55
8	The language environment for speaking English is not good	50

Bearing in mind the above difficulties proposed by teachers, and students (Tables 1 and 2), an effective method for teaching speaking should address at least the following problems:

- Provides more fixed phrases;

- helps learners notice their entrenched errors;

- encourages more students to speak in English;

- provides opportunity for learning cultural knowledge;

- helps students have more confidence in speaking English;

- helps students accumulate words

There are many existing methods, for example, focusing on specific features of oral interaction (topic description, and question-answer strategies), and other methods that create conditions for oral interaction (negotiation, role-play, task implementation, and group work). Those methods were not sufficient to address the difficulties in speaking English mentioned above. This is why we introduce *speed speaking*, a new but effective method in teaching speaking.

Research question 3: What attitudes do teachers have towards *Speed Speaking*?

Based on the teachers' experiences, there are also satisfactory benefits of applying SS. For example, the teachers commented,

"SS keeps students' minds stimulated and alert. Each knows that he must think quickly and clearly in order to accomplish the task at hand. The rapid pace tends to create energy in the classroom, the anticipation of surprising and intriguing answers."

"The interior students are required to rise and walk after each one minute session. This injects energy into the room as physical movement tends to function as a stimulant."

"SS gets students out of their social cliques, breaks down walls of distrust, and fosters classroom camaraderie. Students tend to welcome

the opportunity to meet others face-to-face."

"EFL learners are deeply afraid to speak in front of class, generally for fear of being criticized or mocked. SS allows many students to simultaneously practice at the same time in a situation that offers little or no threat, thus help them build confidence in speaking English."

"SS unleashes more potential to open up opportunities for practicing English, for which learners are engaged and therefore open to new and relevant linguistic features. This promotes an improvement of grammatical and lexical competence, because language features are frequently used by students in varied contexts and activities."

This is in line with the aim of teaching speaking described in previous studies (Chappell, 2012, 2014). This is evidence that when the process of interaction stimulates spontaneous spoken discourse, this helps learners accumulate more words. Teachers are therefore more aware of setting clear aims, evaluating the functions and forms, idealizing the process and the possible outcome, and providing a platform for creative interaction.

In addition, SS is in line with "notice" (Schmidt, 1990), because it helps learners become active monitors of their own language production through listening to peers' answers on the same topic, and through having others monitor their oral production for any possibly entrenched errors.

However, there are still some potential problems with using SS. For example, collecting materials for *Speed Speaking* takes time. Accordingly, teachers should use their time effectively. This requires teachers to be alert for materials, tasks, and real-life situations that could be transferred and applied into their classroom. Some teachers commented,

"Initially students are very confused about how SS is supposed to work. They often wrongly assume that they will speak in a single couplet for the entire class session. The teacher should walk students through the process slowly and methodically."

"When responding to a question or locating gap-difference students

may offer a one word response with no explanation. When the teacher asks a student to share what his partner said that student may have no detail to share. It must therefore be impressed upon students to prod their partners for a detailed answer."

"Sometimes students may say nothing and simply write an answer which they exchange with their partner. When called upon to speak the student merely reads what his partner wrote."

"Some students may get off task and switch to their native language, and some students may not take notes."

To prevent such behaviors from the onset, preceding instructions must be given to draw the students' attention to what they will have to do later. They need to understand for themselves that keeping on tasks and taking notes will save time and be beneficial afterwards.

Research question 4: What attitudes do students have towards *Speed Speaking*?

After analyzing students' responses in the survey questionnaire, it was found out that all the invited students genuinely like this activity because it brings excitement to the class. It feels like an adventure and uncovering a mystery. Students are generally eager to escape their social fiefdoms, to build new bridges, and to interact with new voices. They all regard it as a good center point from which they can build their skills while making new friends at the same time. We summarized three excerpts (also translated from Mandarin).

Excerpt 1

The benefit from this activity is that I can learn more cultural knowledge, especially the western culture. For example, before this activity, I would never know that British drink tea the most in the world (Jennifer).

Excerpt 2

I can quickly learn some words from this activity. It captures my

attention so as to focus on some unfamiliar words or previously known words. For example, when my partner used a word that I figured out at that moment, it helps me review the word (Kevin).

Excerpt 3

I think this activity provide me a platform to talk with a partner who is a better speaker than I am. Although I scared to talk in English with a good student, I am happy to speak English with him/her when in this activity (John).

Future application of a *Speed Speaking* Lesson

This section involves how to prepare a successful *Speed Speaking* lesson. This section was concluded based on teachers' and students' attitudes towards *speed speaking*, and the students' potential problems in speaking English.

A *Speed Speaking* lesson is not simply teaching speaking skills; it involves an overall development of four skills-listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Depending on Nation's (2007) four strands, a successful *Speed Speaking* lesson in the EFL classroom should include:

1. *Speed Speaking* through meaning-focused input;

2. *Speed Speaking* through meaning-focused output;

3. form-focused *Speed Speaking*;

4. fluency-oriented *Speed Speaking*.

According to Nation & Newton (2009), a well-balanced speaking lesson should consist of four equal strands. Put simply, learners should spend an equal amount of time on each strand. Examples for each strand are illustrated as follows.

Speed Speaking through meaning-focused input

The meaning-focused input involves using language receptively, for example, through listening and reading. In this case, the "meaning-focus" for learners should be on adequate comprehension, and gaining knowledge or enjoyment or both from what they had listened to or read. This strand

prepares learners with sufficient input, which is necessary for the second strand.

Compared with systematic deliberate learning, incidental learning through meaning-focused input is limited and is contingent upon large quantities of well-prepared input to gain sufficient repetition (Schmitt, 2010; Teng, 2014b). Thus, this strand deserves a quarter of time; it is the basis for performing output activities.

In line with the requirement of this strand, certain conditions are provided as follows:

1. Students are first exposed to authentic listening and reading materials that are already familiar to them.

2. Make sure that the students are interested in the input. Moreover, large quantities of input should be provided.

3. In terms of unknown words, at least 95% of the running words in the materials should be known by the learners. Put succinctly, only five words or less words per hundred should be not within the learners' previous lexical knowledge (Hu & Nation, 2000).

4. Context clues or background knowledge should be provided in the input. This is to offer opportunities for learners to guess the meaning of unknown words.

Possible activities:

"Extensive reading" Task 1

Students self-report and write down the books they would be interested in. Teacher then prepares sufficient reading materials. The teacher can use RANGE program to assess the word coverage of a text. It can be used to compare the vocabulary of up to 32 texts at the same time. With this program, it is useful for seeing what low frequency words or high frequency words are in the reading texts (Heatley, Nation, & Coxhead, 2002).

"Shared reading" Task 2

Shared reading usually begins with a teacher reading a familiar story

book. The more familiar the text, the more relevant questions the teachers asks of the students. Stories that have predictable plots are preferable. This is to motivate students to participate early on in the shared reading experience. During the first reading, students should simply listen to the story. The teacher can encourage two students to form as a pair. One reads aloud while another simply listens. As the text includes reading multiple times, students should begin to participate by chanting, making predictions, providing key words that are important in the story, or participating in echo reading. According to previous studies (Hinkel, 2006; Morrow, 2009), this activity provides a familiar and fluent model for reading with good phrasing and intonation for learners to emulate.

Speed Speaking **through meaning-focused output**

The meaning-focused output involves using language productively, e.g., through speaking and writing. This strand also requires certain conditions:

1. The learners talk and write about materials that are familiar to them. This means only a small proportion of the language they need to use is not within their previous knowledge.

2. The learners' goal under this strand is to convey their information clearly and decently to someone else.

3. The teacher can provide plenty of opportunities for students to produce.

4. Students are encouraged to sufficiently use previous input in the first strand to make up for gaps in their productive language.

   Possible activities:

1. Students first work individually with different authentic materials. Learners need to elicit related information in their personal experiences. This helps them prepare for further preparation.

2. The next step is talking in conversations. Students share information with others or ask for opinions and facts. This can be organized as walking-and-talking or rotating pairs.

3. Students then evaluate their collected data. They identify the pros and

cons of the information they collect. This helps them make up the gap in their previous knowledge. They finally come up with their new ideas.

4. Students present their conclusions and discuss their opinions with the whole class.

5. Students then write down their findings and conclusions. This can be finished individually or in pair.

These activities provide opportunities for students to acquire knowledge, skills, and subskills within one topic or cross-topically. Learners are provided opportunities to process a great variety of language contained in the input-focused activities. Moreover, students can negotiate their own ideas related to different topics with other students. When students interact more in English, they are expected to intuitively judge the type of English speaking skills for their individual ways of picking up language. This also shepherds them to a higher level of competence, which is information-processing and social competence.

Form-focused *Speed Speaking*

Form-focused learning involves the deliberate learning of language features, such as pronunciation, spelling, vocabulary, grammar, and discourse. The aim is to reinforce sub-skill through active recycles of language features. This actually adds directly to implicit knowledge that may have been learned in the first two strands. It can also help raise consciousness to the fourth strand. There are also certain conditions for form-focused learning:

1. Teacher should provide opportunities for students to process the form-learning in deep and thoughtful ways.

2. Teacher should provide opportunities for students to have repeated attention to specific language features.

3. The language features should be simple and not beyond learners' current ability to process.

4. Language features that occur in this strand should also occur often in other three strands.

Possible activities:

1. Teacher can encourage students to practice a variety of tenses. For example, to practice the past tense, half the students complete a survey on what their classmates did yesterday. For practice with the present simple tense, the survey will be how their classmates spend on weekends, holidays. Situations will also change for practicing present perfect tense. Students are required to find out answers to questions like these:

   What beautiful cities have you visited?

   What famous people have you met?

   What horrible things have you encountered?

2. Each student is given an equal number of sentences. Students then dictate every sentence to everyone. Each student is encouraged to write down every sentence. Students form pairs and use the sentences to create a story. Students then read aloud the story in class.

3. Students write down the name of cities, football stars, countries, or other things they like. Students rotate and address others by turn to find somebody who has similar interests. Take the following as an example: "I like Switzerland. It is the happiest country in the world. Do you agree with me?" When students have made a decision which classmate or classmates they have much in common with, students then do a quick write-up to describe their classmates' experiences.

Form-focused learning is important in conducting *Speed Speaking*. Students need this strand to retain language forms in their long-term memory. They also need to form a mechanic in building sentences, which facilitates learners' accuracy in speaking English. This strand also plays a supportive role in the development of other three strands.

Fluency-oriented *Speed Speaking*.

The four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing should be practiced in this fluency development strand. Learners' aim is to receive and

convey meanings. This requires them to make the best use of what they already know. Like other strands, certain conditions are also needed to be met in this strand:

1. There are no unfamiliar language items in the materials that the learners are listening to, reading, speaking or writing. This is not a time for learning new items. It is a time for getting good at using what is already known.

2. Teacher should encourage students or provide opportunities for students to perform at a faster than usual speed.

3. There are certain amounts of input and output.

Possible activities:

Typical activities for this strand include speed reading, repeated reading, repeated retelling, and repeated listening to easy stories (two students form as a pair).

Conclusion

Including *Speed Speaking* in a chain of tasks related to every new topic based on Nation's (2007) four strands enhances students' ability in critical thinking, problem-solving, and using English competently. The teacher plays a supportive role, and this contributes to a higher level of the student ownership of English as a personal tool. In a well-prepared *Speed Speaking* lesson, students are learning to act in a more flexible and natural way. Language competency will be improved through a well-balanced arrangement of listening, speaking, reading, and writing tasks. Likewise, encouraging students to work effectively in the amplified learning environment helps them become real agents of what they are doing.

The application of *Speed Speaking* is a classroom method that integrates input, output, form, and fluency development. In this case, a quantity of related language input are provided, which facilitates students conducting output tasks. Form-focused instruction promotes a higher level of

accuracy in using grammar and vocabulary. Later they become fluent in with a repertoire of useful sentences and phrases. In addition, *Speed Speaking* considerably enhances students' relationship in class as well as outside the classroom. Thus, it is necessary for us to apply *Speed Speaking* into our classroom.

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An Investigation of the Effects of Certain Types of Teacher's Questions to Elementary Pupils' Responses

Fernand Kevin Dumalay

De La Salle University, Manila

(dumalay_fernandkevin@yahoo.com.ph)

Gail Inumerable

De La Salle University, Manila

(gail.inumerable@dlszobel.edu.ph)

Fernand Kevin A. Dumalay is a faculty of Meycauayan National High school, and a part-time Teacher Assistant at the Department of English and Applied Linguistics, De La Salle University, Manila. He is a graduate of Bachelor of Secondary Education, major in English, *cum laude,* from De La Salle University, and is currently pursuing Master of Arts in Teaching English Language at the same school.

Gail D. Inumerable has obtained her bachelor's degree at De La Salle University- Dasmariñas. At present, she is a faculty of De La Salle Santiago Zobel School under the Upper Grade School Department. She is also taking Master of Arts in Teaching English Language at De La Salle University-Manila.

Abstract

This paper examined the type of questions that usually triggered active interaction in a Grade Five Language class. Teacher's questions are categorized using Thompson (1997, in Faharian & Rezaee's, 2012). These three types are: yes/no question, closed/display question, and open/referential questions. After coding these questions, the number and the length of the students' responses, as patterned in Faharian & Rezaee's (2012) methodology, were also recorded to know which type of question/s usually elicits more responses from students. Results show that closed/display questions were asked by the teacher. However, the occurrence of referential questions, though with only few in number, still elicit complex and more natural responses from the students. Other types of questions based on teacher's purpose were also discovered in this study. Lastly, this research has been an

addition to a few studies focusing on the effect of questions in active student involvement in the classroom.

Introduction

Questions in teacher talk serve a pivotal role in effective learning. According to Farahian and Razaee (2012), these questions may serve these purposes: "focusing attention, exerting disciplinary control, getting feedback and most important of all, encouraging students to participate" (p. 162). In addition, these questions may be categorized into 1) open and closed questions, 2) display and referential questions, and 3) yes/no questions (Farahian & Razaee, 2012). Van Lier (1988 cited in Shomoossi, 2004) believes that questions help learners use the target language effectively. With the essential role of questions in learning, Gall (1970 cited in Toni & Parse, 2013) firmly suggests that researchers should enrich the study on questions in teachers' talks "to identify the criteria of effective questions and determine how questions can help students achieve educational objectives" (p. 564). Furthermore, reading researchers have also found out that teachers' questions enable fluent readers to think critically and not just be good in sounding out printed words. Teacher questions also guide the readers in connecting their background concepts to new inputs taken from new materials (Kim, 2010). Evidently, several research studies have been conducted that focus on questions in teacher talks. Tsui (1995 in Shomoossi, 2004) points out that teachers ask display questions for him to check whether or not the students know the answer (e.g. "what is an extended definition essay?", and "how to determine a plagiarized work?") while referential questions

are asked to elicit information from the students (e.g. "why is it important to learn writing an extended definition essay?", and "how will your knowledge on plagiarism help you become an effective writer?"). On the other hand, Ho (2005) believes display questions often elicit "short, mechanical responses" while referential questions elicit "lengthy, often complex responses" (p. 298). Moreover, Dalton-Puffer (2007) claims that referential questions are more authentic responses than display questions that are mostly constrained. Findings from a number of research studies showed that display questions often constitute teacher talks. Thornbury (1997) claims that display questions which are vastly used in the classroom are merely "to display students' knowledge of the language" (p. 281). In addition, Cullen (1998 cited in Faharian & Razaee, 2012) argues that display questions simply elicit answers which are simply repetitions of what students already know. In the study of Harrop and Swinson (2002), they have found out that teacher across levels-infant, junior, and secondary school- asked closed questions rather that open questions. Burns and Mills (2004) also revealed that factual questions are mostly asked by teachers in Years 2 and 6 classes in 54 different lessons. This could be explained by Edwards and Wesgate's (1998 cited in Shomoossi, 2004) claim that the predictability of answers in factual questions, thus creating an easier means in negotiating meaning.

In a study conducted by Hamiloglu and Temiz (2012), it was found that the most common type of question in the EFL class of the schools they surveyed was yes/no question. They claimed that this type of question is common to EFL context since it suits the less proficient students who are not very familiar with the target language. However, this kind of setup does not challenge learners and turned them into passive information-receiver.

Walsh (2002) asserts that the teacher's ability in using the language and in applying certain methodologies have equal importance. Undeniably, the way teachers choose and organize their questions have also been one of the factors that influence classroom interaction. This has been supported by several research studies. Barnes (1990 cited in Toni & Parse, 2013) asserts that open-ended questions

let the students think more critically, thus creating an active participation. On the other hand, closed questions have expected set of factual responses from the students, thus merely telling what they know. Their participation is more likely to be unproductive. In Brock's (1986 cited in Shomoossi, 2004) study, it was found out that responses from referential or open questions are lengthy and syntactically complex, thus creating a more effective use of the target language during classroom interaction. However, Bynes and Mhyll (2004) assert that display questions often elicit more responses despite the fact that these questions do not really resemble natural communication. In addition, McCarty (1991 cited in Toni & Parse, 2013) claims that display questions are also purposeful in terms of knowing what facts do the learners retained in mind. Wu (1993 cited in Fajuri, 2011) then argues that it is not the type of questions that lead to successful classroom interaction and leaning, but the way the teacher asks questions.

Despite these several research studies, there is a limited number of studies on classroom discourse, specifically the art of question and amount of interactivity, in the Philippines as far as the researchers' knowledge is concerned. The latest is done by Dayag et al (2011), which focused mainly on the analysis of language use in general. Also, there is still much to delve on since classroom interaction has been regarded a concrete area of analysis for successful language learning rather than teaching methodologies themselves (Farahian & Rezaee, 2012). Moreover, research evidence involving questions as one of the factors that lead to successful classroom interaction still need to be further developed (Yang, 2010).

Research Questions

The present study focuses on the types teacher talk questions that triggers active interaction of a Grade 5 Language class. In this regard, these research questions are taken into focus:

1. What are the frequently occurring questions in a fifth grade teacher talk?

2. What types of questions trigger active student participation?

Method

Participants

The participant of the study was a Language teacher from De La Salle Santiago Zobel School who is teaching for 3 years in the said institution. She has attained her Bachelor's degree and acquired some units in the Master's degree program in the University of the Philippines - Diliman.

The participant adheres to the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which focuses on different areas of language competence such as grammatical, functional, sociolinguistic, and strategic (Brown, 2001). This is also to respond to the Department of Education's mandate to ensure that student learning and achievement involve the four levels: knowledge, process, understanding, and performance as stipulated in DepEd Memo no.31. Thus, this Philippine Education reform also affects personal teaching approaches and questioning techniques.

Twenty-three boys and thirteen girls in the Grade 5 level participated in the study. In a total of thirty-nine students, most of them use English as their first language four of them who are Koreans are second language learners.

Instruments

The data collected was composed of three 50-minute videotaped consecutive sessions of a fifth grade Language class composed of 39 students. These were transcribed by the researchers with the help of the teacher.

Data Collection

The Language coordinator was informed regarding the objectives of the study and was asked for her suggestion on who among the teachers in the fifth grade could participate. The teacher who was suggested by the coordinator had been informed and had agreed to have her and her class as respondents. Upon seeking the approval of the teacher, a letter addressed to the principal of the school, was also given asking her permission to videotape three sessions of a Grade 5 language class. The letter also stated that the confidentiality of the data gathered would be ensured and that all recordings would be solely used for research purposes.

The teacher concerned was asked regarding her preferred schedule for the video recording. A videographer from the Audio-Visual department was asked to record four of her classes. Each class lasted for 50 minutes.

The four 50-minute videos were then transcribed and coded for data analysis. The questions were categorized as: (1) yes/no, (2) closed/display, and (3) open/referential questions. Moreover, the number and the length of the students' responses for different types of questions asked by the teacher were tallied manually.

Data Analysis

The data gathered were analysed considering one utterance as basic unit of a count. Nasir and Abdul Majid Khand (2006, in Fujiri, 2011) defined an utterance as "a complete meaningful segment of conversation dealing with single continuous data." Thus, a single word can still convey a meaning like what a long sentence does.

The questions in the transcripts were highlighted, and then counted. Afterwards, these were analyzed using the categories proposed by Thompson (1997, in Faharian & Rezaee's, 2012). These three types are: yes/no question, closed/display question, and open/referential questions. After coding these questions, the number and the length of the students' responses, as patterned in Faharian & Rezaee's (2012) methodology, were also recorded to know which type of question/s usually elicits more responses from students.

Results and Discussion

Questioning techniques have been very vital in enhancing critical thinking. Moreover, the types of questions asked greatly affect the level of understanding the students can achieve. The following section presents the results of the data gathering to answer each research question and a detailed discussion anchored on previous research studies.

Research Question 1: What are the frequently occurring questions in a fifth grade teacher talk?

Table 1
Types of Teacher Questions

Type of Question	Session 1 (out of 86)	%	Session 2 (out of 66)	%	Session 3 (out of 137)	%	TOTAL (out of 289)	%
Display	35	40.70%	13	19.70%	61	44.53%	109	37.72%
Referential	11	12.80%	28	42.42%	34	24.82%	73	25.26%
Yes/No	20	23.25%	14	21.21%	18	13.14%	52	17.99%
Others	20	23.25%	11	16.67%	24	17.52	55	19.03%

Table 1 shows the frequency of the types of questions that the teacher asked. Evidently, closed/display questions were asked most frequently (37.72%) by the teacher in the three consecutive sessions of a particular topic. Usually, this type of question aimed at getting specific and short answers. A great number of display questions were observed in two particular sessions, in Session 1 (40.70%), where the teacher started to introduce the topic, and in Session 3 (44.53%), where the teacher evaluated students' progress. The result is consistent with the findings of Farahian and Rezaee (2012) in their study on EFL classroom interaction that revealed the prevalence of close/display questions over open/referential. However, they claimed that the results were affected by the teacher's low proficiency in language use and lack of experience. But, for this particular investigation, the teacher was known to have good language proficiency, and a candidate for outstanding teacher award. This means that the teacher consciously relied on display questions to check whether the students grasped the concepts and ideas she discussed in class. We could infer from the data that the teacher's goal is for the students to retain the information effectively, necessary for the development of the target skill (writing a letter).

As can be observed from the excerpts below, three display questions were asked to elicit an answer. This is already a strategy employed by the teacher to get a

specific answer from the students. This was found effective since the questions became clearer to the students through reiteration, therefore was easier to answer.

EXAMPLE 1:

T: Next one, **it is where the sender of the letter lives, and it goes with the date when the letter was written. What is this part?** Boards up! **The answer is?**

C: Heading

EXAMPLE 2:

T: **Why are margins important**? We're always reminded to put margins in our letters. **Why?** Those are just spaces anyway. **But why do we have to put margins?**

S: So the person you are writing to (xxxx)

The next set of examples below shows that teacher's questions do not really have to follow a typical question structure. Instead, the manner of delivery is also a factor to consider a strand of words a question. These questions usually do not have a clear meaning when taken singly. They should be in context to be classified into a specific type of question.

EXAMPLE 3:

T**:** If you can remember, this was our example yesterday. **What is this called?**

C: (answering in chorus)

T: If you want to answer, raise your hand and answer in sentence form. Kristine.

S3: It is the heading.

T: **This one?** Karen,

S4: It is the greeting.

T: Or Salutation. **Next one, Miggy**

S4:	Body
T:	In sentence form,
S4:	That part is called the body.
T:	**How about this?**
S5:	That is the closing.
T:	**This one, Zeki?**
S6:	It is the signature.

The second most frequently asked is open/referential type of questions garnering 25.26% of all the queries asked. Referential questions are open-ended and usually allow students to use higher order thinking skills of evaluating, inferring, or critiquing. Moreover, students usually voice out personal experiences and opinions. Students' answers vary and are unpredicted (Edwards and Wesgate's 1998 cited in Shomoossi, 2004). This type was mainly used in recalling students' past experiences, or getting other unknown information to further develop the discussion. Brock (1986) suggested that the utilization of this type of questions may have an effect to the quality of students' outputs and responses. She said that this type also provides learners an opportunity to use the target language. This was found valid in this study for the students were able to provide quality responses when asked open/referential questions. In addition, it is observable that in Session 2 (42.42%), more referential questions were asked than display questions. Since the topic has already been introduced during the first session, the second session focused more on questions that allow student to explain or to express personal insights rather than to tell the facts that they know. This type was also used to elicit some relevant experiences for the students relevant to the topic. Moreover, there are also questions that are made by the teacher to clarify or to structure the flow of discussion in relation to writing personal letters.

One referential question (Example 4, first question) asked by the teacher did not elicit answers in strands of words, but by raising of hands of the students.

EXAMPLE 4:

S12: Sir Ronnie will be happy because he enjoys his Math class.

T: **Have you ever tried doing this? Appreciating your classmate's friendship by writing him a letter? Who has done this before?**
Students raised their hands

Another observation (Example 5) is that referential questions helped the students relate affectively to the topic which increased participation. Since learners could relate and express their own thought regarding the questions posed by the teacher, active class involvement was evident.

EXAMPLE 5:

T: Like all personal letters, there should be a tone that we should follow.

S8: The letter has a tone of being friendly.

T: Being friendly and positive… **What if you receive a letter and you feel someone is upset or furious? Stefan, how would you feel?**

S9: I will feel bad because it is saying something bad about me.

T: Remember, there is always a good way of saying things. **In this letter, do you think Sir Ronnie would appreciate the student's message? Who says yes? Who says no? Those who said yes, why? Why will he appreciate?** Yes, Casey.

S10: The student likes his class.

T: **What else, Sandra?**

S11: The student really likes Sir Ronnie because he makes Math easier for him.

Although most referential questions would elicit long responses, the example below shows that it may not always be the case (3-word responses). The teacher at this particular moment simply wants to know if the student had accomplished the assignment she gave.

EXAMPLE 6:

T: **So what kind of letter did you prepare?**

S3:   Thank you letter.

T: **To whom?**

S3:   To Miss Saida.

As the researchers analyzed the transcribed data, some questions were found to be irrelevant to the topic being discussed in class, and could not be classified into any of the three types proposed by Thompson (1997); therefore, we saw the need to separate them. These questions served as a strategy for the teacher (1) to get the attention of the class, (2) to signal transition (from one activity to another), (3) or to structure the class flow. These were present in all the three sessions and garnered 19.03% of the total questions asked; making it one of the least frequently asked questions.

These questions are not related to the topic discussed, do not structure the flow of discussion, and do not sustain interaction. The second question is even syntactically different and not meant to be answered by the students. It simply required students to show specific paralinguistic cues which are known to both the teacher and the students (e.g. raising of hands).

EXAMPLE 7:

T: **Who got perfect?**

        Students raised their hands.

T: Good job! **4? 3? 2? 1? 0?** Very Good! No one got zero.

In example 9 and 10, it would be noticed that there were no pauses made that would allow students to respond. It could possibly imply that the teacher did not expect actual answers from her students. What she actually wanted was an affirmation or agreement from her students which could be shown through gestures (nodding, smiling, etc.).

EXAMPLE 9:

T: **You like to watch videos, right?** This video will let you appreciate the importance of writing letters properly.

T: Very good! **Your previous activity is a letter of invitation, right?** The logical arrangement was presented.

EXAMPLE 10

T: And you don't want that kind of communication, right? It would result in   misunderstanding. Thank you, Juliana.

Lastly, the least frequent type is yes/no questions. It only occurred 52 times out of 289 questions (17.99%) across the three sessions. This is in contrast to the study done by Hamiloglu and Temiz (2012) where they found that the most preferred question type is yes/no by EFL teachers in some selected schools surveyed. This difference in results may be due to the fact that the study had a different context, where respondents were not very familiar with the target language yet. Thompson (1997, in Hamiloglu & Temiz, 2012) says that this type is easy to answer, and therefore suited for low proficient students. This may explain why the class who participated in this study had less yes/no questions, since most of the students are proficient and ready for more challenging tasks. On the other hand, it would be observed that Y/N type was asked frequently in Session 2 (21.21%) as compared to closed/display questions. Since this phase of instruction involves processing of information, the teacher utilized Y/N type of question to make sure that the learners have understood the topic through short responses.

An example below shows that teacher attempted to see if the students knew the qualities of a good letter by responding "yes," or "no." Although this question seemed to be simple, it could still be used by the teacher to evaluate students' understanding of the topic.

EXAMPLE 10

    T: How about well-developed content? Let us make an example Yujin's letter to Sir

            Ronnie. **Is the letter well-developed? Will Sir Ronnie understand it?**

    C: Yes!

On the other hand, some of yes/no questions asked by the teacher for certain purposes. The examples below show that the teacher was not expecting students to answer, but just for her to prepare or to manage the class.

EXAMPLE 11

    T: **Are you now ready for the next part?** For the open ended, you will revise based on format. Tomorrow, we'll have the writing of the letter itself.

EXAMPLE 12:

    T: Personal letters should have… eyes on the screen. Hands free. I'll give you time downloading later. **Are you ready?**

In another set of examples written below, the teacher used Y/N question for clarification or additional inputs from the students.

EXAMPLE 13

    T: **Any other insight about this activity?**

EXAMPLE 14

    T: **So did you get the answer?** This time you'll share. I'll give you a few minutes for that. **Will that be enough?**

The data revealed that there were a number of different types questions asked in this class, and most of them were answered by the students. It was noted that whenever the student failed to answer a question correctly, the teacher paraphrased

it or even sometimes explain a little about the answer. There was always an attempt to elicit quality responses.

Research Question 2: What types of questions trigger active student participation?

Table 2.
Teacher's Questions and Students' Reponses

	Questions Asked by the Teacher	Questions Answered by the Students
Display	109	76 (69.72%)
Referential	73	47 (64.38%)
Yes/No	52	20 (38.46%)

As can be seen from the Table 2, closed/display questions had the highest number of responses (69.72%) in relation to the number of questions asked. This may be the case because closed/display questions are knowledge-based and do not require complex answers from the students. It was observed that the students could give correct answers to the teacher most of the time which implied that they are good at retention as they recall most of the facts and concepts discussed in class. Another hypothesis that could be drawn from this is that the result has also something to do with the level of confidence of the learners. Since answers to this type of questions, the students are more likely to sure whether their idea is right or wrong.

EXAMPLE 15

T: **So which personal letter is correct or clearer and more effective?**

S29:   Letter B

Table 2.1
Length of Reponses for Open/Display Questions

OPEN/DISPLAY	Session 1		Session 2		Session 3		Total
less than three words	13	46.43%	6	54.55%	13	35.14%	32

more than three words	15	53.57%	5	45.45%	24	64.86%	44

It can be seen from Table 2.1, that although display question would often require short responses, the students would still produce longer responses (more than three words) especially in Session 1 and in Session 3, having 53.57% and 64.86% of the total responses for each session respectively. Usually, the teacher asked display questions in general and would call random students to answer the question. Again, closed/display questions aimed at checking students' understanding so they play an important role in knowledge creation (session 1) and knowledge evaluation (session 3). The nature of the question type makes it effective in triggering active student participation. But it may still depend on the quality of questions the teachers ask.

Contrary to what Dalton-Puffer (2007, in Farahian and Rezaee, 2012) claimed that display questions are "notoriously restricted, quite often consisting of one word" (p.162), display questions may also require students to think critically. The examples below show that the students provided long responses since the questions required higher-order thinking (example 16), and at the same time, could be answered in different ways (example 17).

EXAMPLE 16

    T: **What will happen if you missed a part?**

    S21: Ahm… The letter will not be completed and it will be a little bit harder to understand.

EXAMPLE 17:

    T: The proofreading. **What's proof reading?** We did a lot of that yesterday. Franco.

    S27: Reading the letters so you see your mistakes.

Referential questions also played an important role in making the classroom discussion interactive having 47 out of 73 questions answered (64.38%). Shomoossi (1997) hypothesized that since referential questions require personal interpretation

and judgment of the students, it would "create more interaction in the classroom" (p.4). Referring to Table 2.3, it did create an active class participation as it consistently enabled students to produce long responses (more than three words) for the three consecutive sessions. The researchers also observe that whenever the teacher asked referential questions, she was talking to specific students most of the time, and a sustained interaction was evident. Example 18 shows that the teacher attempted to maintain a conversation with a student in order to find out the content of the letter, and evaluate the student's work.

Table 2.2
Length of Reponses for Closed/Referential Questions

REFERENTIAL	Session 1		Session 2		Session 3		Total
less than three words	0		2	11.76%	7	36.84%	9
more than three words	11	100%	15	88.24%	12	63.16%	38

EXAMPLE 18

> T: **How about the other group?**
>
> S7:   We wrote a Thank you letter.
>
> T: **For whom?**
>
> S7:   (xxxx)
>
> T: **What's the content of your letter?**
>
> S7:   I'll thank him for being a good friend.
>
> T: Okay. You'll thank him for being a good friend. Is he a good friend?

Like display questions, referential questions may sometimes require short responses which depended on the structuring of the teacher's question. It could be observed from the excerpt (example 19) that the teacher just wanted a specific answer and did not require the student higher-order thinking skills.

EXAMPLE 19:

	T:	**So what kind of letter did you prepare?**
	S3:	Thank you letter.
	T:	**To whom?**
	S3:	To Miss Zaila.

Table 2.3
Length of Reponses for Yes/No Questions

YES/NO	Session 1		Session 2		Session 3		Total
one word	5	100%	8	100%	6	85.71%	19
two to three words	0		0		1	14.29%	1

Surprisingly, Yes/No type of question elicited the least number of responses from the students which is inconsistent with Farahian's and Rezaee's findings (2012). Table 2 shows that 32 of the 52 questions asked were not answered. Two possible reasons led to this occurrence. First, the question was asked in general and the teacher did not attempt to make an effort that the question be answered (as in example 20). Second, the question was not meant to be answered 9 (as in example 21) for the teacher requires an action not a reply. As can be seen from Table 2.3, most of the answers of the students are consisting of a word only. Like what Farahian and Rezaee found in their study, this type of question was used by the teacher only to affirmative answer from the students, which could be expressed orally or gestures.

EXAMPLE 20:

S5:   …because if you don't have a positive tone, it will give personal letter (xxxx).

T: **Does it make sense? Do you agree?** Thank you so much. He focused on the parts and the tone. The last one to share is Sandra.

EXAMPLE 21:

T: **Any other groups?** This time, I'll return you the letter you made based on the (xxxx)

The data revealed that only closed/display and open/referential questions had a part in majority of the interaction between the teacher and the students. But it is important to consider that other types of questions still have certain functions in classroom discourse.

Conclusion and Implications

The researchers found that the most common type of question in an ESL classroom is closed/display, which also produced the highest number of responses from the students. This was supported by other studies (Farahian & Rezaee, 2012; Yang, 2010), claiming that there is a number reasons why teachers preferred this type more than the others. Although this may be the case, the current research also found the importance of referential questions to the fulfillment of the general goal of the teacher. This type of questions made it possible for the teacher and the students connect relevant experiences that enriched their learning. Lastly, yes/no question played minimal role in teacher-student interaction since its main purpose is to establish classroom routine and to produce expected student behavior. On one hand, the study also discovered that there are certain questions which cannot be categorized since they do not aim to initiate interaction, and are irrelevant to the discussion. However, it still depends on the teacher's questioning skills on how he/she ensure that learning happens in the classroom.

As regards classroom instruction and pedagogical practices, this study can guide teachers across discipline on how they can improve their instruction and enrich the learning experiences of the students. The findings may be used for them to develop questioning techniques that will suit a diversity of learners. As questions can be advantageous to both the instructor and the learners, they also pose harms if not utilized properly. To the researchers of the field, this paper may serve as a stepping stone to further understand the role of questions in the classroom. For instance, a comparative study may be done on the use of referential and display questions in the attempt to answer which can result in better learning experience. An investigation on the perceptions of both the students and the teachers on different

questions types which may have effects on the interactivity in the classroom may also be conducted to further current study's findings. These are some points of interest which could be further explored. Although this research study provided valuable insights, it is hoped that more investigations will be done to explain other essentials issues regarding teacher talk and the art of questioning in the classroom.

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She likes to learn/learning English…On Subjectless Nonfinite Clauses as Monotransitive Variants of Verbal Complements in Philippine English

Teri An Joy G. Magpale-Jang

Institute of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Philippine State College of Aeronautics
(tean9@yahoo.com)

Ramsey S. Ferrer

Institute of Liberal Arts and Sciences, Philippine State College of Aeronautics
(ferrerramsey@yahoo.com)

Teri An Joy G. Magpale-Jang is an instructor in the Philippine State College of Aeronautics. She finished her Bachelor of Arts/Bachelor of Secondary Education major in Literature (AB/BSE Literature) with an Academic Honor in the Philippine Normal University-Manila. She recently finished her Master of Arts in Teaching English Language (MATEL) in the De La Salle University-Manila.

Ramsey S. Ferrer is an instructor in the Philippine State College of Aeronautics and a part-time lecturer in the De La Salle-College of St. Benilde. He obtained Bachelor of Secondary Education in English and graduated Cum Laude at the Philippine Normal University. He has presented research articles in both national and international conferences (HEIs & TESOL Asia) and published an article in the International Journal of Research and Education. Currently, he is finishing his Master of Arts in English Language Education (MAELED) at the De La Salle University-Manila.

Abstract

Studies on Philippine English have typically focused on the different aspects of its grammar. However, subjectless nonfinite clauses as verbal complements have not been investigated yet. This paper scrutinizes subjectless nonfinite clauses as monotransitive variants of verbal complements in PhilE complementation based on Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik (1985). Accordingly, this paper focuses on to-infinitive and ing-gerund constructions as two frequent nonfinite clauses in examining PhilE monotransitive verbal complementation. The present study takes a corpus-based approach in analyzing a large collection of spoken and written texts of ICE-PHI corpus. Considering the three verb classes (emotive, aspectual and retrospective) which all use the to-infinitive and –ing gerund construction, the study reveals some deviations (which can be considered unique)from Quirk et al.'s description of verbal complements specifically on how Filipinos utilize retrospective verbs in both spoken and written discourse. However, the use of emotive and aspectual verbs shows adherence to Quirk et al.'s description. This paper's grammatical investigation further discusses the pedagogical implications of such adherences and deviations in teaching English in the Philippines.

Introduction

There has been a growing interest on the rise of different English varieties in the Asian ecology (e.g Bautista, 1999; Kachru, 1986; Svalberg, 1998; to name a few) These Asian varieties of English have turned into a "seductive linguistic commodity with nativized ideological, economical and functional reincarnations" (Kachru, 2005, p.3) which further results in language reform among Asian countries. In the Philippines, linguists have been examining Philippine English (PhilE) as a variety of English since 1969 through Teodoro A. Llamzon's Standard Filipino English. This study by Llamzon (1969) proves that the standardization of PhilE is a prolific area of language research.

Research studies on this language variety have begun to flourish after the production of ICE-PHI, which made the corpus-based analyses of PhilE possible. Recently, a considerable amount of research has been done on ICE-PHI which looked at the different aspects of grammar (e.g. Bautista, 2004; Borlongan, 2008; Dita, 2008; Nelson, 2005; Morales,2013; Schneider, 2005).

In his study, Borlongan (2008) describes the general patterns of use of verbal complementation and its' variants in PhilE. Despite this interest, subjectless nonfinite clauses as verbal complements have not been investigated yet. In light of this problem, this paper attempts to address the gap and to contribute to the growing sophistication of studies in PhilE.

This paper uses the framework of Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik (1985) in analyzing the subjectless nonfinite clauses used in verbal complementation. Based on them, subjectless nonfinite clause is one of the variants of monotransitive complementation with the Subject-Verb-Direct Object pattern. Furthermore, Quirk et al. highlight that in nominal function, only two kinds of nonfinite clauses normally occur: the to-infinitive clause and the –ing gerund clause. Accordingly, this paper focuses on these two frequent nonfinite clauses in examining PhilE monotransitive verbal complementation.

In terms of being "subjectless", Quirk et al. explain that the "understood" subject of the infinitive clause is always the same as the subject of the super ordinate clause. In other words, the subject of the nonfinite verb is usually identical with the study of the preceding verb. Here are some examples:

> E.g (1)*Your shoes need mending.*
> (2)*Your shoes need to be mended.*

It has been emphasized in this paper that under the classification of "subjectless nonfinite clauses", to- infinitive clause and –ing gerund clause constructions normally occur as direct objects in sentences. However, the distinction of the two should be made clear. Based on Quirk et al., the main difference lies on the aspect or mood. As a rule, the infinitive gives a sense of mere "potentiality" for

action, as in (3) *She hoped to learn English*, while the gerund gives a sense of the actual "performance" of the action itself, as in (4) *She enjoyed learning English.*

Accordingly, this paper attempts to analyze the subjectless nonfinite clauses as monotransitive variants, specifically to-infinitive and –ing gerund constructions in PhilE verbal complementation on the basis of these research questions:

1.What are frequent patterns of use of infinitive/gerund nonfinite clauses as verbal complements?
2.What are the semantic features/content of these constructions?
3.What are the pragmatic functions of these constructions?
4.What are the pedagogical implications of such adherences and deviations in teaching English in the Philippines?

Method

In this study, both quantitative and qualitative approaches were used in order to provide a substantial account for the analysis of the target linguistic features.

This study was based on material from the International Corpus of English (ICE): million words of spoken and written Philippine English. ICE-PHI is a collection of the English language spoken and writte texts produced by the Filipino speakers of the language. The following entries are found in ICE-PHI:

		Number of Entries
Spoken	Private Dialogues	100
	Public Dialogues	80
	Scripted Monologues	50
	Unscripted Monologues	70
Written	Non-printed	
	Student Writing	20
	Letters	
	Printed	
	Academic	40
	Popular	20

		20
Reportage		20
Instructional		20
Persuasive		10
Creative		20
Total number of Entries		500

A preliminary cursory analysis was done in order to find out if there were nonfinite clauses to-infinitive and –ing gerund used as verb complements in the corpus. The most frequent verbs which normally occur with both to-infinitive and –ing gerund construction (eg. *like, want, wish, hope, enjoy, love, try*), according to Quirk et al. (1985) were used to analyze the frequency of subjectless nonfinite clauses. The corpus was then analyzed using *Antconc*, a text analysis programme, and was scrutinized to obtain quantitative analysis of the most frequently used patterns of the nonfinite clauses infinitives and participles. Through a tabular and graphical presentation of the most commonly occurring patterns of use, the researchers finally interpreted the semantics and discourse implications of the target linguistic pattern.

Results and Discussion

Overall Distribution of Nonfinite Clauses in ICE-PHI Corpus

Table 1
Summary of Distribution of Nonfinite Clauses in ICE-PHI Corpus

Verbs	to-infinitive			-ing gerund		
	Spoken	Written	Total	Spoken	Written	Total
want	867	154	1021	0	0	0
need/s/ed	278	99	377	0	0	8
like/s/ed	546	87	363	130	1	131
try/ies/ed	298	54	352	24	2	26
love/s	75	7	82	32	1	33
hope/s/ed	14	20	34	0	0	0
wish/s/ed	15	15	30	0	0	0
enjoy/s	0	0	8	10	0	10

Table 1 shows the distribution of non-finite clauses as verbal complements (to-infinitive and –ing gerund) in ICE-PHI corpus. As revealed, the verb want is frequently complemented with to-infinitive clauses as well as the verbs need, like, and try.

a. <ICE-PHI:S1B-004#60:1:A> It is my mother who wants to eat sandwich

On the other hand, like is usually partnered with –ing gerund.

a. <ICE-PHI:S1B-004#60:1:A> I like joining those kinds of seminars.

Syntactic Features of Subjectless Nonfinite clauses in PhilE

This paper highlights the use of subjectless nonfinite clauses in PhilE which appears in the following structures:

A. Direct Object in Independent Clauses
(5)   Dubbed as a senatoriable with a golden voice she hopes to sing away to the hearts of the Filipinos with a campaign to fight graft and reduce taxes <ICE-PHI:S1B-029#3:1:A>

In sentence (5), the construction "to sing away" serves as the direct object of the main verb "hope".

B. Direct Object in Interrogative Sentences
(6)   What do you want to talk about? <ICE-PHI:S1A-013#>
(7)   Why do you want to talk about Erap? <ICE-PHI:S1A-017#10:1:B>

These two sentences (6 and 7) both use the construction "to talk about" as nonfinite clauses.

C. Direct Object in Relative Clause
(8)   It is my mother who would want to eat sandwich. <ICE-PHI:S1B-004#60:1:A>

The relative clause "who would want to eat sandwich" uses the infinitive construction "to eat" as the nonfinite direct object.

D. Direct Object in Hypothetical Statements
(9)   Well if he wants to join us <&> speaker B chuckles. <ICE-PHI:S1A-037#138:1:A>

Hypothetical sentence (9) uses the nonfinite clause "to join" as a direct object.

Nonfinite Clauses are also used as direct objects by complex verb phrases in PhilE. The following are some examples:

E. [Modal + base form] + Nonfinite Clause as Direct Object
(10)   That is why we would like to encourage more and more of our entrepreneurs <indig> <ICE-PHI:S1B-004#64:1:A>

(11)   Well uh right now we would like to seek the help of the government the D O T in seeking more liberal uh arrangements with uh countries. <ICE-PHI:S1B-027#82:1:G>

Sentences (10) and (11) use the nonfinite constructions "to encourage" and "to seek". It is noticeable that the modal "would" occur with verb "like". The use of would in these sentences express a need to "communicate non-assertiveness" (Friginal, 2011, p. 54) as opposed when speakers say:

(10a) That is why we like to encourage more and more of our entrepreneurs

(11a) Well uh right now we would like to seek the help of the government the D O T in seeking more liberal uh arrangements with uh countries.

It is noticeable that sentences (10a) and (11a) do not convey the same authoritative tone as sentences (10) and (11). Hence, the use of would with the main verb intensifies the potentiality of action.

F.   [Negator + Main Verb] + Nonfinite Clause

(12)   I do not wish to delve into the issue of how and why almost two point five million Filipinos have migrated to North <ICE-PHI:S2B-025#36:2:A>

(13)   No he doesn't want to go to U P. <ICE-PHI:S1A-002#328:1:B>

Quirk et. al assert that the to-infinitive construction expresses potentiality of a future action. However, through the negator (e.g no/not) and main verb combination, the nonfinite clauses "to delve" and "to go" conveys impossibility of action.

G. [Diminisher + Main Verb] + Nonfinite Clause
(14)   You only need to buy the basil <ICE-PHI:S1A-014#8:1:A>

(15)   I think you simply need to hold it <ICE-PHI:S2A-055#130:5:A>

The use of diminishers with main verbs scales the potentiality/actuality of actions downwards. Furthermore, it roughly means "to a small extent" (Coronel, 2011, p. 94)

(7a) You only need to buy the basil. [You don't need to cook it.]

(8a) I think you simply need to hold the capsule. [You
don't need to swallow it.]

Strangely, it also appears in the following constructions:

H. [Main Verb+ To] as a Discourse Filler

(5)   But I want to I want to I want to <unclear> listen carefully <ICE-PHI:S1A-021#110:1:B>

I. [Main Verb+ To] in a Figurative language

(6)   In a tight situation, try to reach the mountains where my people are. <ICE-PHI:W2F-010#122:1>

PhilE reveals syntactic variations in the use of subjectless nonfinite clauses. To clear out the identities of subjectless nonfinite clauses, Quirk et.al (1985) present some constraints on the use of these grammatical items:

a. It (nonfinite clause) can be replaced by a pronoun "it" co referring to a clause or a by noun phrase nominalizing the meaning of the clause.

(7)   <ICE-PHI:S1A-072#135:1:B> Uhm I hope <u>to finish my masters</u> in three years.

I hope to finish <u>it</u> in three years

(8)   <ICE-PHI:S1A-010#32:1:B> I don't want <u>to become a lawyer</u>.

* I don't want <u>it.</u>

b. It can be made the focus of a pseudo-cleft sentence.

(9)   <ICE-PHI:S1A-039#108:1:A> I just want to share the cookies.
        *What he/she wants is <u>share the cookies.</u>

(21) <ICE-PHI:S1A-038#7:1:A> <[> I don't </[> </{> I don't like saying bad words.

*What he/she doesn't like is <u>saying bad words.</u>

c. The introductory "for" itself, where it appears, is a marker of the construction as a nonfinite clause.

(10)   **<ICE-PHI:S1B-072#215:2:B>** I need to use this tool for the patient.

*What he/she needs is <u>for him/her to use this tool</u>.

(11)   **<ICE-PHI:S1A-052#91:1:B>** She wants to teach that class.

*What she wants is <u>for her to teach that class.</u>

d. A subject pronoun in the objective case can often be replaced (in formal style) by a possessive pronoun.

(12)   **<ICE-PHI:S2A-049#5:1:A>** He doesn't want me to come.

*He doesn't like <u>me/my</u> coming often.

The Semantics and Pragmatics of Subjectless Nonfinite Clauses in PhilE

The difference in terms of aspect or mood is valuable in using to-infinitive and –ing gerund constructions (Quirk et.al, 1985). Basically, infinitive conveys 'potentiality' of action while gerund expresses 'actuality' of performance.

To further analyze the semantic features of non-finite constructions, Quirk et.al (1985) consider the three classes of verbs that take both constructions:

A. Emotive Verbs
The findings of this paper emphasize the following emotive verbs:
1. Verb "want"
It is worth mentioning that, although the verb "want" mostly occurred with to-infinitive complementation, the data show no occurrence with that of –ing gerund complementation. This significant discrepancy likely shows that speakers of PhilE generally use "want" to express 'potentiality' rather than 'actuality' in both spoken and written discourse.

This semantic use of verb "want" adheres to Quirk et.al's stand regarding the contextual use of 'potentiality'. This further signifies the bias on the use of infinitives which tends to favor the "hypothetical and nonfactual contexts" in PhilE spoken and written discourse (pp. 1192). Here are some examples:

(13)   **<ICE-PHI:S1A-072#345:1:B>** I want to get a four <O> laughter </O>

? I want getting a four.

(14)   **<ICE-PHI:S1A-036#218:1:C>** I want to marry [the] Vietnam figurative language

? I want marrying Vietnam figurative language.

On the other hand, there are also "want + to" constructions which can also be expressed in "want +ing" construction. Here are some examples:

(15)   <ICE-PHI:S1A-027#56:1:B> I want to use that word [which] I like it

? I want using that word [which] I like.

(16)   <ICE-PHI:S1A-032#72:1:A> No I want to teach

? No, I want teaching.

It is worth emphasizing that the findings of this study yield no occurrence of "want + ing" construction.

2. Verb "like"

Emotive verbs with gerund construction tend to express an action which definitely happens or has happened. In this study, the verb "like" is the most frequent verb which appears with an –ing gerund construction. Here are some examples:

(17)   <ICE-PHI:S1A-038#222:1:B> Uh uhm <,> I like wearing skirts.

(18)   <ICE-PHI:S1A-049#191:1:B> But then I don't like leaving the theater sad

(19)   <ICE-PHI:S1A-063#170:1:B> You know <,> I don't really like drinking hard.

Significantly, Quirk et al. further recognize the use of emotive verbs (e.g. like, love, want,   as "private state verbs" (pp.) as incompatible with the semantic meaning of progressive actions (currency). Hence, these findings likely to conclude that PhilE exhibits adherence to that of Quirk et. al's framework on subjectless non-finite clauses.

B. Aspectual Verbs

In the context of aspectual semantic meaning, Quirk et al. (1985) emphasize that the association of –ing gerund with the progressive aspect influences the preference where multiple activities are involved. The following examples present that the verbs like, try, love and enjoy use –ing non-finite clauses in emphasizing the "beginning, continuing, and ending" (p. 1192) contexts of actions.

(20)   <ICE-PHI:S2B-026#77:1:A> I like administering the medicine for high blood pressure to a patient with low blood pressure

(21)   <ICE-PHI:S1B-074#69:1:A> I try wearing your contact lens for the for at least two hours and then increase your wearing schedule by four hours.

(22)   <ICE-PHI:S1A-062#75:1:B> I love cooking pasta and uhm uhm like I said my Mom cooks.

(23)   <ICE-PHI:S1A-052#91:1:B> Oh I enjoy dealing with <O> chuckle </O> uh students like uh molding their minds or helping them become a better person.

C. Retrospective Verbs

Quirk et al. limit the semantic features of retrospective verbs using the verbs forget, remember, and regret. For these three verbs, the difference between 'potentiality' and 'actuality' is extended into the past context of actions. According to Quirk et al., the infinitive construction is used to describe an action which takes place after a mental process while a gerund construction refers to a preceding action.

The data of the present study yield single occurrence to the construction "remember/forget/regret + to". This occurrence of "remember + to" is coded through this example:

(24)   <ICE-PHI:W2F-010#146:1>
<quote> “ <indig> Ta </indig> Bel, can. .... can you remember to buy my father some. ... <it> kati </it> ...<it> kati </it> ."

However, this example does not demonstrate Quirk et al.'s description of a retrospective verb with an infinitive complementation. This sentence simply expresses an interrogation of possibility instead of a description of the resulted action.

With an –ing gerund phrase, the findings present only two occurrences. This paper considers the following examples:

(25)   <ICE-PHI:W1A-016#108:2> I remember missing my friends; missing a place called the bamboo forest - a tiny patch of clearing

(26)   <ICE-PHI:W2B-015#32:1> I remember questioning an elderly man once about a mass in his inguinal area.

These examples give a clearer picture on how –ing constructions are used. Quirk et al. emphasize that since retrospective verbs are used to express extended past actions, main verbs should be into past forms (e.g. remembered, forgot, regret). However, these examples deviate to

that of Quirk et al.'s description on retrospective verbs. This paper argues that the deviation in PhilE is apparent to the speakers' expression of their current mental state rather than a description of an extended past action.

Pedagogical Implications of the Study

In terms of pedagogical implications, this paper emphasizes the following language teaching concepts: Traditional Approach vs. Semantic Approach, Focus on Tense and Aspect Features of Verbs and Focus on Retrospective Verbs.

Traditional Approach versus Semantic Approach of Teaching Verbal Complements

This paper argues that language teachers should use the Semantic Approach (Kirby, 1987) of teaching grammar rather than the Traditional Approach (Graver, 1986). In Traditional Approach, Graver emphasizes the enumeration of verbs that naturally occurs with either to-infinitive or –ing gerund constructions as verbal complements. For an instance, there are 47 verbs which are commonly followed by the to-infinitive. It includes the verbs agree, decide, claim and offer.

On the other hand, Semantic Approach by Kirby (1987) argues that verbs possess well-defined properties which help learners to predict the type of complement which can be selected. For example, the verbal property of factivity involves the presupposition by the speaker that the information contained in the complements is true. As Kirby notes, it is contrasted with mere assertion or assumption. Factive verbs (e.g. regret, admit, acknowledge, etc.) are complemented by the –ing gerund clauses, while the non-factive verbs (e.g. hope, want, wish, etc.) are complemented by the to-infinitive clause. Here are some examples:

a. <ICE-PHI:S1A-072#135:1:B>He resented (factive verb) paying the bill.

b. <ICE-PHI:S1A-072#135:1:B> Uhm I hope (non factive verb) to finish my masters in three years.

Focus on Tense and Aspect features of Verb

Kirby (1987) claims that the choice of complement depends on the tense and aspect features of the verb. In the following examples the tense feature overlaps with the factive feature since past actions are invariably factual.

a. <ICE-PHI:B1A-019#108:2> He stopped (past action) smoking

b. <ICE-PHI:W1A-016#108:2> He wants (future action) to smoke.

While the choice of gerund or infinitive is decided, partly by the contrast between durative and non-durative aspect. Volitional verbs such as want, wish, refuse, etc. refer to the onset of an action and are complemented by the infinitive. When the reference is to the action in its entirety, the gerund is selected.

Examples: (Kirby, 1987)
a. She refused to sign the contract.
b. She avoided signing the contract.

Focus on Retrospective Verbs

The primary unique feature of the data used in this study is the non-occurrence of the correct usage of retrospective verbs. It is worth emphasizing that Filipino speakers of English are not properly acquainted with this type of verb due to its complexity and limitation. Quirk et al. (1985) limit the semantic features of retrospective verbs using the verbs forget, remember, and regret. For these three verbs, the difference between 'potentiality' and 'actuality' is extended into the past context of actions. Furthermore, according to Quirk et al., the infinitive construction is used to describe an action which takes place after a mental process while a gerund construction refers to a preceding action. In this case, language teachers can introduce this type of verb to learners.

Conclusion

Using the ICE-PHI corpus, this present study has analyzed the grammatical usage of subjectless nonfinite clauses. Specifically, this paper examines to-infinitives and –ing gerund as two most frequent verb complements in monotransitve construction.

Through Quirk et al.'s framework, this paper highlights the various syntactic, semantic and pragmatic features of subjectless non-finite clauses in PhilE. As far as frequency of occurrences is concerned, PhilE speakers generally tend to underuse –ing construction in both spoken and written discourse as opposed to to-infinitve construction.

The findings also suggest that there are both syntactic and semantic unique features of Philippine usage on subjectless non-finite clauses. So far, the data from the study have shown features of the use of retrospective verbs with subjectless non-finite clauses as can be considered as unique to PhilE. These unique features also entail pedagogical implications which should be considered in improving the teaching of grammar in the Philippines.

It is necessary to point out, however, that the study only focused on describing the current data of the corpus and did not involve a comparison of the corpora. Future comparative studies are recommended to further establish the said linguistic feature.

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