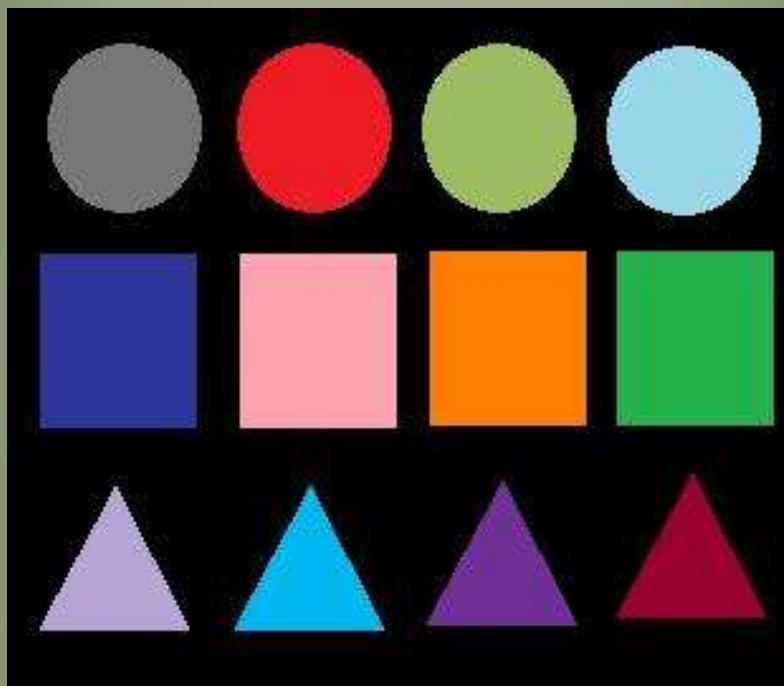


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Philippine Educational Measurement and Evaluation Association

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This special issue was edited by Sterling M. Plata

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Editor's Note

This special issue of Assessment Handbook brings together diverse, but interesting array of contributions from authors interested in standards reform, motivational factors, knowledge base of teacher-trainees, and teacher effectiveness.

The paper of **Dr. Gurnam Kaur Sidhu, Dr. Chan Yuen Fook, and Dr. Sarjit Kaur** report their investigation on the content, pedagogical and professional knowledge of 69 teacher trainees enrolled in B. Ed. (TESL) programmes. They used triangulation to collect their data. They found that the respondents had sufficient knowledge on teaching and learning; however, they found that the participants had limited knowledge on assessment, the teaching profession, and legal liabilities. Their study also found that the teacher trainees still lacked content knowledge in terms of grammar, syntax, and generic structures.

Dr. Richard Gonzales' paper investigates the motivational orientation of Filipinos learning a foreign language in the Philippines. He used an instrument that he created in 2000, Filipino Foreign Language Learning Motivation Questionnaire (FFLLM-Q), in order to collect data from 150 participants. His conclusion is that younger learners are motivated to learn a foreign language to understand and to integrate with people in the target culture. On the other hand, those learning Japanese are more motivated to learn the language for career advancement. In contrast, those learning French are motivated because of their goal to affiliate with the Spanish people while those learning French are into self-efficacy.

Dr. Sterling M. Plata reviews global and local changes affecting reform of content standards of general education curricula. She presents a set of content standards for English 1 and English 2 offered as foundation courses in higher education institutions. Her paper aims to start a serious discussion on curriculum reform because the current English curriculum was prepared by the Commission on Higher Education 15 years ago.

In the fourth paper, **Dr. Paulina Gocheco** reports an experiment in order to find out the effects of discourse markers on listening comprehension. Two versions of academic lectures, one with discourse markers and one without discourse markers, were videotaped. Selected undergraduate and undergraduate students were randomly assigned to be part of the control and the experimental group. They watched the videos and they took a listening test. The results showed that discourse markers did not affect comprehension. Dr. Gocheco suggests replication of the study with more participants, and further investigations on the effects of academic listening tests on comprehension of lectures.

In the final paper, **Jennifer Tan-de Ramos** reports the result of exploratory factor analysis to determine the effectiveness of research writing teachers. Her study found out that four factors such social interaction, clear feedback, mastery of content, and authority were considered in student assessment of teacher effectiveness. She concludes that basic research

students consider teachers who interact with students and who guide them in the research process as effective teachers.

Guest Editor

Dr. Sterling M. Plata

Assessing ESL Teacher Trainees' Content, Pedagogical, and Professional Knowledge Base

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This paper investigated the content, pedagogical and professional knowledge of 69 teacher trainees enrolled in B. Ed. (TESL) programmes at Faculties of Education located in two public universities in Malaysia. The study employed a three-pronged system of collecting data which involved the use of questionnaires, interviews and document analysis. The findings revealed that teacher trainees' content knowledge in terms of grammar, syntax and generic structures left much to be desired. Close to 70 per cent of them possessed a low to fair level of linguistic proficiency. Analysing the professional knowledge base of teacher trainees continues to contribute to the discourse on improving quality of teacher education worldwide. Their pedagogical knowledge in terms of teaching and learning was however good but they displayed limited knowledge in terms of the teaching profession, legal liabilities and assessment of the learning process.

Keywords: Professional knowledge base, Empowerment, Teacher Trainees

The twin waves of globalization and internationalization of education have placed critical demands on teacher education. Today, international quality assurance standards in teacher education are seen as a public policy priority and the catalyst to higher productivity and competitiveness. Increasingly, there are calls to re-vision and address the challenges facing teacher education programmes. The provision of opportunities for the development of employability skills and careers awareness has become central in debates about the future of higher education (Baker & Henson, 2010). Higher education has increasingly been seen as vital to maintaining international economic standing (Knight & Yorke, 2003). Arguably, teacher education programmes must strive to ensure that international standards are well entrenched in all teacher trainees so that they can function effectively at the

workplace and contribute to nation building. Considering the multiplicity of activities surrounding the teaching profession, it points to reason that teacher training programmes should endeavour not only to have a vision of good teacher training components for 21st century needs but they should also have a definite plan to train teachers who will have the aptitude, knowledge, skills and competencies to be good teachers.

For the past two decades, teacher education research has made significant strides in studying the complex relationships between teacher knowledge, beliefs and practices. This new line of research has generated important findings that outline international standard practices that have practical implications for teacher education. A cursory investigation into international practices in teaching and learning in Teacher Education reveals that both western and eastern Teacher Education Programmes put emphasis on the following aspects in their programmes: knowledge and understanding, planning teaching and classroom management, monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability and other professional requirements

Most international standard practices require teacher trainees to possess a sound knowledge and understanding of concepts and skills in their specialist subjects at a standard equivalent to a degree level to enable them to teach it confidently and accurately. According to the Oxford English Dictionary, 'knowledge' is defined as the expertise and skills acquired by a person through experience or education. This includes the theoretical or practical understanding of a subject and what is known in a particular field or in total; facts and information or awareness or familiarity gained by experience of a fact or situation (Ashton, 1990).

Concern about teacher trainees' knowledge base continues to generate interest among policy makers and educational professionals yet not much has been done to address this shortfall. Nevertheless, both literature and research (Calderhead & Shorrock, 1997; Van Driel, Veal & Janssen 2005; Goodnough, 2006) make the claim that teacher trainees need to be equipped with relevant and up-to-date knowledge, skills and attitudes. The extant literature reveals that an effective teacher needs to master two types of knowledge -- content knowledge and pedagogical knowledge. Content knowledge, often referred to as "deep" knowledge, refers to the knowledge a teacher should possess in the subject itself while pedagogical knowledge refers to the teaching and learning of the subject and the curricular development. McCaughy (2005) notes that since the past decade, pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) has emerged as a prominent and insightful feature in teacher education programmes. This paper analyses the content, pedagogical and professional knowledge of ESL teacher trainees at two public universities in Malaysia as the gap in this area of research has received scant attention in Malaysia.

Background of the Study

According to Wright and Bolitho (1997), Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) teachers need to be both *proficient users* and *skilled analysts*

of the English language. This means that effective TESL teachers should possess the ability to speak and write English as competent users and have sound knowledge of English from an analytical perspective - i.e. the phonology, grammar, syntax, lexical properties, generic structures and literacy conventions.

Shulman (1988), the initiator of the pedagogical content knowledge (PCK hereafter) concept, states that PCK is an important category of the knowledge base for teaching. It consists of seven categories, three of which are content related while the other four categories refer to general pedagogy, learners and their characteristics, educational contexts, and educational purposes. In subsequent years, many scholars have used Shulman's knowledge base for teaching and have elaborated and conceptualized PCK in myriad ways.

Although content and pedagogical knowledge have been integrated in teacher education, the actual implementation has eluded many programmes (Houston, Haberman, & Sikula, 2002). Today, both PCK and Teacher Language awareness (TLA) are concepts receiving increased attention among researchers, teacher educators, and those responsible for quality assurance in language education. Breen (2006) highlighted that in the field of TESL, we need to look at English language teachers in the Asian context. He stressed that all second language teachers need to be properly educated in a 'professional and reflective manner' so that we can maintain international standard practices and increase the respect accorded to the teaching profession. Kennedy (1990) added that for non native TESL teachers teaching English as a second language (ESL), what is more critical is teacher trainees' personal acquisition of the second language and the pedagogical content knowledge. He highlighted that these two aspects should be the prerequisites for all TESL teachers.

Besides pedagogical content knowledge, the professional standards for qualified teachers all around the globe including Professional Standards for Qualified Teacher Status by Training and Development Agency for Schools (2007) in UK cite planning, teaching and classroom management as other important and complementary aspects for the award of a qualified teacher. These professional standards usually clarify further the professional characteristics that a teacher should possess and maintain. In the Malaysian context, the planning, teaching and classroom management component refers to teacher trainees' knowledge and ability to apply the knowledge and understanding of the teaching and assessment methods outlined in the national curriculum. With regards to monitoring, assessment, recording, reporting and accountability, teacher trainees must be able to assess how learning objectives have been achieved and use this assessment to improve specified aspects of teaching and learning, monitor their strengths and weaknesses and assess and record students' results accurately and systematically through focused observation, questioning, testing and marking.

Notwithstanding these elements, other teaching professional requirements include aspects such as knowledge and understanding of their professional duties, legal liabilities, responsibilities in relation to school/ministry policies and practices, and their awareness of the role and

purpose of school and other governing bodies (Ball & McDiarmid, 1990). Several researchers (Shulman, 2002; Mullock, 2006; Ellison, 2007) have pointed out that though much has been explored in terms of teachers and student learning, there is scant empirical research conducted on teachers' pedagogical and content base knowledge and how they use content knowledge to make sense of their classrooms in a natural setting. Other researchers (Enfield, 1999; Shulman, 2002) also add that PCK is something that has not been addressed sufficiently. They claim that active learning involves a more integrated model which involves confronting prospective teachers with conflicts in bifurcation and coordination between content specialists and pedagogy specialists. Therefore, this study investigates the content, pedagogical and professional knowledge base of ESL teacher trainees in two public institutions of higher learning in Malaysia in an effort to examine how prepared they are to make informed decisions about the content and pedagogy of their future language teaching endeavour.

The Present Study

In Malaysia, the discourse on language and pedagogical competency of TESL teachers is often discussed in national forums and English language dailies. This exploratory study investigated the knowledge base of TESL teacher trainees in two Malaysian public universities and analysed Malaysian TESL teacher trainees' competency in the following aspects:

- (1) knowledge of the teaching profession in Malaysia
- (2) knowledge of teachers' legal liabilities
- (3) knowledge of the Malaysian schools' English Language curriculum
- (4) knowledge of teaching and learning English as a Second Language (ESL) in Malaysian public schools
- (5) knowledge of the assessment of student learning
- (6) proficiency/ mastery in the subject content (English language)

Method

Procedures

The study employed a descriptive research design to identify the knowledge base of ESL teacher trainees. It involved the use of a questionnaire, structured interviews and document analysis to triangulate the data (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006). Quantitative data in the questionnaire were analysed by using SPSS to identify the mean and standard deviation of each item. The qualitative data were analysed to identify the issues, concerns and emergent themes raised by teacher trainees in relation to the research questions.

Participants

The sample comprised 69 undergraduate final-year students undergoing the TESL Teacher Education Programme at the Faculties of Educations located in two public universities in Malaysia referred to as 'University A' and 'University B' (for reasons of anonymity). Of the 69 respondents, 32 respondents were from University A whilst the remaining 37 were from University B. All the respondents were teacher trainees who were in their final semester of their four-year B.Ed. (TESL) degree programme. All trainees had undergone a three-month Teaching Practicum exercise in Malaysian secondary schools. Upon completion of their course after eight semesters, these teacher trainees will be awarded a B.Ed (TESL) degree that would enable them to teach ESL in Malaysian schools or institutions of higher education. Of the 69 respondents, 10 respondents (five from each university) were randomly selected for the semi-structured interviews.

Instruments

The instruments used in this study were semi structured interviews, document analysis and a questionnaire. The document analyzed for the study was the report written by teacher trainees while on their 3-month Teaching Practicum (the School Orientation Report) and these reports were later analysed.

Results

A total of 69 respondents were involved in this study. Of the 69 respondents, 79.7% of them were females and 20.3 % were males. This is reflective of the fact that a majority of teachers in Malaysian schools are females. The average age of the respondents was approximately 22.6 years old and all of them were undergoing a TESL teacher training programme. Findings also indicated that 11 respondents (15.9 %) had between one to four years teaching experience as temporary teachers before embarking on the B.Ed (TESL) degree programme.

Table 1 below shows respondents' CGPA scores for the various semesters. The findings indicated that the CGPA scores of the respondents improved with each semester of study. The highest CGPA mean score was obtained in Semester 7 (3.16) whilst the lowest CGPA mean score was obtained by respondents in Semester 1 (2.92).

Table 1
CPGA Scores Obtained by Respondents

Semester	Minimum	Maximum	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Semester 1	1.00	3.76	2.92	.49
Semester 2	2.20	3.70	3.05	.32
Semester 3	2.30	3.89	3.08	.34
Semester 4	2.33	3.79	3.09	.33
Semester 5	2.30	4.00	3.14	.35
Semester 6	2.49	3.95	3.15	.32
Semester 7	2.00	3.87	3.16	.43

Knowledge of the Teaching Profession in Malaysia

One international standard practice required of teachers is to possess a working knowledge and understanding of the teaching profession. In Malaysia, teachers are expected to have good knowledge and understanding of the Ministry of Education's vision, mission, philosophy and objectives of education in Malaysia. This is of critical importance as teachers are 'sense makers' of nationhood and as implementers of the national curriculum, they should have a shared vision and mission with the MOE. Besides that, they must also be aware of their professional duties and responsibilities. The teacher trainees' knowledge and understanding of this component was investigated in a test.

The results indicated that a majority ($M = 95.7\%$) of the teacher trainees were aware of the importance of the National Philosophy of Education (NPE) but were rather ignorant of the aspirations it set out to achieve. For example, slightly over half (55.5%) of the teacher trainees knew that the function of schools to prepare students for the relevant public examinations is not stated in the NPE. This is stated in the National Education Act of 1996. Results also indicated that respondents were also not aware of the vision and mission of the Malaysian MOE. Slightly less than one third ($M=28.9\%$) of the respondents knew that producing loyal and united Malaysians was not the mission of the MOE. The mission of the MOE in Malaysia is to "develop a world-class quality education system which will realise the full potential of the individual and fulfil the aspiration of the Malaysian nation" (Ministry of Education, 2009). Besides that, only 24.6 % of the respondents knew that one of the four objectives of the MOE was to provide educational opportunities for all. Interview sessions revealed that all respondents agreed that they had learnt this in their courses but could not remember the details.

Results also revealed that a majority ($M= 97.1\%$) of the respondents were aware that school syllabi and curriculum were prepared by the Curriculum Development Centre in the MOE. Conversely, 76.8% knew that syllabi and curriculum had to be endorsed by the Parliament before it could be implemented. These teacher trainees were also aware of the importance of the Teacher Record Book and a majority ($M = 88.4\%$) of them knew that they had to maintain the Record Book. Nevertheless, only 28 (40.6%) of them knew that the Record Book is not checked by the school head on a monthly basis. In Malaysia, school administrators are required to monitor teachers' Record Book on a

weekly basis. Findings also indicated that only slightly more than one third ($M = 33.3\%$) of the respondents were aware of the need for school administrators to endorse time table for validation processes.

The respondents also indicated that they were not aware of the latest developments in schools. They were ignorant of the fact that the latest amendments to the Education Act were made in 2002 ($M = 24.6\%$). Interview sessions further indicated that respondents from both University A and University B were not exposed to the latest Education Act 1996 and all the ten respondents interviewed revealed that they had not seen the document and neither had their lecturers indicated that they needed to read it. The respondents' limited knowledge base of the profession was further revealed when only two out of the 10 respondents indicated that they knew they had to sit for an Induction Course and not a Competency Test before confirmation. The rest of the 8 trainees opined that once they had obtained their degree, they would be confirmed after teaching a year at a school. Due to this ignorance, only 33.4 % of the respondents were cognisant of the fact that public school teachers must pass two written papers during the Induction Course before they can be considered for confirmation.

These results indicate that even though the respondents are nearing completion of their B.Ed (TESL) programme, their knowledge of the teaching profession leaves much to be desired ($M = 57.7\%$). Interview sessions further established they had limited knowledge of the teaching profession in Malaysia. None of the 10 interviewed respondents could articulate the vision and mission of the Malaysian MOE. A majority of the respondents were also unaware of the Education Act of 1996 - an important document for all teachers in Malaysia. Three respondents however claimed that they had heard about it in their course (*Education in Malaysia*) but could not remember the details. When asked if it was important for them to be aware of the teaching profession in Malaysia, all ten respondents agreed and stated they would appreciate more knowledge of this in their teacher education course.

Knowledge of Teachers' Legal Liabilities

Another aspect investigated was the respondents' knowledge of Malaysian teachers' legal liabilities. The results showed that the respondents possessed very limited knowledge of teachers' legal liabilities. Only slightly more than a quarter of the respondents ($M = 26.9\%$) were aware that teachers who did not enter classes based on given schedules / timetables by school administrators could face a 3-month jail sentence if found guilty. Furthermore, only 35.4% of the respondents knew that teachers who did not teach according to the stipulated syllabus could be fined up to a maximum of RM5000.00 and only 21.7% of the respondents were aware of the fact that teachers can be fined to a maximum of RM500.00 if they failed to produce subject syllabi for inspection. Only 27 (39.1%) of the respondents were aware that a maximum fine of one thousand Ringgit Malaysia can be imposed on pre-schools that did not use the National Curriculum endorsed by the MOE. These facts indicate that

a many teacher trainees under the Teacher Education Programme are not aware of the legal aspects of the Teaching Profession.

Interview sessions further indicated that respondents did not have any exposure to legal aspects of the teaching profession in any course under their current syllabi. Three respondents indicated that they learnt some aspects in their course (*Education in Malaysia*) but were not made aware of the legal implications if they did not teach according to the stipulated timetable of the given subject syllabi. All respondents acknowledged that these aspects needed to be included in the course to safeguard them against any future indictments when they became teachers.

Knowledge of Subject Content - Teaching English in Malaysian Schools

Another aspect investigated in the questionnaire was the respondents' content knowledge and understanding of teaching English in Malaysian schools. The findings indicated that a majority (56.6%) of the respondents were not aware of the theoretical framework of the English language syllabus that was used in both primary and secondary schools in Malaysia. A large majority (72.5%) was also not knowledgeable of the language contexts and 66.7% of the respondents did not know that there are 3 and not 4 domains of language use under the Malaysian Secondary School KBSM English Language Syllabus. This clouded understanding was further confirmed as only half (50.7 %) of them were positive that the study of Literature in the language classroom is an example of language for aesthetic use outlined in the language syllabus.

The respondents' lack of content knowledge of the language syllabus was also evident in their understanding of educational emphases as only 27.5 % of them knew that there are more than five main aspects. Nevertheless, 76.6% were confident that the concept of Learning-How-To-Learn (LHTL) is a component in the educational emphases but only 26.1% could explicate the term 'multiple intelligences'. However, the respondents displayed positive results in their knowledge of the language content aspect of the syllabus. A large majority (85.5%) were aware that grammar is part of language content and 66.7% were positive that the sound system and vocabulary components were also aspects of language content under the current language syllabus. A large majority (94.2%) also knew that the language skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing form the core of the language curriculum.

The limited knowledge and understanding of the teaching of English in Malaysian schools was also highlighted during the interview sessions. Of the 10 respondents interviewed, only two had a good understanding of this aspect, largely because they had taught in schools before embarking on this Teacher Education Programme. The remaining respondents admitted that they had learnt this but did not feel it was important.

Knowledge of Teaching and Learning English

Section C of the questionnaire examined the respondents' knowledge of teaching and learning English. In this self-report section, respondents were required to rate their knowledge and understanding on a number of aspects related to teaching and learning English. Respondents replied based on a 4-point Likert scale, where a mean score of 2.5 and above indicated sufficient knowledge and understanding of the Teaching and Learning items. The findings relating to these items are presented in Table 2.

Generally, the findings revealed that respondents felt they had sufficient understanding of all the items posed in the teaching and learning component. However, respondents showed they had limited knowledge and understanding of the secondary school syllabus ($M=2.55$, $SD= .56$) and earlier results in Part 2 of the questionnaire also indicated that only less than half (43.4%) of them had good understanding of the secondary school syllabus. Also, respondents were confident ($M = 3.13$) in writing a lesson plan and did not have problems in writing both the specific ($M = 2.97$) and general ($M = 3.01$) objectives for their lesson plans. The results also revealed that the respondents had sufficient knowledge in preparing teaching aids ($M = 3.04$), questioning techniques ($M = 2.55$), providing appropriate feedback to students ($M = 2.65$) and fostering a conducive learning climate ($M = 2.61$). Besides that, they gave positive responses to motivating students to learn ($M = 2.58$) and maintaining classroom discipline ($M = 2.94$).

Additionally, the respondents did not have problems integrating educational emphases components in the educational process. They exhibited sufficient knowledge in integrating multiple intelligence ($M = 2.61$), critical and creative thinking skills ($M = 2.67$), preparation for the real world ($M = 2.67$), knowledge acquisition ($M = 2.65$), values and good citizenship ($M = 2.72$), the ICT component ($M = 2.62$) and the Learning-How-To-Learn (LHTL) concept ($M = 2.48$). Interview sessions corroborated these findings. The 10 students interviewed stated they found it easier to integrate moral values and multiple intelligences but felt they were not very confident in implementing the LHTL concept. Further investigation revealed that 7 out of the ten respondents had never even heard of this concept in their methodology classes.

Table 2***Respondents' Knowledge in Teaching and Learning (n=69)***

How do you rate your knowledge and understanding on the following items?	M	SD
Understanding of the secondary school KBSM Syllabus	2.55	.582
Writing a Lesson Plan	3.13	.482
Writing a general objective for your lesson plan	3.01	.653
Writing specific objectives for your lesson plan	2.97	.664
Preparing teaching material for your lesson	3.04	.629
Maintaining classroom discipline	2.94	.749
Motivating students to learn	2.58	.775
Fostering a conducive learning environment	2.61	.669
Questioning techniques	2.55	.676
Providing appropriate feedback to students	2.65	.734
Integrating the 'Learning-How-To-Learn' component in the teaching and learning process	2.48	.699
Integrating Multiple Intelligences in the teaching and learning process	2.61	.712
Integrating Critical and Creative Thinking Skills (CCTS) in the teaching and learning process	2.67	.700
Integrating the 'Preparation for the Real World' component in the teaching and learning process	2.67	.700
Integrating 'Knowledge Acquisition' component in the teaching and learning process	2.65	.660
Integrating 'Values and Citizenship' component in the teaching and learning process	2.72	.662
Integrating the use of ICT component in the teaching and learning process	2.62	.847
Teaching the Listening component	2.95	.547
Teaching the Speaking component	2.88	.631
Teaching the Reading component	3.00	.542
Teaching the Writing component	2.83	.641
Teaching the Grammar component	3.14	.707
Teaching the Pronunciation, word stress, rhyme & rhythm	2.78	.661
Teaching the Literature in the language Classroom	2.88	.744
Overall Mean	2.79	.670

Note. Scale: 1= very limited, 2=limited, 3=sufficient, 4= very sufficient /excellent

Respondents were also asked how successful they were in teaching the four language skills in their classroom. Results showed they had excellent knowledge in teaching reading skills ($M = 3.00$) and possessed sufficient knowledge in teaching listening ($M = 2.95$), speaking ($M = 2.88$) and writing ($M = 2.83$) skills. Respondents also possessed excellent knowledge in teaching grammar ($M = 3.1$) and sufficient knowledge in teaching literature ($M = 2.88$), and pronunciation, word stress, rhyme and rhythm ($M = 2.78$).

Table 3
Self Reported Knowledge in Assessment of Learning (n=69)

How do you rate your knowledge and understanding on the following items?	M	SD
Constructing MCQ Test Items	2.84	.593
Constructing test items for Cloze text/Text completion	2.86	.625
Constructing test items for guided / directed composition writing	2.77	.667
Constructing test items for free writing	3.26	.567
Developing a Table of Specifications for a language test	2.41	.717
Reviewing (editing and proof reading) and assembling the classroom test according to the exam format	2.64	.568
Administering a classroom test (security aspects, rules & regulations, exam time table, etc.)	2.81	.648
Conducting self reflection / self evaluation	2.88	.561
Overall Mean	2.81	.620

Note. Scale: 1= very limited, 2=limited, 3=sufficient, 4= very sufficient /excellent

Finally, respondents were asked to rate their knowledge in evaluating the teaching and learning process. The findings are shown in Table 3. In constructing test items, respondents felt they had sufficient knowledge in constructing Multiple Choice Questions ($M = 2.84$), open-ended questions ($M = 2.86$), and questions for free writing ($M = 3.26$). Respondents also indicated confidence in reviewing and assembling test items ($M = 2.64$), and administering a classroom test ($M = 2.81$). Nevertheless, they admitted having limited knowledge in developing a Table of Specifications for a test. Interview sessions indicated that they had little practice in this and felt they needed more exposure and practice in planning and formulating a table of specification for their tests. Overall, the findings revealed that respondents had sufficient knowledge in assessing student learning.

Knowledge of Subject Content - English Language Proficiency

Wright and Bolitho (1997) affirm that TESL teachers need to be both *proficient users* and *skilled analysts* of the English language, indicating that TESL teachers must have the ability to speak and write English as competent users and at the same time possess knowledge of English from an analytical perspective - i.e. the phonology, grammar, syntax, lexical properties, generic structures and literacy conventions.

In this study, document analysis involved examining the School Orientation Report of the 10 respondents who were selected for the interview. During the Teaching Practicum, teacher trainees had to write a report on the School Orientation Program. These reports were analyzed (for content and language used) to investigate if the teacher trainees were competent users of the English language. The reports were graded by two raters (termed Evaluator A and Evaluator B) who are qualified English Language lecturers at local Malaysian universities.

The findings revealed that the respondents performed better in content ($M = 6.6$) than their language ability ($M=5.2$), demonstrating that 30% of the respondents were rated as being 'good' in content by both evaluators while the remaining 70% were awarded a 'fair' rating. However, the mean score of 5.2 showed that the trainees were only 'fair' in terms of their linguistic competency. Further investigation showed that 70% were graded as fair whilst 30% of the trainees possessed limited language competency. This means that the overall linguistic ability of the TESL teacher trainees can be said to be rather limited considering they were going to be future English language instructors.

Further investigation of the 10 reports was carried out in terms of knowledge of English from an analytical perspective. It examined the language use in aspects such as grammar, syntax, lexical properties and generic structures. The two evaluators were required to identify the main grammatical errors. The results showed TESL teacher trainees had difficulty grasping basic subject-verb agreement and tenses, punctuation (using apostrophe, colon and semi-colon) and the use of quotation marks.

Interview sessions with the 10 respondents supported the above findings. Eight of the 10 respondents admitted that they were aware of their linguistic limitations and another five respondents felt they possessed limited vocabulary. They realized they had to read widely to improve their language proficiency but cited time constraints as a major obstacle. However, they indicated that punctuation was not a problem for them and stated that language proficiency courses should be held for them during all semesters so that they could be competent and confident in using English.

Implication for the Field: Professional Knowledge Base of Teacher Trainees

In this exploratory study, the findings revealed that the pedagogical, professional and content knowledge base of TESL teacher trainees in the two selected universities in Malaysia leave much to be desired. Firstly, Malaysian TESL teacher trainees are unclear about the vision and mission of education in Malaysia. Secondly, they possess limited knowledge of their future profession. Thirdly, their knowledge of the national curriculum with regards to teaching English in the Malaysian context needs to be upgraded. Furthermore, they were also rather ignorant of their legal liabilities as teachers. More importantly, the pedagogical knowledge and content knowledge of TESL teacher trainees need to be improved. The respondents highlighted that they could cope with writing

lesson plans and stating both general and specific learning outcomes. They were also confident in teaching the four main language skills and could integrate both grammar and educational emphases in their language lessons under the Integrated National Curriculum (KBSM) that is practiced in Malaysian secondary schools. Finally, the results revealed that respondents' content knowledge in terms of their language competency in terms of grammar, syntax, and generic structures is rather limited. Close to 70.0 % of them reported a low to average level of grammatical knowledge.

Tran and Lawson (2007) stress that pedagogical knowledge is crucial for teacher-education students as it can help them not only in their current learning but also in their future students' learning. Therefore, TESL teacher trainees must have a good grasp and understanding of their subject discipline - i.e. the English language. They should be competent and proficient users of the language. The findings of this study showed that respondents had limited proficiency and therefore language awareness is perhaps one aspect that needs to be addressed in the Malaysian TESL Teacher Education Programme. The importance of language awareness in relation to teachers' language proficiency is also a view shared by Farias (2005) and Strevens (1974). They highlight that EFL training courses are often criticized for not helping teachers towards mastery of a body of distinct, specialized knowledge. Breen (2006) adds that in today's ESL teaching, it is essential that Teacher Education focus on both reflective practice and language awareness. Furthermore, Thiessen (2000), adds that successful teaching rests upon teachers' capacity to concurrently use both knowledge and skills in purposeful contexts and understand that knowledge and skills come with changes in what 'the knowledge is for and how and with whom it develops' (pp. 133).

Biggs's (2003, p. 5) model of teaching in higher education highlights that university teachers shift their role from transmitters of knowledge to organisers and facilitators of the learning processes as "good teaching is getting most students to use the higher cognitive level processes that the more academic students use spontaneously". Instructors in higher education should remember that in adult teacher education programmes, trainee teachers learn best through reflection and by collaborating with other teachers and sharing what they see and learn through their interaction with students (Major & Palmer, 2006).

Conclusion

This exploratory study, though not conclusive due to the small sample size, makes pertinent observations regarding pedagogical and national implications in TESL teacher-trainees' professional, content and pedagogical knowledge base that need to be addressed. These preliminary findings intimate that relevant authorities need to take stock of the quality of TESL teacher trainees leaving institutions of higher learning in a rapidly developing country like Malaysia.

Importantly, if teachers are well trained and have a solid knowledge base, only then can we hope to see quality teachers that shall beget 'quality students'. Implications arising from this study make the point that well trained teacher trainees can contribute more to their profession and will have the motivation to instil leadership qualities in themselves and others to create a collegial work environment that celebrates professionals who have good content and pedagogical knowledge to mould the future leaders of tomorrow in today's increasingly globalised classrooms.

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Differences in Motivational Orientation in Foreign Language Learning Context: Findings from Filipino Foreign Language Learners

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The primary purpose of this study is to find out the degree of which motivational orientation differentiates learners in a foreign language (FL) learning context, particularly in the Philippines. The secondary purpose of this study is to determine differences in the motivational orientation of Filipino FL learners using the Foreign Language Learning Motivation Questionnaire and to investigate variables such as age group, gender, FL being learned and length of study of FL could influence differentiation in the motivational orientation of FL learning among Filipino students. Accordingly, it was hypothesized that the variables included in this study could differentiate motivational orientation of FL learners. The participants of this study included 150 students who had elected to study FL from three major universities in Metro Manila. Eighty of the participants are females (53.3%), while 70 are males (46.7%). The data were cross-sectional in nature with 26 learning Chinese (17.3%), 40 learning French (26.7%), 50 learning Japanese (33.3%) and 34 learning Spanish (22.7%). Results revealed motivational differences between younger and older FL learners, between male and female learners, and among learners of different FL. Younger learners were found to be more motivated towards cultural understanding, cultural integration and self-satisfaction. Females are more motivationally oriented than males in communication and affiliation and self-efficacy. Japanese language learners are more motivationally oriented toward career and economic enhancement, French language learners towards affiliation with foreigners, and Spanish language learners towards self-efficacy. The study recommends some instructional and pedagogical strategies for teaching language subjects.

Keywords: Motivation in language learning, Foreign Language Learning, Japanese Language Learning, Second Language Learning

Motivation has been widely acknowledged and recognized by researchers, teachers

and even students as one of the key factors that influence the rate and success of language learning, be it second or foreign language. The seminal work of Gardner and Lambert and their colleagues that introduced the Socio-Educational Model of Language Learning (Gardner, 1985, 1988, 2000, Gardner & Tremblay, 1994) set off the interest of research on motivation in language learning. Through the years, various research studies on second language (L2) and foreign language (FL) learning contexts revealed that motivation is one of the affective factors that significantly differentiate learners (Carreira, 2005; Cheng & Dörnyei, 2007; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Dörnyei, 1994; Ehrman, Leaver, & Oxford, 2003; Gardner, 2005; Matsumoto & Obana, 2001; Yang, 2003; Yu & Watkins, 2008) and influences learning achievement (Brown, 2000; Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002; Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Guilloteux, 2007; Guilloteux & Dörnyei, 2008; O'Sullivan, 2005; Skehan, 1989, 1991).

During the later part of the 80s and the decade of 90s, new agendas, redefinition and conceptualization of motivation in FL and second language (L2) learning have emerged, particularly the series of studies done by Dörnyei and some colleagues (1990; 1994; 1998; 2001; 2005). However, Gardner and Lambert studies were still regarded as the anchor of further studies on motivation in FL and L2 learning and continued up to the present and even revisited by many researchers (e.g., Spolsky, 2000). Consequently, many studies tried argue and challenge Gardner's best-known constructs concerning language learning motivation (Au, 1988; Belmechri & Hummel, 1998; Crookes & Schmidt, 1991; Norton, 2000; Oxford, 1996; Oxford & Sherin, 1994). However, in spite of the challenges and arguments, Guilloteaux (2007) maintained that the most universally accepted contribution of Gardner's seminal work on motivation has been that learning a language is unlike learning any other subject. This is because it "involves imposing elements of another culture into one's own life space" (Gardner & Lambert, 1972, p. 193), and because it is easily influenced (positively or negatively) by a range of social factors, such as prevailing attitudes toward the language, geo-political considerations, and cultural stereotypes (Dörnyei, 2005).

Taking off from earlier study of Boekerts (1987; 1989) that tried to determine both role of motivation as a trait and a statement in language learning and its relationship to student competence and attribution processes, Julkenen (1989) conducted a study of motivation in FL learning that utilized sixth and eighth grade Finnish children who were studying English as a foreign language. Using a questionnaire to gather students' general FL motivation, the study was able to identify eight factors, namely: (1) a communicative motive; (2) classroom level intrinsic motivation; (3) teacher and method motivation; (4) integrative motivation that reflects position attitudes towards English and Americans; (5) helplessness factors; (6) anxiety; (7) criteria for success and failure; and (8) a factor that deals with the latent interest in learning English.

A year later, Dörnyei (1990) initiated a series of studies that defined and conceptualized the relevance and characteristics of integrativeness and instrumentality in FL learning contexts. Employing a Hungarian sample, he administered a motivation questionnaire to young adult learners of English. His

study produced a motivational construct in FL learning that includes four motivational factors, namely: (1) an instrumental motivational sub-system; (2) an integrative motivational sub-system that includes four dimensions such as general interest in FL, a desire to broaden one's view and avoid provincialism, a desire for new stimuli and challenges, and a travel orientation; (3) need for achievement; and (4) attribution about past failures.

Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels (1994) did a further study that applied the socio-educational construct to the acquisition of English in a uni-cultural Hungarian setting. In their study, they were able to yield five factors that they labeled: (1) xenophilic orientation, a factor that corresponds to a friendship orientation reported by Clement and Kruidenier (1983); (2) identification; (3) socio-cultural or interest in cultural aspects of the English world; (4) instrumental knowledge orientation that suggests that being more educated and knowledgeable is related to success in work and studies; and (5) English media factor which is similar to but more general than the "reading for nonprofessional purposes" and "passive socio-cultural" dimensions described by Dörnyei (1990).

Further studies that attempted to challenge Gardner's socio-psychological approach were those conducted by Au (1988), Crookes and Schmidt (1991), and Oxford and Shearin (1994). They claimed that integrative orientation demonstrated far less importance in FL setting where such integration is virtually not possible. Leaver (2003) confirmed this argument because in some cases, highly ethnocentric learners who do not even like the culture of the languages they are learning have achieved very high levels of FL proficiency. These opposing and diversified research findings inspired further new studies about learners' motivation in FL and L2 and challenged Gardner and his colleagues to expand more substantially the Socio-Education Model based on new research (Tremblay & Garner, 1995). These studies further triggered the growing interest in making motivation research more relevant to classroom practice, particularly in language learning context that undeniably stimulated by the 1994 debate in the *Modern Language Journal* (Dörnyei, 1994a, 1994b; Gardner & Tremblay, 1994; Oxford & Shearin, 1994).

The studies of Crookes and Schmidt (1991, 1994) also recognized the importance of the relevance of classroom related factors. Through their studies, they were able to establish that teachers' style, competence, rapport, self-confidence, classroom atmosphere, and group cohesion are important contributors to motivation. Subsequently, the situation-specific classroom factors were found to be significant contributors to L2 and FL motivation in the foreign language classroom (Julkenen, 1989, 1991; Clement et al., 1994). This new conceptualization of motivation in L2 and FL learning was further confirmed by Dörnyei's (1994, 2006, 2008, 2009) theory of motivation that is more classroom-based. Part of his framework rests on the Learning Situation Level, which is associated with situation-specific factors ingrained in various aspects of L2 and FL learning within a classroom setting. His framework provided three components of motivation in language learning context: (1) course-specific; (2) group-specific; and (3) teacher-specific.

Alternatively, Deci and Ryan (1985) proposed another model of understanding motivation that widely used in educational psychology. They presented a dichotomy of motivation - intrinsic and extrinsic. They conceptualized intrinsic motivation as something comes from within the learner and are related to learner's identity and sense of well-being. They described that learners are intrinsically motivated when they consider learning as a goal in itself. Conversely, extrinsic motivation is something that comes from outside the learner. Learners are extrinsically motivated when they attached learning process with rewards (such as grades, awards or honors) and viewed that their learning performance has an equivalent rewards or consequences. Their earlier concept of motivation has been expanded with the introduction of self-determination theory (STD). According to Deci and Ryan (2008), STD is an empirically based theory of human motivation, development and wellness. As a macrotheory of human motivation, STD addresses such basic issues as personality development, self-regulation, universal psychological needs, life goal and aspirations, energy and vitality, nonconscious processes, the relationship of culture to motivation, and the impact of social environments on motivation, affect, behavior, and well-being (p.182). They further suggest that STD is applicable to issues within a wide range of life domains.

Within Asian contexts, research studies on motivation of L2 and FL learning and related factors have also been widely done. In Japan, Kimura, Nakata, and Okumura (2001) carried out a study that examined types of language learning motivation held by Japanese EFL learning from across-sectional learning milieus. They pointed out that some factors are characteristics of certain learning milieus, while others are common to all situation. In Taiwan, Lay (2008) also a conducted a study that tried to look into the motivation of learning German in Taiwan as a pilot study on the FL-specific motivation among Taiwanese learners of German language. Her study concluded that most Taiwanese students are interested in language learning and the ability to speak several languages is important to them because multilingualism carries a high-value in contemporary Taiwanese society. Lau and Chan (2003), on the other hand, did a study in Hong Kong on reading strategy use and motivation among Chinese good and poor readers, while Wang (2009) conducted another study in China. Both studies concluded that most Chinese students in key universities have a high motivation to learn English well because a good level of English will help them more considerably to obtain better jobs, especially those in companies or joint ventures which have international network or subsidiaries, to read technical materials and to study abroad.

With regard to other social and psychological variables, Yang (2008) studied into the motivational orientations and selected learner variables of East Asian language learners. Using 341 college students, the study found out that East Asian language learners were highly influenced by interest, language use, and integrative motivational orientations. The study also concluded that the integrative motivation was more important than the instrumental and that the students had a stronger desire to learn the speaking and listening skills

than the reading and writing skills. Yang also found out that among the east Asians, Korean learners were more strongly motivated than Chinese or Japanese learners. Muñoz and Tragant (2001) also did a study to determine the effects of age and instruction. They found out that FL learners' motivation increase with school experience. Their study also disclosed that younger learners show more intrinsic types of motivation, while older groups show more extrinsic types and a preference for an instrumental type of motivation, a conclusion that supports earlier theories of Walqui (2000), who found that a strong correlation between intrinsic motivation and success in language learning than extrinsic motivation. On the other hand, Yu and Watkins (2008) determined the relationship among motivational factors, cultural correlated and L2 proficiency using Western and Asian student who were learning Chinese at university level in People's Republic of China. The results of their study implied that the degree of integrativeness into Chinese culture and motivation was significantly and positively related to Chinese language proficiency, while language anxiety was significantly and negatively correlated to such proficiency.

In the Philippines, a recent study done Lucas, Miraflores, Ignacio, Tacay, and Lao (2010) that focused on intrinsic motivation factors that may help identify what specific L2 communicative skills are more helpful to students to learn. The study proved that selected freshmen college students from different universities in Manila are intrinsically motivated to learning speaking and reading skills. Moreover, they are found to be intrinsically motivated through the knowledge they gained and learning accomplishments they have achieved. They further disclosed that by and large, that the Filipino students are intrinsically motivated to learn English because of their exposure to the language through classroom instruction and mass media. They argued that Filipino learners are inherently motivated to use English in speaking, reading and listening due to the nature of these skills and the tangible rewards that these skills may bring the learners.

Integrating from various language learning models and previous studies on motivation for FL learning, Gonzales (2000; 2006) conducted a study to investigate into the internal structure and external relevance of FL motivation and he conceptualized and defined FL learning motivation among Filipino learners using factor analysis. This study led him to develop the Filipino Foreign Language Learning Motivation Questionnaire (FFLLM-Q). His study produced six motivational orientation towards FL learning: (1) desire for career and economic enhancement; (2) desire to become global citizen; (3) desire to communicate and affiliate with foreigners; (4) desire for self-satisfaction in learning; (5) self-efficacy; and (6) desire for cultural integration. Gonzales (2006) suggested that summing up the six factors, Filipino who are learning FL are driven by goal-orientation, cultural orientation, and self-orientation. To further examine these factors that emerged from his study and the contradicting and complementary results of previous studies and emerging relevance of motivation in FL, the researcher takes this new study using the

FFLLM-Q. Moreover, the limited number of studies of motivation in language learning in general in the Philippines makes this study relevant and timely.

In general, the primary purpose of this study is to find out the differences in the motivational orientation of learners in a foreign language (FL) learning context, particularly in the Philippines. The secondary purpose of this study is to determine differences in the motivational orientation of Filipino FL learners using the FFLLM-Q and to investigate variables such as age group, gender, FL being learned and length of study of FL could influence differentiation in the motivational orientation of FL learning among Filipino students. Thus, it was hypothesized that the variables included in this study could differentiate motivational orientation of FL learners.

Method

Participants

The participants of this study were 150 students who had elected to study foreign languages from three universities in Metro Manila. Eighty of the participants are females (53.3%), while 70 are males (46.7%). The participants were learning different foreign language: 26 learning Chinese (17.3%), 40 learning French (26.7%), 50 learning Japanese (33.3%) and 34 learning Spanish (22.7%). The ages were between 17 to 20 years old, each with at least one semester/trimester of foreign language prior to the survey. They have been studying FL for at least one semester/trimester to 4 semesters/trimesters, and majority or 78 are taking FL as a required major subject (52.0%), 62 are learning FL as required minor subject (41.3) and only 10 are taking it as an elective subject (6.7%).

Instruments

There were two instruments used in this study. The primary instrument used for this study is the Filipino Foreign Language Learning Motivation Questionnaire (FFLLM-Q). This questionnaire was developed by Gonzales in 2000 which consists of 50 Likert-items that measure six motivational orientations in FL learning namely: (1) desire for career and economic enhancement; (2) desire to become global citizens; (3) desire to communicate and affiliate with foreigners; (4) desire for self-satisfaction; (5) self-efficacy and (6) design to be integrated with other cultures. This questionnaire has a reliability index of .98 and the combined factors can account for 62.0% of the total variance of the test. The participants were required to indicate whether they agree or disagree with each statement, using as scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

The second instrument for this study was questionnaire that elicited information about the participants' age, gender, number of semester/trimester of FLL prior to the survey, nature FL class; and FL being learned. In both

questionnaires, participants were not asked to indicate their names to maintain confidentiality.

Procedures and Data Analysis

The FFLLM-Q and the second instrument were administered to students of FL classes in three universities in Metro Manila. The researcher requested the FL teachers handling the courses to administer it during their regular FL classes. The two instruments were administered one after the other. Upon completing the main questionnaire, the students were also asked to accomplish the accompanying respondent's information sheet. The students were not given any reward for accomplishing the questionnaire and will not in anyway affect their class standing and/or grade.

The responses of each individual participant of the study were encoded using Excel and later subjected to data analysis using a statistical software called SPSS. Descriptive statistics, t-test, and ANOVA were used to describe and compare responses of the subjects according to age group, sex, number of semester/trimester of learning FL prior to survey, reasons for studying Japanese languages and other languages being learned.

Results

Motivational Orientation of Filipino FL Learners

From the results of survey using FFLLM-Q, it was revealed that overall the primary motivational orientation of Filipino FL learners is towards career and economic enhancement (Factor 1: $M=4.12$; $SD=0.55$). The results showed that Filipino FL learners are more motivated to learn FL in order to have better chances in getting a good job in the future, having a high paying job, having a competitive edge over others because of knowledge of FL, and obtaining better opportunities to work and study abroad. The results also indicated that Filipino learners are also motivated to learn FL because of their desire to communicate and affiliate with foreigners (Factor 3: $M=3.99$; $SD=.56$) and desire to understand other cultures and become global citizens (Factor 2: $M=3.89$; $SD=.50$).

The results strongly suggest that Filipino FL learners' motivational orientation is towards goal orientation signifying that they have definitely goal in mind in learning an FL, that is to have better careers and more opportunities for economic enhancement in the future and in the process being able to communicate and understand the culture of the target language community.

Differences in Motivational Orientations

Differences in motivational orientations were determined using the identified variables for this study such as age, gender, number of

semester/trimester of FLL prior to the survey, nature of FL class; and FL being learned.

In terms of sex, the results suggest that it has an influence on the motivational orientation of FL learners. The results show that females and males differ significantly in their motivational orientation towards their desire for communication and affiliation with foreigners ($t=4.274$; $p > .05$) and self-efficacy ($t=11.741$; $p > .01$). Females are more motivated to learn FL to be able to communicate effectively with and to foreigners so that they can easily affiliate with the speakers of the target language community. It was also revealed that female learners are also more motivated to learn an FL because of self-efficacy, that is, they believe that having the ability and skills to learn FL will give them more drive to pursue FL learning.

When the respondents were grouped according to age group, results revealed that learners differ significantly in their motivational orientations in three factors of the FFLM-Q. Results show that oldest learners (20 years old and above) are the more motivated to learn FL because of self-satisfaction they gain from learning ($F = 6.455$; $df = 149$; $p > .001$). It was also revealed that oldest learners are the most motivated toward cultural integration ($F = 37.724$; $df = 149$; $p > .001$). On the other hand, youngest learners (17 years old or younger) were found to be most motivated toward cultural understanding and desire to become global citizens ($F = 6.805$; $df = 149$; $p > .001$).

With regard to the grouping according to the FL they are learning, it was revealed that they differ significantly in two factors: communicative and affiliation with foreigners ($F = 2.859$; $df = 149$; $p > .05$) and self-satisfaction in learning FL ($F = 3.585$; $df = 149$; $p > .01$). The results showed that the Spanish learners are the most motivated group to learn FL because of self-satisfaction that they gained in learning the language while the Chinese learners are the group that is most motivated to learn FL because of their desire to be able to communicate and affiliate with the target language community. While there were no significant differences among the learner groups in Factor 1, results revealed that Japanese language learners are most inclined group to learn FL because of career and economic enhancement and for cultural understanding.

Another learners' variable that was investigated in this study is the nature of FL learning. Two factors revealed significant differences when the respondents were grouped according to whether the FL they are learning is a major, a minor or an elective subject. Learners who are studying FL because it is their major subject were found to be the most motivationally oriented towards the self-satisfaction ($F = 8.340$; $df = 149$; $p > .001$) and desire for cultural integration ($F = 15.300$; $df = 149$; $p > .001$). Noticeably, those studying FL as elective or not required subject are the least motivated in these factors. FL learners who are studying FL as a major subject were also found to be the most motivationally oriented towards cultural integration, although there was no significant difference among the group of learners.

With regard to the length of period of studying FL, results of the study revealed that the learners significantly differ in four factors measured by FFLM-Q, the only variable that yielded significant differences in four factors.

When the FL learners were grouped according to the number of terms that they are studying FL, their motivation orientations towards all the three factors pertaining to cultural integration ($F = 3.760$; $df = 149$; $p > .01$); cultural understanding ($F = 2.680$; $df = 149$; $p > .05$) and communicative and affiliation with FL target group ($F = 8.807$; $df = 149$; $p > .001$) were found to be significant. In addition, they also differ in terms of self-satisfaction to learning FL ($F = 3.424$; $df = 149$; $p > .01$). Further analysis of the group means revealed that, the longer they study FL, the more they differ in motivational orientation, that those who studied FL for four terms have higher motivational orientation in FL learning towards cultural integration, communicative and affiliation with foreigners and self-satisfaction in learning than those who have studied only for a term. On the contrary, motivation towards cultural understanding is higher among those who studied FL only for a term than those who studied for more than two terms.

Discussions

When interpreting these findings in light of FL learning in the Philippines, motivational orientation towards language learning is considered a necessity because of the presence of a mother-tongue or first language and mandatory second language which is English and/or Filipino (*Tagalog*) and a foreign language required among selected high school and university students. In the country, there are more than eighty mother-tongues or local languages (*some are called dialects*). In all schools, Filipino and English are the primary media of instruction, although mother language is now widely encouraged to be used on the first two to three years of elementary schooling. Hence, English is not considered an FL in this study, but rather a second language (L2). Languages such as Japanese, French, Arabic, Chinese, Spanish, German, Russian, Korean, among others, are considered FL in Philippine language classroom contexts. Although, Chinese language, particularly Mandarin, are studied and taught at Chinese Schools even at elementary level, it is still considered a foreign language in spite of the fact that some students would also consider Mandarin as their first language or language spoken at home. Furthermore, basic Arabic is also taught in some schools in country, particularly those following the Madrasah curriculum.

In this study, the participants who took part are university students who are taking FL primarily as a major, a minor or elected subject in their courses of study. These FL learners are enrolled in bachelors' degree courses such as International Studies, Asian Studies, Hotel and Restaurant Management, International Business Management and few are taking Humanities, Literature, International Politics, Foreign Relations and Engineering. They are required to take one language course per term with an equivalent of 3 units, that is, spending at least 3 hours of language class per week. Some FL courses include additional laboratory time for writing and speaking, especially those learning Japanese and Chinese, where writing system is an additional component of FL learning.

Overall, from Gardner and Lambert's point of view the study revealed that Filipino FL learners are both instrumentally and extrinsically motivated. They are highly motivated to learn FL because of economic and career opportunities, indicating that they are more instrumentally motivated, that is, they desire to learn FL for pragmatic gains such as getting a better job and even employment abroad. Adhering to Gardner's (1985, 1998, 2000) construct of motivation, it can be said the Filipino learners predominantly instrumentally motivated arising out of a need to learn FL and/or second language for functional or external reasons. Although, in most Gardner and Lambert initial studies (1959; 1972), particularly their Canadian research, found integrative orientation to be more significant and argued that integrative motivation is more paramount than instrumental orientation in language learning contexts. The findings of this present study also compliment their earlier findings among Filipino language learners (Gardner & Lambert, 1972). They found that instrumental orientation is more powerful factor in learning than integrative orientation among Filipino English language learners. The result of this study also reaffirms other viewpoints of motivation that instrumental goals such as having a good career in the future play a prominent role in learning a language be it an L2 or FL (Dörnyei, 1990; Julkenen, 1989, Dörnyei, Csizer & Nemeth, 2002; Ehrman, 1996).

Looking beyond the major motivational orientation of the Filipino FL learners being mainly instrumental in nature, this study also found that their motivational orientation also include the desire to communicate and affiliate with foreigners and to be integrated with the culture of the target language community. Thus, it is a hybrid of other dichotomies and constructs of motivation advocated by Gardner et al and other motivational research scholars such as Dörnyei (1994, 2003, 2008) Deci and Ryan (1985, 2008), Ramge (1990). Although they clarify that the main emphasis of Gardner's et al motivation model has been on general motivational components grounded in the social milieu rather than in the FL classroom. In addition, they contend that instrumental motivation and extrinsic motivation may be more applicable and appropriate for FL learning because students have limited or no experience with the target language community and as a result are 'uncommitted to integrating with that group'.

Clearly, the findings of this study unconditionally support earlier findings that Filipinos learners' motivational orientation is a hybrid of both instrumental and integrative motivation and intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Similarly, the motivational orientation of Filipino FL learners is influenced by their achievement goal orientation as well as the level of competence they achieved while learning a particular FL. Examining further the achievement goal framework espoused by Elliot and McGregor (2001), achievement goals are viewed as the purpose of competence-relevance behavior, in this instance foreign language learning (Elliot, 1997; Maehr, 1989). Learners are motivated to learn a language in order to achieve mastery to get integrated into the language community and competence in order to get employed and/or accepted in further studies that require FL skills. Hence, the motivational

orientation of Filipino learners can also be construed in terms of mastery goals and performance of the achievement goal framework.

The exposure of Filipino learners to various languages and different culture including the luxury of choice to enroll in any FL would probably explain this finding. The opportunities of the learners included in this study to have potential direct experience abroad and exposure to the target language community, in the form of exchange scholarships, study visits and even internship programs, would also explain why Filipino FL learners are both instrumentally and integratively motivated at the same time. For that reason, it is important that language educators should look at motivation as a multifaceted dynamic phenomenon where learners' motivational orientation can be diverse and multiple and that it is important to understand the how's and why's of learner motivation to learn a particular FL (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2002).

In this present study, there are two individual factors that were considered - gender and age of the learners. It is hypothesized that males and females' motivational orientation are the same and learners' age does not influence motivational orientation in FL learning. These two hypotheses were rejected. This study revealed that males and females differ significantly in some of the motivational factors measured by the FFLLM-Q, particularly the desire for communication and affiliation with foreigners and self-efficacy. It was uncovered that females have higher motivational orientation than males in these two factors. The females have a greater tendency to study FL because they have higher desire to communicate and affiliate with foreigners, thus making them more integratively motivated than males. This finding confirms the findings of Swanes (1987) that Asian women were found to be significantly less instrumentally motivated than Asian men but no such difference was found among the Europeans, Americans, Middle Eastern and African women. However, she also argued that low instrumental motivation among females could be due to lack of opportunities for them to work abroad and use FL in their future career. This may also hold true among Filipinos females. Although going abroad is an open option to both males and females, culturally males are preferred to go abroad, thus they have better chance and opportunity than females to use what they have learned in their FL classrooms. The different motivational orientation between males and females is partly explained by the fact that the courses are offered by various universities in connection with specific needs such as working abroad, joining an international development agency, becoming a foreign service staff, and working in hospitality industries abroad either land-based or on cruise ships. The study also confirms earlier findings of Williams, Burden and Lanvers (2002) that learning French among girls is being "cool" and they really make an effort to learn the language by heart.

On another aspect of the study, the participants were grouped into four age groups. It was revealed that the respondents differ significantly in three motivational factors - cultural understanding, cultural integration and self-satisfaction in FL learning. Again, this significant finding adheres to Collier

(1988) and Gomleksiz (2001) earlier finding that successful language acquisition depends on the learner's age. Both authors believe that there is a certain period in acquisition of L2 and that the motivational orientation is affected. They also asserted that older students learn faster, more efficient acquirers of school language than younger learners. In this study, it was also revealed that the younger group (17 years old and below) has significantly higher desire to understand other cultures than older groups (19 and 20 years old and above). On the contrary, the oldest group (20 years old and above) was found to have higher desire for cultural integration than younger learners. The understanding and appreciation of cultures as well as language acquisition is affected by biological factors and age. Lenneberg (1967) claims that there is certain period in acquisition of L2. He theorized that the acquisition of language is an innate process determined by individual's biological and social growth. He implied that younger adolescents can learn a language through understanding of cultures better than older ones, while older learners can learn a language through cultural integration. Other earlier findings such as the study of Thompson and Gaddes (2005) that concluded older students appear to have an advantage over so-called younger learners in terms of language and cultural maturation and the study of Lasagabaster and Doiz (2003) that maturational factor was decisive, with older students showing more complexity in linguistic performance, support this present study. Consequently, it can be implied that Filipino beginner learners of FL are more motivated to learn when cultural understanding is part of the learning process and as they pursue learning a particular FL, they become more integratively motivated, shifting their motivational orientation from merely understanding a culture to being integrated into the target language community.

The three other variables included in this study are the FL being learned, length of time of studying FL and nature of FL being studied. The study also hypothesized that course-specific variables do not influence the motivational orientation of Filipino FL learners. The results revealed that when the respondents were grouped according to FL being learned, their motivational orientation differs significantly in terms of communicative and affiliation needs with foreigners and self-satisfaction in learning. The findings also show that the respondents differ significantly in factors pertaining to integrative orientation and intrinsic motivation. The FL learners were found to differ significantly in factors related to instrumental and extrinsic motivational orientation. Hence, confirming to what Okada, Oxford and Abo (1996) found in their in study of Americans learning Japanese and Spanish as an FL. Their study exposed that the motivation of American learners of Japanese is more of integrative and intrinsic motivation and there was far greater integrative motivation among learners of Japanese than of learners of Spanish. Thus, they concluded that self-satisfaction and motivation must be higher when one tries to learn more a difficult language because greater persistence and determination are needed to cope with the stress of a difficult learning situation.

The presence of Hispanics in the US and Chinese in the Philippines will also partially explain why there is a strong motivational orientation in Spanish learning among Americans and Chinese learning among Filipinos. It be then implied that the presence of a target language community in foreign country would enhance integrative motivation of FL learners. The common assumption is that the FL learners can use their FL knowledge in integrating themselves into the target language community more easily, especially when an FL is taught together with some cultural orientation about the target language community. On the other hand, self-satisfaction in FL learning can be a key motivational orientation especially when the FL is perceived to be a difficult language to learn and no potential opportunity to be integrated, and yet, they still acquire certain level of competency.

Notwithstanding the similarities in results and conclusions, longer exposure to FL classroom learning was also confirmed to influence motivational orientation of FL learners. Muñoz (2006) in her reviews of morphological acquisition, argued that a certain amount of exposure is needed to ensure accurate performance in an FL. Conceivably relative frequency of various structures in the language classrooms becomes a salient factor for learners once they have enough of the L2 to ‘tune to the frequency’, that is, beyond the very elementary level of the less proficient learners in her study. This argument supports the findings of this present study. This study revealed that the longer time spent in studying FL would influence learners’ shift of motivational orientation. Those who have studied longer tend to be more motivationally oriented by self-satisfaction achieved in learning FL, cultural integration and communicative and affiliation with target language community. The tendency to hold on towards integrative orientation is stronger as the learners study an FL longer. This conclusion brings new light to an important debate pertaining the role of input in FL learning. FL teachers must be able to encourage shift motivational orientations towards self-satisfaction rather than simply learning a language for practical reasons.

A mixture of individual and course-specific factors definitely influences the motivational orientation of FL learners. In any context, FL learning presents an exceptional situation due to the multifaceted nature and role of language (Dörnyei, 1994; 2008). FL learners come to study FL with varied cultural and socio-economic background, interests, motivation and attitude. Learning a foreign language abroad according to Yu (2010) is affected by the a number of affective variables including adaptation, attitudes and socio-cultural variables. He further argues that socio-cultural adaptation and academic adaptation are important factors in developing FL motivation and positive attitudes.

It is therefore essential for FL teachers to ensure that they have accurate information about their students. FL teachers’ awareness and knowledge of the kinds of attitudes and goals their students bring with them should be used in identifying the strategies that they need to enhance those motivations in order to develop better language learning classroom situation. Their knowledge of learners’ motivational orientation should serve as a guide in

designing a more responsive FL classroom curriculum, learning activities, program of study and learning materials. All things considered, while motivational orientation may be viewed as transitory, it should be used to maximize learners' capacity to learn and appreciate not only the target language but also the target language community. Hence, the use of diagnostic assessment - both cognitive and non-cognitive measures and examination of motivational orientation are strongly suggested especially when the background and composition of FL learners is diverse and contrasting.

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Knowledge Economy and Standards Reform in Higher Education: General Education English Curriculum for L2 Learners

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Revising content standards to keep up with the 21st century demands especially for English language learners plays a critical role in the development of L2 proficiency. In L2 countries this has an economic effect as English proficiency is necessary to become globally competitive. In addition, content standards are at the heart of instructional design, professional development, and assessment policies. Finally, English proficiency enables L2 learners to become better learners. This is critical for L2 university students because the academic demands in the tertiary level require critical reading, critical writing, and effective listening and speaking skills. These are the reasons why this paper examines global changes affecting standards reform in L2. Next, it proposes a set of standards for English 1 and English 2, which are foundational courses in higher education in the Philippines. This paper intends to start a serious discussion on the revision of content standards because the last set of standards for general education English curriculum was created by the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) in 1996.

Keywords: Content standards, higher education, academic literacy, information literacy, General Education curriculum, English 1, English 2, standards reform

There is an increasing interest in reviewing and revising content standards because of the advent of the 21st century, globalization, explosion of information because of the internet, and the new economic order. There is even a stronger call for reform in the English curriculum in higher education particularly in nations where English is the second language like in the Philippines. Content standards are at the heart of reform that affects policies in teaching, teacher development, materials preparation, and assessment. In the Philippines, setting English proficiency standards is crucial because English proficiency can help the country become globally competitive.

However, despite the wind of change affecting standards reform in the world, the Philippines has yet to start a discussion on what students in higher education taking English 1 and English 2 have to know and be able to do to become better learners and better members of workforce. It is because of these reasons that this paper discusses the global changes that affect standards. Next, it presents a framework for curriculum standards reform in GE English for higher education. Finally, it combines the two in a proposed set of content standards for English 1 and 2.

English 1 and English 2 in Selected Universities

In the Philippines, the Commission on Higher Education (CHED) is the governing body for higher education institutions. It has organized Technical Panels for different subjects and different programs. However, CHED has not yet released a new set of standards for GE English Curriculum. The last set of standards was released and disseminated in 1996.

A review of GE English curriculum in selected higher education institutions showed that there were no common standards for English 1 and 2. For example, Table 1 below shows the different course descriptions from these universities.

Table 1 shows the lack of consensus among selected universities about the objectives of English 1 and English 2. This affects the inconsistent learning outcomes for university students. As English courses in General Education are so-called enabling courses, there is a need to identify these core skills that will enable university students to participate in the academic discourse and to succeed as readers, writers, listeners, and speakers. The next section explains the need for a set of common core standards for English 1 and 2 in higher education in the Philippines, and it also discusses the need to align the standards with the changes in the 21st century.

Table 1
English 1 and English 2 Targets

	English 1	English 2
University 1	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reading, • writing paragraphs and essays • language 	library research paper writing
University 2	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reading academic texts • writing academic text 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • writing essays • preparing a term paper
University 3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • development of reading and writing skills across the curriculum • application of students' critical thinking skills 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • advanced composition • research writing
University 4	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • basic communication skills in listening, speaking, reading, and writing • functional grammar 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • thinking skills for academic study • reading and writing academic texts
University 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reading and writing combined to equip learners with integrated skills and strategies necessary for the performance of academic tasks 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • technical communication skills
University 5	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reading different texts that develop critical thinking; • writing meaningful, unified and coherent paragraphs; • writing short compositions using rhetorical devices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • listening, speaking, reading and writing as foundation for the higher English studies • writing in the various rhetorical modes including different patterns of organization and aids to exposition • writing a research paper.
University 6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • listening, speaking, reading, and writing • using grammatical structures as a tool to facilitate the competency in the use of the language • library orientation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • reading with comprehension, • synthesizing information, • writing unified and coherent paragraphs • producing a well-organized term paper.

The Need for Standards Reform

There are four factors that have an impact on standards reform. These are economic changes, the increasing role of English proficiency in the economy, the new standards, and the advent of the millennials. These same factors are affecting assessment policies in the world.

The first factor is the fact that the economic order in the world is changing. The recession in the United States and the European Union's decreasing economic power are some of the examples. Canton (2007) claims that the center of gravity is shifting to the East, the population is aging in developed nations, and there will be a global war for talent, and innovation will be the driver of prosperity. These changes open doors for countries with an increasing population like the Philippines. This can only happen if the educational standards help the future workforce to hone the necessary skills to thrive in the new economy.

The new economy is called the knowledge economy. "Knowledge economy is one where knowledge is acquired, created, disseminated and applied to enhance economic development" (A Roadmap to the Philippines' Future, n.d.). Bloch (1988) claims that the knowledge economy demands the following skills: solution-oriented thinking, gathering and researching information, team work and collaboration, and presentation skills.

In this economy, English plays an important role. Tullao in his lecture during the First English Proficiency Assessment in 2009 pointed out the importance of English as the language of science, of global commerce, and of globalization. Tullao stated that "As one of the major languages of globalization English is a powerful tool in understanding abstract concepts, using holistic approaches, manipulating symbols, acquiring and utilizing knowledge, working in teams and in breaking boundaries."

The second factor is the increasing role of English in the Knowledge Economy

- (1) English is the "language of international trade and mutual understanding among interconnected global communities (APEC HRD, 2004, p. 1). It is also the language that will help build the human capital.
- (2) Scholtz (2010) claims that English is the major language in such fields as international diplomacy, business and commerce, science and technology, and the travel industry. English is the language of diplomacy. Key international bodies such as the United Nations, have adopted English as the working language. The 21st Century demands that workers possess critical thinking and problem solving, creativity and innovation, collaboration, and communication skills because of the fast-paced, competitive global economy. These skills require a language used in the world. English is also the language of diplomacy, negotiation, and conflict resolution.
- (3) English is a stepping stone to get a job as multinational companies require resumes, essays, and interviews in English in multinational companies (Gao, 2010). It is also a ticket to promotion.

English-speaking employees compete in an elite but relatively smaller pool. Among employees with similar skills, those with English fluency are paid substantially higher. English ability offers more opportunities and options for both job and life. In MNCs, email equips a bigger advantage to those who can master English and further weakens others who are able to perform but unable to write well in English. Tele-conference and video reduce the necessity of face-to-face interaction and amplifies the factor of English. But PC and internet in office also offer opportunities for employees to interact with English more frequently (Gao, 2010).

The third factor is the global movement for new standards. These standards include the new basic skills, the 21st century skills, and the new literacy skills. With the explosion of information because of the internet comes a new set of skills needed to survive in an age where change is at its dizzying speed. First, Murnane and Levy (1996) in their study to find out the skills needed in high wage positions in major companies in the United States found that the new basic skills include the hard skill of problem solving and soft skill of working in teams and effective oral and written presentations. They also suggest that these new basic skills be included in schools to make students see the connection between what they are learning and their future job prospects. Teachers should also update themselves with the changing job market and update their teaching methods. Finally, Murnane and Levy (1996) also suggest that assessment should be comprehensive to include assessment of the ability to structure problems and to test solutions as well as write clearly in English. It cannot be denied that these new basic skills are anchored on language skills.

In addition, there are 21st century skills that nations are integrating in their curricula. The 21st century skills are important because “our children live in a global, digital world—a world transformed by technology and human ingenuity. Given the rapid rate of change, the vast amount of information to be managed, and the influence of technology on life in general, students need to apply current skill sets, as well as develop new skill sets to cope and to thrive in this changing society” (NCREL/Metiri Group, 2003, p1.). These skills include digital age literacy (basic, scientific, economic and technological literacies as well as visual, information, and multicultural literacies). Inventive thinking is also an important skill in this century that requires adaptability, self-management, creativity, risk-taking, higher order thinking, sound reasoning, and the ability to manage complexity. All of these are anchored one effective communication skills because in the 21st century people will work in teams and they need to collaborate on projects. These skills need to be coupled with personal, civic, and social responsibility. Finally, NCREL/Metiri Group (2003) also point out that high productivity is also very important because with multitasking and the complexity brought about by the new media, human beings have to plan, prioritize, use real world tools in order to produce high quality products. Another organization, P21.org (n.d.), includes the following 21st century interdisciplinary themes such as “global awareness, financial,

economic, business and entrepreneurial literacy, health literacy, environmental literacy, critical thinking and problem solving” (p.1).

Lastly, the advent of the new technology has also created a new breed of learners called the millenials. According to Wilson (2005) “millenials have heightened tecno skills and ability to access information so students need to learn to investigate sources.” He suggests that plagiarism policies must be clear and students’ critical thinking should be honed through scholarly investigations. He also claims that millenials are looking for frameworks, rules, organization structures that will allow creativity . They also hunger for information and problem solving challenges. Finally, Wilson (2005) also points out that the millennials are discriminating consumers, they work hard, and they value volunteerism and community service. In addition, teachers of millennials need to use projects, authentic assessment, clearly defined grading and performance, and materials relevant to the future lives of their students to help them see the connection between what they are learning and the real world.

In a nutshell, the economic changes may open doors for the increasing population of Filipinos because of the aging population in most developed countries and because of the increased opportunities in the East. However, there are keys to open these doors and these are improved English proficiency and the 21st century skills needed to thrive in the knowledge economy. In addition, educational institutions have to consider the changing nature of their clients, the millennials. They require different approaches compared to those who were schooled before the advent of the internet and computers.

Towards a Framework for Content Standards

Frameworks are created to ensure that an agreed-upon knowledge base is shared by everyone involved in standards reform or in any curriculum reform for that matter. The framework combines research on standards for the traditional literacy as well as new literacies such as academic literacy and information literacy. The framework that follows can be used for setting standards in the department, school, college, or national level.

“Content standards are statements that define what students should know and be able to do” (IRA and NCTE, 1996, p. 1). These two influential organizations IRA or International Reading Association and NCTE or National Council of Teachers of English started to define the standards that will prepare for the literacy requirements in this century and the next century. These organizations also claim that standards ensure that stakeholders like teachers, literacy researchers, parents, and teacher trainers share a vision of what the students should attain in the English curriculum. Finally, IRA and NCTE (1996) also “believe that the act of defining standards is worthwhile because it invites further reflection and conversation about the fundamental goals of ... schools (p.1).

Content standards are targets, and in the field of English language teaching (ELT) setting targets can be a bit complicated. Traditionally, the main

target is communicative competence. However, some curriculum designers equate grammatical competence or the knowledge people have of a language. However, Richards (2006) points out that communicative competence includes the following:

- Knowing how to use language for a range of different purposes and functions
- Knowing how to vary our use of language according to the setting and the participants
- Knowing how to produce and understand different types of texts
- Knowing how to maintain communication despite having limitations in language knowledge (p.3).

However, as shown above, the targets are too broad that they are difficult to assess. In addition, the demands in higher education include not just communicative competence but a kind of thinking that will help the students cope with the complex demands in various subjects. In fact, Tynjala, Mason, and Lonka(2001) believe that university students need to transferrable general skills such as critical and abstract thinking, the ability to use and produce information, teamwork, cooperation skills, communication skills requires for writing reports and giving oral presentations, lifelong learning skills, and the ability to reflect.

“Instead of communicative competence, some nations target 21st century literacy. Literacy is defined by NCTE (2008) as a collection of cultural and communicative practices shared among members of particular groups” (p.1).

As society and technology change, so does literacy. Because technology has increased the intensity and complexity of literate environments, the twenty-first century demands that a literate person possess a wide range of abilities and competencies, many literacies. These literacies—from reading online newspapers to participating in virtual classrooms—are multiple, dynamic, and malleable. As in the past, they are inextricably linked with particular histories, life possibilities and social trajectories of individuals and groups. Twenty-first century readers and writers need to

- Develop proficiency with the tools of technology
- Build relationships with others to pose and solve problems collaboratively and cross-culturally
- Design and share information for global communities to meet a variety of purposes
- Manage, analyze and synthesize multiple streams of simultaneous information
- Create, critique, analyze, and evaluate multi-media texts
- Attend to the ethical responsibilities required by these complex environments (NCTE, 2008, p.1).

In addition, universities that cater to L2 or second language learners provide English 1 and English 2 courses that develop academic literacy.

Academic literacy is defined by Intersegmental Committee of the Academic Senates (ICAS) (2002) as a complex process that includes the following:

The dispositions and habits of mind that enable students to enter the ongoing conversations appropriate to college thinking, reading, writing, and speaking are inter-related and multi-tiered. Students should be aware of the various logical, emotional, and personal appeals used in argument; additionally, they need skills enabling them to define, summarize, detail, explain, evaluate, compare/contrast, and analyze. Students should also have a fundamental understanding of audience, tone, language usage, and rhetorical strategies to navigate appropriately in various disciplines (p.11).

ICAS (2002) reports on the results of multi-sectoral consultation about the targets for incoming university or college students. Based on their extensive research and discussion, they were able to arrive at a set of standards divided into the following:

- reading for information
- writing to learn and communicate effectively
- grammar, usage, and mechanics
- conventions of oral presentations
- speaking and listening in formal and informal settings
- interpreting, critiquing, and creating literature
- finding, analyzing, applying, and communicating information

Aside from academic literacy standards, there are also information literacy standards that have recently been added to the English curriculum in higher education because of the shift to the knowledge economy. Information literacy has several definitions. According to the American Library Association, information literacy is the ability to “recognize when information is needed and have the ability to locate, evaluate, and use effectively the needed information” (ACRL, 2000, p. 1). Allen (2000) cites the Boyer Commission Report of April 1998 to point out the importance of information literacy to university students through resource-based learning. Allen (2000) claims that resource-based learning ensures active learning through “undergraduate research, service learning, inquiry learning, problem-based learning and evidence-based learning” (par. 9). She adds that this integration will not only develop information literacy of university students but will also develop team work, critical thinking, and the ability to see analyze and solve real-life problems in the community.

Several organizations have defined the standards or pillars of information literacy. One organization is The Society of College, National and University Libraries (SCONUL). This organization identified seven pillars. There are the following:

- (1) The ability to recognise a need for information

- (2) The ability to distinguish ways in which the information ‘gap’ may be addressed
- (3) The ability to construct strategies for locating information
- (4) The ability to locate and access information
- (5) The ability to compare and evaluate information obtained from different sources
- (6) The ability to organise, apply and communicate information to others in ways appropriate to the situation
- (7) The ability to synthesise and build upon existing information, contributing to the creation (SCONUL, 1999, p.6)

In a nutshell, the content standards of English courses in general education have to include academic literacy and information literacy to ensure the development of enabling skills.

Part 3 Proposed Curriculum

The proposed curriculum is anchored on EAP, EOP and service learning framework as well as the skills needed in the knowledge economy and the learning needs of the millennials. English for Academic Purpose is an approach to the teaching of English that intends to prepare students for the demands of the university. These demands include using different reading skills and strategies to be able to process different types of texts. In addition, EAP courses also introduce different writing skills and strategies to help university students write term papers, research reports, critiques, summaries, and other forms of essays following the academic discipline and observing intellectual honesty. Some EAP courses also provide other study skills such as listening to lectures and taking down notes.

On the other hand, EOP or English for Occupational Purpose is an approach that helps its learners to communicate better in their workplace for those who are working or EOP prepares the future workforce for the demands of the workplace. Some EOP courses are discipline specific such as English for Business and English for Nurses. However, pre-service EOP courses provide workplace communication skills such as technical communication, business communication, and presentation skills.

Finally, service learning is “a teaching and learning strategy that integrates meaningful community service with instruction and reflection to enrich the learning experience, teach civic responsibility, and strengthen communities” (National Service Learning Clearinghouse, 2011, par 1). Harkavy (1998) points out that colleges and universities are becoming civic institutions serious in developing learners who solve problems in their communities. There are several benefits of service learning such as the development of positive beliefs about service and higher academic achievement (Markus, Howard, and King, 1993). Other benefits include the development of problem-solving skills as well as a deeper understanding; “other research supports the contention

that service learning has a positive impact on personal, attitudinal, moral, social, and cognitive outcomes” (Bringle and Hatcher, 1996, p.2).

Proposed GE English Curriculum Standards for Universities and Colleges

The proposed standards for English and English 2 are anchored on the 21st century skills, the expectations of the millennials, academic literacy, information literacy.

General standard: At the end of English 1 and 2, each student will become a critical reader, writer, listener, speaker, and viewer who uses effective communication skills to become a better student, a better researcher, a better problem-solver, and an effective leader. S/he will become self-directed and will learn how to learn.

English 1 Academic Literacy

This course for first year college students equips the learners with the necessary reading, writing, and thinking skills needed to understand and analyze current national issues. This course is anchored on self-directed learning and on inquiry-based learning.

Goal 1 Students interact with various reading texts in the literal, inferential, and critical level.

Goal 2 Students apply pre-reading, while-reading, and post-reading strategies.

Goal 3 Students apply a wide range of strategies as they write and use different writing strategies to meet their communicative needs and audience needs.

Goal 4 Students use metacognitive, cognitive, and social/affective strategies for learning.

Goal 5 Students apply their knowledge of language structures and conventions in various writing tasks.

Goal 6 Students assess their strengths and weaknesses as academic literate individuals, set goals, prepare and implement a learning plan, and evaluate their progress.

English 2 Information Literacy

This course guides the learners as they seek, evaluate, use, and create information to solve a problem. It also develops their ability to write following the conventions of academic and professional writing. It is anchored on project-based learning as students work with the Social Action Center in preparing a service project for a community based on their needs analysis and research. They also write a report of the evaluation of their project.

Goal 1 Students conduct research on an issue by generating ideas and questions, and by posing problems. They gather, evaluate, and

- synthesize data from a variety of sources (e.g., print and non-print texts, artifacts, people) to communicate their discoveries in ways that suit their purpose and audience.
- Goal 2 Students use a variety of technological and information resources (e.g., libraries, databases, computer networks, video) to gather and synthesize information and to create and communicate knowledge.
- Goal 3 Students work in teams on a project to solve a problem.
- Goal 4 Students follow the conventions of academic and professional writing as they plan, implement, and evaluate a project that will benefit a marginalized group of people.
- Goal 5 Students observe the principles of professional writing as they communicate through emails and snail mails to their team members and to the beneficiaries of their project.

Conclusions

This paper was conceived to synthesize global changes and local needs in order to contextualize the need to revise the 1996 content standards of English 1 and English 2 in higher education in the Philippines. The global changes include the new economic order, the increasing role of English proficiency in the economy, the new standards for the workforce that include 21st century skills and new literacies such as information literacy and academic literacy, and the advent of students in the digital called the millennial. On the other hand, the local needs include the declining English proficiency of Filipinos amidst vast opportunities in business process outsourcing services. If the Philippines wants to develop a knowledge economy, then it is imperative that it develops its human resource to be knowledge workers. If the Philippines wants to succeed in the 21st century, then it has to provide for support to ensure that schools develop Filipino students' 21st century skills. The revision of the 1996 content standards in English 1 and English 2, foundational courses in higher education in the Philippines, is a step towards educational reform. Once this is done, assessment policies, professional development, and materials preparation can follow.

This paper hopes to start the process of setting content standards for English 1 and English 2 in higher education institutions in the Philippines. The next step may be to hold a meeting of stake holders such as key persons in professional organizations of English teachers, policymakers from the Commission on Higher Education, and university professors in the various fields in order to look at the proposed standards and achieve consensus as to how to proceed with the process of finalizing the content standards. Content standards are critical in policymaking that related to curriculum design, professional development, and selection of learning materials. This is the reason why there is an urgency to review the 15-year-old English curriculum of the Commission of Higher Education.

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Evaluating the Role of Discourse Markers and Other Enabling Factors in Academic Listening Comprehension

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The present study focuses on the analysis of a set of academic lectures in the field of social science, one of the four sets of lectures developed in a previous study by Miciano, Gocheco, Bensal, and Abatayo (2009). The objective of the present study is to investigate the possible effects of discourse markers and other variables such as prior knowledge, test and lecture difficulty on lecture comprehension. The materials include two lecture versions for each topic - one with linguistic/discourse markers and one without. The listening test was taken by a total of 51 undergraduate and graduate students. The exploratory study shows no significant effect in the listening comprehension of academic lectures with or without discourse markers. Other factors that might explain the results, such as prior knowledge, lecture flow, test and lecture difficulty, were also examined in the present study.

Keywords: academic listening comprehension, discourse markers

Listening plays an important role in tertiary education, considering that lectures, seminars, discussions, and debates play a key role in the academe. Despite its academic importance, very minimal research has been done on listening. In most cases, the strategies in reading are assumed to be applicable to listening (O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper, 1989 in Flowerdew, 1994). This may be due to the notion that reading and listening share numerous characteristics such as:

“Both require receptive language processing, which involves decoding and comprehension. Thus, both processes use two basic knowledge sources, language knowledge and world knowledge (e.g., topic, text structure, schema, and culture) for purposes of comprehension. Like reading, listening also entails two major processes, top-down and

bottom-up, in applying such knowledge to the input during comprehension. Both listening and reading necessitate processes that are flexible and adaptable in respect to cognitive demands (Danks & End, 1987), and the listener, like the reader, constructs, in memory a mental representation of what has been comprehended. Finally, the success of both listening and reading is influenced by other factors, such as metacognitive strategies and motivation (Samuels, 1987)” (Vandergrift, 2006, p. 9, as cited in Miciano et al., 2009).

Apart from these common skills, listening has distinctive features that may be categorized in terms of “real-time processing, phonological and lexicogrammatical features” (Buck, 1991; 1992 in Flowerdew, 1994, p. 10). It is said to be processed in real-time because it is processed as the idea is uttered. As reading and writing may be described as recursive, listening may otherwise be described as “ephemeral” (Flowerdew, 1994, p.10). The listener cannot dwell nor put the reading material aside and attend to it again at a later time. The phonological features may distinctly apply to listening although the lexicogrammatical features must be distinguished from those that may be found in reading. Listening to spoken texts requires an awareness of lexicogrammatical features that may include colloquial speech, discourse fillers, and other remedies for false starts or hesitations.

Goh (2002) identifies three types of text features that may influence listening: acoustic features (phonological modifications and speech rate); discourse features (organization of information, topic, vocabulary, sentence length, register, etc); and text type (broadcasts, lectures, conversations).

As English has become an important language of the world, a considerable number of researchers have investigated the features of the language that ESL/EFL learners may employ in listening to lectures in the academe.

Chaudron, Loschky, and Cook (1994 in Flowerdew, 1994) found that successful recall was related to lecture note quality and training in note-taking. There were 98 students (predominantly from Asian and Pacific backgrounds) who participated in this study. Listening comprehension was measured by multiple-choice and cloze listening tests. The researchers of the study also recognized the value of the clarity of structure and presentation of the lecture.

Another important feature in listening is the use of rhetorical cues known as discourse markers. Discourse markers (DM) are defined by Shiffrin (1987) as elements that define units of talk. According to Flowerdew (1994), the rhetorical pattern of a discourse, such as lectures, is signaled by connectives and discourse markers that make a body of information coherent, easily understood and remembered. Hansen (1994 in Miciano et al., 2009) defines them as “organizational signal[s] that appear ... at the beginning and/or end of a unit of talk and [are] used by the speaker to indicate how what is being said is related to what has already been said” (p.16). Therefore,

discourse markers help listeners follow turns in a lecture and help them understand the relationship of ideas between sentences and between segments of talk.

In a study on academic listening comprehension, Chaudron and Richards (1986) have analyzed the use of discourse signals to mark shift in ideas, structure, and organization of information in a lecture and found the facilitative effect they have on academic listening comprehension. In this study, Chaudron and Richards' differentiated discourse markers into macro-markers, or markers of rhetorical moves, and micro-markers, which are lower-level signals of topics and topic relationships. Their study found that macro-markers led to better recall of the lecture.

In a similar study, Dunkel and Davis (1994 in Flowerdew, 1994) investigated the differences between the lecture information recall of first-language (English as first language) listeners and ESL (English as a second language) listeners based on the use of rhetorical signal devices uses in the lectures. This result of this study contradicted the findings of Chaudron and Richards (1986) that rhetorical cues such as discourse markers have a facilitative effect on listening comprehension. According to the researchers, the possible causes of the differences in their findings may be attributed to the following: first, the narrative and comparison/contrast structures of their texts may have provided adequate cues thereby rendering the signaling devices useless; second, they used a different type of test; third, they allowed their participants to refer to their notes during the recall period.

Several other studies have investigated the use of discourse markers in academic lectures. One of these studies is that of Eslami and Eslami-Rakesh (2007). The participants of the study were 72 EAP students at Najafabad Azad University who were exposed to two versions of a lecture, one with discourse markers and the other without. Results showed the facilitative effects of discourse markers in listening comprehension. Likewise, Smit's (2006) study showed that awareness of discourse markers had a positive impact on academic lecture comprehension. The experimental group that underwent a training program on the recognition of discourse markers performed significantly better than the control group.

There is a perception that they are important in listening to lectures, as shown in other studies on ALC. For example, in Harper's (1985, as cited in Miciano et al., 2009) research which studied the relationship of micro- and macro-skills in academic listening comprehension, the Test of Academic Listening Comprehension (TALC) developed for foreign-student participants included these measures of four micro-skills: (1) inferring the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary from context; (2) recognizing the function of referential devices; (3) recognizing the functions of conjunctive devices; and (4) recognizing the function of transition devices.

Significance of the Study

Most universities do not have any training programs that might help students, especially new international students who need to develop their academic listening comprehension (ALC). There is also a dearth of institutional academic listening comprehension tests in most universities in the Philippines. Gathering data on which to base the design of a training program or an ALC test is therefore necessary. Relevant information such as the role of discourse markers and the other factors that may affect ALC are valuable data in developing strategies in ALC for both the learner and the teacher.

The primary objective of this research is to explore the impact of discourse markers and other enabling factors in ALC in English. Specifically, the study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. Do discourse markers have an effect on lecture comprehension?
2. Do other factors such as prior knowledge, lecture flow, test and lecture difficulties have an impact on academic listening comprehension?

Method

Materials: Lecture and Listening test

The materials used in the present study were identical to those used in the original study of academic listening comprehension by Miciano et al., (2009). The present study, however, focuses and extends the investigation of discourse markers and other factors that affect ALC based on the lecture entitled 'Gender', one of the four sets of lecture. The 'Gender' lecture represented the field of social sciences, while the other lectures represented other academic fields such as mathematics, natural sciences, and humanities.

Two versions of a lecture were prepared -- one with discourse markers and conjunctions and transitional devices (Lecture 1), and one without (Lecture 2) -- for a total of eight lectures. Lecture 1 was first prepared and then the discourse markers were deleted to prepare Lecture 2. In deleting these markers, the team made sure that clarity was not sacrificed. Hence, the same information was covered in both lecture versions, the only point of difference being the discourse markers in Lecture 1. Lecture 1 was between 700-800 words and Lecture 2 was between 600-700 words.

As followed by the research team in the original study, the topic was selected based on the following criteria: (1) The topic must be included in a basic or introductory major or GE course offered at DLSU. (Some syllabi from GE and basic courses were examined for this purpose; (2) The topics must not be too simple nor too difficult in terms of content and language for undergraduate and graduate students, both local and international.

For the preparation of the materials, the following procedures were followed in the original study (Miciano et al., 2009):

- (1) Preparation of the lectures. The syllabi of several GE and basic courses were studied and some references were borrowed/downloaded to survey possible lecture topics. The lectures were initially evaluated for clarity by the team.
- (2) Preparation of the test. The “lecturer” or “scriptwriter” had to prepare a total of 35 questions based on the scripted lecture items: 5 on vocabulary, 5 on references, 5 on conjunctions, 5 on transitional devices, 5 on discourse markers, 5 on main ideas and details, and 5 on inferences/applications.
- (3) A multiple choice oral test was prepared. To aid recall of the options, each participant was given a scratch paper on which the listener/participant could take down notes.
- (4) Content validation of the lectures and tests. After their initial evaluation by the team, the lectures and the tests were given to the content specialist (a retired professor of psychology) for evaluation of accuracy/correctness of content and representativeness of the questions.
- (5) Language validation of the lectures and tests. After the content experts approved the lectures and tests, the materials were given to a language expert at the DEAL (a retired professor of linguistics) to examine the materials’ clarity, coherence and grammatical correctness. Further revisions were made until all the materials passed the evaluation of the language expert.
- (6) Taping of the listening test. One member of the team - Ms. Bensal - read aloud all the lectures, each of which was taped at the English Language Laboratory and subsequently reformatted in CD at the University Library. Ms. Bensal read the lecture at a slower-than-normal-lecture-rate in consideration of the foreign students who would participate in the study. The lecture was read once but test items were read twice and one minute/item was given to the participants to recall the options and answer the question. (p. 13).

Instruments

The test focused on the literal and higher levels of comprehension, in addition to the linguistic dimension of the listening process. More specifically the following micro- and macro-skills were tested: (1) Getting the meaning of unfamiliar words from context; (2) Identifying the referents of referential devices; (3) Recognizing the function of conjunctions; (4) Recognizing the function of transition devices; (5) Recognizing discourse topic markers

Micro-skills (Harper, 1983; Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh, 2007).

Based on the aforementioned skills as reference, the academic listening tests consist of seven sections of five multiple-choice questions each, for a total of 35 items:

Test A is on low-frequency vocabulary used in the lecture;

Test B focuses on the use of referents;

Test C is on conjunctions;

Test D on transitional devices;

Test E is on discourse markers;

Test F is about the lecture's main ideas and supporting details;

Test G is on inferences and applications of the ideas in the lecture.

Tests C, D, and E together were used as the measure of knowledge of discourse markers;

Test F and G were used as indicators of lecture comprehension.

For the English proficiency test, a grammar online test was used (<http://www.english.language.webpark.pl/test/htm>). The test consists of 35 items on grammar, classified as Basic, Advanced, and Intermediate levels, and 15 items on reading.

The Respondent Profile Sheet that each participant answered after the test asked for the following information: degree program, previous knowledge of the lecture topic, perception of the lecture difficulty, lecture flow, and test difficulty (Easy, Moderate, Difficult). Data from the Respondent Profile were used to explain the results of the statistical test.

Participants

A total of 51 undergraduate and graduate students, both local and international, participated in the study. These participants were randomly assigned to one of two groups - one group listened to Lecture 1 (with discourse markers) and the other to Lecture 2 (no discourse markers). The undergraduate students were mostly freshmen and sophomores; the graduate students were mostly in the first year of graduate studies.

Twenty six (26) undergraduate (UG) students participated in the Gender Listening Test. Half of the group listened to Gender 1, the test with discourse markers, while the other half listened to Gender 2, the test without discourse markers. The participants in Gender 1 were all Filipinos, except for one Chinese. The participants who listened to Gender 2 were composed of 10 Filipinos, two Koreans, and one American. On the other hand, there were 25 graduate (G) students who listened to the same tests - 12 listened to Gender 1, while 13 listened to Gender 2. The Gender 1 graduate participants were composed of five Filipinos, two Koreans, three Chinese, one American, and one student with an unspecified nationality. On the other hand, the Gender 2 graduate participants were all Filipinos.

Out of a total of 51 participants, 47 or 92% use English as L2. The results of the grammar test show that the mean score for language proficiency of the UG Gender 1 participants is 38.69 while the UG Gender 2 participants' mean score is 38.76, which means that their language proficiency does not significantly vary. The same pattern is shown in the results of the graduate participants, with 39.33 for Gender 1 and 38.92 for Gender 2.

Procedure

Administration of the listening test. The tests were administered to the two sets of participants: two Undergrad Groups and two Graduate Groups.

The lecture and the listening test, as designed, took at least 37 minutes to finish. The lecture was about 6 minutes, the test took about 30 minutes, and the participants spent about 1 min to fill in a brief Respondent Profile Sheet after the test. In addition to this, the participants needed to take a grammar test, which took about 20 minute for Filipino participants to finish, and at least about 30 minute for foreigners to finish. All in all, the lecture and the listening test and the grammar test took under an hour for Filipinos and a little over one hour for most foreigners. The listening session started with an explanation of the purpose of the grammar and listening test. The participants were assured of the confidentiality of the test results. After the test, the participants accomplished the Respondent Profile Sheet.

For the undergraduate students, the grammar test was administered on a different day from the listening test because of the shortness of the class session. For the graduate students, the grammar and listening tests were administered in one session.

Data Analysis. A summary of the results was prepared in Excel format and analyzed with the help of a statistician. Since two different sets of participants have been used in each investigative condition, the independent t-test was used.

The alpha level used was 0.05, hence p values below the alpha level are statistically significant. Pearson r correlation was computed to check the direction and strength of the relationships of DM and F, DM and G, and F and Grammar scores, where DM or discourse markers are indicated by Tests C,D, E scores; F is the test on main ideas and details score; G is the test on inference and application score; and Grammar is the language proficiency test score.

Results and Discussion

This section discusses the test results of the two groups that listened to the Gender Lecture Listening tests. The other three sets of tests were discussed in a previous study (Miciano et al., 2010).

As mentioned earlier, there were two treatment groups: group 1 listened to the lecture with DM or discourse markers while group 2 listened to the lecture without discourse markers. Both groups, however, took the same test.

Undergraduate (UG) Gender Lecture Listening Test

The results of the t-test show that there is no significant difference between the test results of the two groups of UG Gender 1 and UG Gender 2 ($p = .743$), as shown below in Table 1. This indicates that discourse markers, as measured by the CDE set of test, did not have an effect on lecture comprehension, as manifested in FG set of tests, in the study.

Table 1

Independent t- test: A Comparison of CDE scores of UG Groups with and without DM

F	P value	t	df	P value (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	SE Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
							Lower	Upper
1.062	0.313	.332	24	.743	.23	.69	-1.21	1.67

Note. Alpha Level = 0.05, significant difference if $p < 0.05$; Data Analysis Software Used: SPSS v.12

To see the relationship between the different variables in the tests, the correlation was computed. The statistics on the correlation between the discourse markers (DM), as tested in C, D, and E, comprehension (F, G), and Gram (grammar or language proficiency) are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

DM x F, DM x G, and FG x Gram Correlations: Gender (undergraduate)

Treatment	CDE x F	Desc'n	CDE x G	Desc'n	FG x Gram	Desc'n
Gender 1	0.512623	Positive mod'ly strog	0.016305	Positive weak	0.460818	Positive mod'ly weak
Gender 2	0.578109	Positive mod'ly strong	0.674951	Positive mod'ly strong	0.670091	Positive mod'ly strong

Based on the statistics presented in Table 2, the correlations between the variables in UG Gender 1 (with discourse markers) are positive but slightly varied in the degree of correlation. The Gender 1 correlation test made

between C,D, E (or DM collectively) and F (main ideas and supporting details) manifest a positive and moderately strong correlation with comprehension (F).

Similarly, Gender 2 lectures (without DM) show the same result for the same test, positive and moderately strong.

The difference in results lies in the succeeding tests. In the correlation test between CDE and G (inferences and applications) of Gender 1 lectures (with discourse markers), the correlation is positive but weak, whereas the Gender 2 (without discourse markers) test shows a positive and moderately strong correlation.

The same tests (C, D, E) show a positive but weak correlation between discourse markers (DM) and comprehension (FG or the test on inference and application). For the Gender 1 lectures, the results in Table 2 show a positive but moderately weak correlation. while Gender 2 lectures (without DM), the tests show positive and moderately strong correlation with FG, and Grammar. A similar result is found in the correlation of comprehension (FG) and grammar (Gram). The test of FG and Gram of Gender 1 participants manifests a positive but moderately weak correlation, while the Gender 2 (without discourse markers) show a positive and moderately strong correlation.

This far, the results show no significant improvement in comprehension as far as the use of discourse markers in lectures is concerned, since it may be observed that only the Gender 2 lectures (without discourse markers) correlation results manifest a positive and moderately strong correlation between DM and G (inferences and application), while Gender 1 results exhibit a positive but weak correlation between comprehension results and other variables shown in the tests

Further investigation of the other variables found in the exit survey results may predict student performance in academic listening comprehension. These variables in the exit survey questionnaire include prior knowledge, lecture flow, lecture and test difficulty, as may gleaned from the summary presented in Table 3.

Table 3
Summary of Exit Survey Results: UG Gender

Group	Prev. Knowledge of Topic (%)			Lecture Difficulty (%)				Lecture Flow (%)				Test Difficulty (%)			
	Yes	No	NA	E	M	D	NA	E	M	D	NA	E	M	D	NA
G1	8	4	1	3	9	0	1	4	7	1	1	2	7	3	1
%	61.5	0.8	7.7	23.1	69.2	0	7.7	30.8	53.8	7.7	7.7	15.4	53.8	23.1	7.7
G	7	6	0	4	9	0	0	6	7	0	0	2	10	1	0
%	53.8	46.2	0	30.2	69.8	0	0	46.2	53.9	0	0	15.4	76.9	7.7	0

Note. G2 (Gender 2 - without discourse markers) M - Moderate NA - No answer

The majority (61.5%) of UG Gender 1 participants had previous knowledge of the topic. Similarly, a majority of G2 participants, although slightly lower than G1, exhibit a high percentage of schema (53.8%) on the topic.

For Lecture Flow, it may be gleaned from Table 3 that G1 and G2 has similar results in the Moderate answers but there are noticeable differences lie in the E (Easy) and (D) Difficult results. G2 has a higher percentage (46.2%) of participants who found the lecture flow easy and none found it difficult. On the other hand, a lower percentage (30.8%) of G1 participants found the lecture flow easy and 7.7 % found it difficult. Thus, it may observed that G2 generally perceived lecture flow more positively than the G1 participants.

In terms of test difficulty, a higher percentage of G1 participants found the test difficult (23.1%) as compared to G2 participants, which registers at 7.7% in Test Difficulty. Again, based on these percentages, the G2 participants perceived the tests less difficult as compared to the perception of G1 participants.

In summary, the UG Gender 2 (without discourse markers) correlation results exhibit a positive, moderately strong correlation between the other variables DM and F and G. As seen in the exit survey results, in the absence of discourse markers, the participants probably had to rely on their previous knowledge of the topic, which the majority or 53.8% had. Despite the absence of discourse markers, none of the UG Gender 2 participants answered D (difficult) for Lecture Difficulty and Lecture Flow This may suggest that schema could have played a more critical role in lecture comprehension than DM in the results of Gender 2 participants.

Graduate

As in the UG Gender test, the results of the t-test in the Graduate Gender test show no significant difference between Gender 1 and 2 results ($p = .601$).

The statistics on the correlation of discourse markers (DM), comprehension (F and G), and language proficiency (Gram) are presented in Table 4.

The two groups manifest mostly positive but mixed degree of correlations between CDE, F, and G, which indicates that the presence or absence of discourse markers had no impact on lecture comprehension since both groups exhibit similar performance in their test results.

Table 4
DM x F, DM x G, and FG x Gram Correlations: Gender (graduate)

Group	CDE x F	Desc'n	CDE x G	Desc'n	FG x Gram	Desc'n
Gender 1	0.3188	Positive mod'ly weak	0.507833	Positive mod'ly strong	0.345271	Positive mod'ly weak
Gender 2	0.186853	Positive weak	0.15269	Positive weak	-0.05683	Neg, very weak

Note the only negative correlation in Table 4 in the G2 group (graduate). There is a negative and very weak correlation between FG (comprehension) and Gram (grammatical) test results. This means that, for G2, comprehension is not dependent on the grammatical competence of the participants and vice versa.

As shown in Table 5, there is not much difference between the two groups in terms of previous knowledge of the topic - for Gender1, 66.7% of participants have prior knowledge of the topic, and Gender 2 participants follow closely with 61.5 %

Unexpectedly, more of Gender 1 group found the lecture difficult (25% vs. 0 in Gender 2 group). Similarly, more participants in G1 found the lecture flow and the test difficult, despite the use of discourse markers in their lectures. Since the prior knowledge of G2 is slightly higher than G1 (as shown in Table 5) it might have served as a facilitative factor for the G2 participants to perceive the lecture flow, test and lecture less difficult than how G1 perceived them.

The results shown in Table 5 concurs with the result of the independent t-test comparing CDE scores with and without discourse markers, where no significant difference in the results was observed. Thus, the ALC tests done in the study did not show that discourse markers had a significant impact on lecture comprehension, contrary to the findings of Chaudron and Richards (1986), Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh (2007), and Smit (2006). However, the present study's findings that comprehension appear to be unaffected by the use of discourse markers coincide with the findings of Dunkel and Davis (1994, in Flowerdew, 1994) that the use of discourse markers did not have a significant influence on the recall of lecture information units or words in note-taking although the aforementioned studies used different measures or tests to evaluate comprehension and recall of information - "Chaudron and Richards used cloze, true -false, and multiple choice test, while Dunkel and Davis used written recall protocols" (p. 68). It must be noted that the present study did not allow any note-taking.

Table 5
Summary of Exit Survey Results: Gender (Graduate)

Group	Prev. Knowledge of Topic (%)			Lecture Difficulty (%)				Lecture Flow (%)				Test Difficulty (%)			
	Yes	No	NA	E	M	D	NA	E	M	D	NA	E	M	D	NA
G1	4	8	0	2	7	3	0	3	6	6	0	0	7	2	3
%	33.3	66.7	0	16.7	58.3	25	0	50	25	25	0	0	58.3	16.7	25
G2	5	8	0	7	6	0	0	7	5	1	0	1	12	0	0
%	38.5	61.5	0	53.8	46.2	0	0	53.8	38.5	7.7	0	7.7	92.3	0	0

Note. G1: Gender 1 – with discourse markers, E – Easy, D – Dif, G2: Gender 2 – without discourse markers

Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

In general, the study found that discourse markers did not seem to have a significant impact on academic lecture comprehension. There may be some factors that may lend support to the divergent findings of the present study in comparison with the findings of other similar studies. First, the result may have been caused by the small sample size of the participants in the study. An extension or replication of the study with a bigger population may show a more substantial relationship between discourse markers and academic listening comprehension.

Second, the content, types of tests and methods to evaluate comprehension were not thoroughly explored in the present study. The nature of the test itself could have affected the results. Listening to the options in a multiple choice test and remembering them could have been a challenge to some participants, especially as some items were phrased in too many words. The participants were asked to take down notes, but experience tells us that taking down notes while listening is oftentimes difficult, especially in content areas. If multiple choice is used in an ALC test, more careful wording of the options should be done to ensure that they are short and easy to remember. Third, the present study did not engage in pre-training of participants in the use of discourse markers in listening to academic lectures. Listening skills and other comprehension strategies such as the use of discourse markers in lectures are not typically taught to students in the Philippines. Studies have shown that listening in a second language involves skills that may be distinct from reading, despite the generally positive correlation between the two skills (Long, 1989, as cited in Flowerdew, 1994). Therefore, a lack of awareness or sensitivity to discourse markers may possibly generate the same result in the two treatment groups. Lastly, the slow speech rate of lecture delivery adopted

in the study has affected the participants' focus needed for the ALC test procedure. The speech rate is a crucial factor for comprehension especially for EFL or ESL participants. As Griffith (1972, cited in Flowerdew, 1994) found in this study, "non-native listeners" (p.23) performed better in comprehension tests that were based on "texts modified in terms of articulation rate and pause frequency and duration (p.23). In the same study, Griffith also suggested further research to determine the most effective rate of delivery for different proficiency levels of learners. In the case of the present study, the slower than normal rate of delivery resulted in restlessness on the part of the participants, based on the observations of the test administrators and testimonies of the participants. Consequently, this restlessness resulted in a distraction that made the participants' attention wander elsewhere.

In conclusion, there is a need for continued research on academic listening comprehension and a variety of methods to use in measuring listening comprehension. Listening to lectures is an important skill that plays a key role in the learning ritual in the academe. Therefore, it is important for all students, local and international, to have excellent academic listening comprehension skills.

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Teacher Effectiveness in Academic Research Writing: An Exploratory Factor Analysis

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The study was conducted to examine the factors of teaching effectiveness for possible application to research writing teacher effectiveness. Three existing studies on teacher assessments served as basis for the construction of a 100-item questionnaire administered to 324 students of seven research writing classes at a university in Manila. Using exploratory factor analysis of eleven teacher assessment domains, the study was able to reduce the factors into four structures - social interaction, clear feedback, mastery of content, and authority. Means, standard deviations as well as Pearson correlation among the four factor structures were also obtained. With a mean of 59.6, social interaction was the first in the four categories. This was followed by mastery at 54.6, clear feedback at 47.8 and authority at 32.3. The findings have pedagogical and administrative implications.

Keywords: social interaction, clear feedback, mastery of content, authority

Teaching is a specialized skill that involves not only expertise in the given academic field but also the ability to create for the learners an environment where they can get optimal learning gain. The length of teaching experience is a factor that favors teaching effectiveness. However, senior teachers still need to keep themselves abreast with new teaching strategies. Measures, in fact, have been exerted to increase teacher effectiveness. Enrichment programs like teacher seminars, for one, designed to heighten teacher awareness regarding the different teaching strategies that may be used to involve student participation in the exchange of information involved in the learning process, are organized by different educational institutions. Also, universities regularly check the curriculum and instruct department heads to constantly update their course syllabi to check that the course objectives meet the current needs of the

learners enrolled in their programs. These factors aid in promoting teacher growth since they provide teachers with venues to always be on the alert to look for opportunities to apply what they know and have planned to better their teaching performance. These two factors - professional growth and planning - are, in fact, only two out of the nine factors that served as the basis for teacher assessment that was used by the administrators in Washoe County School District (Kimball, 2002). The other seven factors include communication, instruction skills, management skills, student growth and development, knowledge of subject matter, interpersonal relations, and use of educational materials (6). Students' assessments also measure teacher effectiveness. Previous studies, in fact, abound both locally and internationally. In 1981, a study written jointly by a Filipino and an American authors, compared students' perceptions of what constitute teacher effectiveness. Mina and Bail, after doing a factor analysis and MANOVA found out that Filipino and American undergraduate students rate their teachers on teaching effectiveness differently. Results specifically reveal that Filipino undergraduate students rate their teachers based on their personal appearance and degree of authority more than their Western counterparts. The authors concluded that difference may be due in part to culture (Bail & Mina, 1981). Another study on teacher assessment conducted by Magno and Tangco (2009) examined the teacher assessment tool used in the College of Saint Benilde to determine whether the assessment tool being used adheres to and reflects the quality of an effective teacher. Consultations were done with stakeholders along with a metaevaluation of the tool. Results reveal conformity with the Joint Committee Standards for Evaluation. In the international arena, Scriven (1995) wrote a paper titled "Student Ratings Offer Useful Input to teacher evaluations". The article raises several concerns regarding the reliability of students' rating of teacher classroom performance. The author claims that student ratings are usually based on peer teacher merit rather than what students actually learn in the class. The study therefore suggested nine areas of consideration that will make student ratings valid. Among these are the relationship between learning gains and student ratings, the evaluation of the students regarding their own improvement, the students' assessment of how well they were motivated by the course and the teacher, the evaluation of the teacher's competence and punctuality, the ability of the students to ask questions, the scope of the test the teacher gives in class, the bearing of attendance or even the bulk of homework the teacher assigns. Literatures that have dealt with teacher effectiveness have yielded multi-dimensional factors affecting teacher effectiveness. However, these teacher effectiveness factors touch a more general frame of reference. There is scant mention of specific factors that concern directly assessment of the effectiveness of research writing teacher. There is a need therefore to create a new set of factors that directly measure the effectiveness of a research writing teacher. The purpose of the study is to use existing factors drawn from previous teacher assessments that contribute to students' perception of what an effective writing teacher is through a self-designed questionnaire. This is done by collecting from a set of

reviewed teacher assessment tools factors that are relevant in directly assessing a research writing teacher. The secondary goal of the paper is to extract underlying factors other than those that are already established in these previous assessment tools.

The current study draws from the framework initiated by Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, and van der Vleuten (2004). They posit that teaching effectiveness covers the following major areas. These are the individuality of the teacher, his/her mastery of the subject matter, his/her roles as facilitator of learning processes, organizer, and scholar/lifelong learner. The factor that has been added to this framework covers aspects of a teacher's personality that are conducive to learning. This domain identifies the teacher as person.

The study uses exploratory factor analysis (EFA) to reduce the eleven factors taken from Bail and Mina's (1981) factor analysis study, Scriven's (1995) proposed factors for teacher effectiveness as well as Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, and van der Vleuten's (2004) teaching effectiveness framework and to come up with derivative factors that may be applied in evaluating teacher effectiveness in a research writing class.

Method

Participants

Three hundred twenty-eight participants from a total of seven research writing ENGLRES (Basic English Research) classes were selected for the study during the first trimester of 2010-2011. ENGLRES is a 3-unit English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course that aims to teach the students the rudiments of research through the writing of a research paper. The participants of the study belonged to different colleges from a university in Manila.

Instrument

Based on existing scales that measure teacher effectiveness, a Likert-Scale with 100 items was developed to measure the students' perceptions of research writing teacher effectiveness. Statements regarding what constitute an effective research writing teacher were designed that required participants to rate their level of agreement or disagreement on a 1- 5 scale. Points were given by students based on their perceptions of the qualities of an effective research writing teacher (5 for Strongly Agree, 4 for Agree, 3 for Not Sure, 2 for Disagree, and 1 for Strongly Disagree). Items for the teacher effectiveness questionnaire were designed using the suggested characteristics of an effective teacher from previous studies. Specifically, the study derived its newly-constructed factors from Bail and Mina's (1981) factor analysis study, Scriven's (1995) proposed factors for teacher effectiveness as well as Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, and van der Vleuten's (2004) teaching effectiveness framework. The 100 items reflected the newly- constructed factors that constitute research writing teacher effectiveness. Among these are social

interaction, clear feedback, mastery, punctuality, organization, class management, motivational influence, course-specificity, course-generality, authority, and strategy. Concretely, the factor that was taken from Bail and Mina (1981) is authoritarianism. To fit the research writing class parameter, this factor was further broken down into two separate features, authority and class management. The sub-division is deemed necessary since the required outputs that the students need to submit at specific periods of the program reside mostly on how the research teacher allocates the time spent in class for writing and the time outside the class that students either collect their data or related literatures. Next, five factors came out from Scriven's (1995) study. These factors are clear feedback, motivational influence, punctuality, course-generality and course-specificity. Statements addressing each of the factors were tailored to fit the research writing class requirement. Finally, Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, and van der Vleuten's (2004) teaching effectiveness framework suggested four factors that the present study used and modified to fit teaching research writing specifications. These are strateg, mastery, social interaction, and organization.

Procedure and Data Analysis

Three hundred twenty-eight research writing students were administered a 100-item questionnaire requiring them to rate statements concerning the effectiveness of research writing teacher according to their level of agreement or disagreement. Their responses were encoded in STATISTICA 7. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was done on the eleven factors. Means, standard deviations and Pearson correlation were likewise obtained on the four factors that came out from the initial EFA. The nature of EFA centers on validating previous assessment tools, hence the choice of that particular analysis was made. Also, upon examination of the assessment tools, eleven factors of research writing effectiveness emerged. It is now the task of EFA to find out unidimensionality among these factors for the purpose of further reducing the given factors.

Results

An exploratory factor analysis using principal components analysis in STATISTICA 7 was done on the 100 items of the Teacher Effectiveness Questionnaire to determine whether essential unidimensionality was present and supported Bail and Mina's (1981) factor analysis study, Scriven's (1995) proposed factors for teacher effectiveness as well as Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, and van der Vleuten's (2004) teaching effectiveness framework. Figure 1 reveals four underlying factor structures of research writing teacher effectiveness. These factors have been renamed social interaction, clear feedback, mastery, and authority.

Figure 1
Scree Plot and Parallel Analysis of the Eigenvalues of the Teacher Effectiveness Questionnaire

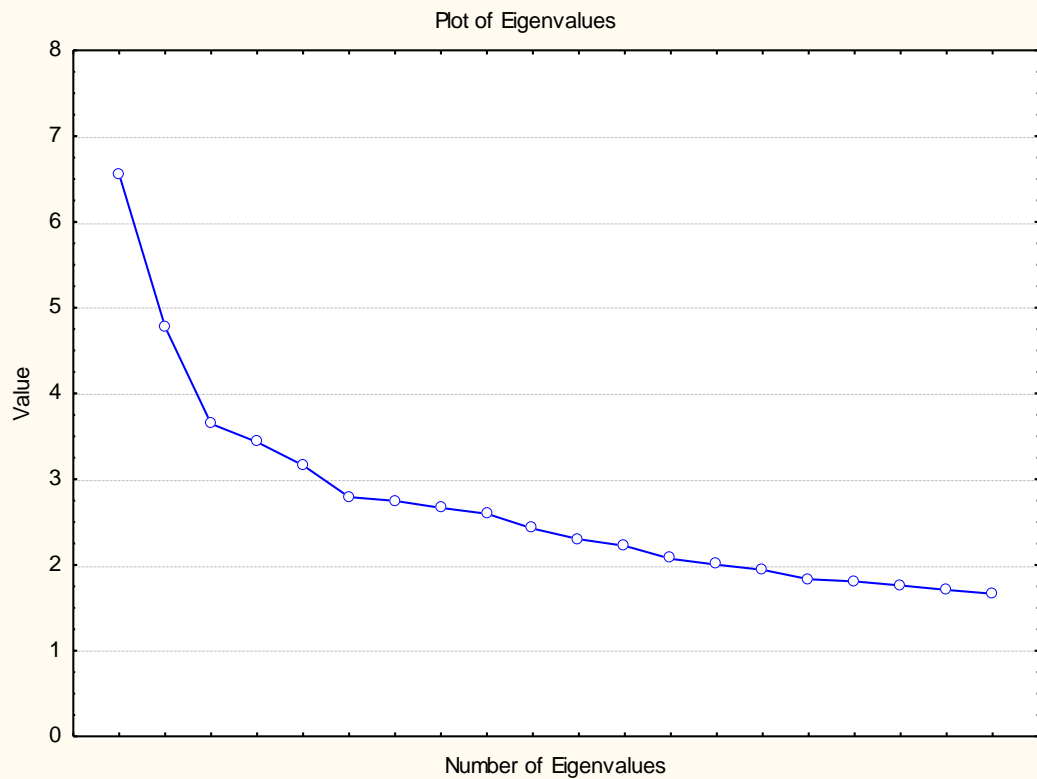


Table 1 displays the means scores of the four underlying factors structures that came out of the initial EFA. The first factor had an eigenvalue of 6.55 and explained 37.09% of the variance in participants' responses. The second eigenvalue was 4.7. Marked loadings were examined and those that had values greater than .70 were noted. Cronback's alpha was 0.87. The names of the four categories were derived from the original names of the categories used in Bail and Mina's (1981) factor analysis study, Scriven's (1995) proposed factors for teacher effectiveness as well as Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, and van der Vleuten's (2004) teaching effectiveness framework.

The largest cluster came from social interaction. The cluster on social interaction is reflected on the thirty-four items (9,15,23,32,34,38,39,41,55,61-66,69-71,77-86,90,95-99) of the questionnaire given to the participants. This covers the teacher's approachability, interaction outside class hours to discuss research paper concerns of the students, personal interest on the students themselves and their topics, general disposition towards students' questions, respect for each student, amiable personality, openness to talk to students about their research topics inside the classroom, as well as fair treatment in dealing with all students.

The second cluster came from clear feedback. Thirty-four items (1-4,7,14,17-22,24,33,37,40,43-46,49,54,56,59,60,73-76,87-89,92,100) from the questionnaire were based on this factor. Topics covered include the teacher's announcement of course requirements at the beginning of the term, explicit comments on the markings made on the students' papers, specific comments on writing areas that need to be improved on and what specific writing actions they need to do to work on this weak points, immediate explanations of lessons that are unclear to the students, individualized comments on the students' papers.

The third cluster formed came from mastery of the subject matter. Twenty items (5,6,8,11-14,16,25-27,42,47-48,50-53,57,58) covered here include the teacher's linking of course contents to relevant areas outside the scope of the course, ability to choose relevant strategies to maximize students' learning gains, the relevance of the examples given, the ability to answer students' questions, as well as the use of authorities and sources that the students can use to improve the research paper.

The fourth cluster has twelve (28-31,35,36,67,68,71,91,93,94) items. Labeled as authority, the items reflected the teacher's handling of the class, the ability to command respect both in the manner of speaking and dressing, strict conformity to research requirements including neatness of the students' work.

The emergent factors of the present study - social interaction, clear feedback, mastery, and authority - were labeled such since the most number of items that were subsumed in the clusters reflected the given factors. In short, they were not labels the present study created, rather, they were labels already termed by previous authorities who have dealt with studies on teaching effectiveness, more concretely terms used in Bail and Mina's (1981) factor analysis study, Scriven's (1995) proposed factors for teacher effectiveness as well as Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, and van der Vleuten's (2004) teaching effectiveness framework.

Table 1
Means +/- and Standard Deviations of the Factors of Teaching Effectiveness

Factors	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Skewness	Kurtosis
Social interaction	328	59.6	15.12	-3.32	.05
Clear feedback	328	47.8	11.76	-3.99	1.19
Mastery	328	54.6	13.28	-3.0	-.71
Authority	328	32.3	6.56	-3.84	-2.26

Table 2 displays the correlations among the four factors of teaching effectiveness. There is a very strong relationship between mastery and social interaction. This supports Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, and van der Vleuten's (2004) teaching effectiveness framework. Those that pose a negative strength of relationships are social interaction and authority, clear feedback and mastery, and mastery and authority.

Table 2
Correlation Matrix of the Factors of Teaching Effectiveness

Factor	Social interaction	Clear feedback	Mastery	Authority
Social interaction	---			
Clear feedback	0.16*	---		
Mastery	0.83*	-0.23*	---	
Authority	-0.72*	.01*	-0.25*	---

* $p < .05$

Discussion

The goal of the study is to examine the existing factors drawn from Bail and Mina's (1981) factor analysis study, Scriven's (1995), proposed factors, and Tigelaar, Dolmans, Wolfhagen, and van der Vleuten's (2004) teaching effectiveness framework to determine what may be done to reduce the eleven factors for teacher effectiveness that carry a more general frame of reference. After EFA has been done, four factor structures that are more suitable in assessing an effective research writing teacher emerged and are labeled as social interaction, critical feedback, mastery, and authority.

Social interaction facilitates more learning gains as the research writing teacher opens up for students more opportunities to ask questions that will aid them in understanding how to approach their own writing more effectively. Also, the role that social interaction plays in a research writing class becomes apparent since different research pairs have different topics and through the teacher's social interactions, research writing concerns are given their own solutions and suggestions much more than when the research teacher simply gives general guidelines to the class. Second, clear feedback the next emergent factor is important in the light of the transformative framework that the university is implementing. The research teacher provides definitive feedback so that the research pairs may begin to question what writing style they can employ to address the feedback given by the instructor. For instance, items from the teacher effectiveness survey generated strong agreement from students pertaining to statements containing the idea that research writing teachers are effective when they explain to the individual students what aspects in the papers needed to be revised and how the students can start revising them. This principle on feedback coincides with the study made by Fregeau (1999) indicating that research writing students need to be made aware of what the course expectations are. This principle on feedback clarity is also supported by Jian's paper (1990) indicating that identifying the success criteria in self-assessment for writing benefits the students' writing of essays. Third, mastery of content is undoubtedly an important factor in determining a research teacher. After all, research writing conventions are unique and specific and requires the teacher to be updated on whatever new trends there are in producing a good research paper among the students. A case in point is mastery of the APA 6th edition as it is useful in so far as the teacher will be the

source by which students will keep themselves informed about the different formats in the 6th APA edition. Without the research teacher necessarily spoon feeding the students with the current edition, the students will themselves take the initiative to do research on the format. Finally, even as there is interaction between teacher and students in an atmosphere that is open to learning and creating useful insights, the teacher must not lose sight of the fact that as facilitator in the research class, his/ her authority - moral and informational - needs to be clearly visible for his/her students to see and emulate.

In the light of the findings presented, research teachers may thus work out useful strategies that will enhance and reflect, if not embrace the characteristics of an effective research writing teacher. The academe also stands to benefit from the insights presented as they can move their university framework in general and teacher seminars in particular towards highlighting the four structures that emerged from this EFA.

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Appendix A Items by Factor

A. Punctuality

Teacher starts the class on time.
Teacher finishes the class as scheduled.
Teacher returns the papers on time.
Teacher comes to the room always on time
Teacher is strict with punctuality.

B. Clear feedback

Teacher identifies what she wants the class to complete clearly.
Teacher gives written feedback on the papers.
Teacher reminds students of their absences.
Teacher points to the students areas that they are weak on
Teacher asks students for things that are unclear to them
Teacher discusses each feedback to her students.
Teacher explains things that are unclear to students.
Teacher explains the feedback to class.
Teacher discusses classroom requirements at the start of the term
Teacher guides the students throughout the entire process of research writing
Teacher reminds students not to plagiarize by acknowledging sources.
Teacher comments on all items / features of the paper.
Teacher asks the students if they have questions regarding the feedback given.
Teacher gives feedback that are specific and relevant to the student's paper.
Teacher gives suggestions on how to write the paper better.
Teacher commends the students for a paper that is well written.
Teacher understands the nature of each students' paper and gives valuable suggestions.

C. Strategy

Teacher gives points to students for attendance.
Teacher asks the students to talk about their paper in class
Teacher uses visual aids to facilitate student learning.
Teacher uses her publications as sample texts for writing papers.
Teacher ensures that lesson is fun by letting students play games about guessing information elements of a structure
Teacher uses other research articles as references for students to imitate.
Teacher uses other facilities of the university to make the class interesting.
Teacher gives students freedom to work according to their own pace as long as they submit on scheduled deadlines.
Teacher allows students to work with laptop or music on.
Teacher is generous with grades.
Teacher lets students brainstorm in class about how to write a paper

D. Mastery of the subject matter

Teacher knows the subject matter well.
Teacher is able to give clear examples to help students understand better.
Teacher's voice is audible.
Teacher uses authorities in her discussion.
Teacher simplifies a complex concept for the students.
Teacher uses up-to-date materials to explain her points.
Teacher uses language that the students can easily understand.
Teacher is able to address the writing needs of her students well.
Teacher gives input in class.
Teacher uses visual aids to facilitate student learning.
Teacher answers the students' questions satisfactorily.

E. Organization

Teacher discusses the structure of the paper that is to be written
Teacher ensures system when submitting papers
Teacher requires students to be neat with work
Teacher's handwriting on the board is clear

F. Course- general

Teacher discusses the verb form and tenses to use on the paper.
Teacher discuss what point of view to use
Teacher calls students' attention to grammar irregularities or inconsistencies.
Teacher relates the discussion topics outside course requirement.
Teacher gives relevant announcements

G. Management

Teacher disciplines the class as needed.
Teacher requires a deadline for submitting papers and expects it to be met.
Teacher ensures all items in the syllabus are met.
Teacher addresses concerns of research partners in class.
Papers of students are seldom returned.
Teacher has requirements that are easy to meet.
Teacher gives sanctions to students who are not paying attention inside the class.
Teacher does not call the attention of the students if they are noisy.
Teacher allows the students' time to do their research
Teacher is lenient with requirements.
Late papers are not accepted.
Teacher is consistent with house rules.

H. Social interaction

Teacher is always approachable.
Teacher talks to students outside the class to discuss the research papers.
Teacher knows the research topics of her students by heart
Teacher is considerate in giving requirements and grades.

Teacher gets annoyed with repetitive questions.
Teacher is pleasant
Teacher looks down on students.
Teacher is approachable.
Teacher respects students' individuality.
Teacher does not insult the students for papers incorrectly written.
Teacher once in while jokes with her class
Teacher talks to students in friendly manner.
Teacher greets students by their nicknames
Teacher maintains a friendly atmosphere inside the room.
Teacher goes around the room to talk to students about their papers.
Teacher treats everyone in a fair manner
Teacher does not insult the students for papers incorrectly written.

I. Authority

Teacher has a lot of published articles to her credit.
Teacher checks students' APA format strictly.
Teacher commands respect in the manner of dressing.
Teacher commands respect in the manner of speaking.
Teacher comments on handwriting.
Teacher checks whether students use in text citations for their major points.
Manner of speaking commands respect.

J. Course specific

Teacher checks the functions of the parts in relation to the whole paper.
Teacher gives quizzes that are related to the scope of the research paper.
Teacher shows the relevance of primary sources of data.

K. Motivational influence

Teacher allows papers to be submitted late rather than not at all.
Teacher is never absent.
Teacher makes sure that students do not forget the goal of the course.
Teacher gives questions that are thought provoking.