

The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education

Volume 12 Issue 3
July 2022

Editor-in-Chief

Prof. Dr. Aytekin İşman

Editors

Prof. Dr. Colleen SEXTON

Prof. Dr. Jerry WILLIS

Prof. Dr. Teresa FRANKLIN

Prof. Dr. Deborah Bordelon

Assoc. Prof. Dr. İrfan ŞİMŞEK

Assist. Prof. Dr. Tuncer Can

Associate Editors

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Amirul Mukminin

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kerim KARABACAK

Technical Editor

Assist. Prof. Dr. Hüseyin ESKİ

Journal Secretary

Assist. Prof. Dr. Mustafa ÖZTUNÇ



Copyright © 2011 - THE ONLINE JOURNAL OF NEW HORIZONS IN EDUCATION

All rights reserved. No part of TOJNED's articles may be reproduced or utilized in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, or by any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publisher.

Contact Address:

Prof. Dr. Aytakin İŞMAN
TOJNED, Editor in Chief
Sakarya-Turkey

Published in TURKEY

Message from the Editor-in-Chief

Hello from TOJNED

TOJNED welcomes you. TOJNED looks for academic articles on the issues of education science and may address assessment, attitudes, beliefs, curriculum, equity, research, translating research into practice, learning theory, alternative conceptions, socio-cultural issues, special populations, and integration of subjects. The articles should discuss the perspectives of students, teachers, school administrators and communities. TOJNED contributes to the development of both theory and practice in the field of education science. TOJNED accepts academically robust papers, topical articles and case studies that contribute to the area of research in education science.

The aim of TOJNED is to help students, teachers, school administrators and communities better understand the new developments about teacher education. Submitted articles should be original, unpublished, and not in consideration for publication elsewhere at the time of submission to TOJNED. TOJNED provides perspectives on topics relevant to the study, implementation, and management of learning with technology.

I am always honored to be the editor in chief of TOJNED. Many persons gave their valuable contributions for this issue.

TOJNED will organize the INTE-2022 (www.int-e.net) in July 2022 in North Cyprus.

Call for Papers

TOJNED invites article contributions. Submitted articles should be about all aspects of teacher education and may address assessment, attitudes, beliefs, curriculum, equity, research, translating research into practice, learning theory, alternative conceptions, socio-cultural issues, special populations, and integration of subjects. The articles should also discuss the perspectives of students, teachers, school administrators and communities.

The articles should be original, unpublished, and not in consideration for publication elsewhere at the time of submission to TOJNED.

For any suggestions and comments on the international online journal TOJNED, please do not hesitate to send email.

July 01, 2022

**Editor,
Prof. Dr. Aytekin İŞMAN
Sakarya University**

Editor-in-Chief

Prof. Dr. Aytekin İŞMAN - Sakarya University, Turkey

Editors

Prof. Dr. Colleen SEXTON, Governor State University, United States

Prof. Dr. Jerry WILLIS, Manhattanville College, United States

Prof. Dr. Teresa FRANKLIN, Ohio University, United States

Prof. Dr. Deborah Bordelon, Governor State University, United States

Assoc. Prof. Dr. İrfan ŞİMŞEK, Istanbul University Cerrahpasa, Turkey

Assist. Prof. Dr. Tuncer Can, Istanbul University Cerrahpasa, Turkey

Associate Editors

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Amirul Mukminin, Jambi University, Indonesia

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Kerim KARABACAK, Istanbul University Cerrahpasa, Turkey

Technical Editor

Assist. Prof. Dr. Hüseyin ESKİ - Sakarya University, Turkey

Journal Secretary

Assist. Prof. Dr. Mustafa ÖZTUNÇ, Sakarya University, Turkey

Editorial Board

Aaron DAVENPORT, Grand View College, United States	Gianni Viardo VERCELLI, University of Genova, Italy
Abdülkadir MASKAN, Dicle University, Turkey	Gilbert Mbotho MASITSA, University of The Free State - South Africa
Ahmet ESKİCUMALI, Sakarya University, Turkey	Giovanni ADORNI, University of Genova, Italy
Amirul MUKMININ, Jambi University, Indonesia	Gregory ALEXANDER, University of The Free State - South Africa
AAndreja Istenic STARCIC, University of Primorska, Slovenija	Gulriz IMER, Mersin University, Turkey
Antoinette MUNTJEWERFF, University of Amsterdam, Netherlands	Heli RUOKAMO, University of Lapland, Finland
Antonis LIONARAKIS, Hellenic Open University, Greece	Hj. Mohd Arif Hj. ISMAIL, National University of Malaysia, Malaysia
Arif ALTUN, Hacettepe University, Turkey	Hsien-Ming Lin, National Sun Yat-sen University, Taiwan
Arvind SINGHAL, University of Texas, United States	Huichen Zhao, School of Education, Henan University, China
Aytekin ISMAN, Sakarya University, Turkey	Huseyin YARATAN, Eastern Mediterranean University, TRNC
Brent G. WILSON, University of Colorado at Denver, United States	Ibrahim OTEIR, Majmaah University, Saudi Arabia
Buket AKKOYUNLU, Hacettepe University, Turkey	Iman OSTA, Lebanese American University, Lebanon
Charlotte GUNAWARDENA, University of New Mexico, United States	Ivy CHIA, Singapore University of Social Sciences, Singapore
Colleen SEXTON, Governor State University, United States	Jagannath DANGE, Kuvempu University, India
Dale HAVILL, Dhofar University, Oman	Jana Birova, Comenius University, Slovak
Danguole RUTKAUSKIENE, Kauno Tech. University, Lithuania	James C. HOLSTE, Texas A&M University at Qatar, Qatar
Danielle N. AMING, Embry-Riddle Aeronautical University, United States	Jerry Johnson, Western Florida University, United States
Deborah Bordelon, Governor State University, United States	Jerry WILLIS, Manhattanville College, United States
Douglas FRANKLIN, Ohio University, United States	John Hitchcock, University of Indiana, United States
Don FLOURNOY, Ohio University, United States	Kakha SHENGELIA, Caucasus University, Georgia
Elnaz ZAHED, University of Waterloo, UAE	Kerim KARABACAK-Istanbul University-Cerrahpasa, TURKEY
Eric Zhi-Feng LIU, National Central University, Taiwan	Luljeta Shala, Kosovo Pedagogical Institutei KOSOVO
Fadiya Samson O., Girne American University, TRNC	Manoj Kumar SAXENA, Central University of Himachal Pradesh, INDIA
Francine Shuchat SHAW, New York University, United States	

Mariam MANJGALADZE, Institute of Linguistics, Georgia	Saedah SIRAJ, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Marina Stock MCISAAC, Arizona State University, United States	Santosh Kumar BEHERA, Sidho-Kanho-Birsha University, India
Martin STEIN, Westfälische Wilhems University, Germany	Selahattin GÖNEN, Dicle University, Turkey
Masha KRSMANOVIC, University of Southern Mississippi, United States	Seref TAN, Uludag University, Turkey
Miguel j. ESCALA, Ins. Tech. de Santa Domingo, Dominican Republic	Shree Prasad Devkota, Kathmandu University
Min JOU, National Taiwan Normal Uni., Taiwan	Stefan AUFENANGER, University of Mainz, Germany
M. Mirunalini, Bharathidasan University, India.	Sukumar SENTHILKUMAR, Vellore Institute of Technology University, India
Monte CASSIM, Ritsumeikan Asi Pacific University, Japan	Tam Shu SIM, University of Malaya, Malaysia
Mustafa ÖZTUNÇ - Sakarya University, Turkey	Teressa FRANKLIN, Ohio University, United States
Mustafa Şahin DÜNDAR - Sakarya University, Turkey	Vincent Ru-Chu SHIH, National Pingtung Univ. of Sci. & Tech., Taiwan
Muzaffer ELMAS - Sakarya University, Turkey	Vu Thi Thanh HOA, Oxfam Great Britain, Vietnam
Nabi Bux JUMANI, Allama Iqbal Open University, Pakistan	Yu-Hsien SUNG, Gent University, Belgium
Nesrin AKINCI ÇÖTOK - Sakarya University, Turkey	Wendy Merb-Brown, Ohio University, United States
Nilay BUMEN, Ege University, Turkey	William Sterrett, University of North Carolina Wilmington, United States
Pamela EWELL, Central .College of IOWA, United States	Zita Mohd Fahmi, Malaysian Qualifications Agency (MQA), Malaysia
Partow IZADI, University of Lapland, Finland	
Paul KGOBE, Centre of Edu. Pol. Dev., South Africa	
Paul Serban AGACHI, Babes-Bolyai University, Romania	
Paula FITZGIBBON, University of Victoria, Canada	
Pintu Kumar Maji, Sarsuna College, India	
Psaltis IACOVOS, European University Cyprus, Cyprus	
Rogério ROTH, Ca' Foscari University of Venice, Italy	
S.R.BOSELIN PRABHU, SVS College of Engineering, India	

Table Of Contents

LANGUAGE ANXIETY TOWARDS ENGLISH AMONG ESL STUDENTS: THE CASE OF FIRST YEAR STUDENTS AT MINDANAO STATE UNIVERSITY	178
<i>Haninah M. H. Said, Aisha S. Omar</i>	
PROBLEM BASED LEARNING; TEACHER AND STUDENT ROLES	197
<i>Gökhan Koşer</i>	
PSYCHO-SOCIAL PROBLEMS CAUSED BY TECHNOLOGY ADDICTION	201
<i>Demet KARAKARTAL</i>	
THE EFFECTIVENESS OF A GROUP COUNSELING PROGRAM ON DEVELOPING DECISION MAKING SKILL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES STUDENTS AT COUNSELING AND MENTAL HEALTH DEPARTMENT	204
<i>Saleh Daheri</i>	
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSTRUCTIVIST SCHOOL LEADERSHIP AND CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE: A STUDY ON INTERNATIONAL BACCALAU- REATE SCHOOLS ACROSS THE EUROPEAN CONTINENT	211
<i>Brian Vassallo</i>	
THE USE OF YOUTUBE IN TEACHING ELEMENTARY ENGLISH	223
<i>Helen B. Boholano, Patrick B. Orevillo, Lhery Ann T. Agot, Antonnette T. Nugal</i>	

LANGUAGE ANXIETY TOWARDS ENGLISH AMONG ESL STUDENTS: THE CASE OF FIRST YEAR STUDENTS AT MINDANAO STATE UNIVERSITY

Haninah M. H. Said

Mindanao State University – Main Campus
h.said.hm30@s.msumain.edu.ph

Aisha S. Omar

Mindanao State University – Main Campus
omar.as78@s.msumain.edu.ph

ABSTRACT

A number of studies on second language or foreign language anxiety have reported the enervating effect it can cast on learning, particularly speaking a second/foreign language, that must be overcome by students in order for them to take full advantage of second/foreign instructions (Horwitz et al., 1986 as cited in Tanveer, 2007). Hence, the main purpose of this exploratory study was to identify the level and causes of language anxiety experienced by learners of English as a second language (ESL) in Mindanao State University-Main Campus, Marawi, Philippines, as well as to suggest some strategies for dealing with it. This study employed descriptive qualitative research as a research approach on 35 first-year university students using a questionnaire which contains Park's (2014) modified version of the 33-item Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) and an interview using the questions taken from Tanveer's (2007) study. Furthermore, means and standard deviation were calculated and used to analyze language anxiety level; and a directed content analysis were conducted for the gathered qualitative data. The results showed neutral level of language anxiety among the respondents in overall components. Furthermore, these were the factors that cause language anxiety among the respondents: (1) linguistic difficulties: a poor command of grammar rules, lack of sufficient vocabulary and pronunciation difficulties (2) cognitive challenges: self-related cognition, fear of making mistakes and apprehension of others' evaluation, and (3) social factors: presentation in the classroom or in public and the role of teachers in the classroom. Finally, the learners offered some concrete suggestions to lower language anxiety in the classroom to provide insights into how educators can develop appropriate interventions to decrease language anxiety among second language learners.

Keywords: *language anxiety, ESL, anxiety level, causes, strategies*

Introduction

The Philippines, with its 7,107 islands, is a linguistically, culturally, socially, and religiously diverse country (Berowa, 2018). The Philippine Department of Education (DepEd) identified 12 major languages to be used as a medium of instruction under the present Mother-Tongue Based Multilingual Education (MTBMLE) program in the country's educational system, notably in public schools, from all the country's languages. Among these languages are Tagalog, Kapampangan, Pangasinense, Iloko, Bikol, Cebuano, Hiligaynon, Waray, Tausug, Maguindanaon, Maranao, and Chabacano (DepEd, 2013 as cited in Berowa, 2018).

However, it is the English language which is regarded as the country's language of power and progress that has played a significant part in the lives of Filipinos in terms of increasing their socioeconomic status and reaching a far better living. In fact, it has become the lingua franca in the country even before the world treated English as such because of the country's great linguistic diversity (Wa-Mbaleka, 2014b as cited in Berowa, 2018). But even if it is highly valued because of its functional and practical use in the Philippines and in many countries around the world, learning the English language is still found to be very challenging since the process goes through complicated tasks that involves psychological as well as social factors (Berowa, 2012; Berowa, 2016a; Berowa, 2016b).

In fact, numerous and varied studies have been conducted to determine the factors that affect English proficiency, particularly the language learning of nonnative English users. Evidence has shown that language anxiety is one of the strongest predictors of language learning success and that it has incapacitating effects on the language learner (Liu & Jackson, 2008; Woodrow, 2006 as cited in Jugo, 2020). Whereas facilitating anxiety produces positive effects on the learners' performance, too much anxiety may cause poor performance (Scovel, 1978 as cited in Jugo, 2020). Also, as claimed by Horwitz (2001 as cited in Berowa, 2018), a significant portion of the total population of foreign language learners feels some level of anxiety. This could indicate that even Filipino ESL students are not free to such anxieties.

To address these issues, the researchers believe it would be interesting to investigate language anxiety toward English in a diverse setting, particularly among first-year students at Mindanao State University, Marawi, Philippines, where students come from a wide range of linguistic, social, cultural, and religious backgrounds, as opposed to the majority of previous studies, which tended to be similar regardless of linguistic backgrounds. Furthermore, the findings of this study would help English language teachers improve their instructional practices, especially when teaching productive skills like speaking and writing, where anxiety among second language learners is prevalent. The research also yielded new insights and knowledge that would contribute significantly to the existing literature on English language learning anxiety.

1.1 Review of Related Literature

Anxiety in general is a complex, multifaceted experience, a feeling which comes flooding into our whole selves, affecting many different aspects of our being (Sanders and Wills, 2003 as cited in Sadiq, 2017). To recognize language anxiety in a broader context of research on anxiety, MacIntyre (1998 as cited in Zheng, 2008) observed that language anxiety is a form of situation-specific anxiety, and research on language anxiety should employ measures of anxiety experienced second/foreign language contexts. He conceived of language anxiety as “the worry and negative emotional reaction aroused when learning or using a second language” (Zheng, 2008, p. 2). Similarly, foreign language anxiety is conceptualized as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning processes” (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 31 as cited in Aida, 1994, p. 156).

Two major works have had a significant impact on the recent history of anxiety research in the language learning field. First, Scovel (1978, as cited in Zheng, 2008) discovered that early anxiety perspectives yielded highly variable outcomes when it came to the association between anxiety and second language achievement. Varied anxiety measurements and different conceptualizations of anxiety, according to Scovel, are to blame for the contradictory and mixed outcomes. He stated that if a differentiation is made between enabling and debilitating anxiety, ambiguous experimental data can be reconciled. When the task's difficulty level stimulates the appropriate degree of anxiety, this is known as facilitating anxiety. However, while a certain amount of worry might be good, too much anxiety can have a debilitating effect, leading to work avoidance or ineffective work performance (Zheng, 2008).

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's (1986 as cited in Zheng, 2008) paper is also influential. The authors clearly articulated the concept of foreign language anxiety. The authors articulated the concept of foreign language anxiety in a clear and concise manner. The authors realized that linguistic anxiety is a situation-specific anxiety construct, mainly independent of the other types of anxiety, by placing it in the context of related anxiety ideas. Their work includes a Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, which is a significant contribution. This self-report instrument, which elicited anxiety responses specific to foreign language classroom situations, sparked a flood of comparable research. These studies found that language anxiety has a debilitating effect in the second/foreign language classroom in a variety of settings (Zheng, 2008).

1.1.1 Level of Foreign Language Anxiety Among Students

One of the studies that investigated the level of foreign language anxiety among English language learners was conducted by Akbari & Sadeghi in 2013 which involved 191 undergraduate students majoring in different disciplines including Computer Sciences, Electronics, Construction Works, and Architecture at Bakhtar Institute of Higher Education in Iran. Aside from the level of foreign language anxiety, the researcher also aimed to assess the prevailing manifestations of FLL anxiety among Iranian bilingual Kurdish-Persian undergraduate students. For this research study, Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) was used to collect the research data. Based on the analysis of the data gathered, it was found that EFL students experienced high level of foreign language learning anxiety in the forms of communication anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, test anxiety, and anxiety in the EFL classroom environment. At the end, suggestions to lessen language learning anxiety in EFL settings and implications for further studies were also delineated.

In the context of the Philippines, Mamhot, Martin and Masangya (2013) conducted a comparative study on the language anxiety of Filipino ESL and EFL learners from two (2) institutions based in the Philippines. The study aimed to determine the language anxiety as experienced by both groups of learners and to discover the causes and effects of these anxieties. The investigation included a total of 40 respondents where there were 20 ESL and 20 EFL students. The data were gathered through a two-part questionnaire in which one contains the 33-item FLCAS developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) while the other part comprises a 2-item questionnaire adapted from Williams and Andrade

(2008). The results showed that Filipino ESL learners have neutral level of language anxiety while the fear of negative evaluation in the area of low self-perceived linguistic competency was displayed. As regards EFL learners, they reported no level of language anxiety. In the end, both groups expressed they are the one responsible for the language anxiety that they experienced.

Another research was made in the local context by Berowa (2018) who conducted a study on the levels of language anxiety experienced by learners of English as a second language (ESL) in Davao del Norte, Philippines. Moreover, the study tried to determine the significant relationship between anxiety vis-à-vis gender and year level variables that could be influential factors in the success or failure in learning English. The investigation included 60 university students using a two-part questionnaire which contained Park's (2014) modified version of the 33-item Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (FLCAS). The results showed neutral level of language anxiety among the respondents in all areas. Furthermore, no significant relationship between English language anxiety vis-à-vis gender and year-level of the students was found. Since all the aspects that could provoke anxiety are kept to their adequate level, it could be a good indication of the learning and teaching environment of the students since neutral level of anxiety is believed to perform a positive role in keeping the motivation of the learners to maintain their efforts in language learning.

1.1.2 Reasons for Foreign Language Anxiety

According to the study of Tanveer (2007), feelings of anxiety, apprehension and nervousness are commonly expressed by second/foreign language learners in learning to speak a second/foreign language and considered to exert a potentially negative and detrimental effect on communication in the target language. The study has attempted to investigate the factors that language anxiety can possibly stem from both within the classroom environment and out of classroom in the wider social context and has recommended a variety of strategies to cope with it. The researcher used a qualitative semi-structured interview format and focus-group discussion technique to investigate a total of 20 participants, 6 ESL/EFL learners, 3 highly experienced ESL/EFL teachers, and 11 ESL/EFL practitioners regarding the issue. The findings suggested that there are two factors that causes language anxiety for ESL/ EFL learners in learning and speaking English language – the psycholinguistic and socio-cultural factors. Under the psycholinguistic factors, the participants appeared to be blaming strict and formal classroom environment as a significant cause of their language anxiety. They view classroom a place where their mistakes are noticed, and their deficiencies are pointed out (Tanveer, 2007).

Furthermore, giving a short talk or presentation in the class has also been reported to be highly anxiety inducing, which makes the classroom environment more formal and stressful for the learners. All the participants agreed that speaking in front of the whole class or in public cause anxiety for most of the learners under psycholinguistic factors (Tanveer, 2007). Also, the evidence gained through past research, “both ethnographic and empirical, supports the notion that language anxiety, for untold number of learners, has its origin in the fear of making mistakes and attracting the derision of classmates” (Jones, 2004, p. 33 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 42). The study also found that students' embarrassment may be aggravated by the role played by language instructors in the class (Horwitz et al., 1986; Price, 1991; Young, 1991; Brandl, 1987, Young, 1990; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999 cited in Tanveer, 2007; Berowa, Devanadera, & David, 2016; Berowa & Agbayani, 2019). Teachers' attitude towards and beliefs about language learning and teaching, their reaction to the learners' error, and the way they create stressful environment in the class have been reported to be significantly related to second/foreign language anxiety (Tanveer, 2007). Additionally, past researchers have posited that anxiety in learners is produced by their cognitive interferences based on self-related cognitions, e.g., their self-perceptions, self-esteem, perceived scholastic competence, beliefs about language learning, etc. (Krashen, 1985; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999; Horwitz et al., 1986 as cited in Tanveer, 2007). In addition to the fears regarding committing mistakes and being negatively evaluated by one's teachers or peers in the formal setting of a language classroom, the participants reiterated some of the most common linguistic difficulties, pronunciation, grammar, and remembering and retrieving vocabulary items, which cause the learners to feel difficult in learning to speak a second/ foreign language (Tanveer, 2007).

In socio-cultural factors, the subjects asserted that limited exposure to English in their home countries is a serious obstacle in the development of their communicative competency, which is found troubling for L2/FL learners when they are required to speak (Lightbown and Spada, 2006 as cited in Tanveer, 2007). Moreover, the differences of cultures between that of the learners and target language appeared to be an important anxiety-producing factor. The more uncertainty or unfamiliarity with the target language culture, the more it is likely to be anxiety-provoking because speaker does not know. Also, consistent with the previous research regarding the impact of social status on speakers' language and his behaviour (Giles, Bourhis, & Taylor, 1977; Carrier, 1999 as cited in Tanveer, 2007), the study also

found that social status or social distance between interlocutors can have a considerable influence on communication. Speakers' sense of inferiority complex while talking to someone higher in status may cause stress or anxiety for them (Tanveer, 2007). Lastly, the study of Tanveer (2008) yielded conflicting findings as has been the case with the earlier studies regarding gender related anxiety while communicating in a foreign language (Carrier, 1999; Kitano, 2001; Gobel and Matsuda, 2003 as cited in Tanveer, 2007). The subjects appeared to have different experiences of feeling anxious or comfortable while talking to the opposite sex (Tanveer, 2007).

Still on language anxiety, Kayaoglu and Saglamel (2013) explored the learners' perceptions of language anxiety in speaking classes at a north-eastern state university in Turkey. Possible sources and manifestations of language anxiety from the learners' perspectives were examined and their suggested ways to lower language anxiety are discussed. A purposive sampling procedure was followed for the students. The attendance list of the school was taken from the school administration and 30 students from different levels and different age levels (graduate and postgraduate) were chosen. For the instrument, semi-structured interviews were used to elicit students' perceptions of language anxiety in speaking classes anchored from the study of Tanveer (2007). The results of the study demonstrated that possible sources of anxiety were (1) linguistic difficulties: lack of sufficient vocabulary, a poor command of grammar rules and pronunciation difficulties (2) cognitive challenges: fear of failure (failure in communication, failing in exams, making mistakes, failing in front of others), lack of self-esteem, (3) lack of information in the L1, (4) the role of the teachers, and (5) competitiveness.

1.1.3 Alleviations of Language Anxiety

Many studies on language anxiety have suggested a variety of strategies to successfully cope with this multifaceted dilemma and so was the study of Tanveer (2007). Based on his study, the most frequent suggestion participants made was to make the language classroom environment less formal and more friendly where students can make mistakes without looking or sounding inept. Even earlier studies have reported similar perceptions of their research subjects regarding the role of language instructors (Tanveer, 2007). In Price's (1991) interview study, the most frequent observation of the subjects was that "they would feel more comfortable if the instructor were more like a friend helping them to learn and less like an authority figure making them to perform" (Young, 1990 as cited in Tanveer, 2007). Furthermore, a general feeling among the participants was that the students' confidence should be developed to make mistakes while using the language. Teachers should talk about the role of mistakes in the class (Tanveer, 2007). This suggested the use of formative assessment and feedback method as a way to reduce language anxiety (Tanveer, 2007).

Students' self-related cognitions and beliefs were also asserted to be taken into account to successfully cope with language anxiety. As a first step, it was generally maintained that the teachers should take time to discuss or initiate discussion in the class by pointing out that it is very common that students feel uncomfortable, uneasy, and anxious while speaking English, and thus inviting their thoughts about its possible reasons as well as solutions (Tanveer, 2007). This way, instructors can "build students' confidence and self-esteem in their second/foreign language ability via encouragement, reassurance, positive reinforcement, and empathy" (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999 as cited in Tanveer, 2007).

In the study of Kayaoglu and Saglamel (2013) as mentioned earlier, his recorded data on alternative ways to lower anxiety was grouped into three categories: lowering teacher induced anxiety, course-induced anxiety and learning context-induced language anxiety. In lowering teacher-induced anxiety, the respondents believed that teachers' treatment behaviour, attitude, turn-distribution, academic competence, and evaluation of students' level are some issues that could help them feel less anxious. In lowering course-induced anxiety, the issue of language anxiety could be rooted to courses studied. Therefore, vocabulary development which has been noted as a crucial factor in causing anxiety should be considered essential in developing the syllabus for speaking courses. And in lowering learning-context induced anxiety, students usually do not feel themselves free in a formal setting. Therefore, teaching atmosphere itself has been suggested as an anxiety-inducing factor for students. Creating fewer formal situations has been a goal to reach optimum ripeness (Kayaoglu and Saglamel, 2013).

The Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) in English language classroom was also explored by Salim et al. (2017) in Malaysia. Based on their findings, learners were found to prefer working in groups and seeking assistance from classmates who are more proficient to cope with foreign language anxiety. Learners were also found to adopt debilitating strategies such as minimizing class participation and occupying back seats in the class. The findings recommended language instructors to acknowledge the existence of FLA to facilitate English language learning. By doing so, a more effective teaching approach can be structured to promote a less threatening learning experience.

From the trends in language learning anxiety research, there is an implication that language anxiety may vary among second or foreign language learners in different contexts. Some students may be prone to suffer from anxiety in psychological and linguistic aspects, whereas some may be particularly susceptible to anxiety in a social and communicative aspects of language learning. The literature discussed also showed that there are variety of strategies to cope with language anxiety in academic settings which also vary from one learner to another.

Even though there is enough literature on foreign language learning anxiety, there is still few published written resources that investigate the state of second language anxiety in the Philippines. Also, the previous studies included participants who were largely enrolled in rigorous English courses and appeared to have similar language origins. The elements that may predict anxiety among second language English learners in a multi-cultural situation are less well understood. Thus, intending to address these problems, the researchers believe that it would be interesting to explore about the language anxiety towards English in a diverse setting, particularly the first-year students at Mindanao State University, Philippines, where students come from a wide range of linguistic, social, cultural, and religious backgrounds; in contrast to prior investigations, which looked to be relatively homogeneous in terms of language backgrounds.

1.2 Research Questions

This study aimed to identify the level and causes of language anxiety experienced by learners of English as a second language (ESL) in Mindanao State University-Main Campus, Marawi, Philippines, as well as to suggest some strategies for dealing with it. Specifically, it tried to answer the following questions.

1. What is the level of anxiety towards English among University students?
2. What are the factors that cause Language Anxiety for University students in speaking English?
3. Which strategies do the students think to be effective in coping with language anxiety?

1.3 Theoretical Framework

This study was anchored on two theoretical perspectives that will be used in analyzing the language anxiety towards English among ESL students. These included the Foreign Language Anxiety Theory of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) and the Psycholinguistics and Socio-cultural Aspects of Language Learning of Tanveer (2007).

1.3.1 Foreign Language Anxiety Theory

Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) conceptualize foreign language anxiety as “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning processes” (Hortwitz, Hortwitz, & Cope, 1986, p. 31 as cited in Aida, 1994, p. 156). They developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) to capture this specific anxiety reaction of a learner to a foreign language learning setting (Aida, 1994, p. 156). Horwitz et al. (1986) proposed three related performance anxieties to their conceptualization of foreign language anxiety: 1) communication apprehension; 2) test anxiety; and 3) fear of negative evaluation. The first component refers to “a type of shyness characterized by fear of or anxiety about communicating with people” (Horwitz et. al., 1986, p. 127). Difficulty in speaking in dyads or groups (oral communication anxiety) or in public (“stage fright”), or in listening to or learning a spoken message (receiver anxiety) are all manifestations of communication apprehension (Horwitz et. al., 1986). The second component refers to “a type of performance anxiety stemming from a fear of failure” (Horwitz et. al., 1986, p. 127). Test-anxious students often put unrealistic demands on themselves and feel that anything less than a perfect test performance is a failure (Horwitz et. al., 1986). And the third component is defined as “apprehension about others' evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively” (Horwitz et. al., 1986, p. 128). Although similar to test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation is broader in scope because it is not limited to test-taking situations; rather, it may occur in any social, evaluative situation such as interviewing for a job or speaking in foreign language class (Horwitz et. al., 1986). It has been frequently argued by Horwitz et al. (1986) as cited in Berowa (2018) that anxiety toward a language happens in a particular situation. As a result, a language learner may feel anxious while conversing with peers or teachers who are fluent speakers of the language. It is also possible that students feel uneasiness during class recitations, reports, presentations, or dialogues among others (Berowa, 2018, p. 121).

1.3.2 Psycholinguistics and Socio-cultural Aspects of Language Learning

Tanveer (2007) discussed the anxiety-producing factors found in his study related to psycholinguistics and socio-cultural aspects of language learning and its use. Psycholinguistic factors are described as “the learners’ cognition; that is to say their psychological or cognitive process of learning and using a language” (Tanveer, 2007, p. 40). These

factors are composed of strict and formal classroom environment; presentation in the classroom; fear of making mistakes and apprehension about other's evaluation; role of language instructors; self-related cognition or variations in Individual's "self-perceptions"; linguistic difficulties; pronunciation; grammar; and vocabulary. Thus, language anxiety has been found to be significantly linked to how students perceive the language learning process, their perceptions of themselves and how they should perform in every communicative situation, and the linguistic hurdles they face in demonstrating their desired performance in their foreign or second language.

Furthermore, the socio-cultural aspects of second language or foreign language learning are referred to as "the learners' culture, social environment, status and power relations, gender, etc." (Tanveer, 2007, p. 40). These aspects include social environment and limited exposure to the target language; cultural differences; social status and self-identity; and gender. Under these second aspects, limited exposure to English in their home countries is said to be a serious obstacle in the development of their communicative competency, which is found troubling for L2/FL learners when they are required to speak (Tanveer, 2007). This could explain why ESL/EFL learners feel anxious while speaking English even learning the language in an English-speaking environment. The use of communicative language teaching approaches demand students to speak English, who may not be used to it in their previous learning experience and feel stressful when they are called upon to answer a question (Tanveer, 2007, p. 51). Hence, Tanveer (2007) indicated that language teachers should consider the norms, practices, and the previous language learning experiences of the students as an attempt to reduce their language anxiety.

Moreover, the differences of cultures between that of the learners and target language appeared to be an important anxiety-producing factor. The more uncertainty or unfamiliarity with the target language culture, the more it is likely to be anxiety-provoking because speaker does not know (Tanveer, 2007, p. 52). Also, social status or social distance between interlocutors can have a considerable influence on communication. Speakers' sense of inferiority complex while talking to someone higher in status may cause stress or anxiety for them (Tanveer, 2007, p. 52). In addition, the study yielded conflicting findings as has been the case with the earlier studies regarding gender related anxiety while communicating in a foreign language (Carrier, 1999, p. 70; Kitano, 2001; Gobel & Matsuda, 2003, p. 23 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 53). The subjects appeared to have different experiences of feeling anxious or comfortable while talking to the opposite sex. Also, Tanveer (2007, p. 54) argued that gender related communication apprehension is entirely based upon one's own personal view. Thus, the social setting in which learners live, their cultures, social standing, personal sense of foreignness while speaking a language other than their native tongue, gender, and other factors have all been connected to second language or foreign language anxiety.

In essence, this research is based on the presented theories and concepts offered since they would be utilized to categorize, evaluate, and explain the linguistic landscape data of this study. The first theoretical framework emphasizes the three related performance anxieties in foreign language that are appropriate to use as guidelines in addressing the first research question of this study which is the level of anxiety towards English among university students. Also, the second theoretical framework is appropriate to use in explaining and evaluating the factors that cause language anxiety among university students since it provides comprehensive details on the psycholinguistics and socio-cultural aspects of language learning.

1.4 Significance of the Study

Because of the impact it can have on second language learning, performance, and eventual achievement, the subject of language anxiety has gotten a lot of attention in recent years. This study would be of considerable interest to language educators and students because of the potentially negative impact of foreign language anxiety, not only on the various domains of language performance but also on students' attitudes and perceptions of language learning in general (Phillips, 1992; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999, p. 222 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 8). The significance of the study could also be asserted in terms of its implications for foreign or second language instruction, particularly in the context of learners with diverse linguistic, cultural, and ethnic origins. The study of anxiety-inducing factors while learning to communicate in the target language will hopefully provide further insight into the issue of language anxiety and assist language teachers in creating a less stressful classroom atmosphere.

Methodology

This section describes and discusses the research design and methodology that the researchers will be using to achieve the goals of this study. This includes the research setting, research participants, instrument of the study, procedure, and methods of data analysis.

2.1 Research Design

This study employed a descriptive qualitative research design to investigate the English language anxiety among ESL students from Mindanao State University, Marawi City, Philippines. In order to capture the diverse range of subjects' experiences, qualitative approach was considered an appropriate strategy as "it begins with individuals and sets out to understand and interpret their experiences of a particular phenomenon" (Cohen et al., 2000, p. 23 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 33). Such research design was used to analyze how students experience language anxiety, what they believe are the causes of such an experience, and how they think of effective strategies to cope with language anxiety. Hence, it allows the researchers to understand the subjective world of human experiences (Cohen et. al., 2000, p. 22 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 33). The data were collected through a questionnaire that reflects the thirty-three item Foreign Language Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) which uses a five-point Likert scale adopted from Park in 2014 and an interview using the questionnaires adopted from Tanveer's (2007) study.

2.2 Research Setting

This research was taken place at Mindanao State University in Marawi, Lanao Del Sur. This research site is an academic territory where many students with different cultural backgrounds study in this university. The said university is known in Mindanao as a haven for various learners because of its commitment to the integration of Muslims, particularly Meranaw-Muslims, and non-Muslims into mainstream society. It was founded on September 1, 1961, through the Republic Act 1387 under the presidency of Carlos P. Garcia. MSU was formally opened its first classes on June 13, 1962, with 282 students from the provinces and cities in Mindanao, Sulu, Palawan, Visayas, and even as far as Luzon (MSU-Annual Report, 2007).

Furthermore, the researchers believe that this university was suitable locale of this study as it was assumed to have students from different backgrounds linguistically, culturally, socially, and religiously that could provide various insights in exploring the language anxiety towards English; unlike previous studies that were mostly appeared to be homogeneous in terms of linguistic backgrounds.

2.3 Participants of the Study

The participants of this study involved 35 first-year students, who were chosen through convenience sampling method due to certain constrains of time and availability, taking up Bachelor of Secondary Education Major in English in the first semester of the academic year 2021-2022 at Mindanao State University-Marawi. These target participants were chosen because aside from the reason that they were the most tractable respondents based on the researchers' convenience in this pandemic season, they would also be constantly exposed to English composition and speaking in the classroom as English major's students. Also, the study's main concerns were cognitive, linguistic, social, and cultural experiences in English language anxiety, hence English majors' perceptions were examined in this study.

2.4 Instrument of the Study

The researchers employed two kinds of data gathering tool, a survey questionnaire for FLCAS Likert scale adapted from Park (2014) and a written interview adapting the questionnaires of Tanveer (2007).

2.4.1 Questionnaire

The first part of the questionnaire was designed to gather personal information about the participants, such as gender and ethnicity. The second part was designed to collect data on the level of language anxiety by utilizing the 33-item Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) adapted from Park (2014). The scale is a self-report measure of the learner's feelings of anxiety as a specific reaction to English language learning as a second language in the classroom (Wang, 2010 as cited in Berowa, 2018, p. 121). From the 33 items listed in the FLCAS, different statements pertain to different components that could provoke English language anxiety as listed in Table 1 below.

Table 1: *Items in the FLCAS based on different components*

Component of FLCAS	Item No.	Total Item
Communication Anxiety	1, 9, 14, 18, 24, 27, 29, 32	8
Test Anxiety	2, 8, 10, 19, 21	5
Fear of Negative Evaluation	3, 7, 13, 15, 20, 23, 25,31, 33	9

As regards the other 11 remaining items, they were put in a group which was named anxiety of English classes (Na, 2007 as Cited in Berowa, 2018, p. 122) as listed in Table 2 below.

Table 2 *Items in the FLCAS grouped as anxiety of English classes*

Component of FLCAS	Item No.	Total Item
Anxiety of English Classes	4, 5, 6, 11, 12, 16, 17, 22, 26, 28, 30	11

The Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) is made up of 33 Likert-scale items that are rated on a 5-point scale with anchors ranging from strongly disagree to (1) to strongly agree (5). Total anxiety scores for the scale range from 33 to 165 points. While the answer strongly agree (5) indicates high level of anxiety, strongly disagree (1) indicates low level of anxiety that students feel (Horwitz, 2008 as cited in Berowa, 2018, p. 123). These anxiety items are related to several components including communication apprehension associated with anxiety stemming from communicating with other people, test anxiety associated with a fear of failure in a test situation, and fear of negative evaluation derived from being evaluated negatively by other people (Park, 2014, pp. 265-266), and anxiety of English classes. As reported by Park (2014) as cited in Berowa (2018, p. 1230), the Cronbach's coefficient alpha of all 33 items in the FLCAS was .93 which is excellent. As a result, the instrument is a valid and reliable scale that has been used to measure anxiety in a wide range of studies.

2.4.2 Interview

The second gathering tool that would be used was an interview. To better understand the factors that causes the students' English language anxiety and their coping strategies, a written interview was constructed. The rationale behind the use of interview as a data collection tool was that it can provide access to things that cannot be directly observed, such as feelings, thoughts, intentions, or beliefs (Merriam, 1998, Ohata, 2005, p. 140 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 35). It also provides participants with opportunities to select, reconstruct, and reflect upon details of their experience within the specific context of their lives (Ohata, 2005, p. 141 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 35). Dowsett presents some further advantages of interviews as follows: "flexibility" for researchers, "control and power" for interviewees and "access to other peoples' lives" (Nunan, 1992, p. 150 as cited in Kayaoglu & Saglamel, 2013, p. 146). It was also appropriate because of "its flexibility balanced by structure and the quality of the data is obtained" (Gillham 2005, p. 70 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 35).

The interview was implemented through written form that is made up of open-ended response questions. The questions that were utilized on the students' perceptions of anxiety in the study were taken from Tanveer's (2007) study. The participants were allowed to use Filipino aside from English language to facilitate communication and promote richness of response and access to data in a less threatening medium. Also, after the data gathering, the participants were assigned to have pseudo-names such as #1, #2, #3, etc. due to confidentiality considerations.

2.5 Procedure

This study used a convenience sampling, which is a form of non-probability sampling technique in which participants are chosen based on their ease of access and closeness to the researchers. This means that any first-year English major who was available and willing to engage in the survey and interview was picked as one of the study's respondents. Furthermore, the researchers chose this method of sampling since the availability and proximity of respondents and researchers are important aspects to consider in this pandemic season. As a result, this sampling made the study more viable.

Furthermore, during the course of the study, the questionnaire and the open-ended response questions are encoded in Google Form Sheet, along with a letter that asks permission to answer the study and provides brief information about it. The link of the form was sent via Facebook Messenger to any MSU first-year English major who was acquainted with the researchers. They were given an enough time to complete the questionnaires so that they would not be pressured and take the questions seriously. Finally, once their answers have been retrieved, analysis and interpretation were taken place.

2.6 Method of Analysis

The data gathered through the use of questionnaire were tabulated, computed, and analyzed using descriptive statistics, particularly the mean and standard deviation. After getting the mean and standard deviation for each statement, the following scheme was used to interpret the statement.

Table 3 *Mean Interpretation*

Mean	Interpretation
4.20 – 5.0	Very High
3.40 – 4.19	High
2.60 – 3.39	Neutral
1.80 – 2.59	Low
1.0 – 1.79	Very Low

To answer the first research question, the 33 statements were categorized according to the four components of language anxieties developed by Park (2014). These components are (1) communication anxiety, (2) test anxiety, (3) fear of negative evaluation, and (4) anxiety of English classes. The students' responses are tallied and analyzed using the scheme above to determine the interpretation according to the 5- point Likert Scale. Overall mean and standard deviation are also computed per level of anxiety to determine the consensus of the respondents regarding that level.

For the second and third research question which was under the qualitative data, this study adopted directed content analysis in which theories and existing literature studies are employed to inform the codes and themes initially utilized in analysis (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008 as cited in Malik et. al., 2021, p. 741). The findings from the directed content analysis are expected to build on the relevant existing knowledge base. Specifically, the answers of the participants will be analyzed using the frameworks of Tanveer's (2007) factors that affect language learning. These are the psycholinguistic factors and socio-cultural aspects of language learning.

This approach was highly feasible for the current study due to the deductive approach and the unit of analysis in this study were themes (the basic unit of the text that will be classified). Themes can be expressed in various physical linguistic units, whether it is a single word, phrase, sentence, or a paragraph, thus code was assigned to any part of the text that gave an idea expressed in a theme related to the study. These themes were developed based on inducting coding along with deductive coding. The researchers used both deductive and inductive approaches. Inductive reasoning employs the data to generate ideas or hypothesis development whereas, deductive approach starts with the idea and utilizes the data to confirm, support or negate the idea/hypothesis testing (De Vaus, 2008 as cited in Malik et. al., 2021, p. 741). The researcher employed (deductive technique) mainly because it was part of the directed content analysis (exploring how various ideas in existing literature were observed in the qualitative data collected) while, analyzing the data to dig out recurring themes that were independent of pre-existing body of theoretical concepts (inductive technique) (Malik et. al., 2021, pp. 741-742).

Results and Discussion

3.1 Level of Anxiety towards English language among university students

Each statement on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was grouped based on the tallied data into one of four anxiety components: communication anxiety, test anxiety, fear of negative evaluation, and anxiety of English classes. In addition, descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) were calculated for each statement on which the interpretation was based.

Table 3 shows that the overall mean of all levels of English anxiety among respondents is 3.24609, with a standard deviation of 2.93697, implying that these university students have a neutral level of anxiety toward the English language.

Table 4 *Levels of English anxiety among respondents*

Components	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
Communication Anxiety	3.32	3.00333	Neutral
Test Anxiety	2.90	2.62199	Neutral
Fear of Negative Evaluation	3.66	3.33962	High
Anxiety of English Classes	3.11	2.78295	Neutral
Overall Level of Anxiety	3.24609	2.93697	Neutral

Note: Scale: 1.0-1.79= Very Low; 1.8-2.59= Low; 2.6-3.39=Neutral; 3.40-4.19=High; 4.20-5.0= Very High

As clearly shown in Table 4, respondents experience certain level of anxiety toward English. Although one component causes high anxiety, the rest of the components, as well as the overall mean, cause respondents to have a neutral level of English language anxiety. The findings largely differ from the previous investigations which recorded either high or low language anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986; Aida, 1994; Cheng et al, 1999 as cited in Berowa, 2018; Akbari & Sadeghi, 2013). Instead, the findings appear to be similar with those of Mamhot et. al. (2013) and Berowa (2018), who found that Filipino ESL students do neither acknowledge nor deny that they are anxious about the English language. In the context of the present study, the respondents appear to have an adequate amount of anxiety, not too high but also not too low, because of their exposure of language since they started to attend school; or since they were kids. The interview also revealed that even though majority of the respondents learn the language throughout their school journey, they still feel moderate level of anxiety because of the complexity of grammar rules and broad areas of English language.

This neutrality of anxiety could be a very good indication since according to Na (2007, as cited in Berowa, 2018, p. 125), the real task of English teachers is to provide students with just enough level of anxiety in learning the English language. Such appropriate level of anxiety is important for students' motivation and effort in learning the target language. As a result, teachers should refrain from attempting to entirely assist students in overcoming their English anxiety (Berowa, 2018).

To learn more, a detailed examination of the four components of language anxiety will reveal how these ESL students genuinely feel about English language learning. As previously stated, the first anxiety is related to communication – the anxiety experienced when talking with classmates or with teachers using the target language, English (Mamhot et. al., 2013). Table 4 below summarizes the statements and their relative interpretations.

Table 5 *Level of Communication Anxiety among respondents*

Item	Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.	3.66	3.31231	High
9	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.	3.77	3.45584	High
14	I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers.	2.63	2.37847	Neutral
18	I feel confident when I speak in English class.	2.83	2.56348	Neutral
24	I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students	3.69	3.35517	High
27	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my English class.	3.43	3.10759	High
29	I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says.	3.69	3.34664	High
32	I would probably feel comfortable around native speakers of English.	2.86	2.50713	Neutral
Overall Level		3.32	3.00333	Neutral

Note: Scale: 1.0-1.79= *Very Low*; 1.8-2.59= *Low*; 2.6-3.39=*Neutral*; 3.40-4.19=*High*; 4.20-5.0= *Very High*

As can be seen in Table 5, among items identified to score the highest mean are item 9 “I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class” (mean = 3.77) , item 24 “I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students ” (mean = 3.69), and item 29 “I get nervous when I don't understand every word the English teacher says” (mean = 3.69). These items are interpreted as high level of anxiety. Generally, in consonance with previous studies on FLL anxiety in Iranian and Pakistani EFL learning contexts (Nahavandi & Mukundan, 2013; Awan et al., 2010 as cited in Akbari & Sadeghi, 2013), the findings indicated that communication via the third language they were learning particularly speaking in front of others, that is peers, as well as mutual communication with their EFL teachers in the English classrooms is one the most serious types of anxiety. On the other hand, items identified to score the lowest mean are item 14 “I would not be nervous speaking English with native speakers” (mean = 2.63) and item 18 “I feel confident when I speak in English class” (mean = 2.83). These items are interpreted as

neutral level of anxiety. In general, the data reveals learners' Communication anxiety to be at a neutral level (mean = 3.32).

With the results presented above, it is possible to conclude that university ESL students in general do not recognize nor deny their fear when conversing in English with their classmates or teachers. It could be that as they have been exposed to the English language since they were children, these learners might think that they should not feel anxiety when using the target language; on the other hand, as they are still first year college students and are still in the beginning of their career, expressing confidence might be too bold for their age (Mamhot et. al., 2013). In the context of the current study, it is possible that respondents do not find the use of English to be particularly difficult or easy, especially in oral communication activities, because they have been exposed to English classes since they started schooling and are very familiar with these situations, resulting in neutrality over the said situations. Also some of the respondents expressed in the interview that speaking English is not that difficult when they have the determination to learn and speak with confidence. However, it gets difficult when they cannot express their thoughts into words during spontaneous class recitations.

The second component of anxiety, Test Anxiety, is explained as the feeling happens when students fear of getting a failing grade or that they could not achieve unrealistic expectations (Hortwitz et. al., 1986). The statements and their respective interpretations about this component are summarized in Table 6 below.

Table 6 *Level of Test Anxiety among respondents*

Item	Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
2	I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.	2.03	1.80476	Low
8	I am usually at ease during tests in my English class.	2.74	2.41424	Neutral
10	I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.	4	3.65670	High
19	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I made.	3.2	2.96648	Neutral
21	The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get.	2.54	2.26779	Neutral
Overall Level		2.90	2.62199	Neutral

Note: Scale: 1.0-1.79= *Very Low*; 1.8-2.59= *Low*; 2.6-3.39= *Neutral*; 3.40-4.19= *High*; 4.20-5.0= *Very High*

Table 6 reveals university ESL students' Test Anxiety and among items found to score the highest mean is item 10 "I worry about the consequences of failing my English class" (mean = 4) which interpreted as high level of anxiety. Such finding shows that the students experience a high level of anxiety after the test administration. These ESL students were test-anxious, either because they had an unreasonable expectation of test results or because they had previously had a negative test experience. This finding was consistent with Akbari & Sadeghi's (2013) study as well as a study on Filipino ESL and EFL learners (Mamhot, et. al., 2013).

Meanwhile, among items with the lowest mean score are item 2 "I don't worry about making mistakes in English class" (mean = 2.03) and item 21 "The more I study for an English test, the more confused I get" (mean = 2.54). These items are interpreted as neutral level of anxiety. These findings suggest that these students are not overly anxious since they have been exposed to the language since childhood and that they do not experience test anxiety if they prepare adequately for the English test. Generally, the respondents experience a neutral level of Test Anxiety (mean = 2.90). Such findings were consistent in Akbari & Sadeghi's (2013) study as well as Berowa's (2018) study on university ESL learners.

The third component of anxiety is Fear of Negative Evaluation which explained as the feeling associated with performance, that is, having this fear means one is anxious on how other people perceive him or her when he or she uses the target language, which in this case is English (Mamhot et. al., 2013). The statements and their respective interpretations about this component are summarized in Table 7 below.

Table 7 *Level of Fear of Negative Evaluation among respondents*

Item	Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
3	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in English class.	3.54	3.26015	High
7	I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am.	4.26	3.85450	Very High
13	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	3.51	3.17130	High
15	I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.	3.06	2.81831	Neutral
20	I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in English class.	3.8	3.41426	High
23	I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do.	4.06	3.71099	Very High
25	English class moves so quickly, I worry about getting left behind.	3.34	3.06128	Neutral
31	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	3.51	3.26890	High
33	I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	3.83	3.49693	High
Overall Level		3.66	3.33962	High

Note: Scale: 1.0-1.79= Very Low; 1.8-2.59= Low; 2.6-3.39=Neutral; 3.40-4.19=High; 4.20-5.0= Very High

As shown in the Table 7, among items identified to score the highest mean are item 7 “I keep thinking that the other students are better at English than I am” (mean = 4.26) and item 23 “I always feel that the other students speak English better than I do” (mean = 4.06). These items are interpreted as very high level of anxiety. These two statements suggest that ESL students constantly compare themselves to their peers. This is most likely due to the fact that they have studied English since elementary school. Furthermore, because these ESL students attend one of the Philippines' most prestigious schools, they may have assumed that they all have a similar background in learning and mastering the English language. As a result, even a minor mistake, particularly in pronunciation, would be quite embarrassing. In addition to this, as these students are freshmen and they graduated from different high schools, there might be a feeling of insecurity from most students who graduated from schools outside (Mamhot et. al., 2013) Marawi City. Such findings were consistent with Akbari & Sadeghi’s (2013) study as well as a study on Filipino ESL and EFL learners (Mamhot, et. al., 2013).

Item identified to have the lowest mean is item 15 “I get upset when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting” (mean = 3.06) which interpreted as neutral level of anxiety. This statement could imply that a teacher's correction is not to be viewed adversely by students, and hence is not a circumstance that causes anxiety in students. Such finding is consistent with the previous investigations (Akbari & Sadeghi, 2013; Mamhot et. al., 2013; Salim et. al., 2017; Berowa, 2018). Interestingly, the learners’ Fear of Negative Evaluation of the present study, in general, is at high level of anxiety (mean = 3.66). The finding largely differs from the previous investigations which recorded neutral level of language anxiety (Mamhot et. al., 2013; Salim et. al., 2017; Berowa, 2018). Instead, the result appears to be consistent with the finding made by Akbari & Sadeghi (2013) that bilingual learners of English in this context revealed that they experience a high level of anxiety particularly in contexts wherein the EFL teachers as well as other bilingual learners' evaluations play the leading roles in the degree of FLL anxiety.

The final component of anxiety is Anxiety of English Classes which pertains to the students’ general perception of English as a language and as a subject (Mamhot et. al., 2013). The statements and their respective interpretations about this component are summarized in Table 8 below.

Table 8 *Level of Anxiety of English Classes among respondents*

Item	Statement	Mean	Standard Deviation	Interpretation
4	It frightens me when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the foreign language.	3.43	3.07989	High
5	It wouldn't bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.	3.46	3.17130	High
6	During language class, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.	2.74	2.39046	Neutral
11	I don't understand why some people get to upset over foreign language classes.	3.03	2.73600	Neutral
12	In language class, I can get so nervous when I forget things I know.	3.94	3.56971	High
16	Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it.	3.66	3.3295	High
17	I often feel like not going to my language class.	2	1.72378	Low
22	I don't feel pressure to prepare very well for language class.	2.66	2.30527	Neutral
26	I feel more tense and nervous in my language class than in my other classes.	3.11	2.86855	Neutral
28	When I'm on my way to language class, I feel very sure and relaxed.	2.86	2.52982	Neutral
30	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak a foreign language.	3.29	2.90811	Neutral
Overall Level		3.11	2.78295	Neutral

Note: Scale: 1.0-1.79= *Very Low*; 1.8-2.59= *Low*; 2.6-3.39=*Neutral*; 3.40-4.19=*High*; 4.20-5.0= *Very High*

Table 8 shows learners' Anxiety of English classes. Among items identified scoring the highest mean are item 12 "In language class, I can get so nervous when I forget things I know" (mean = 3.94) and item 16 "Even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it." (mean = 3.66). These items are interpreted as neutral level of anxiety. These findings implied that these learners do not feel extremely anxious or otherwise as they know what their objectives in studying are, and that it is necessary for them to prepare English class. The results were in line with other studies employing FLCAS (Mamhot et. al., 2013; Salim et. al., 2017; Berowa, 2018).

Meanwhile, among item scoring the lowest mean is item 17 "I often feel like not going to my language class" (mean = 2) which interpreted as low level of anxiety. This finding implied that the respondents are pleased with their English class, and they have concentration with it even though they experience kind of anxiety in other factors. Such result was in line with previous investigations (Akbari & Sadeghi, 2013; Mamhot et. al., 2013) but some results revealed neutral level of anxiety (Salim et. al., 2017; Berowa, 2018).

In general, the data reveals learners' anxiety of English classes to be at a neutral level (mean = 3.11). This finding implied that despite of some difficulties experienced in their English classes, students still wanted to attend their classes as it allows them to learn new words and discover various concepts that would help them in their English language learning. The result was in line with other studies employing FLCAS (Mamhot et. al., 2013, Salim et. al., 2017; Berowa, 2018).

3.2 Factors that cause language anxiety among university students

The participants' answers to the question "What disturbs students most about learning and speaking English and why?" were coded and a couple of themes were developed in the light of their answers. These are (1) linguistic difficulties: a poor command of grammar rules, lack of sufficient vocabulary and pronunciation difficulties (2) cognitive challenges: self-related cognition, fear of making mistakes and apprehension of others' evaluation, and (3) social factors: presentation in the classroom or in public and the role of teachers in the classroom. The findings in this study revealed that linguistic difficulties, fear of making mistakes as well as apprehension of others' evaluation were cited by many of the respondents.

3.2.1 Linguistic Difficulties

It is no exaggeration that many learners experience a lot of difficulties when they are studying a second or foreign language (Kayaoglu & Saglamel, 2013, p. 149). The challenges they experience could develop into language anxiety. A learner will face various obstacles in learning, understanding, grammar, and other areas during the early stages of language learning. State anxiety develops when a learner becomes concerned about these experiences, or when he or she feels uncomfortable making mistakes. After experiencing repeated occurrences of state anxiety, the student comes to associate anxiety arousal with the second language. (McIntyre, 1999, p. 31 as cited in Kayaoglu & Saglamel, 2013, p. 149)

3.2.1.1 Grammar

According to the findings obtained from the study, linguistic difficulties occupy a substantial place in the reasons for language anxiety. Of these linguistic difficulties, lack of grammatical knowledge was reported to have a remarkable share. Majority of the participants were of the view:

"The subject-verb agreement, I guess. Generally, the English Grammar rules itself is so complicated. Thus, it concerns me" [#3]

"... I am sometimes confused with the use of different tenses, and that disturbs my learning..." [#4]

"Grammar disturbs me the most such as the tenses. Like, I have to spend a good 5 minutes on a sentence to be at ease with it". [#32]

As can be observed from the participants' statements, difficulties regarding the use of English modal verbs were mentioned as significant problems learners face. This is supported by the study of Tanveer (2007) wherein Pakistani and Sri Lankan ESL/EFL practitioners specifically reported that complex article and modal verb system of English language cause trouble for them and whenever they encounter this problem they attempt to, as reported by Steinberg & Horwitz (1986 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 49), be less complex and less interpretative. Such difficulties can lead to the impression that anxious students are not capable communicator in the second language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991, p. 296 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 49) as they impede learners' fluency in conveying the spoken messages. This finding was also reaffirmed in the study by Kayaoglu & Saglamel (2013) that the students feel anxious about lexical and grammar rules.

3.2.1.2 Vocabulary

The participants' responses regarding the difficulties of remembering and retrieving vocabulary items are also consistent with the past research (Kayaoglu & Saglamel, 2013; Tanveer, 2007). Some participants reported:

"...I am poor in familiarizing English terms. I don't have Dictionary with me all the time. It is difficult if you have a limited vocabulary..." [#6]

"...it gets difficult when I cannot express my thoughts into words every time I am put on the spot during class recitations..." [#15]

As learners can process only limited information at one time (Lightbown & Spada, 2006, p. 39 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 50), the participants reported that many words do not come out when required to speak in a hurry or with a limited vocabulary. This is consistent with prior research that has found a link between second language vocabulary and language anxiety (Kayaoglu & Saglamel, 2013; Tanveer, 2007).

3.2.1.3 Pronunciation

Since it has a direct and immediate effect on others when they interact with a person, pronunciation is an important and critical component for all language learners and groups. When one person cannot understand another, he or she must adjust his or her pronunciation right away, which is often difficult (Malik et. al., 2021). Some students stated the perception of their poor pronunciation disturbed them most when speaking:

“There are words that is hard to pronounce and that disturbs me the most” [#30]

“...the correct pronunciation of English words can be one of the difficulties I usually feel...” [#17]

This finding is in line with seminal works of Kayaoglu & Saglanel (2013) and Tanveer’s (2017) findings which confirms the above finding that poor pronunciation is fear and anxiety inducing factor in speaking English in ESL/EFL university learners.

3.2.2 Cognitive Challenges

Language anxiety has been discovered to be significantly linked to how learners perceive the language learning process, their perceptions of themselves, and how they should behave in every communicative encounter (Tanveer, 2007). In the light of the responses, cognitive challenges are analyzed into four categories. These are: self-related cognition, fear of making mistakes and apprehension of others’ evaluation.

3.2.2.1 Self-related Cognition

Past researchers have posited that anxiety in learners is produced by their cognitive interferences based on self-related cognitions, e.g., their self-perceptions, self-esteem, perceived scholastic competence, beliefs about language learning, etc. (Krashen, 1985; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999, p. 228; Horwitz et al., 1986, pp. 128-129 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 45). Participants in this study stated that they frequently feel as though their confidence is uncertain, and that they are unable to communicate and deliver their message when their self-confidence is low. According to one of the participants:

“Lack of confidence and social exposure are what really disturbs me. It makes me feel incapable of [using] the [correct] grammar and sometimes how the new words pronounce...” [#9]

The participants believed that self-confidence is essential for effective speaking and communication. This finding is supported with the study of Tanveer’s (2017) in which he asserted that such negative cognitions put serious impediments in the learners’ language development which led to heightened awareness of their deficiencies and consequently to reticence when are called upon to exhibit their competence in the target language.

3.2.2.2 Fear of making mistakes and apprehension of others’ evaluation

The fear of making mistakes is one of the most essential challenges to address here. We are often confronted with a plethora of decision-making circumstances in our daily lives. Some of these decisions are in line with the intended goals and result in success, but others may depart from the expected path, resulting in failures, even if it is not on purpose. Some essential terms related with mistakes include being judged, rejected, and humiliated (Kayaoglu & Saglanel, 2013). A considerable number of learners expressed that they were afraid of mistakes. Some of their views were:

“Yes. It’s very traumatic and downgrading when people are judging you for your small mistakes” [#9]

“Yes, somehow I’m afraid. I think, of course, people will laugh at me if I make mistakes. That’s how society works right now, everyone is being judgmental” [#12]

“I always worry about what will people think of me when I am speaking English. Because in my previous years, when I make mistakes in speaking English, my classmates would immediately laugh at me, and it made me uncomfortable and sad at the same time.” [#23]

“Yes, I’ll be horrified if I make errors while speaking English and I think they will make fun with my grammar and laugh at me” [#26]

The fear of appearing silly, degraded, or ridiculed has been identified as a prevalent apprehension among learners who are terrified of making mistakes. This finding is supported by the study of Tanveer (2017) wherein the participants frequently expressed that the learners feel afraid, and even horrible because of the fear of committing mistakes or errors in front of others, or in Jones’ words (2004, p. 31 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 42) because of “a fear of appearing awkward, foolish and incompetent in the eyes of learners’ peers or others”.

Some students, on the other hand, believed that making mistakes was worthwhile because it provided opportunities for learning. Some of their views were:

“...I am not afraid of making errors while speaking English. I actually learn from making mistakes as it gave me more room to grow. People will be shocked if I make mistakes and worst, they will mock me. However, I let them do what they want. After all, I am the one learning and not them.” [#17]

"...I'm not really afraid of making errors because I think that people will eventually give me correction, and I'm not afraid of getting corrected, in fact I think it'll help me gain more knowledge" [#30]

"...I'm terribly afraid but would gladly take corrections. I was once corrected by my cousins, they straight up corrected me right after I spoke and, in return, I asked them to further explain, just so I understand" [#32]

Despite their anxiety over error correction, participants exhibited a desire to be corrected in order to overcome their language inadequacies, as seen by the statements above. This finding is also supported by the previous investigations (Kayaoglu & Saglamel, 2013; Tanveer, 2007) in which students believe that speech correction is necessary in order to learn how to speak the language well.

3.2.3 Social Factors

In the social context, such as presentation in the classroom or in public and the role of teachers in the classroom, has also been found to be linked with the learners' second language anxiety.

3.2.3.1 Presentation in the classroom or in public

Giving a short lecture or presentation in class, like discussion in an open-class-forum, has been shown to be extremely anxiety generating, making the classroom setting more formal and uncomfortable for the students (Tanveer, 2007, p. 41). The participants unanimously agreed that speaking in front of a class or in public causes fear in some of the students. According to some of them:

"For me, learning and speaking English is one of the most difficult challenge to do. I always find myself having a hard time to speak English. For instance, we have a[n] oral recitation, I tend to feel anxious whenever I need to use English" [#11]

"Public speaking sometimes causes me more stress or anxiety" [#24]

"Situations where I have to speak in formal assembly to mass of people [cause more stress or anxiety to me]" [#32]

The study reinforced the findings of the earlier studies by Koch and Terrell (1991), Young (1990), Price (1991), and Tanveer (2017 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 42) who found that a large number of their subjects considered oral presentation as the most anxiety-provoking activity in the class.

3.2.3.2 The role of teachers in the classroom

Teachers' attitude towards and beliefs about language learning and teaching, their reaction to the learners' error, and the way they create stressful environment in the class have been reported to be significantly related to second/foreign language anxiety (Tanveer, 2007, p. 44). Some university ESL students indicated in this study that a rigid and judgmental classroom causes them great anxiety. It's possible that the students will become emotionally distressed. According to some of them:

"[What disturbed me the most in learning English is] when my teacher is very strict and too intelligent it makes me intimidate so I can't focus" [#34]

"For me, my English teacher didn't have a role in reducing the feeling of anxiety in the classroom, because sometimes he made me feel down, and criticized me not in a nice way" [#22]

In accord with the results of the studies previously cited, this study also found that students' embarrassment may be aggravated by the role played by language instructors in the class (Horwitz et al., 1986; Price, 1991; Young, 1991; Brandl, 1987, Young, 1990; Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999, p. 220 as cited in Tanveer, 2007). This finding is also supported by Tanveer's (2017, p. 44) study wherein it emerged during focus group discussion that authoritative, embarrassing, and humiliating attitude of the teachers towards students; particularly when they make mistakes, can have severe consequences on learners' cognition and their willingness to communicate in the class.

3.3 Suggested strategies to cope with language anxiety

Language anxiety, being an unsettling psychological construct, has been found to make a huge difference in learning to speak a foreign language (Tanveer, 2007, p. 55). Many research on language anxiety, like this one, have proposed a number of ways for successfully coping with this multidimensional problem. In this part, some concrete suggestions for creating a less stressful class have been made by the learners.

The participants' most common suggestion was to make the language classroom environment less formal and more welcoming, so that students can make mistakes without appearing or sounding incompetent. One participant recommended the following strategy for creating a less stressful classroom environment: *"[Teachers should] make*

the classroom engaging and cooperative yet friendly environment. So that learners won't feel that pressured and avoid getting anxious” [#9]. Another participant laid emphasis on the friendly and encouraging role of the teachers to make the classroom less-anxiety provoking place: *“Teachers has a huge role in reducing the feeling of anxiety in the classroom by attentively listening and cheering the learners up”* [#4]. According to this finding, teachers' friendly and encouraging roles are critical in making the classroom a safe and less anxiety-provoking environment. Even earlier studies have reported similar perceptions of their research subjects regarding the role of language instructors (Kayaoglu & Saglamel, 2013; Tanveer, 2007). In Kayaoglu & Saglamel's (2013, p. 156) interview study, the respondents usually suggested that *“the teacher who makes the lesson more of a fun than a requirement is usually instrumental in lowering the language anxiety.”*

Also, a common sentiment among the participants was that the students' confidence should be developed to make mistakes while using the language. It was also suggested that teachers use a positive approach to provide corrective and constructive feedback on errors rather than correcting learners in an offensive manner to reduce language anxiety. As one of the participants remarked: *“My English teacher at the moment is very approachable and very kind that is why I don't mind if she corrects my mistakes. I don't feel anxiety at all because she's very appreciative when we did right and corrects us in a very nice way when we made mistakes”* [#21]. This finding is also supported by previous investigations (Kayaoglu & Saglamel, 2013; Tanveer, 2007) in which there is a significant point to be handled in teachers' error treatment behavior.

Furthermore, it was stated that in order to successfully cope with language anxiety, students' self-related cognitions and perceptions should be taken into account. Teachers should take time to address or stimulate class discussion by pointing out that students usually feel restless, apprehensive, and worried while speaking English, and then encourage their ideas on possible causes and treatments (Tanveer, 2007). As one of the participants stated: *“[The teachers should] tell them [students] that it is okay to make errors. They are human and we can't find any person who is perfect”* [#16]. It was hoped that the discussion would raise their awareness of the fact that anxiety is experienced by the majority of students and is not specific to any one person. Thus, it would also help them to take away the feeling of competition or comparison that others are all smarter and more confident (Price, 1991, p. 7 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 56). Instead of engaging in negative self-talk, “students should be encouraged to think about their positive personality traits and thus gather their own strengths and build upon them”, commented a Pakistani male ESL/EFL practitioner (Tanveer, 2007, p. 57). This way, instructors can “build students' confidence and self-esteem in their second/foreign language ability via encouragement, reassurance, positive reinforcement, and empathy” (Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999, p. 232 as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 57).

Finally, there was also found a unique strategy, which has not been offered in the mentioned previous studies. Some of the participants suggested that:

“Personally, I think watching English-speaking vloggers motivates me to be confident when speaking English. Imitating the way they speak is somehow effective to train yourself in speaking English casually. You can make mistakes, but you will slowly find yourself improving along the way” [#18]

“I suggest them (students) to watch movies, shows, videos or anything that has subtitles on it. That is what I have been doing for many years. I don't love to read books but I love watching anything in English with subtitles because it teaches me new words and at the same time teaches me how to pronounce them well” [#20]

According to the participants' statements, students can use authentic resources such as English language movies and videos to raise their confidence and improve their communicating skills. ESL language teachers have been using English films for decades due to number of reasons as an excellent teaching learning tool (Rathnayke, n.d.). Also, Rathnayke (n.d.) points out that:

According to the English language lectures of my institute watching English language movies help the students learn English phrases can be used in real life situations, improve vocabulary, catch authentic language, learn sentence patterns, and become familiar with the different accents of native speakers, opportunities to listen to correct pronunciation and intonation patterns. (p. 4).

In line with the finding, the use of English language movies in ESL classrooms is a refreshing learning experience for students when compared to techniques such as rote learning of English vocabulary and drill practices, as the films are valuable resources with colloquial English in a real-life context, and teachers can use movies to develop learners' speaking and listening skills, allowing them to become more autonomous learners; and thus, lowering their language anxiety.

Thus, the results of this current research generally coincide previous findings that second language learners of English experience certain level of anxiety. Also, according to the interview, there are a variety of causal factors that might cause language anxiety both within and outside of the language classroom. These factors were: (1) linguistic difficulties: a poor command of grammar rules, lack of sufficient vocabulary and pronunciation difficulties (2) cognitive challenges: self-related cognition, fear of making mistakes and apprehension of others' evaluation, and (3) social factors: presentation in the classroom or in public and the role of teachers in the classroom. Furthermore, despite various solutions identified in this study and described in earlier studies, language anxiety appears to persist in language classrooms. However, it is possible that proper implementation of these measures can lessen language anxiety to a significant level, even if they are unable to totally eliminate it.

Conclusion

This study shows that ESL learners from Mindanao State University-Marawi tend to maintain enough self-confidence and balanced emotions toward English language learning on communication tasks, tests, and English classes. It appears that their anxiety is just enough to keep them from becoming overly nervous or overly calm, which could prevent them from achieving ultimate language acquisition success. However, despite the neutrality of anxiety from the three components, the findings also show that ESL students have a high anxiety on the Fear of Negative Evaluation. This means that ESL students worry on how others perceive them. Because of their fear, these ESL students have a low self-perception, which has a negative impact on their language learning output. Educators should use this understanding to alleviate their ESL students' concerns, coach them through their anxiety, and provide good qualitative feedback to help them improve their self-esteem. Worde (2003 as cited in Mamhot et. al., 2013, p. 228) suggests that, for starters, the classroom should have a relaxed atmosphere. Students should not be intimidated with activities and instructors should initiate motivation settings before a learning activity.

Furthermore, the presence of English language anxiety must be acknowledged and appropriately treated in order for language instruction to be effective. Language instructors must be aware of the existence of English language anxiety in order to support students in language learning and increase their confidence in using the language. Language instructors might change their teaching technique to create a less dangerous and intimidating learning environment by acknowledging its presence. Overemphasis on grammar can induce anxiety when students try to communicate, therefore language instructors should give students more time before speaking and encourage them to make mistakes as part of the learning process.

In general, educators have two options when dealing with anxious students: 1) they can help them learn to cope with the existing anxiety- provoking situation; or 2) they can make the learning context less stressful (Hortwitz et. al., 1986). But before either option is viable, the teacher must first acknowledge the existence of second language anxiety. Teachers probably have seen in their students many or all of the negative effects of anxiety discussed in this study, extremely anxious students are highly motivated to avoid engaging in the classroom activities they fear most, they may appear simply unprepared or indifferent. Therefore, teachers should always consider the possibility that anxiety is responsible for the student behaviors discussed here before attributing poor student performance solely to lack of ability, inadequate background, or poor motivation (Hortwitz et. al., 1986).

This study has made a number of significant contributions. First, it addressed a research gap in language anxiety and the need for local research, notably including multicultural and varied learners. The study of ESL learners' challenges with English language learning, particularly in the Philippines, is still in its early stages. Researchers should be more inquisitive about the condition of learners from various individuals as well as the problems they face in coping with the dynamic world of learning, keeping in mind the changes and developments in educational frameworks. At the very least, this study has taken a step forward in this research project. Second, it added to the body of information in the field of language anxiety research by revealing ESL students' experiences with English language anxiety as well as their suggested coping mechanisms. Third, this study provided valuable implications and recommendations based on the findings, which would give English educators more ideas on how to improve their teaching practices, particularly in multicultural classrooms.

References

- Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Hortwitz, Hortwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78(2), 155-168. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/329005>

- Akbari, M. & Sadeghi, M. R. (2013). Foreign language learning anxiety: The case of Iranian Kurdish-Persian bilinguals. *International Research Journal of Applied and Basic Sciences*, 4(9), 2517-2525. Retrieved from https://irjabs.com/files_site/paperlist/
- Berowa, A. M. C. (2012). Factors affecting job enabling English Proficiency (JEEP) Program student's willingness to communicate in English. The Asian Conference on Language Learning Official Conference Proceedings, and Proceedings of the International Conference on Language, Literature and Culture, Osaka, Japan.
- Berowa, A. M. C. (2016a). The nose-bleed syndrome: A study on the attitude of the college students towards English language learning and their linguistic self-confidence in a multi-cultural context. *JPAIR Multidisciplinary Research*, 24, 92-110.
- Berowa, A. M. C. (2016b). English language use among oral communication Meranao students and their language learning orientations: The MSU Marawi Case. *The Online Journal of New Horizon in Education*, 6 (4), 75-79.
- Berowa, A. M. (2018). Levels of language anxiety toward English: A sample from Davao del Norte. *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education*, 8(3), 118-128. Retrieved from <https://www.tojned.net/journals/tojned/articles/v08i03/v08i03-12.pdf>
- Berowa, A. M. C., Devanadera, A., & David, S. O. (2018). Attitude toward English among Vietnamese students in the Philippines. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 20 (2), 6-19.
- Berowa, A. M. C., & Agbayani, R. S. (2019). The MTBMLE Policy: Attitudes among teachers on the ground. *The Asian EFL Journal*, 21 (2.3), 123-141.
- Hortwitz, E., Hortwitz, M. & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125-132. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/327317>
- Jugo, R. (2020). Language anxiety in focus: The case of Filipino undergraduate teacher education learners. *Hindawi Education Research International*, 1-8. doi: 10.1155/2020/7049837
- Kayaoglu, M. N. & Saglamel, H. (2013). Students' perceptions of language anxiety in speaking classes. *Journal of History Culture and Art Research*, 2(2), 142-160. doi: 10.7596/taksad.v2i2.245
- Malik, S., Qin, H., & Oteir, I. (2021). Perceived psychological, linguistic, and socio-cultural obstacles: An investigation of English communication apprehension in EFL learners. *International Journal of Instruction*, 14(4), 733-752. doi: 10.29333/iji.2021.14442a
- Mamhot, A. M., Martin, M. H., & Masangya, E. (2013). A comparative study on the language anxiety of ESL and EFL learners. *Philippine ESL Journal*, 10, 200-231.
- MSU-Annual Report (2007). Retrieved from <https://next.msumain.edu.ph/about-msu-2/>
- Rathnayke, D. (n.d.). *Using English-language movies to develop speaking and listening skills of ESL learners* (Pasdunrata National College of Education, Sri Lanka). Retrieved from https://ielcon.weebly.com/uploads/4/2/3/4/42343687/5_dulani_using_english_language_movies_to_develop_speaking_and_listening_skill.pdf
- Sadiq, J. M. (2017). Anxiety in English language learning: A case study of English language learners in Saudi Arabia. *Canadian Center of Science and Education*, 10(7), 1-7. doi: 10.5539/elt.v10n7p1
- Salim, W. I. W., Subramaniam, V., & Termizi, A. A. (2017). *International Journal of Languages, Literature and Linguistics*, 3(1), 5-12. doi: 10.18178/ijll.2017.3.1.101
- Tanveer, M. (2007). Investigation of the factors that cause language anxiety for ESL/EFL learners in learning speaking skills and the influence it casts on communication in the target language. *ResearchGate*, 1-92. doi: 10.13140/RG.2.1.1995.1129
- Zheng, Y. (2008). Anxiety and second/ foreign language learning revisited. *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*, 1(1), 1-12.

PROBLEM BASED LEARNING; TEACHER AND STUDENT ROLES

Gökhan Koşer

gokhankoser20202020@gmail.com

<https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0822-0035>

Akdeniz Karpaz University, Faculty of Education

ABSTRACT

Different learning strategies, approaches and models based on student-centered and active learning have been included in the teaching-learning process. One of these learning approaches is the problem-based learning approach. The problem-based learning approach is defined as an experiential learning approach that is prearranged within the framework of the explanation and solution of real life-related problems. This research examines the concept of problem-based learning process. In the study carried out with the document analysis method, which is one of the qualitative research methods, the relevant literature was examined and the findings were discussed. As a result of the research, it was concluded that the problem-based learning process should be well understood by the students and that the teacher should provide the student's learning with methods such as encouragement and hints in this process.

Keywords: Problem-based learning, education, teacher, student

Introduction

In order for today's students to benefit from the teaching and learning processes in the most efficient way and to provide effective learning, the need to change the teaching-learning styles has arisen (Serçemeli, 2016). Teacher-centered education with traditional methods, where the teacher conveys the information (the wise man on the stage) and the student listens to the teacher and is content with the information given by the teacher; it is insufficient for the students of the new age, does not attract the attention of the students and reduces their motivation to learn (Reschly & Christenson, 2006). In addition, in teacher-centered education approaches, students' passive listening and contentment with only the information conveyed to them; it limits their learning, thinking, questioning and producing (Woods, 2012).

It negatively affects students' in-depth and meaningful learning throughout their school life, and due to the lack of these skills in their after-school lives, solving the problems they may encounter in their social and business life, working in cooperation with different people, being open to criticism from their business and social environment and having a positive critical perspective. This causes them to have difficulties in terms of communication (Bashir, 2013). For this reason, while the education system and curricula have been organized in recent years, innovative educational approaches have been adopted, in which different methods, techniques and tools are used, in which students will benefit from the process at the highest level.

The use of student-centered education in course designs will increase students' excitement, motivation, interest and participation in the course, making it easier for what is learned to be permanent and to be transferred to life (Aypay & Eryılmaz, 2011). Thus, by ensuring that students take an active role in accessing information, thinking, criticizing, discussing and problem solving in the lessons, in-depth learning of the subject covered during the lesson will be realized (Metzler & Mc Cullick, 2008). The view that student-centered education is the most effective approach for teaching and learning processes in many countries, especially in the last 20 years, has come to the fore (Hattie, 2012; Le Ha, 2014). In the constructivist approach, which has been adopted and used in our education system since the beginning of the 2000s, the student-centered education approach is dominant. A teacher who plans according to student-centered education should have a full command of the approach, including his/her own roles.

It has been stated that the role of the teacher in student-centered education should function as a facilitator and move from being the wise on the stage to the next guide (Goodyear & Dudley, 2015). By increasing the motivation and positive attitudes of the learners, the problem-based learning approach aims to provide individuals with the skills of metacognition, self-learning, critical thinking and effective problem-solving, using the knowledge acquired by the learners, and learning through cooperation (Hmelo-Silver, 2004).

This research will contribute to the lack of knowledge in the literature about the problem-based learning approach in student-centered education, and aims to reveal the effects of these actions on the problem-solving process.

Problem Based Learning

There is a philosophy on which every learning-teaching approach is based and a theory that is connected to this philosophy (Woods, 2012). The problem-based learning approach is also based on the understanding of learning by doing, which is one of John Dewey's views (Özgen ve Pesen, 2007). The problem-based learning approach is structured according to the pragmatic philosophy. Pragmatic philosophy is associated with instrumentalism and empiricism (Aslihan & Mustafa, 2014). According to John Dewey, everything changes, nothing stays the same. Information is true as long as it is useful for action. Having right thoughts does not mean having a theoretical knowledge; action is to obtain tools. The purpose of man in acquiring knowledge is not to explain nature, but to recreate it. This kind of knowledge can be obtained by confronting a problem and producing a solution (Sönmez, 2015).

The purpose of the problem-based learning approach is stated by different researchers as follows: According to Çoban (2011), the purpose of the PBL approach is; to give students self-learning skills. According to Korkmaz (2004), the aims of the problem-based learning approach are;

- The student's self-assessment skills before and after the learning-teaching process,
- The student should have a broad, flexible and in-depth knowledge,
- The student's ability to think critically,
- It is the student's development of interaction and communication skills with the group.

In the problem-based learning process, the teacher prepares the problem or scenario, motivates the students, checks the students' solutions, and helps the students to overcome these problems when they have problems at the point of progress for the solution. Therefore, the role of the teacher is very important in the problem-based learning process (Sinap, 2017).

It is seen in the literature that there are at least three different perspectives on problem-based learning (Schmidt et al., 2011): the first is problem-based learning as an “investigation process”, the second is “learning to learn” with problem-based learning, and the third is problem-based learning. It is a “cognitive constructivist” approach that defines the purpose of helping people build models. Fortunately, all three perspectives agree on the defining features of problem-based learning.

Problems and Scenarios in Problem-Based Learning Approach

The problem is defined as the act of choosing among possible ideas or solutions in any situation where we do not have a solution response (Demirtaş & Dönmez, 2008). According to Un Acıkgoz (2007), a problem is a situation that the organism cannot solve with its current reactions and cannot get out of it. Morgan (2011) defines the problem as the conflict situation in which the individual encounters frustration in reaching a goal. Based on these definitions, the complex and intractable situations encountered in daily life can be defined as problems. The successful and appropriate application of the problem-based learning approach depends on the structure of the problem situations to be used (Tosun & Taşkesenligil, 2013). In the problem-based learning approach, the problem should be used as a means of motivating the student and reaching the goal, it should be chosen from real life, it should be compatible with individual needs, it is complex, requires research and information gathering, is experimental, does not have a single correct answer, open-ended, develops high-level thinking skills, unstructured quality (Kazemi & Ghoraiishi, 2012).

In the problem-based learning approach, the basic educational tool is scenarios. Problems are usually presented in the form of scenarios in which events are described. The main purpose of the scenarios is to reach the learning goals that the student is expected to achieve within certain processes (Wijnia, Loyens, & Derous, 2011). Through scenarios, students encounter various problems, produce ways to solve the problem, and always want to learn (Carrio et. al., 2011).

Problem-Based Learning Teacher and Student Roles

The main role of the teacher in the problem-based learning approach is to guide students and help them learn. The teacher is not in the position of the sage on the stage, that is, in front of the students and giving information. The teacher in the process; they have to prepare and present the problem, interact with the students, monitor the students and take notes about the process and guide the students for the solution (Strobel & Van Barneveld, 2009). In the basic definitions of problem-based learning, as mentioned above, it is stated that the teacher's intervention in the process will end the problem-based learning process and the teacher should not interfere with the solution. However, in the problem-based learning process, the teacher prepares the problem or scenario, motivates the students, checks the solutions of the students, and helps the students to overcome these problems when they have problems at the point of progress for the solution (Bada, 2015). Therefore, the role of the teacher

is very important in the problem-based learning process. According to Ali (2019), in problem-based learning, the teacher is in the position of facilitator, mentor and guide.

In problem-based learning, the aim is for students to take an active and problem-solving role in the process, in accordance with the student-centered education approach, from the passive receiver role in the traditional method. In the process, students try to solve the problem by working as a group and having group discussions. In problem-based learning, the number of people in the group should be 5-7 (Aidoo et. al, 2016).

In the problem-based learning approach, the most important role falls to the student. The student examines the problem given by the educator and produces solutions for the problem by using both his previous knowledge and the knowledge obtained by researching. By taking responsibility in the group, he helps his friends in solving the problem. Prepares reports for the solution of the problem. He evaluates both himself and his friends by making observations during the solution process of the problem (Estrada, 2017).

In the problem-based learning approach, students construct by combining their old knowledge with their new knowledge. They gain the competence to use this information in similar life situations. Students take on various roles in the group and continue their studies in accordance with this role. Thus, they both take responsibility and make choices. In this way, students develop their self-control skills (Gürten, 2020).

Conclusion and Recommendations

The expectation of the modern education and business world in the 21st century is not only with the knowledge of its learners; They are individuals who can integrate the knowledge they have acquired with basic life skills, cope with the real problem situations they encounter, and gain these characteristics. In problem-based learning, since students are centered, produced, questioned, solved problems and accessed information themselves, these skills are acquired and transferred to life.

Although it is emphasized that the teacher will not provide specific guidance in the problem-based learning process and the students will be encouraged to think independently of the teacher's instruction, he clearly stated that the teacher should offer advice and guidance when the students are stuck or need other help in the learning processes. In problem-based learning applications, there may be situations such as not being able to understand the problems by the students, slow progress of the process and sometimes stopping. It has been stated that at these moments, the teacher should provide assistance to the students with the role of facilitator (Metzler, 2011). Teacher; It enables students to solve problems and advance their learning in the problem-based learning process by taking actions such as hints, feedback, praise, and encouragement.

More work is needed on problem-based learning and facilitator actions to manage students own learning. Since the solution will never be given by the teacher in the problem-based learning process, but will be found by the students, the solution can sometimes take a long time. While designing the lesson, the teacher should calculate the activities and time to be implemented.

References

- Aidoo, B., Boateng, S. K., Kissi, P. S. & Ofori, I. (2016). Effect of problem-based learning on students' achievement in chemistry. *Journal of Education and Practice*, 7(33), 103-108.
- Ali, S. S. (2019). Problem based learning: A student-centered approach. *English Language Teaching*, 12(5), 73–78. Doi: 10.5539/elt.v12n5p73
- Aslihan, K., & Mustafa, B. (2014). The Effect of Problem Based Learning Approach on Conceptual Understanding in Teaching of Magnetism Topics. *Eurasian Journal of Physics & Chemistry Education* 6(2), 110-122, 2014.
- Aypay, A. & Eryılmaz, A. (2011a). Lise Öğrencilerinin Derse Katılmaya Motive Olmaları ile Okul Tükenmişliği Arasındaki İlişkinin İncelenmesi. *Mehmet Akif Ersoy Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 21, 26-44.
- Bada, S. O. (2015). Constructivism learning theory: A paradigm for teaching and learning. *Journal of Research & Method in Education*, 5(6), 66-70. Doi: 10.9790/7388-05616670
- Bashir, A. (2013). *An exploratory case study of 21st century skills development among educators and students engaged in an online collaborative educational and cultural exchange program* (Published doctoral dissertation). Graduate School at Appalachian State University. United States.
- Carrio, M., Larramona, P., Banos, J. E. & Perez, J. (2011). The effectiveness of the hybrid problem-based learning approach in the teaching of biology: A comparison with lecture-based learning. *Journal of Biological Education*, 45(4), 229-235.
- Çoban, A. (2011). Probleme dayalı öğrenme. B. Oral (Ed.), In *Öğrenme öğretme kuram ve yaklaşımları* (pp. 479-508). Ankara: Pegem Academy..

- Demirtaş, H. & Dönmez, B. (2008). Ortaöğretimde görev yapan öğretmenlerin problem çözme becerilerine ilişkin algıları. *İnönü Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 9(16), 177-198.
- Estrada, L. (2017) Using problem-based learning to develop an innovative fitness unit. *A Journal for Physical and Sport Educators*, 30: 4, 54-56. Doi: 10.1080/08924532.2017.1321450.
- Goodyear, V. & Dudley, D. (2015). I'm a facilitator of learning! Understanding what teachers and students do within student-centered physical education models. *Quest* 67(3): 274–289. Doi: 10.1080/00336297.2015.1051236.
- Gürten, E. (2020). Probleme dayalı öğrenme. Ö. Demirel (Ed.), In *Eğitimde yeni yönelimler* (pp. 83-94). Ankara: Pegem Academy.
- Hattie, J. (2012). *Visible learning for teachers: Maximizing impact on learning*. London, UK: Routledge. Doi: 10.4324/9780203181522.
- Hmelo-Silver, C. E. (2004). Problem-based learning: What and how do students learn? *Educational Psychology Review*, 235-266. Retrieved from: <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1023/B:EDPR.0000034022.16470.f3>
- Kazemi, F. & Ghoraiishi, M. (2012). Comparison of problem-based learning approach and traditional teaching on attitude, misconceptions and mathematics performance of university students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 3852-3856
- Korkmaz, H. (2004). *Fen ve teknoloji eğitiminde alternatif değerlendirme yaklaşımları*. Ankara: Yeryüzü Publications.
- Le Ha, P. (2014). The politics of naming: Critiquing “learner-centred” and “teacher as facilitator” in English language and humanities classrooms. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Teacher Education*, 42, 392–405. Doi:10.1080/1359866X.2014.956048.
- Metzler, M.W., & McCullick, B.A. (2008). Introducing innovation to those who matter most–The P–12 pupils' perceptions of the Model-Based Instruction. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 27, 512–528. Doi: 10.1123/jtpe.27.4.512.
- Metzler, M. (2011). *Instructional models for physical education* (3rd ed.). Scottsdale, AZ: Holcomb Hathway.
- Morgan, C.T. (2011). Düşünme ve problem çözme. Sirel Karakaş ve Rükzan Eski (Ed.), In *Psikolojiye giriş* (Rükzan Eski) (pp.127-148). Konya: Education Academi Publications.
- Özgen, K. & Pesen, C. (2010). Probleme dayalı öğrenme (PDÖ) yaklaşımı ile işlenen matematik dersinde öğrencilerin problem çözme becerilerinin analizi. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi*, 40(186), 27-37.
- Reschly, A., & Christenson, S. L. (2006b). Research leading to a predictive model of dropout and completion among students with mild disabilities and the role of student engagement. *Remedial and Special Education*, 27, 276 – 292. Doi: 10.1177/07419325060270050301.
- Schmidt, H. G., Rotgans, J. I., & Yew, E. H. (2011). The process of problem-based learning: What works and why. *Medical Education*, (45) 792–806. Doi: 10.1111/j.1365-2923.2011.04035.x.
- Serçemeli, M. (2016). Muhasebe Eğitiminde Yeni Bir Yaklaşım Önerisi: Ters Yüz Edilmiş Sınıflar. *Muhasebe ve Finansman Dergisi*, (69)115-126. Erişim adresi: <https://dergipark.org.tr/en/download/article-file/427790>.
- Sönmez, V. (2015). *Eğitim felsefesi*. Ankara: Anı Yayıncılık.
- Strobel, J. ve Van Barneveld, A. (2009). When is PBL more effective? A metasynthesis of meta-analyses comparing PBL to conventional classrooms. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-based Learning*, 3(1), 44-58.
- Tosun, C. ve Taşkesenligil, Y. (2013). The effect of problem-based learning on undergraduate students' learning about solutions and their physical properties and scientific processing skills. *Chemistry Education Research and Practice*, 14(1), 36-50.
- Ün Açıkgöz, K. (2007). *Aktif öğrenme*. İzmir: Kanyılmaz Matbaası.
- Wijnia, L., Loyens, S. M. ve Derous, E. (2011). Investigating effects of problembased versus lecture-based learning environments on student motivation. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 36(2), 101-113.
- Woods, D. (2012). PBL: An evaluation of the effectiveness of authentic problem-based learning (aPBL). *Chemical Engineering Education*, 46(2), 135-144

PSYCHO-SOCIAL PROBLEMS CAUSED BY TECHNOLOGY ADDICTION

Demet KARAKARTAL

Faculty Of Education, American University Of Cyprus

d.karakartal@auc.edu.tr

Orcid:0000-0001-7890-8340.

ABSTRACT

The progress of technology can cause it to become an important part of our daily life and the correct use of technology makes life much easier; However, it is noteworthy that some negative effects such as 'addiction' also occur due to long-term and uncontrolled use. When the relevant literature is examined, it is seen that the concept of addiction is used especially to express substance addiction, but in recent years, various behavioral addictions as well as substance use can also take their place among the diagnostic books, and one of these behavioral addictions can be technology addiction. Technology addiction; excessive use of the internet and technological devices, inability to satisfy the desire to use, neglecting activities due to excessive use, excessive use harming social relations, using it as an escape tool from negative emotions and daily stresses, experiencing problems in reducing and stopping use, It can be defined as being tense and nervous in situations and lying about the duration and amount of use. Related to this, technology addiction; the It can adversely affect mental health, and may also impair his profession, academic life, family relations, identity development and social relations. In this study, it is aimed to examine the psycho-social problems that occur as a result of technology addiction.

INTRODUCTION

With each passing day, technology becomes an important part of our daily life, and technology addiction concept emerges as technology starts to turn into a goal rather than a tool that will make our life easier (Young, 1999). In recent years, it is seen that substance addictions, which include various behavioral addictions as well as substance use, are evaluated within the scope of chemical addictions, but technology addiction is evaluated in the category of behavioral addictions. Technology addiction can be a group of behavioral addictions that are not substance-based but can carry the findings defined for addiction. Behavioral addiction; It can be a type of addiction that can be characterized by a certain behavioral pattern, and it can appear with both physical, psychological and social consequences (DiClemente, 2003). As a result of a research on this subject, behavioral addiction; It shows that there are similarities with substance addiction in terms of genetic, biological, relapse course and phenomenological point of view. It reveals that it can cause psychological and physical deterioration and reduce social, economic and occupational functionality (Petry,20216). In addition, technology addiction; the person; This study aims to examine the psycho-social problems that occur as a result of technology addiction.

TECHNOLOGY ADDICTION

Technology takes its place in every aspect of human life (Meral 2018; Pendergrass 2017; Anlı and Taş, 2018), innovations brought by technological developments facilitate people's daily lives and contribute to their adaptation to changing world conditions (Chayko 2008, Çakır and Oğuz 2017,. et al. 2018) but it can also bring technology addiction, which is one of the biggest problem areas of today (Pugh 2017). Technology addiction; Excessive use related to the use of the internet and technological devices, inability to satisfy the desire to use, neglecting daily activities due to excessive use, excessive use harming social relations, using it as an escape tool from negative emotions and daily stresses, experiencing problems in reducing and stopping use, possible use It can be defined as the emergence of a state of being tense and nervous when there is no use, and the emergence of lying about the duration and amount of use (DiClemente, 2003), which can manifest itself with symptoms similar to substance addiction (withdrawal, desire to reach, etc.). In order to talk about technology addiction, which is a type of behavioral addiction; Playing online or offline games is a priority in a person's life, it is more valuable than anything else, the person loses control over the behavior of playing digital games, the person cannot stay away despite the presence of negative physical, mental and social consequences, cannot go to school or work, cannot go to school or work, may have to experience problems and disrupt family life, and the specified features; It can lead to some remarkable deterioration in personal, social, familial, educational, professional and other areas of life (Turel and Serenko, 2011).

REASONS FOR TECHNOLOGY ADDICTION

When the relevant literature is examined, it can be seen that there are many studies on the causes of technology addiction. E.g; Taylan and Işık (2015) state that the most important factor in internet addiction is the duration of internet use, while Çiftçi (2018); The increase in daily internet usage time and internet time indicates that addiction to social media increases. A study on this subject reveals that the increase in the time that participants spend daily on social media is one of the determining factors on their social media addiction (Aktan, 2018). However, as a result of Taş (2018)'s research on "Internet Addiction and Psychological Symptoms in

Adolescents in terms of Various Variables"; reveals that depression and anxiety disorders can be an effective factor in the person's orientation to the Internet. Engelberg and Sjöberg (2004) stated that individuals with weak social skills and being lonely tend to use the internet more frequently, as well as people who have problems in their social relationships and who do not receive adequate social support from their environment, can develop internet addiction in order to meet their needs in the field of interpersonal relations and to create alternative social channels. they specify. Aslan and Yazıcı (2016) state that loneliness is one of the most important factors that trigger internet addiction. The results of the research conducted by Ayas and Horzum (2013) show that the children of parents who show negligent attitudes in internet use; It is revealed that parents who exhibit authoritarian, permissive and democratic attitudes in internet use are more internet addicted than their children. As it is seen, it is not possible to talk about a single reason regarding the causes of technology addiction, but it is possible to state that addiction can occur with the combination of many factors.

PSYCHO-SOCIAL PROBLEMS CAUSED BY TECHNOLOGY ADDICTION

Technology addiction can have many negative psycho-social consequences. Among these negative results; excessive and unintended use of technology devices, children; It can negatively affect their ability to take responsibility and pose a risk in terms of their emotional development, negatively affect family communication, peer communication and parent-child communication, and the use of social media outside of its intended purpose can negatively affect spouses the interaction between (Güleç, 2018). Especially on children; It can have negative effects such as delay in speech, socialization problems, sleep problems, crying, irritability, and children watching violent television programs; Although it does not lead them to violence on its own, it can encourage and increase violence. The results of a qualitative research on this subject; It has been revealed that children and young people who watch television programs on the themes of power and aggression normalize aggression and violence and use violence as a way of problem solving by trying to solve the problems they encounter through violence (Tutkun, Demirtaş, Açıköz, Demirel, & Teksal, 2017). In addition, smartphone addiction; It can cause attention deficit and hyperactivity disorder, depression, anxiety, and social phobia (Kuyucu, 2017). It can have negative effects such as suicidal thoughts. (Akbiyik and Kestel, 2016).

CONCLUSION

The progress of technology can cause it to become an important part of our daily life and the correct use of technology makes life much easier; However, it is noteworthy that some negative effects such as 'addiction' also occur due to long-term and uncontrolled use. When the relevant literature is examined, it is seen that technology addiction is related to the use of the internet and technological devices, excessive use, inability to satisfy the desire to use, neglect of activities due to excessive use, excessive use harming social relations, using it as an escape tool from negative emotions and daily stresses, reducing use and It can be defined as experiencing problems in stopping, being nervous and nervous when use is not possible, and lying about the duration and amount of use. Related to this, technology addiction; the person; It can adversely affect mental health, and may also impair his profession, academic life, family relations, identity development and social relations.

REFERENCES

- Akbiyik, C., Kestel, M. (2016) Siber zorbalığın öğrencilerin akademik, sosyal ve duygusal durumları üzerindeki etkisinin incelenmesi. *mersin Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 12(3)844-59
- Aktan, E. (2018). Üniversite öğrencilerinin sosyal medya Bağımlılık Düzeylerinin Çeşitli Değişkenlere göre İncelenmesi. *Erciyes İletişim Dergisi*, 5(4) 405-21.
- Anlı, G., Taş, İ. (2018) Ergenler için oyun bağımlılığı ölçeği kısa formunun geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması. *Electronic Turkish Studies*, 13(11) 189-203.
- Aslan, E., Yazıcı, A.(2016).Üniversite Öğrencilerinde İnternet Bağımlılığı ve İlişkili Sosyodemografik Faktörler. *Klinik Psikiyatri*. 19,109-17.
- Ayas, T.,Horzum,B. (2013). İlköğretim öğrencilerinin internet bağımlılığı ve aile internet tutumu. *Türk Psikolojik Danışma ve Rehberlik Dergisi*, 4(39)46-57.
- Chayko, M. (2008). *Portable Communities: The social dynamics of online and mobile connectedness*. New York, SUNY Press.
- Çakır, Ö., Oğuz, E.(2017) Lise öğrencilerinin yalnızlık düzeyleri ile akıllı telefon bağımlılığı arasındaki ilişki. *Mersin Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 13, 418-429.
- Çiftçi, H. (2018). Üniversite Öğrencilerinde Sosyal medya Bağımlılığı. *Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 7(4),0-0.
- DiClemente, C.C. (2003). *Addiction and Change. How Addictions Develop and Addicted People Recover*; Guilford Press: New York.
- Engelberg, E., Sjöberg, L. (2004). Emotional intelligence, affect intensity, and social adjustment. *Personality and Individual Differences*. 37, 533-42.

- Güleç, V.(2018). Aile ilişkilerinin sosyal medyayla birlikte çöküşü. *Yeni medya Elektronik Dergisi*, 2(2)105-20.
- Pendergrass, WS. (2017). Phubbing: communication in the attention economy. In Proceedings of the Conference on Information Systems Applied Researc., Austin: Texas.
- Kuyucu, M.(2017). Gençlerde akıllı telefon kullanımı ve akıllı telefon bağımlılığı sorunsalı: Akıllı telefon (kolik). *Üniversite Gençliği. Global Media Journal TR Edition*. 7(14)320-51.
- Meral, G. (2018). Is digital addiction a reason for obesity?. *Annals of Medical Research*, 25, 472-475.
- Petry, N., M. (2016). Introduction to Behavioral Addictions. In: N. M Petry(ed) Behavioral Addictions, Oxford University Press, Newyork.
- Pugh, S (2017) Investigating the relationship between smartphone addiction, social anxiety, self-esteem, age & gender (BA Hons in Psychology thesis). Dublin, Dublin Business School.
- Taş İ. Ergenlerde İnternet Bağımlılığı ve Psikolojik Belirtilerin Çeşitli Değişkenler Açısından İncelenmesi *Anemonmuş Alparslan Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, 6(1) 31-41.
- Turel, O., Serenko, A. (2011). Integrating technology addiction and use: An empirical investigation of online auction users. *mIS Quarterly*, 35(4) 1043-106.
- Tutkun, Ö., Demirtaş, Z., Açıkgoz, T., Demirel, T. S.(2017). Televizyon ve dijital oyunların ortaokul öğrencilerinin şiddete eğilimine etkisi. *PESA Uluslararası Sosyal Araştırmalar Dergisi*, 3(2)83-91.
- Young, K. (1999). "Internet Addiction: Symptoms, Evaluation, AndTreatment" Book chapter published in L. Vande Creek ve T. Jackson (Eds.). *Innovations in Clinical Practice: A Source Book*. Sarasota, Professional Resource Press.

THE EFFECTIVENESS OF A GROUP COUNSELING PROGRAM ON DEVELOPING DECISION MAKING SKILL OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES STUDENTS AT COUNSELING AND MENTAL HEALTH DEPARTMENT

Saleh Daheri

<salehdaheri@yahoo.com>

ABSTRACT

The study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of a Group Counseling Program on developing decision making skill of Educational Sciences students at Counseling and Mental Health department at the World Islamic Science & Education University. The sample of the study which consisted of 40 male and female students was distributed to two groups; experiment and control . For collecting data, a group counselling program (10 sessions; two sessions for the experimental group every week was used. Results showed statistical significant differences between the experimental and control groups in the lost scale in decision making skills scale in favor of the experimental group.

Keywords: group counselling , program, decision making , mental health, WISE university

1. INTRODUCTION

Decision making process has a great significance in many fields especially the field of psychological and counselling science. This process affects the students' educational and psychological situation , particularly the post graduates students. The postgraduate students are a very important educational, psychological and social sector as they are distinguished scientifically. Therefore, they should be rehabilitated and trained to make decisions in different social and scientific sectors. In fact, such training will develop the students' personalities and prepare them well to have an effective role in the sustainable development, in addition to deepen the values of group and voluntary work in the different areas in the society. Moreover, the student will acquire variety of personal and social skills that enable them to deal with life affairs and its stresses and their leadership will be enhanced .

Countries and societies have paid great attention to the postgraduate students and developing their personalities; psychologically, socially and mentally. The postgraduate students are considered the greatest capital to any country that seeks for growth and excellence. So the process of training and preparing the students cognitively, emotionally and behaviorally aims to enable them to perform their roles(Al-Daheri, 2011).

The students need skills of decision making that help them to take responsibility and be independent. Also, these skills enable the students to get benefit of the past experience so they can avoid their mistakes(Al-Bakri,2007).

Moreover, decision making is considered as one of life' requirement especially in the youth stage as the individual face difficulties and situations the required decisions making. Some people complain that they were unable to make decisions while others can make easily. Decision making process is a human skill that has direct and effective impact on the individual's success at life (Al-Tarawna, 2006).

The individual's life consists of a series of decisions that extends from easy and simple decisions to more difficult and complicated ones. These decisions affect the individual's life quality; a decision may lead to the appropriate adaptation which causes the feeling of happiness or it may lead to suffering and feeling miserable. Therefore, decision making in the appropriate time is one of the difficult things facing people in their practical and family life. Such difficulty could be attributed to lack of all information concerning the decision that should be taken, or fear of bad estimation to some issues which make the process of decision making more complicated (Abdalhameed and Abdallah, 2007)

Making decision process is a mental and cognitive process that includes a set of cognitive skills . it is possible to train the students on these skills. Indeed , the training process affects the individuals' life ; professionally , personally and socially .accordingly, this study aimed to raise the university's skills of the social communication and decision making through preparing a training program for developing social communication and decision making skills and to investigate its effect on developing these skills.

PROBLEM OF THE STUDY :

The study's ideas stems from the researcher's notice of the university students' low degree of making decision skill which was obvious in their hesitation in making decisions. so the research prepared a counselling program of decision making kills based on counselling sessions taught the student the process of making decisions.

Significance of the study:

The universities in general seek to set plan and guided programs towards the students so as to prepare them for life to be effective members in the society by developing , building and leading it through acquiring many skills as making decisions skills . it is known that decision making is an important skill helps the young to be social leaders in the future

The study soak to answer the following major question and its sub questions :

1. What is the effectiveness of a Group Counseling Program on developing decision making skill of Educational Sciences students at Counseling and Mental Health department at the World Islamic Science & Education University.

1.1 Are there any statistical differences at ($\alpha=0.05$) between the means of the performance of the experimental and control groups in the decision making skill scale attributed to the counselling program?

1.2 Are there any statistical differences at ($\alpha=0.05$) between the means of the performance of the experimental and control groups in the decision making skill scale attributed to the gender variable?

Terms of the study:

- counselling program: it is a set of planned technical procedures and methods include preparation, organization , supervision , evaluation and following up. This program is limited to a set of specified procedures , special tools within specific time for achieving a purpose(Al-Daheri, 2011).
- Decision making skill: it is a clear and planned process to choose alternative to achieve a specific goal(Al-Daheri, 2011). In this study, it means the degree which the students get in the making decision scale used in the study.
- Students of Education Science College –department of counselling and psychological health: they are students in their last years in this major (counselling and psychological health).

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND PREVIOUS STUDIES

2.1 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND :

Concept of Decision Making : scientists of administration and psychology agreed that decision making means that there is a set of alternatives that require comparison between them and choose the bet one. So this comparison process is the core of the decision making process and without it no decision is taken(Tawfeeq&Soliman, 1999). The concept “ Decision” is a Latin word means separating or cutting. In other words, it means preferring one thing more than another. Decision making is a type of behavior that ends the thinking process and consideration of other alternatives. (RizqAllah,2002).

Decision making process is a dynamic process includes multi interactions in its different levels starting from level of design and ending with decision making and its implementation. In all the levels of decision making process , there is a careful and accurate choice to one of the available alternatives. Making decision skill is a chain of behaviors, responses and procedures done by the individual that lead to choose the best alternative. Some studies and research state that making decision process in a systematic process consisted of sequenced levels as planning, search, choice , implementation and following up.

Factors affecting decision making process:

- Factors concerning information: they include lack of information that is resulted from lack of knowledge of the location of the information, process of evaluating it, the existence of inappropriate information or inaccurate ones. Accordingly, the decision makers will be confused.
 - Personal factors: they include competitive motives that lead to decision retraction or postponement, Low self-esteem and self-efficacy, multiple talents, capabilities and interests, conflict or opposition with others and conflict of values, interests, and abilities.
 - Factors related to the shortage of knowledge and experience in making decision:
1. Factors related to lack of experience and knowledge in decision making as lack of decision making skills with limited experience in this field , in addition to low self-esteem in the individual’s capabilities in taking decisions or his fear of the decision’s process in general(Al-Daheri,2008).

Stages of making decision process:

- Identify the decision: analyzing , understanding and identifying the problem facilitates making the appropriate decision that leads to good results.
- Look for alternatives: the decision maker investigates and look for different alternatives (solutions) to solve a specific problem.
- Evaluate the alternatives : it is necessary to evaluate objectively the alternatives:

1. Choosing the appropriate alternative : after identifying the alternatives for problem solution in light of facts and available information , these alternatives are arranged according to their advantages, disadvantages, costs and results. Then the process of choosing the appropriate alternative starts.
2. Decision implementation: some believe that decision maker's role ended by choosing the appropriate alternative for solving the problem. In short, the decision makers should study the problem and identify it accurately , in addition to look for alternative solutions that help in solving the problem

Models of decision making :

The models of decision making can be classified into two groups : (Saed, 2012):

1. Descriptive models: it is a model describes the way that the individual use to deal with a problem. These models agree that the individual's mission in dealing with a problem is to identify the decision's goal and the available alternatives and their arrangement in terms of achieving the goal.
2. Prescriptive models: they are models that help in getting to the ideal decision.

First : Descriptive models

- 1) Teedman & Ohara Model: this model indicates that decision making process consists of two stages; anticipation and implementation. This model confirms that anticipation stage is more important than implementation stage in decision making process. In the anticipation stage, there is a continuous thinking in identifying alternatives and their results followed by continuous evaluation for the alternatives in light of their advantages and disadvantages so as to come up with the appropriate one.
- 2) Vroom model: concepts of anticipation and power are used to describe decision making process which starts by the anticipation of the possibility of any correlation between a specific event and its result . Then the results are evaluated in terms of their efficiency in achieving more beneficial outcomes and one is selected .

3) Hilton Model: it consists of basic elements as introductions, belief and the individual's expectation of himself and the world which are affected by the individual's needs , attitudes and plans.

4) Gillette Model: the good decision needs sufficient amount of information about the situation and accepted result. The model classified the information under three systems :

- 1- prediction : it includes the available alternatives and its related outcome in addition to the possibilities that connect the alternative with the outcomes.
- 2- evaluation: it includes all relative details of the outcome and their hierarchal order according to degree of significance.
- 3- Decision Criterion: it includes all the rules that take place in the evaluation process.
- 4) Vanish Model: decision making process has six levels:

1- identifying the contradiction that showed inappropriateness of the current situation with the new requirements so the individual starts to update the problem.

2- personal intervention where the reasons of contradiction are identified .

3- identifying the elements of decision making process as situation decision, information and the available alternatives.

4- comparing between the alternatives through evaluating all the available alternatives and its results and sequencing them hierarchal manner in light of the individual's efficient scales .

4- Implementation: the alternative which was chosen, was activated.

5- evaluation : in this level the alternative is evaluated in light of the final goal.

It can be noticed that there is a difference in the mechanism of choosing the alternatives' Gillette and Froom arrange alternative according to their significance, then they choose the best , whereas , others as Hilton and Tedmann set a criterion for choosing the appropriate alternative.

Second : Prescriptive models are models that help in getting to the ideal decision:

- 1) Linear models: Franklin is the first one who suggested to use the linear models in decision making based on lack of sufficient information and he recommended writing the opinions which are with and against the decision. Also he put relative scales for the
- 2) Preparation and following up model: it includes two levels for information collection and feedback (Al-Daheri,2018).

2.2 PREVIOUS STUDIES:

The study of Kromblets(1982) aimed to identify the effect of a training program of rational decision on the quality of the professional decisions taken by the students. The sample of the study consisted of 147 male and female students in three colleges in California , distributed into two groups; experimental and control. The training program aimed at teaching the students the basics of decision making as the program includes practical activities to implement the steps of decision making . results showed that training improved the experimental group's quality of professional decision where there was no change in the control group.

Al-Samarat's study(2009) aimed to identify the impact of problem solving strategy in teaching National Education course in developing the decision-making skills of the tenth basic grade students in Jordan. The sample which consisted of 141 male and female students was distributed to two groups' experimental and control. Results revealed the superiority of the experimental group over the control group in decision skills development and the superiority of male over the females. Additionally , results showed lack of statistical differences between the achievement levels.

Al-quraan's study(2011) aimed at preparing the training program on decision making skill and investigating its effectiveness on the first secondary students. Also , it aimed at identifying the impact of gender and major variables on developing decision making level of the students. The sample of the study consisted of 222 male and female students representing the secondary schools at Jerash Governorate in Jordan. Results indicated lack of statistical significant differences between the male and females in decision making level in both experimental and control groups. Also results revealed a significant effect to the counselling program to the favor of the scientific stream.

To'ma conducted a study(2012) aimed to identify the children's ability in the primary stage in making decisions and taking responsibility in the fields related to their life in the school and at home .And the study aimed to identify the degree of difference between the male and females in decision making process. The sample of the study showed lack of statistical differences between males and females of sixth grade students in two different school in terms of social and economic level in Cairo. Results revealed lack of statistical significant differences between the males and female in the ability of decision making and taking responsibilities . while results also showed statistical significant differences in decision making and taking responsibilities according to the differences in the social and economic level in favor of students with high social and economic level.

And in his study, Abdallah(2006) investigated the effect of training program in group counselling based on the professional growth and decision making by the tenth grade students in Hebron. The study also aimed to measure the students' achievement and the parents' scientific level and their career in addition to their interaction with the program on the students' professional growth and decision making . The sample of the study consisted of 263 male and female students. Results showed statistical significant differences between the independent variables of the study.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Participants of the study:

The population of the study consisted of all the senior students in the counselling and mental health department at WISE university in Jordan for the year 2018=2019.The sample of the study which consisted of 40 male and female students was selected purposefully and distributed into two groups; experimental(N 20) and control(N20).

3.2 Instruments of the study:

- 1- Friedman's scale of decision making skills reviewing the literature.
- 2- The group counselling program (10 sessions; two sessions for the experimental group every week).

3.3 Variables of the study:

- Independent variable : grouping counselling program
- Dependent variables : making decision skills
- Median variables : gender

3.4 Limitation of the study:

1. Human limits: the study is limited to the students of Education sciences at counselling and mental health department .
2. Spatial limits : the study is limited to the Education Sciences college , department of counselling and mental health.
3. Time limits: the academic year 2018-2019, second semester .

4.4 Statistical treatment

Means and standard deviations were calculated for the two groups of the study in the scale of decision making . moreover, VARIANCE was used to identify the significance statistical differences between the means of the two groups , gender and interaction between the program and gender in decision making skills .

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

First question: are there statistical significant differences at ($\alpha=0.05$) between the means of the post-performance of the experimental and control groups in the decision making skills scale attributed to the counselling program and interaction between them?

To test this question, the means and the standard deviations for the two groups were calculated as it is shown in the following table.

Table .1: means and standard deviations of the experimental and control groups for the post performance of the decision making skills scale .

Group	Gender	M	Std
Experimental	Male 20	1.3,1333	7,7999
	female 20	110,2667	7,9952
	Total	106,70000	8,5668
Control	male 20	86,0000	4,9713
	female 20	85,1333	6,6854
	Total	85,5667	5,8054

Results showed apparent differences between the means of the experimental and control groups in the decision making skills scale with total performance for the control group (85.56) and standard deviation (5.80) . Also results showed the total performance of the males was (86.00) with standard deviation (4.97), whereas , the females total performance was (85.133) with standard deviation (6.68). According to the experimental group, results showed that the total performance of the male was (106.70) with standard deviation (8.56) and the males' total performance was (103.133) with standard deviation(7.79). additionally, the females l total performance was (110.26) with standard deviation (8.566).

To check the significance of this apparent differences between the means, Two-Way Analysis of variance was used as it is shown in table 2.

Table. 2: results of Two – Way ANOVA of the impact of the group counselling program and the interaction between them according to the group variable.

Source of variance	Sum of seq.	Fd	M /seq	F value	Sig.
group	6566,480	1	6566,480	132.889	0.000
Group	147,190	1	147,190	2,979	0.090
Group Gender	239,68	1	239,686	4,851	0,032
Error	2717,72	55	49,413		
Total	9804,933	59			

The previous table showed statistical significant differences at ($\alpha=0.05$) between the means of the experimental and control groups in decision making as F value was (132.889). table 2. Showed the mean of the post performance of the experimental group (1.6.70) was higher than the mean of the post performance of the control group(85.56) in decision making skills which indicates that the experimental group's decision making skills have increased in compared with the control group after the application of the counselling program. And this result is in agreement with Alsamarat's study(2011) which showed the efficiency of the counselling program for developing the scientific skills and the ability to make decisions.

This result could be attributed to the real desire of the participants to acquire the decision making skills and the efficiency of the counselling program sessions as it includes behavioral , cognitive and counselling techniques which are easy to apply. Moreover, the program which includes assignments and discussions of authentic situations and cases allow the participant to exchange experiences directly.

The previous table revealed lack of statistical significant differences between the groups attributed to the gender. And this result agreed with Al-Guraan's study(2011) which showed that there was no statistical significant differences between male and females in decision making level. On the other hand, this result differed with AL-Samrat's study(2009) that revealed significant statistical differences between male and female in developing decision making skills.

This result may attribute to the efficiency of the counselling groups regardless the gender

Table 2 also showed an effect for the interaction between the group variable and counselling group and the gender in the post performance of the decision making skills. The means of the males and female in the experimental group was higher than the mean of the male and female of the control group in decision making skills. It is clear that the females of the experimental group were the most beneficiaries of the counselling program in acquiring skills of decision making and this could be attributed to the idea that female are more interested in learning and acquiring decision making skills,

Second question: Are there statistical significant differences at ($\alpha=0.05$) between the mean of the experimental group's performance in the post scale and the following up in the decision making skills' scale ?

To answer the second question, T –test was used to compare between the experiment's group's performance in the post application of the decision making skills' scale as it is illustrated in table3.

Table 3. Results of T –test

Scale	M	Std	T value	Fd	Sig.
Post	96,13	12,89	0.077	29	0.938

Results showed lack of statistical significant differences between the means of the experiment group in the post application with T value(0.077) and significance (0.938) which indicates the continuo effect of the counselling pram in the decision making skills.

It can be concluded that the counselling program used in this study is efficient in improving the experiment group's decision making skills. And the experiment group gets benefit of the information and skills they achieved in the counselling program's sessions .

RECOMMENDATIONS :

1. Replicating the same study with different education levels with different needs.
2. Ministry of Education and Ministry of higher Education use these programs so as to help the colleges to have the appropriate decisions in the future .
3. Applying the counselling program in the basic and secondary levels.

REFERENCES:

- Abdalhameed, A.(2011). Effect of counselling program in professional correction and decision making , Al-Jaleel for publishing, Jordan.
- Al- quraan, S.(2006). Efficiency of Counseling program for training on decision making skills of the secondary students at Jerash, Jerash Journal, v(10).
- Al-Bakri,M.(2007). Arab Basics of the mental health and information preparation, Dar Al-Nahda,Cairo, Egypt.
- Al-Daheri, S.(2008).school counselling .Dar Safa' for publishing , Amman, Jordan.
- Al-Daheri, S.(2011).Psychology of professional guidance and its theories, Dar Wael for publishing , Amman, Jordan.
- Al-Daheri, S.(2011).Psychology of the talented and the distinguished ones and people with special needs, , Dar Wael for publishing , Amman, Jordan
- Al-Daheri, S.(2020).Psychology of stress and its theories , Dar Al-Esar Al-Elmi, Amman, Jordan.
- Al-Daheri,S.(2000).Supervision in the psychological counselling, Dar of el-Esar for publishing, Amman,Jordan.
- Al-Manshawi, M,A.(2003). Impact of children's ability of making decision and taking responsibility. *Arabic and Islamic studies*, College of Sohaj, Egypt.
- Al-Quran,M.(2011). A Study of the relation between the stress and school average of Al-Quds schools' students, Dar Liaw, Jordan.
- Al-Samarat, B,D.(2009). Impact of using solving problem strategy in teaching national education in developing decision making skills of the tenth graders in Jordan , Unpublished Thesis, University of Jordan, Amman.
- Al-Tarawna,A,A.(2006). Basic program in developing decision making skill of the students leaders in University of Jordan, Unpublished Dissertation, University of Jordan, Amman, Jordan.

- Bernard H. W. and Fullmer D. W. Principle of Guidance basic, Tex, New Delhi, 2002.
- Hayes, G. and Hopson, B. Careers Guidance, Heine Mann Educational Boys 2014.
- Holland, A. (2005). Making Vocational Choices, A Theory of Careers Englewood Cliffs, NJ. Prentice Hall.
- Holland, A. (2018). Making Vocational Choices, A Theory of Careers Englewood Cliffs, NJ. Prentice Hall.
- Hopfls, W, R. (2007). Psychology for Career Counseling the British Psychological Society.
- Industrial Organizational Psychology Sciences AWA Frank E. Soal Patrick A. Knight
- Osipow, S, H. (2009). Theories of Career Development, by Prentice Hall Inc Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.
- Pietrofesa, J. J. and Splete H. (2000) Career Development Theory and Research, N. Y. Crune and Stratton Inc.
- Rizq, M. (2002). The Counseling Skills in the Vocational Education, Cairo University Press, Cairo, Egypt.
- Shertzer, B. and Ston. S. (2013) Fundamentals of Guidance, Fourth Edition Houghton Mifflin Company Boston.
- Tawfeeq, S.A. (1999). Relation between source of stress and the ability to make decision, Journal of Educational Research Center, University of Qatar.
- To`ma, M.S. (2012). Studying the Relation between Making Decisions and Professional Guidance of Najah University's Students. Al-Jamea` Press, Amman, Jordan.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSTRUCTIVIST SCHOOL LEADERSHIP AND CULTURAL INTELLIGENCE: A STUDY ON INTERNATIONAL BACCALAUREATE SCHOOLS ACROSS THE EUROPEAN CONTINENT

Brian Vassallo

B.Psy (gen), Dip Fac Inc Ed, MBEMAS(uk), MNAME(USA), MSc(uk) Assistant Head

Mariam Albatool School

brianvassallo7671@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The study seeks to establish the relationship between cultural intelligence and constructivist school leadership in IB (International Baccalaureate) schools across Europe. It examined the responses of 42 school leaders who participated in the Cultural Intelligence Scale Survey and Constructive Leadership Survey designed specifically for the study. Multiple regression analysis was used to determine if the factors of cultural intelligence contribute to a constructivist style of leadership. Results indicate a correlation between cultural intelligence levels and determining elements in the constructivist style of leadership among IB college leaders in various European countries. The results provide scholarship into the selection, training, and professional development of school leaders at all levels within the educational system. Implications from the study make a compelling case towards including cultural aspects into more areas across the higher education curricula. This research makes a unique contribution to the role that cultural intelligence plays in identifying factors that best predict constructive leadership development in IB school environments.

Keywords: Constructive leadership, Cultural intelligence, International Baccalaureate (IB) Schools

Introduction

Globalization is an important concept for school leaders, educators, and students to understand and appreciate in today's world. Globalization calls for high interconnectedness of people, notably educators, across the world who are entrusted with the task of facilitating global cultural, political and economic changes. Fundamental to all this is the ability to develop communicative competence and meaningful relationships in an era of high scale technology and diversity in workplaces. These challenges place schools, notably their leaders, in a position to spur interdisciplinary groups capable of navigating effectively and collectively through educational processes that make these values central to their daily activities. Hence, the gathering and sharing of knowledge across disciplines to assist the creation of productive groups within a context of meaningful relationships become all too important (Fox & Hundley, 2011), and International Baccalaureate (IB) schools are a fertile ground on which such relationships can flourish.

The International Baccalaureate

The IB prepares students "for the evolving and increasingly global society as they develop physically, intellectually, emotionally, and ethically" (IBO, 2014, p. 9). IB schools focus on developing knowledge and understanding of cultures and concepts that situate students in a position where 'learning to learn' is vital, thus equipping them for higher education and employment (IBO, 2014). Programs within the IB structure require students to study at least two languages and are designed to enhance the understanding of culture, this being an essential prerequisite as we continue to experience an increasingly diversified workforce that transcends national boundaries (IBO, 2014).

Work performed in IB schools is consonant with modern theoretical concepts of learning and is consistent with the work of innovative educational thought leaders (Hill & Saxton, 2014). Studies conducted in China found that the IB educational curriculum and philosophy are ideal for developing the 21st-century skills needed to succeed in higher education and beyond (Wright & Moosung, 2014).

Culture and Cultural Intelligence

The impact of Culture and Cultural intelligence on leadership functions is also a factor that needs to be considered when studying the effectiveness of school leaders in multicultural contexts such as IB schools. Cultural intelligence (henceforward referred to as CQ, deriving from the term Intelligence Quotient (IQ)) is "a person's adaptation to new cultural settings and capability to deal effectively with other people with whom the person does not share a common cultural background and understanding" (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 34). It describes the ability of the individual to interact effectively with people who are culturally diverse within the cultural context of the individual. CQ refers to the ability to manage people from diverse cultural backgrounds (Morley et al., 2010) through the use of skills that enable individuals to interact effectively with people from diverse cultures (Charoensukmongkol, 2016). Earley and Ang (2003) divided CQ into four dimensions: cognitive, meta-cognitive, behavioural, and mo-

tivational. The cognitive dimension is one of the main aspects of CQ that discusses having an empirical and cognitive context about patterns existing in a new cultural situation, which helps the individual to process information better and more efficiently (Ramsey et al., 2011). Influenced by this dimension, one strives to objectively and mentally acquire sufficient information about customs and traditions in diverse cultures and new patterns of behaviour through learning or personal experience (Ramirez, 2010). Thomas (2015) argues that the cognitive dimension can be achieved by training one's own experience. The metacognitive dimension of CQ is related to the cognitive dimension in that one performs a mental process of the cognitive dimension obtained through personal experience or training, and then a particular understanding of cultural knowledge is created in one's mind (Ang et al., 2006). This includes strategic planning during professional activities, monitoring their accuracy of implementation, and modifying mental patterns as needed (Morley, 2010). The behavioural dimension is another major aspect of CQ that refers to the appropriate reactions and behaviours during interactions with different cultures (Ramsey et al., 2011). This aspect of CQ also encompasses the ability to express appropriate and effective verbal and nonverbal behaviours during intercultural interaction, on the basis of how the individual evaluates new cultural environments (Gregory et al., 2009). The behavioural dimension deals with the ability of individuals to respond to different customs, traditions, and lifestyles across various countries (Earley & Gardner, 2005). The motivational dimension of CQ relates to one's openness to learn new cultural patterns and their behaviour when encountering an unfamiliar culture (Charoensukmongkol, 2016). This dimension expresses one's ability to deal with psychological stress during interactions in new environments (Ramsey et al., 2011). Besides, the role of external and internal stimuli in motivating one to adapt to culturally heterogeneous contexts is an important part of this dimension.

Constructivism and Constructivist Leadership

Rooted in Kantian philosophy (Kant, 1787), the main aim of constructivism is making meaning and constructing social worlds through processes of individual cognition. Constructionism focuses on the notion that social worlds become a reality through social processes (Allen, 2017). It holds that individuals actively and continuously construct their own meanings and understandings of reality and the world they live in. Knowledge is assumed to be transferred from one individual to another through interaction, and therefore different experiences induce individuals to perceive the world differently. Constructivist theorists, therefore, hold that knowledge should not be judged in terms of its veracity but in terms of its practicality (Schafer, 2014). The only thing that matters is whether the knowledge that is constructed is appropriate for the context in which it arises (Brau, 2018). Constructivist leaders strive to enact ways to facilitate the learning process. Since they believe that knowledge originates from within the individual (Johnston, 2018), they facilitate learning by posing questions to learners that stimulate self-construction and interaction – involving both active listening and feedback from all involved. Constructivist leaders are therefore active promoters of inquiry-based processes (Walker & Shore, 2015), re-articulation and re-examining educational processes (Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2015) such that educators seek out consistency and meaning in various ideas (Yildirim & Kaya, 2019). This is further supported by research on leader-follower relationships (Lambert et al., 2002, Shrestha, 2020), who advocated for a rethinking into the roles of "leaders" and "followers" and instead started perceiving them in terms of sustainable and interconnected relationships within a context of common goals. Hence, within a constructivist leadership approach, activities such as inquiry, reflection, dialogue, and action within an ambience of profound respect, heighten the self-esteem of each stakeholder. These elements enhance communication processes and pave the way for stakeholders to speak openly on issues of concern (Johnston, 2018).

A main tenant of constructivist leadership is the insistence on the growth of followers within an institution. So learning is an active process that occurs naturally within a social setting, where educators share ideas, practices, face challenges and engage in deep enquiry within a social environment. These experiences also call for reflection and meta-cognitive processes that contribute positively to the construction of knowledge and the sense-making process.

Therefore, constructive leadership occurs in groups and is particularly concerned with influencing the group of individuals who have a common purpose. One of its assumptions is that humans possess the capacities to grow and change. Constructivist leadership separates leadership from leaders and situates it in the ability of participants to incorporate responsibilities arising from newly formed patterns of relationships. These relationships are evolving and seek the growth of both leaders and participants. Therefore, from the constructivists' point of view, learning is anchored in the community where the leader is energized by the curiosities of his/ her colleagues and the students. Together, they find fulfilment and stimulation in the daily impasses of teaching and are intrigued by the challenges posed by school improvement opportunities. Lambert et al. (2003) place the values of community at the very centre of constructivist leadership: "When we learn together as a community toward a shared purpose, we are creating an environment in which we feel congruence and worth" (p. 4). Therefore, constructivist leadership stretches learning beyond the four walls of the classroom and gives way to new experiences and opportunities for honing existing skills and exploring new ones. Constructivist leadership moves away from the notion of leadership traits, is something that can be learnt, and that everybody is capable of possessing (Lambert et al., 2003). It therefore,

urges educators to build lessons around great ideas, revolving around the 'big picture' and not small pieces of pointless information. It values access to knowledge, research, technology and innovation while supporting programs and services that help students make wise choices towards lifelong learning. It proposes systems of assessment that values classroom investigations and not isolated events such as exams. Moreover, educators are assessed for their ability to navigate through the complexity of school organization rather than isolated events, and this is consonant with the ultimate purpose of leadership development, i.e. the creation of schools as vibrant learning communities led by confident, competent, and caring leaders.

Bonner et al. (2017) believe that constructivist leaders possess a critical ability to reflect, question, and challenge fossilized ways of thinking, acting, and leading. Those who profess constructivist leadership take pride in promoting change and in targeting their leadership behaviour towards ameliorating school practice, with particular emphasis being placed on fostering a more global or holistic view of education. We can summarise that constructivist leadership aims to

- a) develop a shared vision towards effective engagement in educational processes (Yildirim & Kaya, 2019),
- b) cultivate a heightened sense of purpose through the building of relationships within a framework of high ethical standards (Lynch, 2012),
- c) encourage a culture of critical reflective practice (de Souza Sant'Anna et al., 2011),
- d) facilitate the creation of knowledge and skills that equip educators to engage in mutual, deep and critical discussion about teaching and learning processes, in order to construct meaning (Lambert, 2009),
- e) promote action research (Angelle & DeHart, 2011),
- f) build a solid understanding of constructivist learning among educators (Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2015),
- g) initiate new ways of approaching challenges through sustained processes of change and transition (Lambert, 2009),
- h) seek deeper critical understanding of past educational experiences to assist in the creation of new meanings (Shapira-Lishchinsky, 2015),
- i) project and transform emerging ideas into real educational opportunities (Aljohani, 2017).

The link between Cultural Intelligence and Constructivist Leadership

The interaction between individuals within a learning community is largely responsible for the transmission of cultural elements with its environment. Within his/her school, the leader is required to create, transform, maintain and manage the culture, thus providing sense and meaning to the cultural environment (Bettini et al., 2016). This approach to leadership assumes particular importance when aligned with the mission of the school. Hence, leadership across cultures aims to establish and develop a strong sense of purpose whilst keeping a flexible cultural structure within the school.

Hence within a school context, constructivist leaders interpret the tasks and the cultural norms and values of the school. Hence it is vital for school leaders to cultivate intercultural competencies on the conceptual, social, the practical level (author, 2016). Conceptual competence is the ability to work with ideas and concepts, while social competence resides in the ability to work with individuals and increase knowledge in this regard. Şahin (2011) discovered that CQ is an essential element of cultural competence and is critical for intercultural leadership to be effective. Furthermore, Şahin and Gurbuz (2014) discovered that cultural intelligence contributed to individual performance more than their demographic characteristics and general cognitive competencies. This finding shows that cultural intelligence is a strong positive predictor of individuals' performance in intercultural settings. CQ focuses on the necessary elements that build fruitful interpersonal relationships and promote effectiveness across different cultural contexts, also allowing educators to "look through different lenses" (author, 2016, p.73) and respond differently to different behavioural patterns. Therefore, CQ allows individuals to function efficiently and be successful in multicultural environments, reduces intercultural communication barriers and empowers educators to manage cultural diversity. The behavioural dimension of CQ includes the relationships a school forges with internal and external stakeholders, an essential aspect given that cultural diversity within a networking society is so ubiquitous. Identifying, valuing, and supporting cultural differences maximizes educators' cultural responsiveness to their students' backgrounds and differing abilities (Orosco & O'Connor, 2011). The aim of this study is to examine if cultural intelligence is a predictor of constructive leadership in IB international schools. Consequently, the research questions for the present study are: Is there is a relationship between cultural intelligence and constructivist leadership in IB schools? If so, what factor(s) of cultural intelligence best predict(s) constructivist leadership in IB school leaders?

Methodology

Participants

The participants in the study were a volunteer sample of 42 IB school leaders. IB school leaders in this study were defined as individuals who are in leadership positions such as director, principal, Head of School, Head of Section, year coordinator, or similar positions within the leadership structure of the school. The participants were recruited from a large number of websites that advertised IB schools across the European continent. Contact emails were sent directly to the school director requesting their voluntary participation in the study. A total of 89 IB school leaders were invited to participate in the study, of which a total of 42 leaders responded, amounting to a response rate of 47%. The IB school leaders who completed the survey were based in 16 different countries. In total, 29 (69%) of the participants were male, 11 (26%) were female, and 2 (5%) responded other.

Instrumentation

The variable of CL was measured using the Constructivist Leadership survey, an instrument constructed for the purpose of the study and the variable of cultural intelligence was measured using the Cultural Intelligence Scale (Ang et al., 2007). The model derives from theories and frameworks as outlined in the literature review. It measures the six factors (labelled A-F) of constructivist leadership (see appendix), which include a) Strategic planning, b) Teaching and learning processes, c) Shared leadership, d) Communication and interaction, e) A safe school climate, f) Encouraging stakeholders.

In turn, each factor contains a number of items described by a series of 'I' statements that describe a behaviour associated with constructivist leadership style and asks the responder to assess the frequency of their use of that behaviour. The advantage of 'I' statements is that they provide 'ownership' of the behaviour in question as well as clear communication of the ideas being presented. A seven-point Likert scale from 1 to 7 was used to denote the frequency at which the behaviour occurs (1 being the lowest and 7 being the highest). The higher the registered score on the statement, the higher the level of constructivist leadership functioning. The minimum and maximum Constructivist Leadership scores for each factor vary according to the number of statements linked to each factor. The Cronbach α coefficient for the CL survey was 0.76, which indicated that the scale was internally reliable.

The CQ survey (Ang et al., 2007) consists of 20 items to measure a four-factor model. Each item on the scale describes an individual's competence to be culturally intelligent in one of the four factors (metacognitive, cognitive, motivational, and behavioural cultural intelligence). The scale "includes four items for metacognitive cultural intelligence ($\alpha=0.76$), six for cognitive cultural intelligence ($\alpha=0.84$), five for motivational cultural intelligence ($\alpha=0.76$), and five for behavioural cultural intelligence ($\alpha=0.83$)" (Ang et al., 2006, p.110). The scale has been used in a variety of studies (Ang et al., 2007; Moon, 2010; Ward et al., 2009), yielding a Cronbach alpha of 0.93, implying high internal consistency and reliability.

Individuals were asked to respond to each statement using a seven-point Likert scale, in which a response of '1' meant "strongly disagree" and '7' meant "strongly agree." A higher score on the item indicated a higher level of cultural intelligence. A separate score is derived for each factor of cultural intelligence by summing the item scores and dividing by the number of items in the respective section. The minimum score for each factor is 1, and the maximum score is 7. Procedures The email sent to identified participants requested that they complete the two online surveys together with an informed consent form, questions regarding demographics, the CL survey and the CQ survey.

Research design and analysis

The multivariate correlational research design employed in the study allowed the researcher to look at relationships between cultural intelligence and constructivist leadership in an all-encompassing way, allowing the researcher to measure the relationship between them and to look for significance. The non-experimental design was considered appropriate since both variables (cultural intelligence and constructivist leadership) exist naturally and are not deliberately controlled or manipulated (Salkind, 2010). A standard multiple regression was used for data analysis as the researcher sought to understand the relationship between sets of multiple predictor variables, the four factors of cultural intelligence, and the criterion variable (constructivist leadership).

Results

Descriptive statistics

The mean and standard deviation for Constructivist Leadership were $M_{CL} = 108.45$ and $SD = 1.21$, $X_{max} = 175$, $X_{min} = 25$) shows that the IB school leaders had a medium to high level of Constructivist Leadership skills. Table 1 gives the descriptive statistics for the cultural intelligence factors under investigation.

Examination of the means indicates that the participants overall had a high level of Metacognitive CQ ($M=21.33$, $SD=0.55$, $n=4$) and Behavioural CQ ($M=23.83$, $SD= 1.29$, $n=5$). Also, participants exhibited moderate levels of Cognitive CQ ($M=22.87$, $SD=1.23$, $n=6$ and Motivational CQ ($M=18.68$, $SD=1.34$, $n=5$).

The participants also had moderately high cognitive and behavioural cultural intelligence. It must be noted that the standard deviation score for Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence is low ($SD=0.55$), which implies that the vast majority of the participants rated their Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence very close to the mean of 12.33. The largest standard deviation is noticed in the Behavioural Cultural Intelligence ($SD=2.29$), which also had the largest mean of all ($M=23.83$).

Variables	M	SD
Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence $X_{max}=28, X_{min}=4, n=4$	21.33	0.75
Cognitive Cultural Intelligence $X_{max}=42, X_{min}=6, n=6$	22.87	1.23
Motivational Cultural Intelligence $X_{max}=35, X_{min}=5, n=5$	18.68	1.34
Behavioural Cultural Intelligence $X_{max}=35, X_{min}=5, n=5$	23.83	2.29

Table 1: Cultural intelligence variables: M=mean score, SD=Standard Deviation, X_{max} =maximum score, X_{min} =minimum score, n=number of items

Table 2 shows the correlations between the predictor variables of the Cultural Intelligence Components namely: Metacognitive CQ, Cognitive CQ, Motivational CQ, Behavioural CQ with the Constructivist Leadership (the criterion variable). The intercorrelations resulted in low to moderate scores and these underline the significance of results.

Further tests were conducted to determine the possibility of mild and extreme outliers. The results produced only mild outliers which were deemed of little significance to the regression analysis. The linearity and the homogeneity of variance were also recorded and the results were found to be satisfactory. The use of R^2 as a statistical measure of fit indicated how much variation of a criterion variable (constructivist leadership) is explained by the predictor variables (Cultural intelligence variables) in the regression model. The standard multiple regression performed resulted in $R^2=0.19$, $F(3, 41) = 4.5$ (at $F_{crit} = 2.83, p < 0.01$) indicated that the linear combination of Metacognitive CQ, Cognitive CQ, Motivational CQ, and Behavioural CQ, were strong predictors of Constructivist Leadership.

Variables	Constructivist Leadership	Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence	Cognitive Cultural Intelligence	Motivational Cultural Intelligence	Behavioural Cultural Intelligence
Constructivist Leadership (CL)	1	0.38*	0.36*	0.29*	0.34*
Metacognitive Cultural Intelligence (MCI)	0.38*	1	0.55*	0.59*	0.61*
Cognitive Cultural Intelligence (CCI)	0.36*	0.55*	1	0.44*	0.45*
Motivational Cultural Intelligence (MCI)	0.29*	0.59*	0.44*	1	0.64*
Behavioural Cultural Intelligence (BCI)	0.34*	0.61*	0.45*	0.64*	1

Table 2: Intercorrelation among variables, * $p < 0.05$

Also, the multiple correlation coefficient of 0.44 indicated that 19% of the variance in constructivist leadership can be accounted for by the linear combination of the four factors of cultural intelligence. While R^2 is statistically significant, its low value constitutes little practical significance to the study.

Table 3 shows the extent to which each predictor variable (Metacognitive CQ, Cognitive CQ, Motivational CQ and Behavioural CQ) contributed to the prediction of the criterion variable (CL). The results show that Cognitive CQ and Behavioural CQ had a p level < 0.05 and this shows that there is a significant positive relationship between Cognitive CQ, Behavioural CQ and CL with these variables mostly responsible for its prediction. The regression coefficient of Metacognitive CQ ($p=0.06$) and Motivational CQ ($p=0.45$) were not significant at $p < 0.05$ level, which means that these variables were least responsible in predicting constructivist leadership.

Variables	<i>r</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Metacognitive CQ	0.38	1.63	0.06
Cognitive CQ	0.36	2.22	0.02*
Motivational CQ	0.29	-0.12	0.45
Behavioural CQ	0.34	2.01	0.03*

Table 3: Contribution of Metacognitive CQ, Cognitive CQ, Motivational CQ, Behavioural CQ, N=42, df=41, * $p < 0.05$

Discussion

The results of the study show that there is a significant positive relationship between cultural intelligence and constructivist leadership. This means that IB school leaders who demonstrate higher levels of cultural intelligence also exhibit more elements of CL and consequently increased levels of effectivity and efficiency in managing multicultural environments. This finding is consistent with other studies focusing on different work environments (Ahmad & Saidalavi, 2019; Nosratabadi, 2020).

The study also shows that the Cognitive CQ and Behavioural CQ variables were the best predictors of CL for leaders in IB schools. School leaders who were proactive towards adapting to the multicultural environments present in their schools are more equipped to lead in a more constructivist style, whereas leaders who are finding it difficult to adapt may have to resort to deep reflective processes towards adaptive mechanisms prior to engaging in constructivist leadership. This is supported by research from Afsar et al. (2021), who found that behavioural and cognitive cultural intelligence were positively correlated to heightened innovation and effectiveness in multicultural team compositions.

Behavioural cultural intelligence has also been linked to increased intercultural negotiation effectiveness and task performance (Imai & Gelfand, 2010; Groves, Feyerherm & Gu, 2014), while Cognitive cultural intelligence has a positive relationship with cultural judgment and decision making (Ang et al., 2007; Schlaegel, Richter & Taras, 2017). In fact, the four variables that compose cultural intelligence suggest that leaders who promote creativity and innovation are also effective in decision making and also exhibit more constructivist leadership behaviours.

The findings contribute to the existing research on cultural intelligence by identifying which factors of cultural intelligence best predict constructivist leadership. The study also links the importance of research in cultural intelligence in IB schools, placing particular focus on constructivist leadership as linked to behavioural and cognitive processes as enacted by school leaders. The results make a strong case in favour of infusing cultural intelligence scholarship and constructivist leadership propositions in the selection processes of school leaders, not only in IB schools but also in elementary and higher educational institutions. The inclusion of assessments that include leadership competence, cultural intelligence, intercultural skills, and interpersonal competence in an all-inclusive package should be encouraged. The importance of continuous development courses in each of the mentioned areas under study should also be strengthened.

Cultural intelligence is about harnessing high levels of understanding, skills and behaviours that are needed to be able to function effectively in a culturally diverse world. It moves away from the notion of targeting specific knowledge, attitudes and behaviours that are frequently attributed to particular countries or cultures (Byran et al., 2002; Earley & Ang, 2003; Livermore, 2011, 2015, 2016).

Metacognitive cultural intelligence can be increased by developing processes that enrich stakeholders' knowledge and experience and how this is impacting the culture of the surrounding school environment. Such knowledge includes, for example, familiarity with different educational systems, parenting roles in education, views on disabilities, lifelong learning and career choice.

These are mediated by the leader's cultural values, system beliefs and understanding of cultural differences. Livermore (2010) believes that Metacognitive cultural intelligence can also be developed by the meticulous preparation of activities that precede cross-cultural interactions and activities. Cognitive cultural intelligence can be enhanced through the use of interventions that focus specifically on the scholarship of culture-specific knowledge.

Motivational cultural intelligence can be enhanced by encouraging individuals to focus on cultural experiences that are particularly relevant to them. Livermore (2010) suggests that motivational cultural intelligence can be improved by balancing the financial cost of not being culturally intelligent with that of being culturally intelligent. The use of role play and simulations in dramaturgical exercises can be used to develop behavioural cultural intelligence (Ng, Van Dyne, & Soon, 2009). These help to develop a “holistic focus toward learning the nuances of behaviour and actions and utilizing cognitive, sensory, emotional, and physical processes” (Keung & Rockinson-Szapkiw, 2013). To assist in increasing behavioural cultural intelligence Tan and Chua (2003) suggest the use of behaviour modification methods that aim to reward target cultural behaviours and sanction culturally inappropriate ones.

As the world becomes more globalized, it is becoming increasingly beneficial to infuse cultural intelligence training into all levels of education, particularly in leadership education programs. This will make school leaders more self-confident and accepting to change and innovation. Given their extensive experience and targeted school setups to accommodate multicultural students, leaders in IB schools may also assume a more advisory role. The findings of this study show that cultural intelligence is positively related to constructivist leadership for IB school leaders, and this makes a strong case in favour of scholarship that combines cultural intelligence with other aspects of leadership practices. It also makes a strong case in favour of targeting European funds towards integrating cultural intelligence into higher education curriculum for educational leaders.

Limitations of the study

The study presented the interrelations between two consecutive surveys. This consecutiveness might have presented a limitation to the validity of the study. To mitigate against this limitation, half the participants were handed the CL survey first and then the CQ survey. The other half were administered the CQS first and then the CL survey. High non-response rates are also a concern in survey research. Therefore, the researcher chased the respondents by numerous phone calls and emails over the period over the period of the study, also taking note of the time zone.

Notwithstanding the advantages that online surveys offer over physically administered ones, self-scoring statements still present the challenge of having to rely on the fidelity of participants. Ongoing surveys in different educational settings will help cater for this. The online surveys were administered during September/ October 2021, and this could be viewed as a limitation since schools were still in the settling down period and school leaders were still completing their preliminary yearly preparations.

The study used data from participants completing two questionnaires. Some items from both questionnaires were left unanswered, and consequently, statistical computations and inferences could have influenced the results. It must be noted that, notwithstanding the encouraging participant response rate of 47%, a total of 53 % ignored participation in the study and this needs to be considered when making inferences from the results. The generalizability of results is limited to IB schools across European countries, and this also suggests the need to expand research on constructivist leadership and Cultural CQ to other geographical areas, taking into account cultural aspects pertaining to that particular country. Research also needs to be inclusive of both quantitative and qualitative paradigms on the constructs of cultural intelligence and constructivist leadership in IB school leaders. Besides broadening the aims and validity of research, mixed methodology would be helpful towards triangulation of data. This study could be replicated with different sample populations such as school boards, business school managers, directors of English as foreign language schools, managers within educational directorates as this would further enhance the generalizability of results.

Moreover, the author recognizes that factors such as gender, nationality, educational experience of school leader, student demographics and student population may have an influence on the overall results. Adding these factors would certainly be beneficial for future research.

The limitation of the use of self-report assessments can be addressed through 360⁰ reviews of international school leaders with objective feedback from multiple sources, including educators, researchers, parents, boards of directors, local councils, community members and other educational stakeholders. In addition to the use of CQ and CL surveys, research needs to be augmented with interviews, observational methods and artefact analysis to help gain a deeper understanding of cultural intelligence and constructivist leadership in IB school leaders. Besides, the use of international student assessment tests such as PISA (OECD, 2022), TIMSS (IEA, 2021) and PIRLS (IEA, 2021) can be used as supporting measures to correlate results obtained from the CQ and CL surveys to help determine school leaders' effectiveness in managing in multicultural environments.

Conclusion

This study examined if there is a relationship between cultural intelligence and constructivist leadership in IB school leaders. The results of the study demonstrate that cultural intelligence factors correlate positively with constructivist leadership in IB school leaders. This makes a strong case in favour of including CQ as an important factor in the recruitment, training, and professional development of IB school leaders and also to include the study of cultural intelligence into further and higher education curricula. The author advocates for more efforts to be channelled at sustaining empirical studies focusing on CQ and CL. As factors in both constructs evolve, more relationships can be further established, thus contributing to much-needed development in this area of study.

References

- Afsar, B., Al-Ghazali, B.M., Cheema, S. & Javed, F. (2021). Cultural intelligence and innovative work behaviour: the role of work engagement and interpersonal trust, *European Journal of Innovation Management*, 24(4), 1082-1109. <https://doi.org/10.1108/EJIM-01-2020-0008>
- Ahmad, S. & Saidalavi, K. (2019). Cultural Intelligence and Leadership Effectiveness in Global Workplaces International. *Journal on Leadership*, 7(1), 1-7. <http://publishingindia.com/ijl/>
- Aljohani, (2017). Principles of “Constructivism” in Foreign Language Teaching. *Journal of Literature and Art Studies*, 7(1), 97-107. doi:10.17265/2159-5836/2017.01.013
- Allen, M. (2017). *The sage encyclopedia of communication research methods* (Vols. 1-4). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc. doi:10.4135/9781483381411
- Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Ng, K. Y., Templer, K. J., Tay, C., & Chandrasekar, N. A. (2007). Cultural intelligence: Its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision making, cultural adaptation and task performance. *Management & Organization Review*, 3, 335–371.
- Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., & Koh, C. (2006). Personality correlates of the four-factor model of cultural intelligence. *Group & Organization Management*, 31(1), 100–123. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1059601105275267>
- Angelle, P. S., & DeHart, C. A. (2011). Teacher perceptions of teacher leadership: Examining differences by experience, degree, and position. *NASSP Bulletin*, 95(2), 141-160.
- Bettini, E. A., Crockett, J. B., Brownell, M. T., & Merrill, K. L. (2016). Relationship between working conditions and special educators’ instruction. *Journal of Special Education*, 50(3), 178-190. doi:10.1177/0022466916644425
- Bonner, S. M., Somers, J. A., Rivera, G. J., & Keiler, L. S. (2017). Effects of student-facilitated learning on instructional facilitators. *Instructional Science*, 45, 417–438. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11251-017-9410-8>.
- Bonner, S. M., & Keiler, L.S. (2015). *The effect of peer-facilitated learning on teen leaders*. Chicago: American Education Research Association national conference.
- Brau, B. (2018). Constructivism. In R. Kimmons, *The Students' Guide to Learning Design and Research*. EdTech Books. <https://edtechbooks.org/studentguide/constructivism>
- Byram, M., Gribkova, B. & Starkey, H. (2002). *Developing the Intercultural Dimension in language teaching: A practical introduction for teachers Language*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe: Language policy division
- Charoensukmongkol P. Mindful Facebooking: The moderating role of mindfulness on the relationship between social media use intensity at work and burnout. *Journal of Health Psychology*. 2016;21(9):1966-1980. doi:10.1177/1359105315569096
- de Souza Sant' Anna, A., Lotfi, S., Nelson, R.E., Sorel Campos, M. & Nassif, J.L. (2011). A constructivist perspective on leadership thought among Brazilian and North-American scholars. *Brazilian Administration Review*, 8(2), <https://doi.org/10.1590/S1807-76922011000200006>
- Earley, P. C., & Ang, S. (2003). *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*. Stanford University Press.
- Fox, P. & Hundley, S. (2011). *The Importance of Globalization in Higher Education, New Knowledge in a New Era of Globalization*. Piotr Pachura, IntechOpen, DOI: 10.5772/17972. Available from: <https://www.intechopen.com/chapters/17523>
- Gregory, R., Prifling, M., & Beck, R. (2009). The role of cultural intelligence for the emergence of negotiated culture in it offshore outsourcing projects. *Information Technology & People*, 22(3), 223–241. <https://doi.org/10.1108/09593840910981428>
- Groves, K.S., Feyerherm, A.E., & Gu, M. (2014). Examining Cultural Intelligence and Cross-Cultural Negotiation Effectiveness. *Journal of Management Education*, 39(2): 208-243.
- Hill, I., & Saxton, S. (2014). The International Baccalaureate (IB) Programme: An International Gateway to Higher Education and Beyond. *Higher Learning Research Communications*, 4(3), 42-52. <https://ife.idm.oclc.org/login?url=https://www.proquest.com/scholarly-journals/international-baccalaureate-ib-programme-gateway/docview/1612466698/se-2>
- IBO, International Baccalaureate Organization. (2014). The IB Diploma Program: A guide for universities. Retrieved from <http://www.ibo.org>
- IEA (2021). TIMSS and PIRLS. <https://timssandpirls.bc.edu/>

- Imai, L., & Gelfand, M. J. (2010). The culturally intelligent negotiator: The impact of cultural intelligence (CQ) on negotiation sequences and outcomes. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 112(2), 83–98. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.obhdp.2010.02.001>
- Johnston L.M. (2018). Constructivist Theories of Leadership. In: Farazmand A. (eds) *Global Encyclopedia of Public Administration, Public Policy, and Governance*. Springer, Cham. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-20928-9>
- Kant, I. (1787). *Critique of Pure Reason*. Norman Kemp Smith (transl.), New York: St. Martin's Press.
- Keung, K. E. & Rockinson-Szapkiw, A. (2013). The relationship between transformational leadership and cultural intelligence: A study of international school leaders. *Journal of Educational Administration*, 51(6), 836-854. <https://doi.org/10.1108/JEA-04-2012-0049>
- Lambert, L., Walker, D., Zimmerman, D. P., Cooper, J. E., Lambert, M. D., Gardner, M. E. & Szabo, M. (2002). *The constructivist leader* (2nd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press, and Oxford, OH: National Staff Development Council.
- Lambert, L. (2003). Leadership redefined: An evocative context for teacher leadership, *School Leadership and Management*, 23(4), 421-430, doi:10.1080/1363243032000150953
- Lambert, L. (2009). Constructivist Leadership. In B. Davis (Ed.), *The Essentials of School Leadership* 2nd Edn. London: SAGE Publications.
- Livermore, D. (2010). CQ: The Test of your Potential for Cross-Cultural Success. *Revista Forbes*. 1/06/2010
- Livermore, D. (2011). *The Cultural Intelligence Difference: Master the One Skill You Can't Do without in Today's Global Economy*. 1st Edn., AMACOM, New York, ISBN-13: 9780814417065.
- Livermore, D. (2015). *Leading with Cultural Intelligence: The Real Secret to Success*. 2nd Edn., AMACOM, New York, ISBN-13: 9780814449172.
- Livermore, D., 2016. *Driven by Difference: How Great Companies Fuel Innovation through Diversity*. 1st Edn., AMACOM, New York, ISBN-13: 9780814436530.
- Lynch, M. (2012). *A Guide to Effective School Leadership Theories* (1stEdn). New York: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203181010>
- Mascolo, M. F., & Fischer, K. W. (2005). *Constructivist theories*. Cambridge Encyclopedia of Child Development (pp. 49-63). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Moon, T. (2010) Organizational cultural intelligence: Dynamic capability perspective. *Group & Organization Management*, 35: 456-493.
- Morley, L (2010) Gender mainstreaming: myths and measurement in higher education in Ghana and Tanzania. *Compare: A Journal of Comparative and International Education*, 40(4), 533 - 550.
- Ng K-Y, Van Dyne, L & Soon, A (2009). Beyond International Experience: The Strategic Role of Cultural Intelligence for Executive Selection in IHRM. *Handbook of International Human Resource Management*. John Wiley & Sons, Ltd
- Nosratabadi, S., Bahrami, P., Palouzian, K. & Mosavi, A. (2020). Leader cultural intelligence and organizational performance. *Cogent Business & Management*, 7(1), DOI: 10.1080/23311975.2020.1809310
- OECD (2022). PISA, Program for International Student Assessment. <https://www.oecd.org/pisa/>
- Orosco, M. J., & O'Connor, R. E. (2011). Cultural aspects of teaching reading with Latino English language learners. In R. E. O'Connor & P. F. Vadasy (Eds.). *Handbook of reading interventions* (pp. 356–379). New York, NY: Guilford Press
- Ramirez, A (2010). Impact of cultural intelligence on conflict resolution ability: A conceptual model and research proposal. *Emerging Leadership Journal*, 3(1), 42-56
- Ramsey, J. Nassif Leonel, J. Zoccal Gomes, G. Reis Monteiro, P.L. (2011) Cultural intelligence's influence on international business travelers' stress. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal* 18(1):21-37, DOI:10.1108/13527601111104278
- Şahin F & Gürbüz S. (2014). Cultural intelligence as a predictor of individuals' adaptive performance: A study in a multicultural environment. *International Area Studies Review*, 17(4), 394-413. doi:10.1177/2233865914550727
- Salkind, N. J. (2010). *Encyclopedia of research design* (Vols. 1-0). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications, Inc. doi: 10.4135/9781412961288
- Schafer, K. (2014). Constructivism and three forms of perspective-dependence in metaethics. *Philosophy and Phenomenological Research*, 89, 68–101.
- Schlaegel, C. Richter, N. F. Taras V. (2017). Cultural intelligence and work-related outcomes: A meta-analytic examination of joint effects and incremental predictive validity. *International Business & Economics Research Journal*, 16(3), 223-230
- Shapira-Lishchinsky O. (2015). Simulation-based constructivist approach for education leaders. *Educational Management Administration & Leadership*, 43(6), 972-988. doi:10.1177/1741143214543203

- Shrestha, M. (2020). A review paper on sociological perspectives of leadership regards to education, *BSSS Journal of Education*, Nepal: Kathmandu University, School of Education, ISSN:2320-1258 (Print), E-ISSN:2582-4872, 9, <https://doi.org/10.51767/>
- Tan, Joo-Seng and Roy Chua. 2003. "Training and developing cultural intelligence." In *Cultural intelligence: Individual interactions across cultures*, edited by P. C. Earley & Soon Ang, pp. 258-303. Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Vassallo, B. (2016). School leaders' perceptions on intercultural education. *The Online Journal of New Horizons in Education*, 6(4):171–177.
- Walker CL, Shore BM. (2015). Understanding Classroom Roles in Inquiry Education: Linking Role Theory and Social Constructivism to the Concept of Role Diversification. *SAGE Open*. doi:10.1177/2158244015607584
- Ward, C., Wilson, J., & Fischer, R. (2011). Assessing the predictive validity of cultural intelligence over time. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51, 138–42. (1) (PDF) *Measuring Cultural Intelligence: A New Test of the CQ Scale*. Available from: https://www.researchgate.net/publication/283299432_Measuring_Cultural_Intelligence_A_New_Test_of_the_CQ_Scale [accessed Feb 05 2022].
- Wright, E. & Moosung, L. (2014). Developing skills for youth in the 21st century: The role of elite International Baccalaureate Diploma Programme schools in China. *International Review of Education* 60(2), doi: 10.1007/s11159-014-9404-6
- Yildirim, M.C. & Kaya, A. (2019). The Contributions of School Principals as Constructivist Leaders to Their Schools' Organizational Change. *Asian Journal of Education and Training*, 5(1), 1-7

Appendix

The 20-item, Four Factor Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)

Instructions:

Please select the answer that BEST describes you AS YOU REALLY ARE (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree).

CQ Factor	Questionnaire Items
CQ-Strategy: cultural	
MC1	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different. backgrounds
MC2	I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MC3	I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.
MC4	I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.
CQ-Knowledge:	
COG1	I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.
COG2	I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.
COG3	I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.
COG4	I know the marriage systems of other cultures.
COG5	I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.
COG6	I know the rules for expressing non-verbal behaviors in other cultures.
CQ-Motivation:	
MOT1	I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.
MOT2	I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.
MOT3	I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.
MOT4	I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.
MOT5	I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.
CQ-Behavior:	
BEH1	I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
BEH2	I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.
BEH3	I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.
BEH4	I change my non-verbal behaviour, when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.
BEH5	I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.

© Cultural Intelligence Center, 2005. Used by permission of Cultural Intelligence Center.

Note. Use of this scale granted to academic researchers for research purposes only.


For information on using the scale for purposes other than academic research (e.g., consultants and non-academic organizations), please send an email to cquery@culturalq.com

Dear participant,

Thank you for accepting to participate in this study.

Please select the answer that BEST describes you AS YOU REALLY ARE (1=strongly disagree; 7=strongly agree).

Constructivist Leadership Questionnaire

							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Strongly Disagree						Strongly Agree
Factor A: Strategic Planning							
1) I build on a shared vision and mission.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2) I build on shared goals.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3) I build on shared beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Factor B: Teaching and learning processes							
4) I support teachers in their professional development.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5) I construct knowledge around critical discussions.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6) I promote critical reflective practices.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Factor C: Shared leadership							
7) I involve all stakeholders in decision making.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8) I delegate authority.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9) I share responsibility with stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10) I build a sense of responsibility.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11) I communicate and interact with stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Factor C: Communication and interaction							
12) I establish clear communication.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13) I provide place for dialogue and discussion.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14) I build interactive processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Factor D: A safe school climate							
15) I establish a climate of trust among stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16) I accept stakeholders as partners in education.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17) I respect stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18) I construct an environment based on high ethical standards.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Factor E: Encouraging stakeholders							
19) I initiate change in educational processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20) I encourage change in educational processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21) I accept change in educational processes.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22) I am flexible in my approach to leadership tasks.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22) I motivate stakeholders.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23) I act as a facilitator.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

© Brian Vassallo 2022.

Note. Use of this scale is granted only by written permission from Mr Brian Vassallo. For additional information please email to brianvassallo7671@gmail.com

THE USE OF YOUTUBE IN TEACHING ELEMENTARY ENGLISH

Helen B. Boholano, Patrick B. Orevillo, Lhery Ann T. Agot, Antonnette T. Nugal
Cebu Normal University and Trinidad Municipal College
boholanoh@cnu.edu.ph

ABSTRACT

Teaching strategies and instructional materials used by the teachers are an important part of learning. This study aims to determine the impact of incorporating YouTube video clips as an enhancement activity in teaching professional education courses. It also assesses students' perceptions of using YouTube's videos in instructions. Using the mixed method, researchers used questionnaires to collect data and interviews were also conducted. Using videos from YouTube enhances learning. This study aims to determine the impact of incorporating YouTube video clips as an enhancement activity in learning. It also assesses students' perceptions of YouTube's involvement in reading development.

There were 40 Grade 6 learners who participated in the study. The researchers conducted a 40 item-test before and after to the said group of students to determine the effectiveness of YouTube in teaching elementary English. Findings revealed that the use of YouTube as enhancement activities increases the students' motivation and improves their academic performance. YouTube videos are very effective to develop reading comprehension skills then it is highly recommended to teachers and students to utilize such strategy in the classroom.

Keywords: enhancement, YouTube, instructional materials, learning

INTRODUCTION

Teaching English is not an easy job. Students learn when there will be integration of videos in instruction. Everything that people see, from the street signage's, mails, text messages, newspapers, food menu and everything else, they read. It is one of the important skills in learning language in which many of the students have neglected nowadays. This is one of the most important language learning skills that many students ignore today. According to a 2017 National Library Development Commission survey, only 27% of teenage readers in the Philippines read at home to improve their reading, grammar, comprehension and vocabulary. Lyon (2002), as quoted in Csillag (2016), has large gaps in improving vocabulary and other reading skills for non-readers, and activities that require reading in most cases. Reading serves as the foundation for every student's academic success because it helps to develop their minds in acquiring new knowledge and relating it better to their experiences. Miranda, et.al (2011) as cited in Ragandang (2018) shared that reading is an essential factor in a person's success, both in school and at work. Once they engage in reading, they can attain the mastery of language skills and enrich the vocabulary to make them understand and comprehend the text well. As a result, this will boost their confidence to overcome each struggle in reading and communicating. Indeed, no one would question or deny its significance as an instrument of all learning.

Elementary school teachers employ different strategies when teaching reading. Others use the Graphic Organizer to believe that they can visually see the context they are reading, adding learning to what they already know and activating prior knowledge. To help you understand and remember for a long time. Some use voice and rhyme methods and alphabetic methods. Creating distance learning courses emphasizes that it can be difficult to use purely printed material when developing concepts such as moving concepts. Therefore, the reader, not the text, is the focus of the reading process. Considering the student's unfavorable approach to reading printed matter, teachers have devised strategies to improve the student's attitude towards reading. One of the strategies that came to my mind was the use of multimedia. Obiedo (2009) stated that the students will be attracted more when the teacher uses multimedia (PowerPoint presentation, MS word, Virtual classroom, and other apps like YouTube) because students can picture out the abstract text/lecture through actual pictures or model. As Wood, et. al (2008) as cited in Baterna (2018) asserts that one of the strategy that would facilitate teachers in giving instructions is by using computer-assisted instruction which help learners in enhancing their reading proficiency and expand their learning opportunities by giving them differentiated instructions or activities. This can positively contribute to the reading skills of the students especially to students who are identified with learning difficulties. Thus, finding the appropriate materials is particularly essential for the students who have the hard time in reading. (Richek, Caldwell, Jennings & Lerner 1996).

YouTube made an impact to her learning. Some researchers have also observed certain students in Malate Catholic School changed their way of reading because of technology. In the same study of Ragandang (2018), mentioned that students were more motivated in reading and to seek for information with the use of computers, iPods, smart phones and others. In connection to this, the teacher can utilize strategies that can satisfy the needs of the students in their reading difficulties. Students will also be aware that the use of YouTube will help them enhance their

reading capabilities. Hence, the study will also help the researchers in collecting information and facts that will be useful to their future researches.

The researchers of this study aim to find out the result of the usage of YouTube as a strategy in teaching reading. Using the tools such as audio and video would make it easier to teach effectively. This opportunity will be given to the students to respond their interest and reading engagement to enhance their reading skills (Ragandang, 2018). Indeed, YouTube can also be an educational tool that can create an interactive classroom.

Objectives of the Study

This study determines the effectiveness of YouTube in teaching and learning. Specifically, this seeks to answer the following:

1. performance profile of the student in the pre-test and posttest
2. significant difference between the pre-test and posttest
3. challenges and opportunities encountered by the students as they use YouTube

Statement of the Hypothesis

H₀: There is no significant difference between the Pre-test and Post-test when the computed value is less than the t-value.

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Several literatures cited the advantages of using YouTube videos as instructional materials in teaching English. The way a human's brain functions were influenced by a lot of factor. According to Mayer and some other cognitive researchers, multimedia is one of the factors that support the way it performs. In addition, the study of Gilakjan, Ismail and Ahmadi (2011) stated that the use of multimedia including videos is efficient in learning. Learning will take place way better with having multimedia because the learners can make meaningful connections between words and pictures than with pictures alone. YouTube, which is mainly used, is a website where users can watch and upload videos. This allows users to view different categories of videos. Beauty and Fashion; Comedy; Training; Entertainment; Family Entertainment and more ("YouTube Category", 2019). YouTube is full of information from foreigners to locals, professionals to amateurs. Of course, classes can be learned not only in the four corners of the classroom, but also outdoors and online like YouTube. Harven (2015) states that YouTube created a channel called YouTube EDU in 2009 and stores educational videos on that channel. Last year in 2015, there were over 700,000 videos, which are still being counted. The teacher then simply selects the topic to cover.

Based on Bloom's Taxonomy, Hayikaleng, Nair and Krishnasamy (2016), stated that "YouTube can be one of the tools that activates students' schema. Many EFL Learners used YouTube as means to develop their reading comprehension skills. Also, YouTube enables teachers to link students to real life nature. YouTube plays a major role in approving the process of Language learning and YouTube is a useful resource for language learning which helps the learners to remember easily." In connection to schema building, is also recalling prior experiences. Experiences reenacted in the media can be more meaningful to students' understanding. Second, YouTube attracts young children by learning at the same time as they see and hear. Martin et al. (2014) (cited in Csillag, 2016) argued that researchers found a positive correlation between computer intervention and reading. Therefore, how teachers, and parents use this technology, and how to guide learners are one of the major factors in the overall process. As Csillag (2016) added in his study, these multimedia operations are affected by two reasons: B. Teacher training and media availability.

Alwehaibi (2015) also pointed out that there is a greater possibility to increase in to the development of student's learning especially in reading by using YouTube. Obiedo (2009) cited on her study that instructional media attracts students' attention physically and mentally. Students can visualize the abstract text or lecture through the concrete pictures and models. Neeraja (2011) confirmed that learning experiences that engage students physically and expose them to the different examples learn more than simply sitting down listening to the discussion. Csillag (2016) discussed that in order for the students to learn, engage and be entertained, they should read using technology to also convince others the value of reading.

Biancarosa and Snow (2006) as cited in Csillag (2016) explained that the technology is both moderator of knowledge and a medium of literacy and technology should be used as an instructional topic and tool. Good readers are innovative wherein they used different techniques in comprehending text. Miller (2012) mentioned on his several books that readers can sum up ideas to form a complete summary of which is based from what they have been trying to understand.

The theory of anchored instruction proposed by Bransford, Sherwood, Hasselbring, Kinzer and Williams (1990) as cited in Krist2366 (2015) stated that promoting a successful learning about the topic in the first place, the involvement of "anchor" material on media in giving instruction will make the learning environment engaging and efficient to the learners. Thus, students can learn and engage reading comprehension and word recognition fluency skills when there is a piece of media. The teachers should also use multimedia in a smart and proper way so that the involvement of multimedia by the students will not be wasted and through this both teachers and students will benefit in it.

The above mentioned studies and literatures support the purpose of this study and address the gap between the uses of multimedia specifically YouTube and the use of traditional way of teaching English.

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This study utilized a mixed method, a combination of quantitative and qualitative research using researchers' made questionnaires in the collection of data. This is an experimental design where a single group of test units is exposed to an experimental treatment and a single measurement is taken afterwards. The researchers conducted a 40-item Pre-test and Posttest to evaluate the effectiveness of YouTube in students' learning and interview was also conducted. The teacher made test was validated b experts. There were 10 sessions and 1 hour per session administered for the study. The data gathered were treated by getting the *mean* and *standard deviation* of the pretest and posttest. Thematic analysis was administered to deliberate the themes arise in their observations. This research is purely academics and there's no financial involvement. The researchers are not going to give anything to the respondents to avoid bias results. The names and personal information of the respondents are not stated in the study. If photos or videos are taken, the researchers make sure to ask permission from the respondents and the assurance of privacy to blur their faces. The data and information that have been collected are confidential. Then they will be eradicated and burned after the researchers make use of them. The students were informed of the purpose of the study. Informed consent was also given to the students. Briefing and debriefing were also conducted to ensure that the students understand the purpose of the study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This part covers the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data obtained from the conduct of pretest and posttest and interview.

Table 1. Performance of the students in the Pretest and Posttest

TEST	N	MEAN	STD. DEVIATION	INTERPRETATION
Pretest	15	17	5.85540	Average
Posttest	15	20	6.89149	Above Average

Range: Below Average- 0-13 Average- 14-25 Above Average- 26-40

Table 1 shows the performance profile of the students in the pre-test and post-test. There is an increasing change of computed value of the mean after the integration of YouTube in reading and a nominal difference found between the standard deviation of the pre-test and the post-test. This implies that using YouTube videos in teaching enable the students to learn better. Online materials are easily available on the internet. One such provider of materials is YouTube. This shows that students' learning performance changes positively after using YouTube (Pratama, Hartanto, & Kusumawardani, 2018). This implies that using YouTube videos as instructional materials increases students' performance.

Table 2. Comparison of the Mean Scores of Pre-Test and Post-Test

TEST	N	MEAN	STD. DEVIATIO N	MEAN DIFFERENC E	CV	df	TV
Pretest	15	17	5.85540				
Posttest	15	20	6.89149	3.0	1.402	28	2.048 Significant

Level of significance= $p < 0.05$ CV= computed value TV= Table value

Findings from the independent samples t-test revealed that there is no significant difference in the mean score between the pre-test and post-test. The result of the Pre-test signifies that the students already have the knowledge even before the instruction. Evidently, other reading competencies no longer need a YouTube-integrated instruction. The result of the Post-test reveals that YouTube-integrated instruction helped in some competencies like making inferences. Chikalanga (1992) stated that readers should comprehend what they are reading because not all the text are clearly stated. They could also infer or make conclusion by understanding the text. Csillag (2017) stated that words can also be inferred by the students knowing that they can make inferences with comics, videos or pictures. Hence YouTube could be a tool to aid the participants as they make inferences regarding the text they have read that brought positive difference after the use of YouTube. Time is an element in any experimental research. If the experiment is given longer time, it would be evidently effective not just on one competency but also other competencies.

Opportunities and Challenges

Focus group discussion was conducted and these are the students' narrative about the use of YouTube in learning English. The following themes emerged:

Theme 1: Visual learning enhances performance

YouTube provides videos with good graphics and high quality of sounds. Asking about how the YouTube can help the participants in their reading difficulties, some of them said:

I listen to what the video says. I will watch the video properly so that I can understand. (S2)
I like when my teacher used video in her class, I feel I will understand the lesson better. (S6)

YouTube videos can really support students to improve their reading skills through audio and visual. Affirmed from the study of Obiedo (2009) as mentioned above that instructional media attracts students' attention physically and mentally. Students can visualize the abstract text or lecture through concrete pictures and models. Moreno and Mayer (1999) as cited in Ljubojevic, Vaskovic, Stankovic and Vaskovic (2014) stated that in order to process multimedia information productively, it is important to choose the significant connection of the ideas and classify it into a linguistical and graphical concept.

YouTube videos show authentic concepts with spoken language which provides better understanding and convenience. YouTube videos develop the students to think and understand the entire meaning of the video easily. As Hayikaleng, et. al. (2016) where they based their study to Bloom's Taxonomy confirmed that YouTube as a language learning tool helps the students to remember easily. Thus, using YouTube is a big help in showing the different aspects of knowledge.

Theme 2: Values integration through videos

Students lean values through some videos presented by the teacher. Stories can be a good way to impart lessons to those who read. Different channels from YouTube were giving different videos that can be used in teaching values. Asking about what morale the participants could learn from the stories, some of them said:

I am now cooperative with my mother because I have seen this in the video presented as mention by one student. This implies that stories from the YouTube videos inculcate values which are very significant as they deal with their lives' endeavor. Values integration is more than just teaching the students what is right, it is about promoting within the students' perception in life. (Australia Islamic College, 2019). George and Dellasega (2011) (as cited in Fleck, Beckman, Sterns & Hussey, 2014) stated that teachers make use of YouTube as another way to transfer ideas through real-life situations which students can associate the learning to their culture to their own means. Hence, learning the content with the integration of values helps the students to be a better individual.

Theme 3: Learning is enjoyable

YouTube is categorized by many as an entertainment site. Many users are attracted to view varied videos, not only for their own satisfaction but also for their learning. Asking about what the participants feel about using YouTube in the classroom, some of them said:

*I enjoy every time my teacher will present a video. Me and my classmates were entertained (S10).
Learning is fun with videos. Dancing and singing were also taught to us by our teachers (9).*

It was evident when the researcher observed that the learners were very attentive and focused their attention to the video. Some of those students who were seated at the back transferred in front just to watch closely. YouTube videos are very engaging and interactive to the students. In the findings of June, Yaacob and Kheng (2014) where the students reflected that YouTube videos attracted their attention and it made the lessons more interesting and fun wherein it is also relevant. Added by Sherer and Shea (2011) stated that YouTube is one of the popular teaching aids which can be used by the teachers and the students inside and outside the classroom that will make the teaching-learning process more engaging and met the objectives. Therefore, students are much willing to learn when they are engaged and interested.

CONCLUSION

The use of YouTube in teaching reading is effective since it shows a positive impact in the students' critical reading comprehension. This concurs with the theory of Anchored Instruction which is a technology-centered learning approach which falls under the social constructionism paradigm. In addition, the students enjoy learning when they can see motion pictures and understand the concepts and values behind it.

RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the findings of the study, the researchers suggested the following significant insights.

1. School administrators may conduct seminars/ workshops to train teachers on how to carry out effectively YouTube videos in their respective classes.
2. The teacher may use the researchers-made YouTube- Integrated lesson plan in delivering the topics in the class.
3. More engaging, appropriate and relevant YouTube videos may be incorporated in their classes.
4. The principal may encourage the teachers to integrate YouTube videos in their instruction.
5. The future researchers may conduct a similar study in other teaching topics like Math, Science, Civics, etc.

REFERENCES

- Alwehaibi, H.O. (2015). The Impact of Using YouTube in EFL Classroom on Enhancing EFL Student's Content Learning. *Journal of College Teaching & Learning*, v12 n2 p. 121-126. Retrieved from ED gov: ies database.
- Baterna, R. 2018. Technology-Integrated Instruction (TII) in Teaching Literature. (Master's thesis, Cebu Normal University, Cebu City).
- Bransford, J.D., Sherwood, R.D., et. Al. (1990). Anchored Instruction. Retrieved from <https://www.learning-theories.com/anchored-instruction-cognition-technology-group-at-vanderbilt-bransford.html>.
- Chikalanga, I. (1992). A suggested taxonomy of inferences for the reading teacher. *Reading in a foreign language*, 8, 697-697.
- Csillag, J. (2016). *Differentiated Reading Instruction: Strategies and Technology Tools to Help All Students Improve*. New York: Routledge.
- Fleck, B. K., Beckman, L.M., Sterns, J.L., & Hussey, H.D. (2014) L.M., Sterns, J.L., & Hussey, H.D. (2014). YouTube in the classroom :Helpful tips and student perceptions. *Journal of Effective Teaching*, 14(3), 21-37
- Gilakjani, A. P., Ismail, H. N., & Ahmadi, S. M. (2011). The effect of multimodal learning models on language teaching and learning. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies*, 1(10).
- Hayikaleng, N., Nair, S.M., et. Al. (2016). Using YouTube to Improve EFL Reading Comprehension among Vocational Students. 391-398. *International Seminar on Generating Knowledge Through Research*, 25-27. <http://dx.doi.org/1021070/picecrs.v1:1.507/>.
- Harven, M. (2015, January 7). What YouTube is Doing for Education. Retrieved from edtechtimes.com/2015/01/07/youtube-education/.
- June, S., Yaacob, A., & Kheng, Y. K. (2014). Assessing the use of YouTube videos and interactive activities as a critical thinking stimulator for tertiary students: An action research. *International Educational Studies*, 7(8), 55-67.

- Krist2366 (2015) "Anchored Instruction (Bransford, Cognition & Technology Group at Vanderbilt)," in Learning Theories. Retrieved from <https://www.learning-theories.com/anchored-instruction-cognition-technology-group-at-vanderbilt-bransford.html>.
- Ljubojevic, M., Vaskovic, V., Stankovic, S., & Vaskovic, J. (2014). Using supplementary video in multimedia instruction as a teaching tool to increase efficiency of learning and quality of experience. *The International Review of Research in Open and Distributed Learning*, 15(3)
- Miller, D. (2012). *Reading with Meaning: Teaching Comprehension*. New Hampshire, USA: Shenhouse Publishers.
- Neeraja, K. (2011). *Textbook of Communication and Educational Technology for Nurses*. New Delhi: JP Medical LTD.
- Obiedo, S. (2009). *The Effects of Multimedia in Students Oral and Written Communication Skills*. (Master's thesis, Cebu Normal University, Cebu City).
- Pratama, Y., Hartanto, R., & Kusumawardani, S. S. (2018, March). Validating youtube factors affecting learning performance. In *IOP Conference Series: Materials Science and Engineering* (Vol. 325, No. 1, p. 012003). IOP Publishing.
- Ragandang, M.G. 2018.SRA 2.0: An Online Interactive Platform. (Master's thesis, Cebu Normal University, Cebu City).
- Richek, M.A., Caldwell, J., et. al. (1996). *Reading Problems: Assessment and Teaching Strategies*. Needham Heights, Massachusetts: A Simon & Schuster Company.
- Sherer, P. & Shea, T. (2011). Using Online Video to Support Student Learning and Engagement. *College Teaching*, 59:2, 55-59, DOI: 10.1080/87567555.2010.511313.
- Tompkins, G. (2003). *Literacy for the 21st century: Teaching Reading and Writing in Pre-Kindergarten through Grade 4*. New Jersey: Pearson Education, Inc.