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Factors affecting the learning of English as a second language macroskills among Tongan secondary students

Mele F. Latu
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**Factors affecting the learning of
English as a Second Language
macroskills among Tongan
secondary students**

By

Mele Fakatava Latu

BA.GCEd, Grad. Dip. Arts (Language Studies)

***A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for
the Award of Master of Arts in Applied Linguistics at the Faculty
of Arts, Edith Cowan University***

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USE OF THESIS

The Use of Thesis statement is not included in this version of the thesis.

Abstract

This study aimed at determining factors which might have impact on the learning of English as a second language macroskills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking) by Tongan secondary learners. The study was correlational in design and it worked from a synthetic perspective in that it looked at the way in which many aspects of language are interrelated to make the whole language system.

The study looked at learning English language macroskills from a multiple interdisciplinary perspective taking into consideration linguistic, psycholinguistic, sociolinguistic factors and classroom and bilingual education perspectives. The framework for language use required the learner to know the grammar (linguistic competence) of English and also to have the knowledge of how to use it appropriately in a variety of contexts.

The subjects of the study were 100 Form 5 ESL Secondary students and 24 Form 5 ESL Secondary teachers. The three main instruments used were a test and a questionnaire for the students and a questionnaire for the teachers.

Students' performance in the four English language macroskills were correlated with their perception of factors hypothesised to be associated with their learning of those English language macroskills at school (bivariate correlations). Standard multiple regressions were also performed (with only a few of the investigated factors selected as independent variables) to determine how much of the variance in the students' performance can be accounted for by the selected variables.

Seven factors were shown to have significant correlations with the students' learning of English macroskills at secondary school. They were: the age of the students; their perceived ability in English; frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers; use of English to read for enjoyment; use of English for communication at home; integrative motivation; and career aspirations.

The multiple regressions showed that 40% to 50% of the variances in reading, writing and listening could be accounted for by the same seven factors.

As for speaking, 48.5% of the variance could be accounted for by five of these factors: age; perceived ability in English; frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers; use of English to read for enjoyment; and career aspirations.

The findings of the study were accounted for in the light of appropriate and relevant linguistic theories.

Declaration

"I certify that this thesis does not incorporate, without acknowledgment, any material previously submitted for a degree or diploma in any institution of higher education and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, it does not contain any material previously published or written by another person except where due reference is made in the text"

Signed:

Acknowledgment

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Chapter one

Introduction

1.1 Background and Statement of Problem

1.1.1 The Tongan Sociocultural Context

The Kingdom of Tonga lies at approximately 20 degrees south of the Equator and close to the International Dateline. It consists of three groups of islands, Tongatapu, Ha'apai and Vava'u, and Tongatapu, being the largest group, holds the majority of the total population which is nearing 100,000.

Rutherford (1977) found two facts in Pacific history which make Tonga "uniquely important: it is the one Polynesian society that has maintained its political independence unbroken and its cultural heritage intact" (p.x), and although tides of development have swept into the land with great challenges to Tongan cultural identity, they have, over the years, cultivated pride and respect in the hearts of the people for their cultural heritage and language which are significant markers of their Tongan cultural identity. These feelings of pride and respect have been embodied in the concern expressed continuously in the country, particularly by Tongan scholars, to protect and nourish such unique traditions and language.

Taumoevalu (1990) expressed this concern when she addressed a workshop on "Vernacular languages in South Pacific education":

I think we will all agree that language is inextricably tied up with culture. Our concern about language is only part of our concern about the whole culture, about the whole way of life. What if it becomes absorbed into and drowned in the surging tides of Westernisation? What of our identity then? What of the heritage we love so well? (p.53).

Taufe'ulungaki (1992) expressed the same concern when she addressed a conference on "community languages":

Today, in many parts of the Pacific, as indeed in many other parts of the world, small vulnerable language communities and their cultures are in the process of being eroded, and emasculated by other more powerful cultures and languages. Most, if not all, are engaged not only in desperate struggles to preserve, maintain, and promote their unique linguistic and cultural heritages but groping too with the corollary problems of how to nurture among members of such communities, pride in themselves, their communities, and their shared identities.
(p.2)

These two views not only expressed an urgent need to preserve and nurture the Tongan culture and language, but they also spoke of an inevitable process which has confronted Tonga, thus bringing with it circumstances which create threats to the maintenance of Tongan culture and language particularly because of a demand for a knowledge and use of English.

Marcus (1977) spoke of this process as an era of modernisation:

Like many other Pacific nations, and those of South-East Asia, Tonga is experiencing an era of modernisation, characterised by the opening of Tonga to tourism, investment and researchers; the massive outflow of Tongans overseas for varying periods of time for education and employment; the growing population and consequent shortage of land; the concentration of population on Tongatapu and the urbanisation of Nuku'alofa; the increase of sea and air transport and telecommunications; the greatly increased flow and use of cash.
(p.213).

This process has no doubt provided opportunities which attract many Tongans away from a lifestyle which has been based on agriculture, particularly farming and fishing, to a 'white-collar' lifestyle whose success in terms of status, social mobility, and employment depend a great deal on education. To be successful in education, one needs a knowledge of English as it is the main medium in which education is carried out. This

creates the pressure to learn and to know how to use English and it is as much a need as the need to know Tongan for the maintenance of cultural heritage.

The Tongan sociocultural context is best characterised therefore by the co-existence of two cultures, Tongan and Western, and of two languages, Tongan and English.

1.1.2 The Roles of Tongan and English in the Society

Spolsky (1983) reports Tongan as the language for oral use in Tonga. Tongan is used for everyday communication in the home, in the community (including on radio and public meetings), in stores and in government. The Legislative Assembly, the Cabinet and the Privy Council conduct their business in Tongan, thus indicating that Tongan is the official language.

Spolsky (1983) also reports the use of written Tongan. The Bible is available in Tongan. All churches have prayer and hymn books in Tongan and other religious booklets in Tongan are on sale in main bookshops. Apart from religious material, the principal reading matter available in Tongan is provided by the newspapers. A national newspaper, the Chronicle, is published weekly both in Tongan and English, with more copies in Tongan. Various churches also publish their own monthly magazines.

Tongan is also for personal and community identity, and for maintaining and nurturing Tongan cultural traditions (Albion and Rosser, 1993). In the primary school, Tongan is the official medium of instruction (Takau, 1991).

With English, on the other hand, Spolsky (1983) reports that spoken English is used basically for conversation with non-Tongan expatriates, visitors and tourists, although there are a number of Tongans with overseas training or long experience overseas who find it comfortable to speak English to fellow professionals, and a few speak English at home with their children.

English plays a very significant role in education. According to Takau (1991), English is taught as a subject in primary school but gradually at class 5 and class 6 it is

used partly also as a medium of instruction. At the secondary level, English is not only a subject but also the medium of instruction. Although English is the official medium of instruction both at primary and secondary schools, it is not really in practice. Most teachers find it easier to teach in Tongan. So they either teach English using Tongan as a medium or they use both Tongan and English alternately as the medium when teaching. Both oral and written English are used in education.

English also appears to be the written language of commerce, trade, technology and higher administration. Written English is also used at the street and road signs intended for tourists and visitors. Like many countries in the world today, English is used for international communications.

1.1.3 Tongan and English in Bilingual Education

1.1.3.1 Aim of Bilingual Education.

The equal pressure for use of English and Tongan in the society at large becomes very influential in language planning in education. Takau (1991) related the current official policy for the teaching of English and Tongan in school:

The aim of teaching of Tongan and English is to allow the child to become bilingual at the end of his/her secondary schooling. This should be built on his/her understanding of the Tongan language gradually moving into an understanding of English. As such Tongan is not only a subject in the primary school but is the medium of instruction. English is taught as a subject but gradually at class 5 and 6 it is used partly also as a medium of instruction. At the secondary level, English is not only a subject but also the medium of instruction, especially from Form 3 onwards. Tongan is studied as a subject and is partly the medium of instruction at Forms 1 and 2 (p.101).

Although this bilingual policy has been under the scrutiny of an ongoing debate on the roles and status of the two languages in education and society, and although

consequently many modifications have been made, it still remains one of the long-standing policies in language education.

Over the years, efforts have been put into the enforcement of the policy. These can be witnessed in the upgrading of Tongan as a subject at secondary school and the development of curriculum materials for both English and Tongan. For many years, Tongan has been taught only as a compulsory subject in Form 1 through to Form 4, where students used to sit the Tonga Higher Leaving Examination. It was not until 1987 with the withdrawal of New Zealand from Tonga's Secondary Education System and the termination of the Tonga Higher Leaving Examination, that Tongan was made a compulsory subject in Form 5 and became examinable in the Tonga School Certificate Examination, which was introduced in the same year to replace Tonga Higher Leaving Examination. A new Tongan curriculum has been developed and revised to guide the teaching of Tongan at that level.

English, on the other hand, has always been a compulsory subject in Forms 1-6 at secondary level, also in Form 7 when it was introduced. However, in Forms 5 and 6, New Zealand was very influential in curriculum design and assessment. It was not until 1987 when the Tonga School Certificate Examination (TSC) replaced the New Zealand School Certificate Examination in Form 5 that a Tongan-based curriculum was developed for that level (see below). The same applied to Form 6 when the Pacific Senior Secondary Certificate (PSSC) took the place of the New Zealand University Entrance Examination in 1989. A new curriculum was consequently designed and developed for that level.

The efforts put on the development of curriculum for English and Tongan have been on a continuous basis. In 1990 an AIDAB-supported Tongan Curriculum Development Project designed a new Tongan Bilingual Curriculum Materials Package, some of which is currently being trialed in Primary classes 1-6 and Secondary Forms 1-2. All these attempts and efforts had been for the enforcement of bilingual education policy.

1.1.3.2 Teaching and Learning of English in Bilingual Education

Instructed learning or Classroom-based learning is the main way in which students in Tonga learn English as a second language both at primary and secondary schools. It follows that what they learn is guided and controlled a great deal by a formal curriculum of an English Language course designed by the Tongan Ministry of Education. The curriculum for learning English at Form 5, for instance, outlines the aims, objectives, content and the kind of examination for the course. For its implementation, the curriculum recommends texts and the Curriculum Unit of the Ministry has also written a set of teaching materials to aid the teaching. At the end of each year, students' achievements on the English language course are examined and the results are used for promotion purposes, for job applications and for further studies. The English course prescription curriculum for Form 5 at secondary level (shown below) will reveal some characteristics of how English is taught in bilingual education in Tonga.

In the Tonga School Certificate Prescription - English (revised version of 1989), the course outline prescribes the following general aims for the learning of English at this level (Form 5): "...

- A. *that teachers and pupils will find the teaching and learning of English an enjoyable and worthwhile experience.*
- B. *that pupils will continue to increase their ability to understand English and use it effectively.*
- C. *that pupils will further develop those language skills necessary for further education.*
- D. *that pupils will develop further interest in and appreciation of literature.*
- E. *that pupils will continue to develop skills for acquiring knowledge and information from written materials and other sources."*

These aims, though general, do have some implication for the roles of English in education and society and also the reasons for studying it at this level. English is to be studied as a means to other ends, in this case, a means for acquiring knowledge and for carrying out further learning. The students therefore, in their learning of English, are

expected to acquire a knowledge of how the language functions and also to develop skills in using that knowledge to achieve the ends explained above.

Because this English course prescription is examinable at the end of the year, the course prescription outlines the following objectives:

“After the Tonga School Certificate course pupils should be able to:

- A. read and understand different types of prose and varieties of English.*
- B. listen to and understand different types of prose and varieties of English.*
- C. express themselves clearly in spoken and written English.*
- D. know how to use the library and other sources of information.”*

These objectives are significant in several ways. First, they attempt to specify the focus of English teaching at this level. Clearly the focus is on the learning of the four English language macroskills, (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). Second, they generally state what the students are expected to attain at the end of the course. Finally, some guidelines are generally implied so as to guide the assessment of the students’ attainment upon completion of the course. It should be noted, however, that aural-oral skills are not tested.

As far as the content of the Form 5 English language course is concerned, it is prescribed that the following activities should be incorporated in the year’s course of study:

- “A. i. Using reading skills in both literary and non-literary contexts.*
 - ii. Reading fiction.*
 - iii. Discussing responses to what is read.*
- B. Using speaking and listening skills in a variety of contexts, both formal and informal, such as discussion, conversation, interviews, reading aloud, debating, meetings, explanations, informal talks to small or large groups, with attention to the ways in which speaking and listening are*

affected by purpose and audience. Even though these are not tested formally, schools are expected to teach these components. Sometime in the future these components will be tested.

- C.
 - i. *Using writing skills in both personal and formal styles, including creative, narrative, descriptive and expository writing.*
 - ii. *Writing in a variety of contexts, with attention to the ways in which writing is influenced by purposes and audience.*
 - iii. *Writing responses to literary works.*
- D.
 - i. *Using resources available for study and inquiry such as libraries.*
 - ii. *Gathering and processing information from various resources."*

The content of the course outline reinforces again the teaching of the four English language macroskills, and the approach suggested for its teaching is task-based. Students are to learn English through performing tasks or activities using English as the medium.

When it comes to examining what the students ought to have learned at the completion of the course, the course outline prescribes the following format and skills:

"Section A (All questions are compulsory)

Question One Comprehension (30 marks)

This question is constituted of several parts. Each part centres on a passage to be read, followed by multiple choice questions to be answered. These questions are intended to test candidates' understanding of the given extracts.

Question Two Language (20 marks)

This question comprises several parts. Candidates are required to answer all parts of the question. These parts may include the following:

- *Modified cloze (filling gaps in given passage using multiple choice answers).*
- *Modified cloze (filling gaps in given passage using own words).*
- *Proof reading (correcting errors in given passage).*
- *Concrete multiple choice items.*
- *Answering questions on given dictionary page.*
- *Answering open-ended questions on language samples.*
- *Language production - conversation, sentence joining, sentence rewriting, vocabulary.*

The question is intended to test such skills as: using the dictionary, using the library, appropriate usage (of tense, voice, basic registers, part of speech eg. prepositions and articles).

Question Three Personal Writing (10 marks)

(about 150 words)

Question Four Expressing Opinions (10 marks)

(about 150 marks)

Section B (Any two questions) (30 marks)

Candidates will do ONLY TWO questions in this section. Each question is worth 15 marks. Questions will be set on each of the following areas: Short stories, Fiction and Non-Fiction, Drama, Poetry."

(See Tonga School Certificate Prescription - English)

1.1.3.3 Outcome of Bilingual Education.

Despite this long-standing policy of bilingual education and the many attempts made to improve it, certain things have been observed over the years which reflect the need for a constant review of this policy and practice.

One of those relates directly to the outcome of bilingual education. Tekiteki (1990) referred to a conference organized by the Ministry of Education in the early 1980s to address important issues relating to bilingual education in Tonga. He outlined the general feeling of the conference in these terms:

“What came out clearly at the end of the conference was that if the aim of bilingual education in Tonga is to produce co-ordinate bilinguals with students functioning equally in both English and Tongan, then the education system has failed. It was generally agreed that what the education system is actually producing is: “. .

1. *compound bilinguals with English being the stronger language for many students, who in turn acquire their values and cultural identities through English;*
2. *subtractive (sic) bilingualism where students are functioning adequately in neither language;*
3. *a less cognitively able school population handicapped by being unable to interact meaningfully with their environment in either language.”*
(pp.57-58).

This general feeling appears to demonstrate that although many students appear to be successful in their learning of English, most Tongan students still fail to use the two languages meaningfully and effectively at the end of that bi-lingual education.

The perceived failure of most students to function effectively in English at the end of bilingual education warrants this investigation. There has always been an emphasis on English in the Tongan language education policy, but as Spolsky (1993) noted:

"Tongan language education policy thus faces a critical task in balancing the competing demands of English and Tongan literacy. In the last decade there are signs that it has perhaps gone too far towards English, but the danger signals have been clearly noted." (p.468)

This "gone too far towards English", however, has been pushed by certain circumstances which exist in secondary education. Besides using English as the main medium of instruction, most text resources for academic subjects, except Tongan and Scripture, are in English. Furthermore, English competency is essentially a part of the minimum qualifications required of all job applications in Tonga, while a pass in English at Forms 6 and 7 is a prerequisite for tertiary studies and studies abroad. In some school systems, a pass in English as a subject is considered when one is promoted from one level to another.

Even if these circumstance can be avoided in order to reduce the value ascribed to English this issue of "gone too far towards English", in practice, is partly a myth. It does not seem to indicate a better mastery of English by the students once they graduate at the end of secondary education. The contrary, however, is the situation: students do not exit from secondary education with English mastery superior to Tongan nor is their English proficiency commensurate with the resourcing of the subject. Part of the problem may relate to the use of Tongan as the medium of teaching in English classes by most Tongan English teachers.

Bearing in mind that students must pass English as a subject at a certain level in order to obtain a full pass in the Forms 5 and 6 exams, the examination results between the years 1980-1990 revealed very low success rates. See Table 1.

Table 1 Forms 5 and 6 English Examination Results

Year	Form 5		Form 6	
	Number Sat	% Passed	Number Sat	% Passed
1980	667	29.9	220	15.5
1981	717	18.3	281	13.5
1982	781	8.8	333	20.4
1983	610	16.6	349	9.2
1984	1101	15.4	363	10.5
1985	1091	16.3	414	9.4
1986	1307	24.7	512	16.0
1987	1333	9.8	635	15.3
1988	1563	44.3	695	14.1
1989	1518	45.3	685	17.4
1990	1937	45.9	661	18.9

Source: Ministry of Education Annual Reports for the years 1980 to 1990.

Note. The Forms 5 and 6 exam results between 1980-1985 were reported in terms of the number of candidates passing with 50% or more. The larger figures between 1986-1990 were due to change in criteria for 'passing'. The number of candidates reported passing were in terms of those who were qualified to go on to Form 6 (with a minimum mark of Grade 5 in English, which was about 30%), qualified to go on to Form 7 (with a minimum mark of Grade 4), and qualified to go to University of the South Pacific (with a minimum of mark Grade 3). (Scores range from Grade 9 the lowest to Grade 1 the highest).

What appears to have been confirmed is that in spite of going too far towards English within bilingual education, Tongan students still have difficulties in mastering English to a point where they can use it meaningfully and effectively, even the smaller number who undertake Form 6.

To provide assistance in such a situation in the hope of making improvements, one may begin by asking such questions as, " Why do students find it hard to learn and

master English?" or "What can be done to help the students improve their learning of English?"

In response to the second question, the Tonga Country Paper for the Eleventh Conference of Commonwealth Education Ministers (1990) outlined some measures which Tonga had already implemented in the hope that they will have impact in the learning of Tongan and English in the country. These include the development of appropriate curricula to meet the needs of Tongan children, involvement of teachers in curriculum development, preparing teaching materials, in-service training of teachers, development of literacy skills, initially in Tongan and then reinforced later in English, upgrading the status of Tongan in the hope that it will assist the learning of English, and other such strategies. According to the Tonga Country Paper (1990), "some of these developments have been proven to have impact on the situation, while at the same time, some have had no appreciable effects to date" (p.14).

In response to the first question, 'Why do students find it hard to learn and master English?', one would have to try and identify some possible contributory reasons or factors as to why Tongan students find it hard to learn and master English. If some can be identified, then that would be a good basis to determine the kind of measures to take in order to provide remedies for the problem. It is with this aim, that the present study has been undertaken.

1.2 The Purpose of the Study

With regard to the learning of English language macroskills by Tongan secondary students at the Form 5 level, the purposes of the study are:

- A. To determine:
 - i. their performance in reading, writing, listening, and speaking in English.
 - ii. the linguistic and non-linguistic factors associated with the students' learning of English language macroskills.

- B. To compare the perceptions of students and Form 5 English teachers of the students on factors associated with the learning of English language macroskills.
- C. To use linguistic theory to try and account for:
 - i. the performance of students
 - ii. linguistic and non-linguistic factors which affect English as a second language macroskill development
 - iii. students and teachers' perceptions on factors which affect English as a second language macroskill development

1.3 Research Design and Methodology

The study is descriptive and correlational in design. It attempts not only to describe the learners' ability in using English language macroskills but also to explore factors which might relate to their ability in using those English language macroskills.

Information was collected from two primary data sources. The first primary source of data was the test performance of students in the four macro-skills of English. The second primary source was a survey of perceptions not only of students but also of teachers who are involved in the teaching and learning of English at secondary school level. Details of the research design and methodology are presented in Chapter 3.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The primary aim of the study lies in its attempt to identify factors which might be associated with the learning of English language macroskills by secondary students in Tonga. The focus is on investigating whether there are any correlations between the factors it explores and the learning of English language macroskills at secondary level. If certain factors correlate with students' performance in English language macroskills, then such factors may be contributing to the difficulty faced by students in learning English language macroskills. Only an experimental study could confirm that. This kind

of information can be useful, not only for the teaching of English in the classroom but also to the Ministry of Education, especially to language planners and writers in their decision-making. The study should also contribute to the research literature in the field of Second Language Acquisition.

1.5 Structure of the Report

The background to the study has been outlined in this Chapter. Chapter two contains a review of the literature relevant to the focus of the study. A detailed description of the research design and methodology is provided in Chapter three. Chapter four reports the findings from the study, and in Chapter five the findings are discussed in detail and accounted for in the light of linguistic theory. Chapter six contains conclusions and recommendations, not only for measures to take for improvements in the learning of English, but for further research.

Chapter 2

Review of literature

In this chapter, a review of the literature on second language learning is given. First, the review introduces the framework from which there is a need to look in order to have a comprehensive and complete understanding of factors which may affect the process of learning or acquiring a second language. The review then goes on to explain what it means to know a second language, and that is followed by a very brief discussion of language testing. At the end of the review, a discussion of individual factors which have been identified in literature to have possible impacts on the process of learning a second language is given, focusing only on those factors which have direct bearing on this study.

2.1 Introduction

The quest to identify significant and potential factors leading to success or failure in the acquisition or learning of a second (SL) or foreign language (FL) has been part of research in second language acquisition (SLA) for quite some time (Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp and Chatow, 1990). Because these potential factors are many, any investigation of this kind needs to have some clear understanding of SLA as a phenomenon, particularly the many different aspects that are involved in the learning or acquiring of a second language. Having some understanding of those aspects would provide a good basis as to the kind of factors to be investigated.

Ellis (1986) refers to Second Language Acquisition as a non-uniformed as well as an unpredictable phenomenon. This view immediately signifies the complexity and diversity of acquiring or learning a second language. The complexity of SLA as a process leads Beebe (1988) to suggest that a multiple interdisciplinary approach can be used to view SLA in order to achieve a full understanding. Included in this multiple interdisciplinary perspective are: the psycholinguistic perspective which stresses the

central role played by the mental processing in second language acquisition; the sociolinguistic perspective which puts an emphasis on the role of social context in the acquisition of linguistic code and how the social context influences the development of communicative competence in second language; and the neurolinguistic perspective which seeks to establish relationships between the brain and acquiring, knowing and using a second language.

Beebe suggests further that second language acquisition be looked at from: a classroom research-based perspective which concentrates not only on the ways in which second language instruction affects the processes, rate and ultimate level of second language attainment but also the interactions and activities that are going on in the classroom; and a bilingual education perspective which generally focuses on the role of first language (L1) on the acquisition of the second language (L2).

This is definitely necessary in the case of Tonga because most students begin their formal learning of English as a second language when they start schooling at primary level. To many students, even their exposure to English only begins when they go to school. There is a high possibility then that instruction contributes to the success or failure of their language attainment. The role of the L1 on the learning of English (L2) among Tongan students may also be very influential as most students would be very fluent already in their Tongan (L1) before they begin to learn English at school.

What is being reflected by this multiple interdisciplinary approach in relation to any investigation of potential factors leading to success and failure in SLA, is the fact that in order to identify what those factors might be, one needs to look at SLA from these various perspectives. Only by doing that, can a true survey of SLA be achieved (Beebe, 1988:4).

Another way of looking at SLA is reflected again by Ellis's view, "Second language acquisition is a product of many factors pertaining to the learner on the one hand and the learning situation on the other" (1986:4). What is offered by this view is not an entirely different description of SLA from the one mentioned above, but rather an alternate way of organising the same aspects of SLA and explaining them in terms of

their specific relevance to factors related to the learner of the language and the situation where learning takes place. Even within this approach, the perspectives mentioned above can not be ignored. This approach has been taken up by researchers in factor studies, though with various modifications as to how these factors are conceptualised and categorised.

Pienemann and Johnston (1987), for example, came up with a distinction between factors which are 'external' and 'internal' to the learner. Under the title of 'external factors' are variables ranging from L1, social environment, and biological factors such as age. 'Internal factors', on the other hand, are described as aspects of the learner's cognitive and linguistic capacities and the mental structures which determine these capacities. This general typology of factors was incorporated into their multi-dimensional framework used in investigating factors relevant to the acquisition of a second language.

Another way of categorising these factors is shown in Spolsky's general theory of second language (1989). Spolsky claims that the achievement of the various possible outcomes in second language learning is a result of four groups of factors. His claim is expressed in this formula, $K_f = K_p + A + M + O$, where K_f stands for knowledge and skills in the second language at some future time. The achievement of K_f then depends on these factors: K_p which is knowledge and skills at the moment including general knowledge of the learner's first and other languages; A which represents various components of ability including physiological, biological, intellectual, and cognitive skills; M which represents various affective factors such as personality, attitudes, motivation, and anxiety; and O which stands for opportunity for learning the language, consisting of time multiplied by kind, the latter covering the range of formal and informal situations in which the learner is exposed to the language.

So significant are these factors in second language learning that Spolsky goes on to claim that "each of the parts will make a difference to the result: if any one is absent, there can be no learning, and the greater any one is, the greater the amount of learning" (1989:15). This claim is significantly relevant to the study of success and failure in

second language learning, as success may be accounted for by the presence of some of these factors and failure may be due to the absence or lack of some of these factors.

Although different theoretical frameworks may put different emphases on these factors and their influences on SLA, Olshtain, Shohamy, Kemp, and Chatow (1990) argue that it has been identified in literature that they have potential to affect the success or failure in SLA, and they generally exist in the following categories: (a) the learner context or the learning conditions, including the educational treatment (formal/informal learning situations) and the amount of exposure to the target language (TL) in its natural setting (Beebe, 1985); (b) the social context: attitudes and motivation deriving from the political, cultural and socio-linguistic milieu (Gardner, 1980); (c) the learner's characteristics: cognitive variables encompassing language aptitude, academic knowledge of one's first language (L1), and IQ level, as well as other individual features (Cummins, 1979a, 1979b, 1980, 1981).

In the case of the Tongan students, these factors can be found to have impacts on the differences of individual language attainment among students. Students come to school from different backgrounds and therefore having different levels of exposure and practice in the use of English language. Some students are more fortunate to come from home background where both parents are well educated and therefore able to use English as a medium of communication at home. Those students may be more successful in English learning than those who have no exposure or practice in the use of English in the home. Here they may differ mainly because of the different opportunities they have for the learning of the language (O factors) and because of these different opportunities for learning, they have different levels of knowledge and skills (Kp factors) in their English learning. It can also be noted among Tongan students that some have outgoing personality and are not shy and may be likely to learn English better than those who are shy. The general cognitive ability of the students can also contribute to the success and failure in English learning among the Tongan learners of English language.

Considering the many factors which can potentially contribute to the success and failure in learning a second language, limited space would make it impossible to discuss all of them here. The rest of this literature review, therefore, will focus on discussing

only those factors which have direct relevance and bearings on this study. Those factors are: the age, students' perceived ability in English, frequency of use of English with Non-Tongan speakers, integrative motivation, career aspirations, and education aspirations.

However, before doing that, it may be worth considering what Spolsky (1989) says, "To be able to discuss intelligently the conditions that lead to second language learning requires a clear and precise definition of what it means to know a second language" (p 30.). Along the same vein of thinking, though concentrating on the linguistic competence, Gregg (1989) argues, "Thus, to account for the acquisition of linguistic competence, one needs a theory of language, for we cannot understand the acquisition of something without an understanding of what that something is" (p. 11).

These arguments appear to suggest that we cannot fully understand the effects of those factors unless we can define what it is that they are affecting. In other words, we cannot understand the effects of such factors on learning a second language unless we can describe what it means to know a second language. It is that issue that the next section will focus on.

2.2 Knowing a second language

2.2.1 Interlanguage Theory

One of the initial concerns in conceptualising what it means to know a second language has been embodied in the need to explain the knowledge a language learner has of the target language. The Interlanguage Theory is one of the early attempts to explain the knowledge of a second language within the field of SLA.

Initially the word interlanguage was coined by Selinker (1972) to describe the knowledge of an L2 as a set of structural rules or intermediate grammars constructed by second language learners on their way to the target language. Although this grammar is incomplete and imperfect in nature, Selinker argues, it forms a unified whole. Selinker sees this grammar as a product of different psychological mechanisms and its development is not like that of a natural language.

Adjemian (1976) modifies Selinker's view on the second language learner's language by stressing that the learner's knowledge of a second language (interlanguage) has a dynamic character which means that the learners may use rules and items from the first language if they are put in such situations, or they may distort or overgeneralise a rule from the target language when attempting to produce a meaning. In such ways new items or rules are added to the learner's grammar. Adjemian, unlike Selinker, also argues that because of the systematicity found in the learner's language (interlanguage), it should be analysed linguistically as a rule-governed behaviour just like any other natural language.

Tarone (1979, 1983) agrees with Adjemian that interlanguages operate on the same principles as natural languages but she differs from Adjemian in that she stressed the notion of variability in the learners' knowledge of second languages. Underlying this notion of variability is the argument that an interlanguage is analysable into a set of styles that are dependent on the context of use. Tarone (1983), for example, maintains that variability in interlanguage is caused by style-shifting along a continuum which is in turn caused by variable shifts in the degree of attention which the learner pays to language form. This style-shifting continuum includes five different styles ranging from a more pidgin-like style, 'Vernacular Style' to a more target-like or native-like style, 'Careful Style'. From this perspective, the knowledge of a second language is essentially to be characterised in structural or competence terms. In essence, for Tarone, interlanguage (learner's language) is not a single system, but a set of styles which can be used in different social contexts.

From this very brief discussion of an interlanguage model, a language learner's knowledge of a second language is described as a unified systematic whole operating on the same principles as natural languages and, like knowledge of a first language, knowledge of a second language is marked by variability.

These characteristics of interlanguage can be easily identified among the Tongan students as learners of English as a second language. As students progress from junior to senior levels of secondary school, one can easily identify the dynamic nature of their use of English. Students tend to add more English words and rules in their use of

language and their style progresses from being pidgin-like to a more native-like style. Obviously, their knowledge of English is incomplete and still imperfect, but for the students it is a unified whole which they can use already as a medium of expression and communication at school.

2.2.2 Forms of Knowledge

One distinction which is generally recognised in SLA is that between active and passive knowledge or perhaps better expressed as productive and receptive skills. According to Spolsky (1989), individual language learners vary in their productive and receptive skills, and typically, receptive language skills develop before productive language skills.

This distinction between receptive and productive language skills raises other issues relating to the existence of forms of second language knowledge, particularly the relation between knowledge and the ability to use it, between structure and function, between competence and process models, or between what Spolsky (1989) calls, duality of knowledge and skills.

Chomsky's linguistic theory (Universal Grammar), though initially used to describe L1 acquisition, has been the most commonly applied theory to second language data. Chomsky (1975) says, "It does not seem quite accurate to take 'knowledge of English' to be a capacity or ability, though it enters into the capacity or ability exercised in language use. In principle, one might have the cognitive structure that we call 'knowledge of English' fully developed, with no capacity to use this structure." (p. 23). This argument reflects a distinction between two kinds of knowledge, in Gregg's words,(1988), between 'knowledge that' and 'knowledge how'.

Within the Chomskyan perspective, 'knowledge that' is commonly referred to as 'competence' which is the knowledge that we have about our language, knowledge which goes beyond what we produce, to include the recognition of ambiguities, ungrammatical utterances, and so forth. The 'knowledge how' is the 'performance' which refers to what we actually produce, or our linguistic behaviour.

In applying the linguistic theory to second language acquisition, Gregg argues that in characterising second language knowledge, as in characterising primary language knowledge, it is necessary to differentiate between competence and performance. A competence-based approach based on Chomskyan perspective to SLA would therefore advocate the development of linguistic or grammatical competence as to be the central domain of second language learning. Gregg goes along with this view and states, "As have often been pointed out, acquisition of language involves more than the acquisition of rules for the production of utterances. It involves the acquisition of knowledge, including knowledge that will never find expression in output: knowledge of ambiguity, anaphoric relations, possible versus impossible interpretations of sentences, possible versus impossible sentences, and so forth . It is this knowledge, acquired or innate, that I believe should be viewed as the domain of SLA theory" (1989:18).

From a more psycholinguistic perspective, Bialystok (1978, 1981) proposes a processing model which attempts to explain the distinction between the second language learner's knowledge of a second language and his ability to use that language. In the final development of his model, Bialystok argues that knowing a second language involves two distinct components: "the mental representation of systematic, organized information about the target language and the procedures for effectively and efficiently retrieving that knowledge in appropriate situations" (Bialystok and Sharwood-Smith, 1985:106). Because these components are so distinct, according to Bialystok, the learning of each may be independent, except that a structure must be represented mentally before it can be used (Spolsky, 1989). In as far as the retrieval procedures of her model, Bialystok states that there can be a difference among the learners in 'efficiency', referred to as 'automaticity' which is seen as the basis for fluency. Because fluency is distinct from and independent of knowledge, a language learner may be accurate and hesitant, accurate and fluent, or inaccurate and fluent (Spolsky, 1989).

Sharwood-Smith (1986) follows on from Bialystok and proposes a psychological model which distinguishes competence and control. Competence in his model, as in Chomsky's theory of generative grammar, refers to the abstract representation of knowledge, mainly in the form of analysed or unanalysed rules, stored in the long term

memory. Control involves mechanisms which allows accessibility to the knowledge in the long term memory and integrate with various information which have been accessed in acts of utterance comprehension and utterance production (Bialystok and Sharwood-Smith, (1985).

In applying the information processing theory of cognition and memory proposed by Anderson (1982, 1983), O'Malley, Chamot, and Walker (1987) highlight Anderson's distinction of 'declarative knowledge' (what we know about or static information in memory) and 'procedural knowledge' (what we know how to do or dynamic information in memory). According to Anderson's theory, declarative knowledge includes examples of things we know about including definitions of words, facts and rules, and this type of knowledge is represented in long-term memory as abstract meaning. In applying this type of knowledge to SLA, information in either the L1 or L2 has a meaning-based representation and would be stored as declarative knowledge through either propositional networks or schema. This is factual and rule-bound information and the way it is organized in memory may have a substantial effect on the L2 learner's ability to transfer it effectively and accurately into the new language (O'Malley, Chamot, and Walker, 1987).

According to Anderson's theory, our ability to understand and generate language or apply our knowledge of rules to solve a problem would be examples of procedural knowledge. Procedural knowledge is represented in memory as production systems, and Anderson argues that all complex cognitive skills can be represented as productions. In applying this type of knowledge to SLA, O'Malley, Chamot, and Walker (1987) argue that, "knowing about language as a grammatical system, which involves knowing the rules underlying syntax, semantics, and phonology, is not a sufficient condition for knowing how to use the language functionally . In order to use a language for communicative purposes, procedural knowledge is required" (p. 295). The focus therefore is on language as a skill rather than on language as an object of study.

Although inner processing theories are considered limited for their lack of empirical evidence, and linguistic theories are regarded insufficient to define language in its completeness, their explanations of mental processes and types of knowledge involved

in language acquisition are useful in describing what it means to know a second language.

On one hand, the language learners' knowledge of a second language is described in terms of their knowledge of the structures and rules of that language. It is claimed that underlying all cognitive activity is this perfect and formal system unlike that usually displayed by the record of linguistic behaviour. Central to this structuralist approach is the view that language is a hierarchical system of units - sounds, morphemes, words, and grammatical structures.

On the other hand, the language learners' knowledge of a second language is described in terms of their knowledge of how to use the grammar of that language to carry out various functions. This knowledge is normally displayed in the learners' performance in using the second language. In summary, knowing a second language does not only mean knowing the grammatical system of the language (linguistic competence) but also having the ability to retrieve such knowledge and use it to perform various functions in that language (skills).

From experience, one can easily identify the lack of these forms of knowledge among Tongan secondary students when using English to carry out various functions at school. For example, students' failure to express their ideas clearly and appropriately in essay and story writings can be accounted for by a lack in the linguistic competence they have in English.

2.2.3 Communicative competence

Having the ability to use the linguistic knowledge in a second language to fulfil a range of purposes in communication is usually termed communicative competence. In objection to Chomsky's (1965) linguistic theory, which puts an emphasis on describing and explaining the learner's linguistic competence, Hymes (1972) argues that such theory fails to account for a whole dimension, the sociocultural. The work in sociolinguistics linked with pragmatics and discourse analysis has demonstrated that the language learner or speaker has, in addition to his linguistic code grammar, other higher internalised rule

systems which are also important in determining language behaviour. The use of these rule systems are constrained by contextual variables. Therefore with an increasing knowledge of grammatical rules, the learner develops a knowledge which Hymes considers essentially as "an ability when to speak, when not, and...what to talk about, with whom, when, where, in what manner" (1972:277). This ability is what is identified in literature as communicative competence.

Since language use is contextually constrained, a second language learner is regarded competent if his choice of linguistic code is appropriate to the context. From a sociolinguistic perspective, 'context' consists of those aspects of the situation which activate choice (Ellis, 1987). In Lyons' words(1977), context is "a theoretical construct in the postulation of which the linguist abstracts from the actual situation and establishes as contextual all the factors which, by virtue of their influence upon the participants in a language event, systematically determine the form, the appropriacy and the meaning of utterances" (p. 572). The actual situation referred to here consists of both linguistic and extralinguistic elements.

Ellis (1987) refers to the linguistic elements as the 'linguistic context', which include the preceding and following elements in isolated utterances as well as the verbal environment of whatever category the linguist chooses to examine, and the extralinguistic elements as the 'situational context' which at macrolevel include such domains as the school, the family, the church, the government administration , etc., and at the microlevel include such variables as scene (setting and purpose) and participants participating in a speech event (Brown and Fraser, 1979).

This construct of context, from a sociolinguistic perspective, helps to explain why language users choose their linguistic code the way they do. Knowing a second language therefore goes beyond the knowledge of grammar to appropriately using that knowledge of grammar for communication in different contexts. Canale and Swain's model of communicative competence explains the related competences which a second language learner should acquire in order to be regarded as a competent user of a language. The three competences are:

1. **Grammatical competence knowledge of lexical items and rules of morphology, syntax, sentence-grammar semantics, and phonology**
2. **Sociolinguistic competence sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse...**
3. **Strategic competence verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for break-down in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence.**

(Canale and Swain, 1980: 29-30)

Perhaps it should be pointed out at this point that there is great need to adopt more communicative approaches in the teaching of English as a second language in Tonga. The approaches currently employed are dominantly structural and functional in nature. Students need to be aware of the various social contexts and the appropriate language to use in those various situations. This only makes their knowledge of English as a second language complete.

Using the structural approach, the functional approach, and the communicative approach, as so far discussed, to describe the language learner's knowledge of a second language is theoretically ideal. The second language learner must know not only the structural rules of the language but also the sociolinguistic rules in order to fluently and appropriately function in that language.

2.3 Language testing

With a specific reference to any study of factors affecting SLA, Pienemann and Johnston (1987) suggest, "When an attempt is made to sort out factors influencing the development of language proficiency, one is immediately confronted with the problem of measuring proficiency itself" (p 67). This view warrants again a brief discussion on the issue of language testing in this literature review, not only because it has been a major part of this study, but more importantly, language testing can highlight the outcome or achievement thus indicating success or failure in second language learning.

One of the essential problems in any assessment of language proficiency is reflected by what Brindley (1986) says, "The field of Language Proficiency Assessment is encumbered with a plethora of confusing terminology. Terms such as "communicative competence", "linguistic competence" "linguistic performance", "communicative performance", "language proficiency", "language skill" and so forth are widely used in the literature by different authors in different ways" (p. 3). The disagreement about ways of conceptualising the nature of language proficiency underlies controversies which give rise to a situation where the theory of language proficiency one holds will invariably influence the way one goes about assessing it.

Researchers in second language learning, for example, have suggested ways of making second language teaching and testing more 'communicative' (Canale and Swain, 1980; Oller, 1979) on the grounds that a communicative approach better reflects the nature of language proficiency than one which emphasises the acquisition of discrete language skills. The diversified theoretical interpretations as to what it means to know a second language, specifically what constitutes a second language proficiency, influence the ways in which second language proficiency is measured and assessed.

Spolsky (1989) refers to three approaches in language testing which have been derived from three different theoretical claims. The first claim is that one knows certain parts of the language, he calls it Structural claim. He refers to the second claim as Functional claim, which means that one can use the language for certain purposes. He calls the third claim, General Proficiency claim, which suggests that one has a certain level of general knowledge of the language. These approaches have been used in second language testing, when the language learner's knowledge of a second language is measured and assessed.

2.3.1 Testing Structural Knowledge

The structural approach to language testing aims at discovering the atoms of language proficiency. A list or a random sample of linguistic items thought to contribute to knowing a second language are tested. What is sought is evidence that the language

learner knows the constituent elements of the language. The accuracy of the learner's performance in such tests is an indication of his competency in the language.

Two theoretical claims underpin this approach to language testing. First, the structural theory to language acquisition which is dealing with the underlying knowledge (competence), how much one knows about a language, rather than the process. The other theoretical claim is the psychometric model which states that the universe of what is tested is assumed to consist of a large number of equally relevant and equally valued items.

The link of structural and psychometric theories marks what Spolsky (1977) refers to as the beginning of modern or the scientific approach to language testing. Language tests based on this approach are referred to as discrete point tests since they test knowledge of individual or discrete items selected from the structural description of the language.

2.3.2 Testing Integrated Functions

Essentially this kind of testing integrates a large number of different discrete items by calling on the learners to perform some functions or task using the target language. In this approach, knowing a language or being competent in a language is described as the ability to perform some defined tasks or functions the target language.

This functional approach is based on the assumption that the internal nature of the language is best captured by detailing the many uses to which language can be put. At the simplest level, this approach starts off with a four-way division into productive and receptive control of the spoken and written language. Therefore instead of accumulating a list of structural items, as in discrete tests, this approach aims at listing the various possible functions of language including all the notions that can be expressed in it. This approach has been embodied variously in communicative competence models as well as in notional-functional curriculum.

While this approach can be regarded as a competence model, its interest in the performance side of the knowledge of a language conceives it more to be a process

model. In a process model of language acquisition, knowledge in terms of having a knowledge of structures of the language is also included.

2.3.3 General Proficiency

The general proficiency approach, according to Spolsky, is integrative in nature but it starts from somewhat different principles. The justification for testing overall language proficiency is of the belief that there is some fundamentally indivisible body of knowledge varying in size from individual to individual, so that individuals can be ranked according to the extent that they have the knowledge.

The argument for the claim of general language proficiency is reflected by what Spolsky (1989) says, " while we cannot specify a minimum of structural knowledge or communicative competences, we can make some general claim about the ranking of one individual relative to him or herself at other times or relative to other people, so that we can say 'X knows more of that language now than last month' or 'X knows more than Y' (p. 72).

Spolsky goes on to suggest three ways where the differences can be specified: by testing the structural knowledge (the more items known, the greater total proficiency, by a test of functional knowledge (the more functions controlled, the greater total knowledge), or by an overall test which is a special kind of functional test that taps the generalised ability more directly. By viewing these different ways, it is clearly reflected that knowing a second language involves not only a knowledge of the formal structural system of the language but also using such knowledge for effective communication.

Having such a clear and precise understanding of what it means to know a second language provides a good basis for investigating the factors which might affect its acquisition. Understanding that language is a linguistic, cognitive, and sociolinguistic involvement indicates that factors concerned must be related to these areas. The discussion of what those factors might be will be the focus of the final section.

2.4 Factors Affecting the Learning of a Second Language

In this section the focus will be on discussing some of the potential factors which can influence the learning of a second language thus resulting in a lack of success. As discussed earlier on, Spolsky (1989) refers to four groups of factors (Kp, A, M, O) as necessary conditions for any effective second language learning. In his argument he stressed that a lack in any one of the four factors might result in no learning at all. This indicates the capacity of those groups of factors to influence the learning of a second language. They are therefore used here as categories under which factors directly relevant to this study are categorised and discussed. Because these factors have no set or necessary order in their contribution to second language learning, they will be presented in the way Spolsky (1989) uses when discussing them in his general theory of second language learning, starting 'with those that are least under the control of an individual language teacher and move progressively to those where the teacher's intervention seems easiest' (p. 83).

Using Spolsky's four categories, therefore, the discussion will start off with 'A' (various components of ability including physiological, biological, intellectual and cognitive skills, then with 'kp' (existing knowledge of the learner including L1 and other knowledges), with 'M' (affective factors including attitudes and motivation), and finally 'O' (opportunity for learning the language).

2.4.1 Language Learner Ability

Two aspects of learner ability will be discussed in this category. The first aspect is learner ability to use an L2. Because language is generally referred to as a cognitive skill, particularly from a psycholinguistic perspective, the learner's ability to use a second language will be discussed in relation to aspects of the learner's cognitive structures. The second aspect is a biological ability. Age is consistently referred to as a biological factor having some influences in learning a second language. Some researchers, for example, have found that learners of a second language who start learning while they are young learn better and faster than those who start when they are much older.

2.4.1.1 Learner Ability to Use an L2

The learner's linguistic competence in an L2 plays a central role in the learner's ability to use it in any performance, be it functionally or communicatively. Pienemann and Johnston (1987) argue that 'regardless of whether an investigation is functionally or formally oriented there is no way in which a description of L2 development can avoid basing itself on a search for invariable patterns in learners' interlanguage, and these patterns must inevitably involve linguistic forms' (pp. 90-91). When a low performance in L2 is therefore identified, it is imperative to take notice of the knowledge the learner has of the language, for as Pienemann and Johnston (1987) again argue, 'language cannot be described adequately (if at all) without reference to its formal organisation' (p.91). The rest of the discussion in this section will focus on how L2 is acquired and the possible constraints on the process of acquisition.

The "Multi-Dimensional" model is a theory of L2 acquisition based firstly on a substantial body of research into the naturalistic acquisition of word-order rules of German as a second language, and secondly and more recently, on word-order and morphology of English as a second language. The model provides some explanations of how a second language is acquired and the constraints involved during the process of acquisition. Although the model has been based on naturalistic acquisition of L2, its application in classroom-based research has proven its hypotheses thus indicating its usefulness and applicability in classroom-based research.

The Multi-dimensional model distinguishes two sets of linguistic features in learning of L2, 'developmental' and 'variational'. Developmental features are those which are constrained by speech processing mechanisms while variational features are those that are not so constrained. This distinction predicts that certain features (developmental) are acquired in sequence because of the mental operations involved in processing them, while other features (variational) are free. However, variational features are not completely random as their acquisition depends on certain psychosociological factors such as learner mental make-up and social situation (Johnston, 1987b).

The speech processing operations responsible for the acquisition of developmental features are, according to Pienemann and Johnston (1987), defined as the set of largely automatic operations involved in the production and comprehension of speech. These processing operations involve the learner's ability to manipulate syntactic elements in grammatical strings. Therefore, in terms of the different processing operations involved, the acquisition of developmental features fall into various developmental stages. These stages constitute a "classical implicational sequence" (Pienemann and Johnston, 1987) which means that mastery of rules at a particular stage entails mastery of the rules characterising earlier stages. In other words, learner ability to perform the operations in one stage entails already being able to perform those of the immediately preceding stage. With English as L2, for example, six developmental stages have been identified to be involved in the acquisition of grammatical rules (see Nunan (ed.), 1987, pp. 82-83). The acquisition of these developmental features is not only sequential but also continuous. This means that the learner continues to work on the processing operations involved in one stage while starting to acquire those involved in the next. With regard to the strict implicational sequence involved in acquiring L2, Pienemann and Johnston (1987), maintain that it is a natural sequence and because the cognitive operations which constitute the prerequisites for stages of development are universal, they apply equally to all learners, and are not affected by external factors such as the learning setting itself.

With the variational linguistic features, the learner's orientation towards communicative effectiveness or towards correctness and target-language norms determines whether a variational feature is acquired or not. Ellis (1990) explains that learners who give primacy to the instrumental function of language are likely to make use of simplified and restricted forms. By doing that the amount of processing time spent on linguistic features is reduced and allocated to an emphasis on meaning-content. Other learners who give importance to the integrative language function (using language to identify with the native speakers of the host community) are more likely to pay attention to target-language norms. Variation between learners then is a result of the difference in the choice of linguistic code which they make.

In applying this model to classroom-based research, a number of hypotheses relating to the effect of instruction on L2 acquisition were proven correct. In an experimental study carried out by Pienemann (1984) investigating the use of 'inversion' by learners of German as L2 after a certain period of instruction, two of those hypotheses were confirmed to be true. The first is 'instruction will not enable learners to acquire any developmental feature out of sequence', and the second is 'instruction will enable learners to acquire a developmental feature providing that the processing operations required to produce features that precede it in the acquisitional sequence have already been mastered' (Ellis, 1990).

Another part of the same study aimed at examining the effects of instruction on the use of the copula as a variational feature. It was found that the frequency of copula omission in the five subjects who provided the data decreased considerably after instruction was given on the use of inversion. It was also found that the acquisition of this variable feature was independent of the acquisition of the development feature (inversion). Another hypothesis was therefore supported by these findings and that is, "instruction will help learners to acquire variational features" (Ellis, 1990:155).

One final hypothesis relating to the effect of instruction on L2 acquisition is that 'instruction directed at developmental features for which the learner is not ready may interfere with the natural process of acquisition' (Ellis, 1990:155). From Pienemann's study, the results showed that for two of the learners the use of the 'adverb-preposing' rule in German language (stage 3) actually fell away as a result of the instruction on the use of inversion.

Based, however, on his study discussed above, Pienemann (1985) put forward the 'teachability hypothesis' which states that 'instruction can only promote language acquisition if the interlanguage is close to a point when the structure to be taught is acquired in the natural setting (so that sufficient processing requisites are developed)' (p.37). The hypothesis rules out the possibility that instruction can help the learner to beat the natural order of developmental features, but it does allow a clear role for instruction

From the discussion of the multi-dimensional model leading on to the teachability hypothesis, clear and useful insights are provided to help in explaining not only variation in the use of L2 in performance but also the lack of success in second language learning. There are undoubtedly psychological constraints on the acquisition of L2 particularly the developmental features which might affect the success of learning. Teaching of structures which learners are not ready to learn might also result in no learning.

Another model which can provide some explanations regarding the lack of success in the acquisition of linguistic competence in an L2 is the 'Universal Grammar Model' (UG) proposed by Chomsky. Like the multi-dimensional model, UG emphasises the significant role of the learner's cognitive structures in the acquisition of L2, but instead of concentrating on the sequence of acquisition, UG elaborates the role of language input in the process of acquisition.

Initially, Universal Grammar (UG) framework starts from a well-defined theory of linguistic competence in L1. For a number of years this theory focused primarily on describing what an ideal speaker-hearer knew about his or her first language. This underlying knowledge is now known as competence (Gass, 1989). More recently, this framework has been extended to look at such questions as: "How do children attain that knowledge? How do humans come to internalise such a complex set of information on the basis of limited input?"

Felix (1984) gives three reasons to show that on the basis of input alone, it is impossible for children to attain the complexities of adult grammars. First, some structures are so rare and marginal that it would not be possible for the child to obtain sufficient exposure to them. Second, the only way in which wrong hypotheses could be discarded would be if the input were to provide negative feedback, which in fact, it does not do. Finally, the rules of any grammar are highly abstract and so do not reflect the surface properties of the language.

It is on such deficiency that the underlying claim of 'Universal Grammar' model, proposed by Chomsky in the 1980s, has been based. What is needed for a child to learn the grammar of his mother tongue, according to Chomsky, is a set of innate linguistic

properties. This set is 'the system of principles, conditions, and rules that are elements or properties of all human languages (Chomsky, 1975, p.29). UG also provides a finite set of parameters and the values of those parameters are specifically determined by the grammars of individual languages. The experience one has with a particular language, therefore contributes to determine the value of a parameter.

These principles and parameters (UG) are, using Klein's words (1990), 'somehow hard-wired in the human brain as part of human genetic endowment' (p. 223). This language faculty or UG, according to Chomsky (1980), develops in the brain, triggered by appropriate external stimuli. Therefore, a central part of what we call 'learning' is actually better understood as the growth of cognitive structures along an internally directed course under the triggering and potentially shaping effect of the environment.

The external stimuli necessary for triggering the UG is provided by the language input. Input is the evidence available to learners as they make hypotheses about correct and incorrect language forms while constructing knowledge of language. Such evidence can either be positive or negative. Positive evidence comes from the actual sentences that learners hear or read consisting of a limited set of well-formed utterances in a language. Although these sentences may only be a subset of the infinite number of possible sentences in a language, the information in the sentences allows them to construct a grammar that fits that language. Negative evidence, on the other hand, is composed of information to a learner that his or her utterance is deviant vis-a-vis the norms of the language being learned. This can be in the form of an overt correction or an indirect indication of the deviance of an utterance (Gass, 1989). As argued by Felix (1984), the absence of negative evidence would make it an impossible task for a child to arrive at a well-formed adult grammar.

From the UG perspective, one could agree with Cook's (1991) statement that language is a part of the mind and therefore the individual mind is important in language learning. It is also reflected that language input plays a significant role in the process of language acquisition. These psychological constraints relate to the general ability of the learner. Some learners, for example, may have the cognitive abilities to learn but may

perhaps not be provided well with adequate and appropriate language input, and therefore suffer in their learning of the language. Some learners, on the other hand, may obviously not have the abilities to learn as quickly as the others, and no matter how good the language inputs, they would still be constrained in their learning of the language.

A reflection of this has been identified in the case of the Tongan students particularly with Forms 5 and 6 examination results. Some students achieve outstanding grades in the other subjects that they take yet fail to pass English at the required grade. These students may have good general ability to learn but may perhaps be suffering from lack of 'external factors' necessary for the effective learning of the language. Some students, on the other hand, achieve very good grades in English yet fail to pass their other subjects at the required grades. These students may still have good general ability to learn or good aptitude for language learning but fail to concentrate on the learning of the other subjects. There are also some students who fail to score well at all in English as well as their other subjects. These students may perhaps be regarded as not having such good general ability for learning. In all these cases, one may perhaps be able to identify a significant contribution of the general ability of the learner for language learning.

When applying UG to second language learning, Gass (1989) states that a range of similar arguments have been put forward because of inadequacy of negative evidence. There is a need to assume that adult second language learners have access to the same innate universal constraints (properties) as do young children. However, the differences between L1 and L2 learning raise the question as to whether L2 learners still have access to the innate universal constraints as in L1. Furthermore there is the question as to whether L1 affects the learning of L2.

After citing some studies as examples, Cook (1991) argues, in response to the questions above, that L2 learners seem to start from their L1 setting rather than from scratch in their parameter-setting. Because this does not contradict the UG model, it can be said that L2 learners still have access to the system of principles and parameters via their L1. Among the cited studies was White's comparative study (1986) of how English was learned by speakers of French (a non pro-drop language with compulsory

subjects) and by speakers of Spanish (a pro-drop language with optional subjects). She found that Spanish learners of English initially assume that subjects are not needed while the French learners assume that they are, and that indicates that first language setting for the parameter was indeed carried over to the second.

A rather negative response to the question as to whether UG can still be applied to L2 learning is the Critical Period Hypothesis originally proposed by Lenneberg (1967) claiming that after a certain age the principles and parameters of the UG are no longer accessible to the learner. There are also some who, considering the role of negative evidence in L2 learning and implications for innate universal structures, argue that it is far from clear what the role of negative input is in second language acquisition. For one, there may be more negative input than we are aware of or perhaps it may be too confining to operationalise negative evidence in terms of verbal behaviour only. Because of this, there are questions as to the internal mechanisms which might be needed to account for L2 learning (Bley-Vroman, 1989; Varonis and Gass, 1985; Pica, 1987, 1988; Fiksdal, 1986, 1988, 1989).

The fact that second language learning is still possible to adult learners counteracts the negative argument against the availability of UG to second language learners. The explanations of UG provide us with insights to understand the constraints involved during the process of learning a second language which might eventually lead to a lack of success. As shown by the multi-dimensional model, UG indicates that there are psychological constraints in L2 acquisition and language input plays a significant role too. These psychological constraints relate to the general ability of the learner. Some learners, for example, may have the cognitive abilities to learn but may perhaps not be provided well with adequate and appropriate language input and therefore suffer in their learning of the language. Some learners, on the other hand, may obviously not have the abilities to learn as quickly as the others, and, no matter how good the language input is, they would still be constrained in their learning of the language.

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Perhaps it is worth noting at this point that, from observation and experience, many teachers of English as a second language in Tonga lack the use of a theoretical basis in their teaching of the language. Teaching should take into consideration the claims of language theories particularly those which have been researched and proven applicable. There is no doubt that the cognitive ability of the learner plays a very significant role in any form of learning including language learning. The claims and proven researches based on these two language theories (Multidimensional model and Universal Grammar) provide useful insights as to how the cognitive makeup of the learner responds well when the language structures are presented in a specific sequential order and when the right kind of input is provided. There is a need for teachers of English as a second language in Tonga to be aware of these theoretical guidelines and apply them where necessary in the hope of improving language learning in the country.

2.4.1.2 Age

One central issue in the discussion of the influential role of age in language acquisition, L1 and L2, is the claim of the "Critical Period Hypothesis". The idea of critical period in Biology, according to Singleton (1989), refers to a limited phase in the development of an organism during which a particular activity or competency must be acquired if it is to be incorporated into the behaviour of that organism. On that basis Lenneberg (1967) claimed that the language acquisition process in human beings could not begin to develop before the onset of that period, that is, until a certain level of

physical maturation and growth had been attained, which for him was around the age of 2 years old. He also argued that language acquisition does not continue beyond the end of this period, which for him finished at the age of 13. A rather weaker version of this hypothesis was that the earlier language learning commenced after the critical period began the more efficient it would be, and beyond the end of this period language learning potential declined if not completely disappeared. With the existence of a critical period, maturation could be regarded a constraint to the acquisition process of a language.

For a time the claim that there was a critical period for language acquisition was widely accepted by most linguists and applied linguists. However, since the mid-1970s the critical period hypothesis has been called into doubt. Many researchers have concluded that on the basis of evidence the case for the existence of the critical period is not proven. Opinion, therefore, among L1 and L2 researchers as to the existence of maturational constraints on language acquisition is sharply divided.

In second language acquisition research, Singleton (1989) reports that researchers take divergent positions on this issue. Some researchers show evidence of maturational constraints on L2 acquisition, that is, they take the position that younger second language learners are globally more efficient and successful than older learners. (eg. Scovel, 1988; Seliger, 1978; Johnson & Newport, 1989; Patkowski, 1990). Another group of researchers, on the basis of their findings, claim that older learners are more successful and efficient than younger learners even in pronunciation ability (eg. Ellis, 1985; Genesse, 1988; Neufeld, 1979; Snow, 1983, 1987; Major, 1987). There is also another group whose data are mixed. They claim that older learners are initially more efficient in their rate of learning a second language but in the long run the younger a learner is when the acquisition process begins, the more successful the outcome of the process will be (eg. Fathman, 1975; Fathman & Precup, 1983; Hatch, 1983; Mclaughlin, 1984; Singleton, 1989).

Considering the effect of maturational constraint (age) on the rate and ultimate attainment in second language acquisition, Krashen, Long, and Scarcella (1979, 1982), argue that adults acquire the morphology and syntax of a second language faster than young children (rate of acquisition) but child learners will ultimately attain high

proficiency levels (McLaughlin, 1988; Long, 1990). They endorsed a 'young-is-better' position, according to which child second language learners are expected to be superior to adolescents and adults in terms of ultimate attainment.

Among the few examples they cite to show that older learners acquire a second language faster than young learners are Asher and Price (1967) who taught Russian to 10 and 12 year-olds and adult students (college age) for 25 minutes and then tested them using Total physical response. In the results, the adults were shown to outperform all the child groups. Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1978) assessed the pronunciation, morphology, imitation and translation in Dutch as L2 by 8-10 year-olds, 12-15 year-olds, and adults. They found that adolescents and adults outperformed the children. Other studies of morphology and syntax which favour older over the younger include those of Ekstrand (1976), Fathman (1975), and Morris and Gerstman (1986). Olson & Samuels (1973), Snow & Hoefnagel-Hohle (1977), and Schmid (1986).

In as far as the ultimate attainment in second language acquisition, SLA studies in the areas of phonology, morphology, syntax and semantics give support to the advantage of younger over the older learners. In phonology, Oyama (1976) showed that child Italian immigrants to the United States performed in the range of native speakers controls while those older than 12 on arrival did not. Tahta, Wood, and Lowenthal (1981) observed a sharp drop in imitation abilities in as early as 6 for suprasegmental phonology in some learners. These results suggest that phonological attainment is strongly conditioned by learner age.

Patkowski's three studies (1980a, 1980b, 1982) on syntactic proficiency among immigrants to the United States, Coppieters' (1987) study on grammaticality and semantic judgments of non-native speakers of French, and Johnson and Newport's (1989) study of Korean and Chinese learning English morphology, all strongly suggest the effect of sensitive period (younger age) on the attainment of second language morphology and syntax.

From what has been said and cited so far, there is growing evidence that maturational constraints are at work in second language learning and they are not only

confined to phonology. Long (1990) states that, 'while the superior long-term achievement of younger learners is consistent with the notion of maturational constraints on most dimensions of SLA, the apparent inability of older learners to attain native-like proficiency if they begin after a certain age suggests that there is a sensitive period for learning (p. 274).

Most learners of English as a second language in Tonga begin their formal learning of the language at the age of 5 at the primary level. It then ranges to 20 or 21 at secondary and only a few proceed from there to tertiary education. What can be noted generally among the Tongan learners of English is that the older they become, the more difficult it is for them to be native-like especially in the area of phonology. Most can write well, though with some basic errors still consistent. Whether these have something to do with maturational constraints or not would be an interesting investigation.

2.4.2 Learners' Knowledge of L1

Because second language learners have already acquired a linguistic system, that is their first language (L1), the role L1 plays in the acquisition or learning of a second language no doubt contributes to achievement in L2 learning. Whether these L1 contributions are favourable or unfavourable is a question which has created such interest that it makes L1 and its role in L2 learning a considerable part of SLA research.

Until Chomsky published "Syntactic Structures" in 1957, the field of second language learning was dominated by the ideas of Behaviourist learning theory, which emphasised learning through habit-formation by means of imitation, reinforcement, and repetition of behaviour. Besides explaining SLA as habit-formation, the theory provided a theoretical account of how the learner's L1 intruded into the process of learning a second language.

According to the behaviourist learning theory, old habits get in the way of new habits. In second language, acquisition therefore, 'the grammatical apparatus programmed into the mind as the first language interferes with the smooth acquisition of the second' (McGregor ,1970:236). In cases where the structures of the learner's L1

and L2 are the same, it was assumed that the learning of L2 is facilitated because all the learner has to do is to transfer L1 habits. This is referred to as 'positive transfer'. However, when the structures of learners' L1 and L2 are different, 'negative transfer' or interference takes place which means that L1 habits hinder or interfere with L2 learning thus resulting in learning difficulties and errors. In behaviourist accounts of SLA, therefore, all errors are caused by L1 interference and they are taken to be signs of non-learning, they are undesirable and must be avoided at all costs. With regard to this, "Contrastive Analysis" has been employed as a means of attempting to predict areas of potential errors by comparing the learner's L1 with the target language so as to identify the differences between them.

The behaviourist ideas, were soon questioned and put to test by researchers in the early 1970s. Dulay and Burt (1973, 1974) studied the errors made by Spanish speakers learning English as L2 and found that only 3% could be classified as 'interference' errors, 85% were 'developmental', and 12% were 'unique' errors. On that basis, Dulay and Burt argued that learners do not organize L2 on the basis of transfer or comparison with L1 but rely on their ability to construct L2 as an independent system. These early empirical data studies refuted the claims of contrastive analysis and in more recent years, the role of L1 in SLA has been reappraised. Ellis (1986) refers to two forms in this reappraisal. On one hand, the contribution of L1 was recast in a more cognitive framework, and this has been evidenced by the claim of UG stating that second language learners use their L1 for parameter-setting in their learning of an L2 (Cook, 1991). On the other hand, the nature of language transfer was re-examined so as to identify specific conditions under which interference takes place and the L1 knowledge is utilised.

The re-examination of L1 transfer and the utilisation of L1 in the learning of L2 was researched in the 1970s and early 1980s particularly in the bilingual immersion programs and the bilingual programs in Canada and in the U.S.: the results indicated that L1 does enhance the learning of L2.

Cummins (1988) refers to the evaluations of various bilingual programs which reveal these results. The San Diego Spanish-English Language Immersion Program

(1975) involved about 60% Spanish L1 and 40% English L1 students with the instruction predominantly in Spanish from preschool to the end grade 3 and after which half the time was spent through the medium of each language. Twenty minutes of English instruction was included at the preschool level, 30 minutes at grades K-1, and 60 minutes at grades 2-3. The findings of the evaluation showed that in the early stages, students were found to perform somewhat below grade norms in English academic skills, but by grade 6 they were performing above grade norms in both English and Spanish. Maths achievement also tended to be above grade norms. Legaretta (1979) compared the effectiveness of three bilingual programs with two types of English-only programs, and found that the three bilingual treatments were significantly superior to the two English-only treatments in developing English language skills. The Milingimbi Aboriginal Program involved Australian Aboriginal students who had been educated bilingually (spending roughly half the time in L1 medium instruction from kindergarten to grade 6). These students were compared in grades 4-6 with the previous cohort of grades 4-6 students of the same school who had received monolingual English instruction. It was found that students who had been educated bilingually were not only learning to read and write in their own language and furthering their knowledge of their own culture but they were also achieving better academic results in oral English, reading, English composition and mathematics (Gale, McClay, Christie, and Harris, 1981).

The empirical research referred to above consistently support two theoretical generalisations which view the transfer of L1 as helping the learning of L2. The first generalisation is 'Common Underlying Proficiency' which states that 'to the extent that instruction in L_x is effective in promoting proficiency in L_x, transfer of this proficiency to L_y will occur provided there is adequate exposure to L_y (either in school or environment) and adequate motivation to learn L_y' (Cummins, 1981:29). This means that the instruction when learning L1 is not just developing L1 skills but also of a deeper conceptual and linguistic proficiency which is strongly related to the development of L2 and general academic skills. What is therefore learned in L1 is transferable to L2.

The second generalisation is to do with the idea of 'Sufficient Comprehensible Input' which suggests that the acquisition of L2 depends not just on exposure to L2 but

also on access to L2 input that is modified in various ways to make it comprehensible. This generalisation is supported by other second language theorists (Krashen, 1982; Long, 1983; Schachter, 1983; Wong Fillmore, 1983a). One important link between these two principles is that the knowledge acquired in one language plays a major role in making input in the other language comprehensible (Cummins, 1981; Krashen, 1981).

In the secondary schools in Tonga, except Tonga Side School, Tongan is used as the medium of instruction from class 1 to 3. Children are also taught to read and write in Tongan in their early years at primary level. All this is done in the hope that these children can transfer their proficiency in Tongan into their learning of English, thus speeding their learning process.

2.4.3 Attitude and Motivation

Ellis (1985) observes that there has been no general agreement on definitions of motivation and attitudes or of their relation to one another in SLA. For example, Schumann (1978) identifies "attitude" as a social factor on a par with variables such as "size of learning group", and "motivation" as an affective factor alongside cultural shock. Gardner and Lambert (1972) define "motivation" in terms of the L2 learner's overall goal and orientation, and "attitude" as the persistence shown by the learner in striving for a goal. Gardner (1979) attempts to link attitudes to motivation by saying that attitudes support the learner's overall orientation. In Brown's (1981) distinction of "attitudes" and "motivation", he identifies three types of motivation: 'global motivation' consisting of a general orientation to the goal of learning a L2; "situational motivation" which varies according to the situation in which learning takes place; "task motivation" which is motivation for performing particular learning tasks. Brown uses "attitudes" to refer to the set of beliefs that the learner holds towards members of the target language group. This lack of agreement reflects the distract nature of these concepts thus making the task of measuring them a difficult one.

The role of attitudes and motivation in second language learning has, however, been predominantly researched from a social-psychological framework which links motivation with, firstly, attitudes toward the community of speakers of the target

language, secondly, with an interest in interacting with such speakers, and thirdly, with some degree of self-identification with the target language community (Crookes & Schmidt, 1991). The most extensive research on attitudes and motivation in relation to L2 learning within this framework has been conducted by Gardner and Lambert and their associates in Canada beginning in the 1950s continuing to the present (Gardner and Lambert, 1959, 1972; Gardner, 1968, 1980, 1983, 1985, 1988; Gardner, Clement & Smythe, 1979). Other approaches to motivation in relation to second language learning from the social-psychological framework include the Speech Accommodation Theory (Giles & Byrne, 1982; Beebe, 1988), Acculturation Model (Schumann, 1975, 1978a, 1978b, 1986), and Krashen's Monitor Model of SLA (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985). Since they have not been as influential in the study of motivation and attitudes in SLA, they are not discussed in detail here.

Gardner & Lambert (1959) first made the distinction between 'integrative motivation', which is identified with positive attitudes toward the target language group and the potential for integrating into that group, and 'instrumental motivation', which refers to more functional reasons for learning a language such as to get a better job or a promotion, or to pass a required examination. In 1972 they published the results of a more than ten-year long research program on English speakers learning French in Canada. In this study, they established that success or failure in learning French in Canada was associated with whether students wanted to become part of French culture, as opposed to learning French for only instrumental reasons. This integrative-instrumental duality, with integrative motivation being held to be a superior support for language learning, soon became widely accepted and many subsequent studies confirmed the validity of Gardner and Lambert's theory (Svanes, 1987; others are already mentioned above). Some studies, however, have come up with contradictory results (Lukmani, 1972; Cooper & Fishman, 1977; Pierson, Fu, & Lee, 1980; Oller, 1981).

Both 'integrative' and 'instrumental' motivations can be found among the Tongan learners of English as a second language, particularly those at secondary schools.

Gardner continued, despite the controversial results, to develop this model of motivation in second language learning. His Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB,

Gardner et al., 1979; Gardner, 1985) stimulated numerous studies and his attempts to synthesise the results has led into a revised model that he (Gardner) now calls the 'socioeducational model' (Gardner, 1979, 1980, 1985, 1988). Gardner (1985) points out that language learning is different from all the other school subjects because in language courses individual learners are required to incorporate elements from another culture. Consequently, reactions to the other culture become important considerations thus making attitudes specially relevant to language learning.

Gardner identifies two types of attitudes: attitudes to the people who speak the target language; and attitudes to the practical use to which the learner assumes he or she can put the language being learned (Spolsky, 1989). Attitudes, according to Gardner, do not have direct influence on learning, but they lead to motivation which does. Gardner views motivation as a complex construct for it 'involves four aspects, a goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to attain the goal and favourable attitudes towards the activity in question (1985:50).

Crookes and Schmidt (1991) argue that the socioeducational model can be summarised in terms of five hypotheses:

1. The integrative motive hypothesis: an integrative motive will be positively associated with SL achievement.
2. The cultural belief hypothesis: cultural beliefs influence the development of the integrative motive and the degree to which integrativeness and achievement are related.
3. The active learner hypothesis: integratively motivated learners are successful because they are active learners.
4. The causality hypothesis: integrative motivation is a cause; SL achievement, the effect.
5. The two-process hypothesis: aptitude and integrative motivation are independent factors in second language learning (pp. 472-473).

The empirical studies supporting these hypotheses are again controversial. With regard to the integrative motive hypothesis, contradictory results have emerged from

studies in different contexts. In a summary of various studies testing the model, Au (1988) indicates that the results include every possible relationship between various measures of integrative motivation and measures of proficiency: positive, negative, nil and ambiguous. Clement & Kruidenier (1983), Hidalgo (1986) found no support of a general integrative motivation in their studies. In response to these criticisms, Gardner (1988) acknowledges the relatively unstable results, yet continues to maintain that in most cases there are significant correlations between at least some aspects of the integrative motive and some aspects of second language proficiency. He acknowledges, however, that integrative motivation is not the only factor involved in second language acquisition, and it does not account for all the variance in second language achievement. Currently, he does not claim that integrative motivation is superior to instrumental motivation, but simply that those who are integratively motivated will probably be more successful in second language learning than those who are not so motivated.

With regard to his causality hypothesis, numerous researchers have suggested that achievement might actually be the cause instead of the effect of attitude, that is, successful second language learners might acquire positive attitudes toward both language and the target language community as a result of doing well in their learning of the language (Savignon, 1972; Backman, 1976; Hermann, 1980; Strong, 1984). In response, Gardner insists that there is no support in literature for the notion that achievement influences the nature and amount of attitude change (1985).

This may be true in the case of the Tongan learners of English as a second language. Some students may be well motivated in English language learning and may develop positive attitudes to native speakers of English because of their high achievement in English language learning.

In as far as the treatment of motivation in second language learning from the social-psychological framework, so far alluded to, Crookes and Schmidt (1991) point out something that is lacking. "In second language acquisition theory, motivation is typically grouped together with various aspects of personality and emotion as miscellaneous 'affective' factors that may play a role in acquisition. Current SL discussion on this topic lacks validity in that it is not well-grounded in the real world

domain of the SL classroom, nor it is well-connected to other related educational research” (1991:470). When teachers say that a student is motivated, they are not usually concerned with the student’s reason for studying, but are observing that the student does productively engage in learning tasks and sustains that engagement without the need for continual encouragement or direction. It is this teacher-validated use of the term motivation, according to Crookes and Schmidt, that has not been adopted (but should be adopted) by second language investigators.

2.4.4 Learning Opportunities

Spolsky (1989) argued that “whatever the language learner brings to the task, whether innate ability, a language acquisition device, attitudes, previous knowledge, and experiences of languages and language learning, the outcome of language learning depends in larger measure on the amount and kind of exposure to the target language.” (p. 166).

The amount and kind of exposure to the target language are considered important because they provide opportunities for the language learner to successfully perform the tasks essentially involved in learning a second language. Klein (1986) claimed that the second language learner has four essential tasks to perform in second language learning: “first, he or she must successfully analyse the speech input he or she hears into appropriate units. Second, he or she must learn how to synthesise these minimal units into larger units. Third, he or she must learn how utterances are embedded in context (including of course non-linguistic context). Finally, he or she must learn to match his or her own present command of a language with the target aimed at” (Spolsky, 1989:166-167). Spolsky (1989) pointed out two other tasks which Klein seemed to have left unstated yet involved in all kinds of learning. The first of these is the remembering of the newly learned items, and the second is the practice of the newly learned items to help the development of fluency and automaticity. In his general theory for second language learning, Spolsky restated all these six task elements as conditions which must be met in order for second language learning to take place. That is, learners

must be provided with opportunities so that they can perform these tasks of language learning.

There are two kinds of exposure commonly referred to in second language learning literature. Although they are distinct in many aspects, they both provide opportunities for the language learner to carry out the various tasks involved in learning a second language. The "natural language learning" is a situation where the language learner picks up a second language in the environment in which it is spoken from others speaking with the purpose of using it to communicate. The "formal or classroom learning" is the learning of language in a situation where only one person (the teacher) has command of it and the teacher controls the exposure so it will lead to learning.

Spolsky (1989) outlined sets of contrasting conditions between these two learning situations. As the goal for natural language learning is communication, the learner is under pressure to utilise his entire language potential in order to communicate successfully. This provides a necessary kind of practice. Negotiation of meaning between the non-native speakers and the native speakers provides a very valuable form of practice. In the formal situation, the goal is learning so the tasks presented to the learner is smaller making it easier for the learner to analyse, synthesise, and match thus giving time for memory and opportunity for sufficient practice.

Many speakers in the natural environment are fluent and native so the learner is consequently exposed to a variety of forms and styles with which he or she can match his or her own knowledge. The one fluent model of the teacher in the classroom provides the learner with time to get used to one style at a time and also there is no competition from other speakers better than the learners to make them feel inadequate.

In the case of Tonga, however, there is evidently a lack of fluency and competence of teachers, especially primary teachers, and therefore they are unable to provide native-like forms and styles of English language for students to model. This presents a very serious problem.

The natural environment provides contextual clues for understanding language in use and also opportunities to see the rules in language use in physical and social

contexts. The controlled circumstances in the classroom make it possible to hear better and to concentrate more.

From the sets of distinctive conditions discussed above, it appears that learning a second language through formal instruction is more limited and constrained especially in the amount of exposure it provides for the language learners to carry out the tasks involved in learning a second language.

2.5 Conclusion

From this review, one can begin to see and appreciate that learning a second language is a very complex process. It also follows that teaching a second language is a very difficult task. The complexity of factors involved in the learning of a second language makes it even harder to account for why there is success or lack of success in learning a second language. The review has revealed that not only are there factors which are 'internal' to the learner (cognitive and affective attributes), but there are factors that are 'external' to the learner (existing knowledge, exposure to the language, background and surrounding) where both contribute either to speed up or slow down the process of learning. This review has, therefore, provided not only the theoretical basis but guidelines (especially on factors to be investigated) upon which the design and methodology of this study have been based.

Chapter three

Research design and methodology

This chapter describes in detail the research design, the research data collected, the research sample, the instruments of data collection and the means of data analysis.

3.1 Research Design

This is a quantitative study with multiple approaches.

The primary purpose of the study lies in its attempt to determine linguistic and non-linguistic factors associated with the students' learning of English language macroskills at secondary schools. To determine what those factors might be, the study has been designed to investigate primarily whether there are any associations between what the students perceived to be affecting their learning of the four English language macroskills and their actual performance in those macroskills. This necessitated the adoption of a correlational approach.

A further purpose of the study was to provide a characterisation of the performance of students in the four English language macroskills. This called for the measurement of the students' performance in those skills and then the use of the results to describe the nature of their performance. This kind of approach was descriptive in intent. The results were also used to provide the basis for the correlational study mentioned above.

Another dimension which was incorporated as one purpose of the study, was to compare the perceptions of students and the English teachers of the students on factors perceived to be associated with the learning of English language macroskills at secondary schools. The nature of this purpose and the kind of data called for necessitated the adoption of a survey type of approach.

The final purpose of the study was to account for the performance and perceptions of the students on the basis of applied linguistic theories. This required a literature search attempting to link the study and its results with existing theories in the fields of linguistics and applied linguistics.

3.2 Research Sample

The study sample consisted of 100 Form 5 students and 24 Form 5 English teachers all from secondary schools in the district of Tongatapu.

3.2.1 Selection of Student Subjects

One hundred student subjects were randomly selected from a total population of 1,890 Fifth Formers in 12 secondary schools within the district of Tongatapu. The number of years taken by these students to learn English at secondary school varies from the minimum of five years to more than seven years.

The 12 secondary schools from which the sample was selected comprised all of the secondary schools situated in Tongatapu, the main island, whose students were expected to sit the Tonga School Certificate Examination at the end of the fifth form year. Five of these schools were situated in Nuku'alofa, the capital area, two were within its vicinity, and five schools were further out in the village areas. Only two of these schools were run by the government and the rest were non-government schools run by various churches. Three of the 12 schools were single sex schools, one all-girls and two all-boys, and the rest were co-educational. (See Table 2)

Table 2 Sample Composition Of Students Selected From Each School

School	Students		
	Female	Male	Total
Liahona (NGS)	5	9	14
St. Andrews (NGS)	5	2	7
Lavengamalie (NGS)	5	8	13
Beulah (NGS)	3	3	6
Tupou High (NGS)	2	2	4
Tailulu (NGS)	4	2	6
Takuilau (NGS)	3	3	6
'Apifo'ou (NGS)	7	7	14
Queen Salote (NGS)	5	-	5
Tupou college (NGS)	-	11	11
Tonga College(GS)	-	8	8
Tonga High (GS)	4	2	6
Total	43	57	100

Note. *Tupou College and Tonga College are all-boys schools and Queen Salote is an all-girls school. NGS = non-government school; GS = government school.*

Because these schools held the majority of the total population of Form 5 students in the whole country, and because of the time and financial constraints faced by the researcher, it was considered appropriate to concentrate on these schools and not to include the other secondary schools in the outer islands of Ha'apai, Vava'u and 'Eua, though this may have had the effect of making the sample less representative of Tonga as a whole.

3.2.2 Procedures for the Selection of the Students

The researcher first collected the 1993 lists of Form 5 students from all the selected schools. Each student then was given a code number from a list of code numbers generated by the researcher. Using these codes, 100 students were randomly selected using random numbers for participation in the study. In cases where a student was selected and not available, a new code number was picked out from the original pool for a replacement. The 100 students who were finally selected remained right throughout the study.

Before the students participated in the study, they were given a Consent Form, which explained the purposes and involvement of the study, and requested that they sign it if they were willing to go ahead and participate in the study.

3.2.3 Selection of Teacher Subjects

Because the number of Form 5 English teachers in secondary schools in Tongatapu was small, all of them were invited to participate in the study. Out of the 31 teachers who were given the questionnaire, 77.4% responded by completing it. Permission for their participation was first obtained from principals of each school, but, teachers participated at their own discretion. Those who chose to participate, were asked to sign a Consent Form similar to that of the students, before they completed the questionnaire.

3.3 Data Source and Kinds of Data for the Study

The quantitative data collected for the study were obtained from three main sources:

1. Test results of the students' performance on the four English language skills- reading, writing, listening and speaking.
2. Survey questionnaire completed by the students.
3. Survey questionnaire completed by the teachers of the students.

3.4 Research Instruments

The purposes of the study and the types of data called for necessitated the use of language tests and questionnaires as the major data gathering instruments. Language testing was considered appropriate not only because of its potential to provide information about the students' knowledge and use of English as a second language, but also because of its suitability for the situation, as it has been the main instrument commonly used in Tonga for assessing achievement in language learning. The questionnaire technique was selected because of its appropriateness for gathering quantitative information on perceptions.

3.4.1 Language Tests

3.4.1.1 Rationale

Since the subjects of the study learned English in a structured way, it was considered reasonable and fair for any assessment of their English proficiency to be as close as possible in objectives and content to the Form 5 English course of instruction and to be as similar as possible to the kind of examination prescribed in the course outline (See section 1.1.3.2 in the introduction chapter). This rationale underpinned the kind of tests designed as instruments of this study.

3.4.1.2 Designing of the Test Instrument.

The test was designed by the researcher using Form 5 examination and teaching materials, and also on the basis of her six years of Form 5 teaching experience in Tonga. This was done in consultation with an expert in teaching English as a second language.

The Form 5 English language prescription, as discussed above, played a major role in designing the test for this study. The test aimed at assessing the subjects' ability to use English across the four English language macroskills (reading, writing, listening and speaking). This was aligned with the first three objectives of the Form 5 English

language prescription. The assessing of student responses to various works of literature and their ability to use the dictionary and library efficiently, which are also part of the Form 5 English language course outline, were not included as part of the test instrument. So rather than developing the test as an achievement measurement of the whole Form 5 English language course, the focus was on assessing the subjects' knowledge of English as a second language and their ability to use that knowledge in reading, writing, listening and speaking. The approach for designing the test questions was task-based. In other words, the questions were various tasks given for the subjects to perform in English.

3.4.1.3 Content And Format Of The Test Instrument

The content and format of questions in reading and writing were based almost entirely on the content and examination format of the Form 5 English language course outline. Most tasks in the questions aimed at assessing the ability of the subjects to read and write in English, however, there were also some tasks incorporated in these questions to assess their knowledge of how the English language functions. Because listening and speaking skills had not been tested formally at schools, the tasks set aimed at assessing the subjects' ability to use English within a variety of contexts. A certain variety of contexts was therefore selected from the contents of the curriculum prescription, and tasks were set requiring the subjects to use English appropriately within those contexts.

The test was divided into four main sections. Section 1 was the reading, section 2 was the writing, section 3 the listening and section 4 was the speaking. Each section had three parts and all parts were compulsory. (A copy of the test is attached as Appendix 1). Within the time scale of this project it was not possible to determine how the sections or subsections correlated with each other and this makes it impossible to carry out valid comparisons between the various macroskills.

Reading test

Part A: Passage with Questions.

The subjects were given a passage to read followed by questions to be answered. Based on the kinds of questions given, the following sub-skills of reading were included

in the assessment: interpretation of text content, identification of specific information, deduction from ideas or material presented, synthesis of material and forming a conclusion.

Part B: Cloze.

A passage with gaps was given and the subjects were to read and fill in the gaps, with no assistance given. This task was included not only to test their ability to read and comprehend but to assess their knowledge of the language. Skills in using the following grammatical items were included in the assessment: subject verb concord, forms of the copula, use of auxiliary 'do', article usage, temporal markers, prepositional usage, pronominal reference, possessive pronoun usage, semantic cues usage, contrastive markers and opposites.

Part C: Passage with Gaps.

Ten sentences were given in a mixed order. The subjects were to arrange them to make a meaningful story. This task was included in the writing test to see whether students can produce a coherently linked story from the sentences provided. The students were required then to understand the coherence of the content in writing, particularly the use of the following sequence markers: temporal and casual markers; cataphoric references, anaphoric references; lexical connectors; syntactic connectors; and logical connectors.

Writing Test

Part A: Request Letter.

This task required the subjects to choose one topic from a set of four given and to write a formal request letter. Their ability to use transactional language in a formal situation was generally assessed and the following specific sub-skills were included: conventions of format, conventions of style, appropriate text conventions, appropriate non-text conventions, appropriateness of language chosen and appropriateness of tone.

Part B: Narrative Writing.

The subjects were to choose one topic from a list of five and write an essay of about 150 words. The task was to assess their use of personal and creative language.

The following specific sub-skills were also taken into consideration: appropriateness of language chosen, sustained appropriate tone, appropriate non-text conventions, appropriate text conventions, variety of syntactic structure.

Part C: Jumbled Sentences.

Ten sentences were given in a mixed order. The subjects were to rearrange them to make a meaningful story. The task was to test the use of sequence markers particularly the use of temporal and causal markers, cataphoric references, anaphoric references, lexical connectors, syntactic connectors and logical connectors.

Listening test

All parts in this section were read by the researcher and tape-recorded before they were administered. The subjects were required to listen to the tape recording and to follow the instructions in order to complete the tasks given.

Part A: Dictation.

A passage with gaps was given in the Answer Booklet. The subjects listened to the whole passage read out only once and then filled all the gaps using the exact words as read out in the passage. Of primary importance was their ability to listen and understand what had been read. However the following specific skills were included in the test: aural/oral discrimination, medial vowel discrimination, terminal past tense markers, and meaning from context.

Part B: Map Exercise.

Given in the Answer Booklet was a map of Sione Mafi's village. The subjects were asked to study the map carefully and then to listen to the instruction which was read out twice before performing the task. The following sub-skills were assessed: following directions, relating text to diagram, and prepositions of place.

Part C: Use of Diagrams.

A set of diagrams was given in the Answer Booklet to be used as the basis of the task. After studying them, the subjects listened to a series of statements read out once about each of the diagrams. They were then required to match the statements with the diagrams. Besides the need for them to listen and be able to understand what they heard,

the following specific skills were also tested: aural/oral discrimination and relating spoken text to diagrams.

Speaking test

Part A: Oral Situational Test.

Six situational contexts were given to each subject. They were to study them silently while they waited for the interviewer and then give in three to four sentences what they would say in English if they found themselves in such a situation. They were asked to respond as if they were actually addressing the imagined interlocutor. All their responses were tape-recorded and assessed later. The focus of assessment here was on their ability to use language appropriately in a variety of contexts. However, the following sub-skills were among those assessed: appropriate language selected (emotive/neutral etc), appropriateness of tone, fluency, accuracy, clarity of delivery, clarity of content and success in conveying attitude in tone and lexis.

Part B: Cartoon Strips.

The subjects were given three cartoon strips to study prior to the interview. They were then required to describe the strips in few sentences. Again their responses were tape-recorded and assessed later. These specific skills were included in the assessment: relating cartoon to world knowledge, appropriate selection of language (descriptive), fluency, accuracy and appropriateness of interpretation of stimulus materials.

Part C: Oral Interview.

The main task of the interview required the subjects to use English to express and support their opinions on a particular topic. Prior to this main task, the interviewer, who was the researcher, interacted for acquaintance with the subjects and in doing so conducted an informal assessment as to whether the subjects could respond appropriately to the interview situation. The following skills were within the main ability assessed: appropriate responses, ability to state opinions and reasons, ability to support opinions and reasons, awareness of appropriate conventions, clarity, fluency, accuracy, appropriate tone and appropriate choice of language.

The interviews were conducted on a one to one basis and they were all tape-recorded and assessed later.

Because the speaking tasks would not only be time-consuming but hard to administer to all the 100 subjects, it was considered wise and reasonable to administer them to only some of the subjects. To make accommodation for the application of statistical analysis on the results later, 30 subjects were regarded to be the possible minimum number.

The 30 subjects to take the speaking test were randomly selected from the 100 subjects already selected to participate in the whole study.

3.4.2 Student Questionnaire

3.4.2.1 Development.

The student survey questionnaire was the data collection instrument employed to investigate the perceptions of the student subjects on linguistic and non-linguistic factors which might be associated with their learning of English language skills at secondary school.

The questionnaire was designed initially by the researcher in consultation with the researcher's supervisors and one of the research consultants at the university where the research was studied and analysed.

On the basis of current second language acquisition literature and research and also the researcher's experience and understanding of the Tongan context, it was hypothesised that the following factors would have some association with the learning of English as a second language: age of the learners, gender, length of time spent on learning English, motivation and reasons for learning English, current use of English (purpose and frequency), career and educational aspirations, integrative orientation for learning English, attitude to English as a subject at school, attitude to English native speakers, attitude to Tongan language at school, perceived ability in English, perceived

ability in Tongan, English versus other subjects, teaching of English at school, and perceptions on individual English language macroskills.

Because the study was essentially an open investigation of possible factors which might be associated with the learning of English at secondary schools, it was perceived that the best way to go about it was to explore as many factors as possible rather than limiting the study to only a few. On such a basis, the perceptions of the students were sought on the factors mentioned above. This provided the content basis of the questionnaire.

The format of the questionnaire was decided upon after consulting some language survey questionnaires and relevant literature concerning questionnaire design. A Likert-type scale questionnaire was considered appropriate not only because it was easy to administer and appeared to be the most meaningful type of perception scale for use in a group-testing situation, but it also yielded quantitative data, as required by the study.

Using the content and format discussed above, the student questionnaire was designed, consisting of 60 items. It was administered in the Tongan language. Table 3 shows the classification of items in the student questionnaire.

3.4.2.2 Checking the Content and Format.

After the initial design of the questionnaire by the researcher, the researcher's supervisors were consulted to check the content, the language used, and the format of the questionnaire. The research consultant was also consulted to check particularly the format and to ensure that it would be easily coded for analysis later. (A copy of the English version of the student questionnaire is attached as Appendix 2)

Table 3 **Classification of Items in the Student Questionnaire**

Variables	Number of Items
Demographic Factors	Items 1-4
Current use of English (Purpose and Frequency)	Items 5-8
Purposes for Learning English at school	Item 9
Perceived ability in Tongan	Items 10-13
Perceived ability in English	Items 14-17
Attitude to Tongan at school	Items 18,19,38,42
Attitude to English at school	Items 20-23,28,37,39
Use of free time	Items 24-27
Career aspirations	Items 29,30,31,34
Education aspirations	Items 32,33
Integrative motivation	Items 35,36
Teaching of English at secondary school	Items 40,46,49,50,51
Attitude to native speakers of English	Items 43,44,45,47,48
Perceptions on individual English macroskills	Items 52-56
Science/Humanities strengths	Items 57-60

3.4.2.3 Translation.

The questionnaire was initially designed in English and then translated into Tongan by the researcher. Before it was administered, the translation was carefully checked by a prominent figure in Tonga, who used to be a teacher of Tongan as a subject in secondary school for many years and is currently working as the secretary for the Women's Department of the Free Wesleyan Church in Tonga. Very few modifications were required to the wording of the questions and the grammar of the language.

(A copy of the questionnaire in Tongan is attached as Appendix 3).

3.4.3 Teacher Questionnaire

The teacher questionnaire aimed at collecting information not only on demographic features of the teachers but on factors they perceived to be associated with the learning of English at secondary school. The essential purpose of surveying the teachers' perceptions was so they could be compared with the students' perceptions in order to identify the differences and similarities in their responses to factors postulated to be associated with the learning of English at secondary school. Such a purpose made it necessary for the teacher and student questionnaires to be largely parallel.

The teacher questionnaire was therefore based on the student questionnaire with few a modifications. For instance, a few items were added to elicit more demographic information on the teachers. Some items which were included in the student questionnaire were taken out from the teacher questionnaire as they were regarded as not appropriate. The teacher questionnaire was administered in English.

(A copy of the teacher questionnaire is attached as Appendix 4)

3.5 Data Collection

3.5.1 Preliminary Stage

At the preliminary stage the researcher contacted various authorities whose approval and support were needed so that the undertaking of the research was made possible. Financial support was sought from and granted by the Australian International Development Assistance Bureau (AIDAB). The Cabinet of the Tongan Government was requested to grant permission for the conduct of the research and the collection of the data from schools in Tonga. The permission was granted after the researcher arrived in the country. The Tonga Ministry of Education was also contacted for their support. This came in the form of a letter which was given to the researcher to give to the school authorities thus expressing the ministry's support. The researcher also wrote to all the principals of the schools selected requesting permission for their students and teachers to participate in the study. Some of them responded in writing and expressed their interest

and consent while the others responded favourably when contacted by telephone after the researcher arrived in the country. Finally, the researcher requested assistance for transportation and printing of research materials from her current employer, the Free Wesleyan Church Education Department.

The researcher was able to collect the relevant data for a period of six weeks from May-June 1993.

3.5.2 Data Gathering Stage

3.5.2.1 Pilot study.

The student and teacher questionnaires were piloted with a group of 10 students and two teachers in one school. The main purpose was to see whether the questions were understood and to check the time it took to complete the questionnaires. The outcome of this pilot study indicated a need to reword some questions and statements in the Tongan version of the student questionnaire so as to enable the students to understand exactly what the questions required. This was particularly related to items which required them to rate their own abilities in Tongan and English.

Feedback from the teachers revealed that items requiring the teachers to rate their ability in Tongan were not appropriate since some of the teachers who would be participating in the study were non-Tongans. These items were consequently deleted from the teacher questionnaire.

With this feedback, the questionnaire instruments were fine tuned and their final versions were established.(See Appendix 2 and 4)

3.5.2.2 Administration of Test and Student Questionnaires.

Prior to the actual administration of the test items and questionnaires, the researcher made arrangements with the various school authorities concerning convenient times for visits. A time schedule was drawn up and the researcher visited the schools at the times arranged.

The reading, writing and listening parts of the test together with the Student Questionnaire were administered in groups at one sitting under the supervision of the researcher. The time allocation for these parts of the test was two and a half hours and about 20-30 minutes were allocated for the completion of the questionnaire. Most subjects however finished everything within two or two and a half hours.

The students began by filling in the questionnaire after the researcher had briefed them on the purposes of the study and how to go about completing the questionnaire. Everyone had to finish this task before the test was administered. With the test, it was convenient to start with the listening parts since everyone was required to listen to the tape recorder at the same time. At the completion of those parts, the participants proceeded to finish the reading and writing parts of the test and those who finished early were allowed to leave.

3.5.2.3 Administration of the Speaking Parts of the Test.

Some of the 30 subjects who participated in the speaking test were able to do it straight after sitting the other parts of the test within the same visit. For most, however, other times had to be arranged. Since this test was conducted on a one to one basis, the participants in each school were called together into one venue and briefed on what to do before starting. The questions were given out for each to study for a few minutes before the interactions. While the researcher interacted with one participant at a time, the rest were kept either at the other corner of the room or outside an office depending on the venue where the interview took place, waiting for their turns.

All the oral interaction was tape recorded. For best effect, the tape recorder with built-in microphone was placed between the researcher and the participant. The oral testing took place either in a classroom, in the library, in an office, in the staff room or outside, and occurred both during the school hours or after school hours.

3.5.2.4 Administration of Teacher Questionnaire.

The questionnaires were either given by the researcher to the teachers or to the principal or deputy principal to pass on to the teachers. The teachers completed the

questionnaires by themselves in their own time and the researcher collected them either from the teachers or again from the principal or deputy. About 16 questionnaires were collected by the researcher and 8 were mailed later.

3.6 Data Analysis

3.6.1 Marking of the Test.

The test had to be marked not only to assess the ability of the subjects but to quantify the results before entering them into the computer for the analysis. Because some parts of the test had to be assessed relatively subjectively, the researcher plus two independent raters, both experienced Australian ESL secondary teachers, were selected to do the rating. Having such multiple raters ensured the attainment of a reasonable level of inter-rater reliability.

The assessment of the reading and listening parts of the test was more objective in nature so raters needed only to agree on the correct answer for each question. Answers were simply marked right or wrong and scores were awarded accordingly. The marking of the writing and speaking parts of the test was more subjective so a set of criteria was provided as guidelines for the assessment and allocation of scores.

The set of criteria used for assessing the writing and speaking parts of the test was based on a set of Assessment Criteria used in Britain to assess the written and oral production of speakers of English as a second language who wish to use English for educational purposes.(Weir, 1990).

There was much similarity between the objectives, content and the kind of question-tasks in these exam sample papers used by Weir (1990) to draw the assessment Criteria and the test instrument of this study. On that basis, the Assessment Criteria were regarded as appropriate to use for the assessment of the written and oral test in the study. However, considering the context of the subjects in the study, the assessment criteria were adapted before they were used for the rating of the subjects' performance in this study. (The Assessment Criteria are attached as Appendix 5).

The scores granted for the subject's performance in the individual questions of each English language macroskill were aggregated into a single global score. That global score represented the achievement of each subject in the set of skills tested. Each subject then was given four scores, one for each of the four English language macroskills. These scores were then entered into the an IBM computer using the SPSS-for Windows package for the analysis.

Table 4 shows the inter-rater reliability coefficients for speaking and writing for the three raters.

Table 4 Inter-rater reliability coefficients

↓ Rater No →	Speaking		Writing	
	2	3	2	3
1	0.77***	0.79***	0.77***	0.91***
2	—	0.79***	—	0.75***

*** p< .001

The ratings of the three raters were therefore closely related.

The frequency distributions , the means, the ranges, the standard deviations of each skill and the correlation coefficients between the skills tested were computed to provide a profile of the subjects' performance in those skills.

3.6.2 Coding and Scoring of the Questionnaire Data

The data were coded, in consultation with another research consultant of the university so it could be entered into the computer for the analysis.

All the responses for items which were answered on the Five-point scale were scored 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, in the direction from the most positive (1)to the most negative response (5). The items which were answered by simply identifying the applicable alternatives to their situations from a list of alternatives given, were scored 1 if they indicated an alternative to be applicable or 0 if they indicated an alternative not to be

applicable. This system was applied to both the student and teacher questionnaire and these provided the quantified results used for the analysis.

3.7 Missing Data

During the coding of the survey data, some data were found missing, particularly in the student questionnaire. A few students did not give any responses to some items in the questionnaire. In such cases, the means of the whole sample for those items were calculated and such scores were used for the analysis instead of treating those items as having no responses (in accordance with the procedure recommended by Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989). There was, however, one student who did not give any responses to items in about three pages of the questionnaire. Instead of using the mean scores in this case, it was considered better to exclude the subject concerned from the sample as he was missing a lot of information. The analysis of the data, both the performance and perception, was therefore for only 99 of the student subjects. (See Appendix 6 for a table of the missing data).

Chapter four

Findings of the study

In this chapter the findings of the study are provided. The first part provides a description of the students' performance across the four English language skills. In the second part the linguistic and non-linguistic factors associated with the students' learning of English language macroskills are presented. Included in this section are four standard multiple regressions which were computed to identify how much of the variance in the students' performance in reading, writing and listening (dependent variables) were accounted for by seven of the independent variables, and how much of the variance in their speaking performance was accounted for by only five of the independent variables (factors showing strong correlation with performance). In the final section the linguistic and non-linguistic factors as perceived by the teachers of the students in the sample to be associated with the learning of English language skills are presented.

4.1 Performance in four macroskills

The results of the students' performance across the four English language macroskills (reading, writing, listening, speaking) are summarised in this part. The characteristics of their performance are described not only by the frequency of distribution, mean scores, range, and standard deviation but also by the correlation of performance among the four macroskills.

4.1.1 Performance in Reading

Figure 1 shows the distribution of scores in the reading performance. About half (53.3%) of the students in the sample attained a score of less than 50% in the reading performance and 46.7% attained a score of 50% or more. The highest score attained was 97.5% and the lowest was 7.5%.

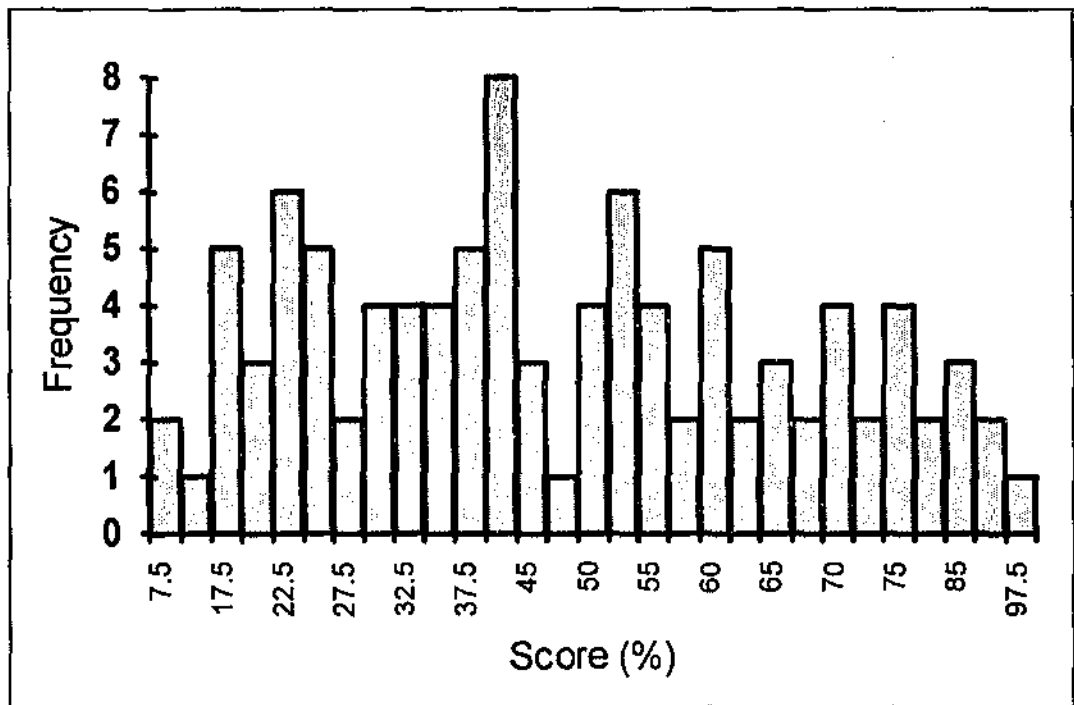


Figure 1 performance in reading

4.1.2 Performance in Writing

The distribution of scores in Figure 2 reveals again a low performance in writing.

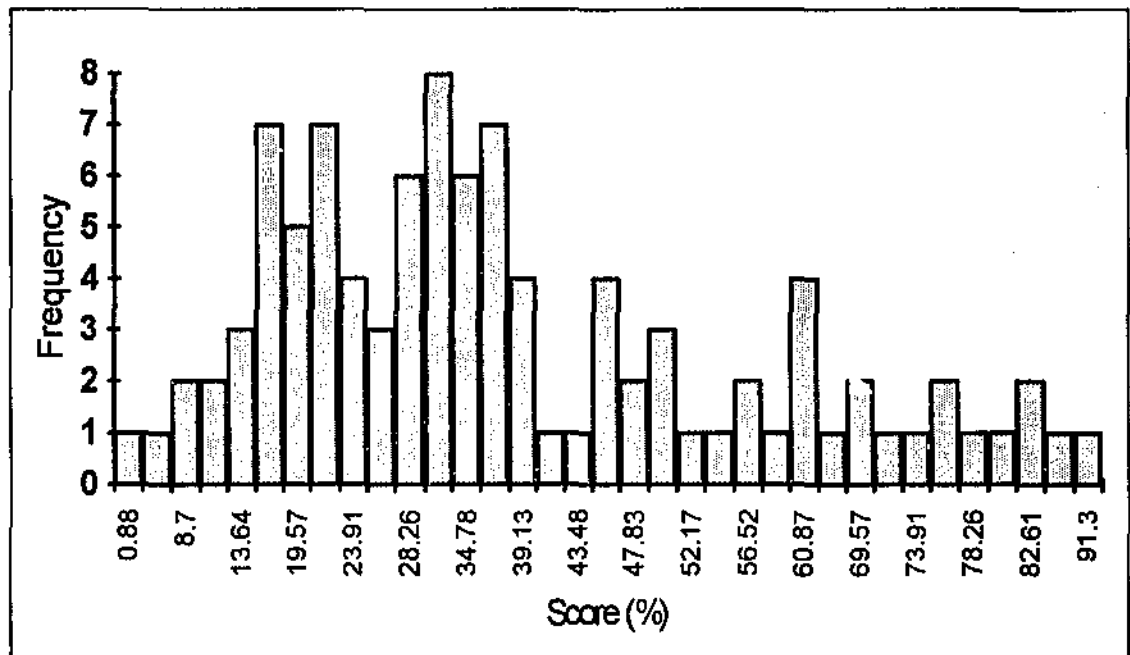


Figure 2 Performance in writing

Of all the students in the sample, 74.7% got a score that was less than 50% and only 25.3% attained a score of 50% or more. The highest score attained was 91.3% and the lowest was 8.7%.

4.1.3 Performance in Listening

Figure 3 reveals a high performance in the distribution of scores in listening.

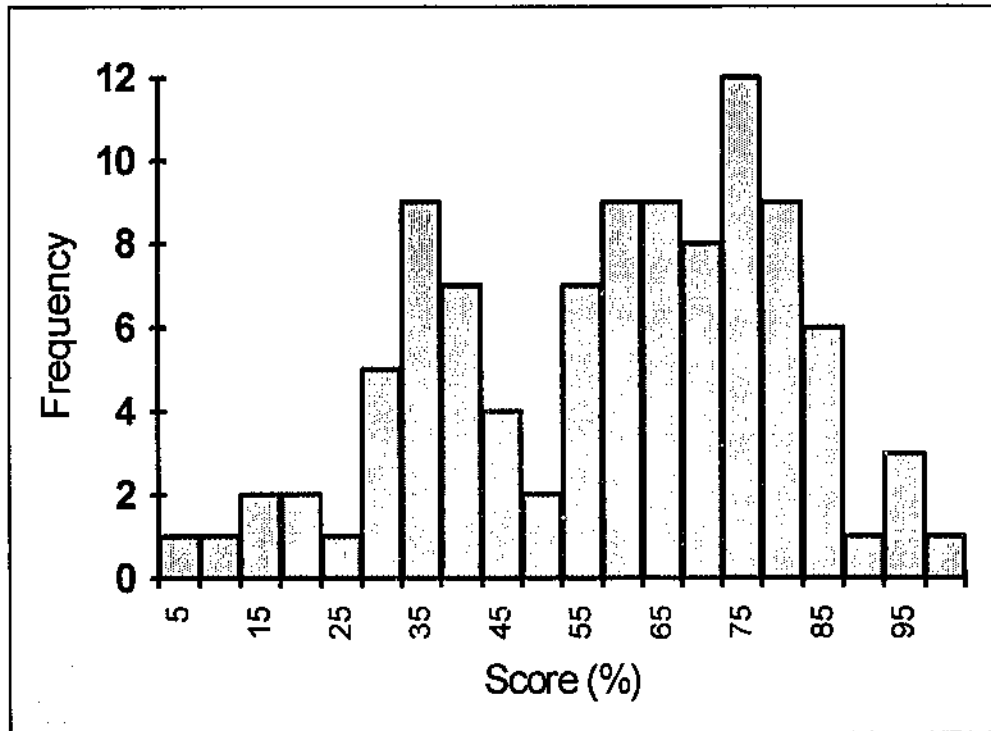


Figure 3 Performance in listening

Of all the students in the sample, 67.7% got a score of 50% or more and only 32.3% got a score of less than 50%. 100% was the highest score attained and 5% was the lowest.

4.1.4 Performance in Speaking

Figure 4 reveals the distribution of scores attained by students in their speaking performance.

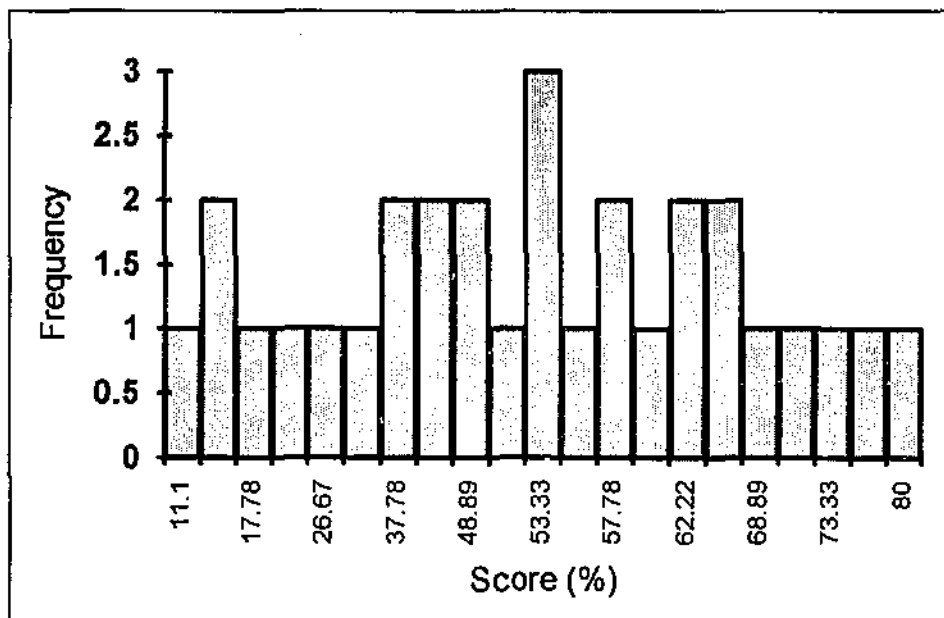


Figure 4 *Performance in speaking*

Of the 30 students who participated in the speaking activities, 56.7% got a score of 50% or more and 43.3% got a score that was less than 50%. The highest score attained was 80% and 11.1% was the lowest score.

Other characteristics of the students' performance in the four English language macroskills were revealed by the mean scores, the ranges, and the standard deviations, and these are shown in Table 5.

Table 5 **Mean Scores, Ranges, and Standard Deviations of Students' Performance Across the Four English Language Macroskills**

Test	N	Mean (%)	S.D. (%)	Min. (%)	Max. (%)
Reading	99	46.5	21.3	7.5	97.5
Writing	99	37.6	20.5	0.0	91.3
Listening	99	58.7	21.5	5.0	100.0
Speaking	30	49.3	19.5	11.1	80.0

Note: 40 was the total score for Reading, 46 for Writing, 20 for Listening, and 45 for Speaking. N = number of students, S.D. = standard deviation, Min. = minimum score attained, and Max. = maximum score attained.

The mean scores in Table 5 reveal that students got lower scores in writing and higher scores in listening. Their scores in reading and speaking were clustered more in the middle of the results.

Since only 30 students participated in the speaking test, it was necessary to identify whether their speaking performance was representative of all the 100 students, including the 70 who did not participate. Therefore in the other three skills, the 30 students who participated in the speaking test were compared with the 70 who did not take this test.

In reading, the mean score for this group of 30 was 19.20, and the mean score for the other 69 students was 18.37. A t test indicated no significant difference, $t(53.01) = .44, p > .05$.

In writing, the mean score for the group of 30 was 18.33, and the mean score for the other 69 students was 16.93. Again a t test indicated no significant difference, $t(56.66) = .58, p > .05$.

For listening, the mean score for the group of 30 was 12.57, and the mean score for the other 69 students was 11.43. A t test also indicated no significant difference, $t(55.13) = 1.22, p > .05$.

Therefore it can be concluded that the performance in reading, writing, and listening of the 30 students was typical of the whole sample and that the results from the speaking test given below can be taken as representative of the performance in speaking of the whole sample.

4.1.5 Correlation of Students' Performance

It was found that the performances of the students in the sample across the four English language macroskills were highly correlated. Table 6 displays the correlation coefficients of their performance.

Table 6 *Correlation Coefficients of the Students' Performance Across the Four English Language Skills*

	Writing	Listening	Speaking
Reading	0.87 ***	0.75 ***	0.68 ***
Writing	-	0.66 ***	0.73 ***
Listening	-	-	0.67 ***

*** $p < .001$.

4.1.6 Summary

The only macroskill in which the mean score exceeded 50% was listening and there was a wide range of scores in each macroskill. The performance of the students across the four language macroskills was highly correlated.

4.2 Linguistic and Non-linguistic Factors

In this section the linguistic and non-linguistic factors associated with the students' learning of English language macroskills are presented. First, descriptive statistics are used to describe some characteristics of the students' responses in the questionnaire. Second, the test scores of students in their performance are correlated with the quantified scores of their responses in the questionnaire so as to determine

whether there was any association between what they perceived to affect their learning of English and their performance across the four English language skills. Finally, the factors which were identified to have significant and strong correlations with the students' performance in the four English language macroskills are put into a standard multiple regression with the students' performance results so as to identify how much of the variance in the students' performance in each macroskill can be accounted for by those independent variables.

The 60 items in the student questionnaire elicited not only demographic information about the students but also information on their perception of factors (Refer to Table 3 in chapter 3) which were hypothesised to have an association with their learning of English as a second language.

At the completion of the questionnaire, the closely-related items were first put into scales. Seven scales were consequently formed and these are shown in Table 7. The items which formed each scale are shown in Table 3 of chapter 3.

The alpha reliability coefficient was then computed to determine the reliability of the variables within each scale. The alpha reliability coefficients for the scales ranged from 0.61 to 0.90. Table 7 shows the scales with alpha coefficients.

The items which did not fit into any of the scales were analysed and correlated as individual variables. They were under these categories: Uses of English, Frequency of use of English, Purposes for learning of English, Use of free time, Attitudes to native speakers of English, Teaching of English at school, Perceptions on individual English macroskills, and English versus other subjects (See Table 3 in chapter 3 for their compositions).

Table 7 Reliability Coefficient for English Perception Scale (EPS)

Scale	Items	Alpha
Perceived Ability in English	4	0.74
Perceived ability in Tongan	4	0.90
Attitude to English at school	7	0.80
Attitude to Tongan at school	4	0.61
Integrative Motivation	2	0.65
Educational Aspirations	2	0.79
Career Aspirations	4	0.69
Frequency of Use of English with Non-Tongan Speakers	2	0.81

4.2.1 Characteristics of Students' Responses in the Questionnaire

4.2.1.1 Demographic Factors

Information on the distribution of gender and the age range of students is summarised along with information on the number of years they have spent learning English at the secondary level.

The random sampling method used in selecting the students in the sample produced 43.4% females and 56.6% males (N = 99).

It was found that the largest group (33.3%) of the 99 students in the sample were 16 years of age, and the next largest group (27.3%) were 17 year olds. 24.3% were between 18 or older, and 15.1% were 15 or younger. The maximum age was 20 and the minimum age was 14.

The number of years spent by Form 5 students learning English since the beginning of their secondary education varied from a minimum of five to more than seven years. 46.5% of the 99 students who participated in the study had spent five years

(including their Form 5 Year) learning English at secondary school. The next largest group (38.4%) had spent six years altogether, and the remaining (15.1%) had spent more than seven years.

4.2.1.2 English Perception Scale

Table 8 shows the mean scores, standard deviations, and ranges of the students' responses in the English Perception Scale.

Table 8 *Mean Scores, Standard Deviations, and Ranges of Students' Responses in English Perception Scale*

Variable	Means	SD	Min.	MAX.	Items
PAE	11.32	3.26	4	18	4
PAT	7.83	3.05	4	19	4
AES	10.11	3.82	7	30	7
ATS	9.29	3.01	4	17	4
IM	4.96	2.04	2	10	2
EA	3.44	1.91	2	10	2
CA	12.54	3.53	4	20	4
UENTS	2.05	1.05	1	5	2

Note. PAE = Perceived ability in English, PAT = Perceived ability in Tongan, AES = Attitude to English at school, ATS = Attitude to Tongan at school, IM = Integrative Motivation, EA = Education Aspirations, CA = Career Aspirations, UENTS = Use of English with Non Tongan speakers. Items represents the number of items in each scale. A low score indicates positiveness and a high score indicates negativness.

Students were asked to give their responses to questions in the questionnaire as 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 in the direction from positive to negative.

Table 8 reveals that students rated their ability in English as not so good. However, as expected, they rated themselves as having good ability in Tongan. Similarly, students appeared to have positive attitude to Tongan and a fairly negative attitude to English at school. A majority of students had integrative motivation for

learning English at school and they also used English with Non Tongan speakers very frequently. It was also shown that students had aspirations to pursue their study at university and overseas and they aspired not to leave school at Form 5 or Form 6 immediately and look for a job.

4.2.1.3 Purposes English is Used For

Students were asked to identify the purposes they used English for, the frequency of their use of English, whom they used English with and where. The intention was to determine whether their use of English has any association with their level of success in the learning of English.

The following six purposes were given and students were to identify whether they used English for such purposes or not.

Study at School

71.7% of the students who participated in the study, indicated that they used English for study at school and surprisingly, 28.3% indicated that they did not use English for that purpose. Because some subjects (such as Tongan and Scripture) are taught in Tongan, it is possible that students who indicated that they did not use English to study at school considered that as a reason why they did not use English for this purpose. That is, because they used Tongan to study those subjects, they did not use English. In addition, some Tongan teachers prefer to teach in Tongan. It is also possible, therefore, that these students regarded this as another reason why they did not use English to study at school.

Reading for Enjoyment.

Of all the students who participated in the study, only 42.4% used English for this purpose.

Watch English Movies.

It was found that 56.6% of those who participated in the test used English to watch English movies.

Talk with Tongan Friends.

Only 23.2% of the students who participated in the test showed that they did not use English when talking with their Tongan friends.

Communication in the Family Home

Very few students indicated that they used English when communicating with family at home. Only 20.2% of the students who participated in the test used English to communicate at home.

Communication with Non-Tongan Speakers

55.6% of the students who participated in the test revealed that they used English to communicate with non-Tongan speakers. It was surprising though that the other 44.4% indicated that they did not use English for that purpose. It is possible that these students may not have confidence in their knowledge and capacity to use English so they avoided using it at all.

4.2.1.4 Frequency of Use of English

Students were asked to identify the frequency of their use of English at home with family members, relatives and neighbours; inside the classroom with Tongan and Non-Tongan schoolmates and teachers; and also outside of the classroom with the same persons. Table 9 shows the frequency distribution of use of English by the students in the sample.

Table 9 **Frequency of Use of English**

Place	Always	Most time	Some time	Very little	Never
At home	%	%	%	%	%
Brother and sister	4.1	6.1	53.5	24.2	13.1
Parents and relatives	1.0	5.1	36.4	30.3	23.2
Neighbours & friends	3.1	16.2	45.5	16.2	16.2
Inside Classroom					
Tongan schoolmates	5.1	21.2	43.4	20.2	5.1
Teachers	27.3	30.3	36.4	5.1	1.0
Outside Classroom					
Tongan schoolmates	3.0	9.1	40.4	40.4	7.1
Teachers	17.2	22.2	33.3	12.1	9.1

Note: Figures which do not add up to make the 100% indicate some missing data.

Table 9 reveals a less frequent use of English for communication at home. Based on the lowest “always” and “most time” figures as well as highest “very little” and “never” figures, the least frequent use of English was with parents and relatives at home. The majority of students (53.5%) used English only sometimes when communicating at home with brothers and sisters. Only very few students used it all the time for communication at home.

It is also revealed that the frequency of English use inside and outside of classroom depended on whom the students used it with. Considering both the inside and outside of classroom figures and based particularly on "higher always and most time" figures as well as "mostly lower sometime and very little" figures, the most frequent use of English was with teachers. 46.4% of the students used English only sometimes when communicating with Tongan schoolmates inside the classroom and 40.4% used English also with the same persons outside of classroom.

4.2.1.5 Purposes for Learning English

Six purposes or reasons for learning English were given and students were asked to identify the ones they had for learning English at secondary school. Table 10 shows the distribution of students' purposes for learning English at secondary school.

Table 10 *Distribution of Purposes for Learning English at Secondary School*

Purpose	Yes(%)	No(%)
"I wish to continue learning English in the future"	74.7	25.3
"English will help me to get a job when leaving school"	83.3	16.2
"English will help in my daily life"	36.4	63.6
"My English teacher told me to learn English"	84.8	15.2
"My parents wanted me to learn English"	17.2	82.8
"English is a compulsory subject at school"	53.5	46.5

Table 10 reveals that a large majority of students learned English because their English teacher told them to, because English will help them to get a job when leaving school, and because they wished to continue learning it in the future. A minority of students learned English in order to help them in their daily life, or because their parents wanted them to. Slightly more than half of the students in the sample learned English because it was a compulsory subject at school. English is a compulsory subject in all schools.

4.2.1.6 Use of Free Time

Students were asked to indicate whether they preferred to use their free time to do English-related activities or Tongan-related activities. The intention was to investigate how much their orientation to English or Tongan, as reflected by their use of free time, affected their learning of English macro-skills.

It was found that 60.6% of the sample students preferred to spend their free time reading a book in English. 16.1% did not prefer that and 21.2% were not sure.

When asked whether they would rather spend their free time watching English movies or not, 68.7% preferred that, 16.2% did not want that, and 14.1% were not sure.

34.3% of the students in the sample preferred to spend their free time watching Tongan cultural dances while 37.4% did not want to. 28.3% were not sure.

Finally, when asked whether they preferred to join a Tongan cultural dance club to learn dances in their free time or not, 47.4% did not want to, 24.3% preferred to do that and 28.3% were not sure.

4.2.1.7 Teaching of English in English Classes

Students were asked to express their views on certain matters relating to the teaching of English during English classes. The purpose was to identify whether teaching of English in classes correlates with the students' learning of English.

About 50.0% of the sample students considered that they were well motivated in English classes to work hard on English. 25.2% showed that they were not motivated and 22.5% were not sure.

74.7% of the students in the sample agreed that English was taught well during English classes, 13.1% did not agree with that and 12.1% were not sure.

With regard to their views on whether enough time was allocated to the teaching of English in the school timetable, 56.6% of the students thought that there was enough time, 20.3% did not agree, and 21.2% were not sure.

Related to the teaching materials used in English teaching, 67.7% of the students thought that they were easy enough to learn, 18.2% did not think so, and 12.1% were not sure.

Finally, students were asked to indicate whether English native speakers should teach English or not. About 57.1% agreed with this, 19.3% did not agree, and 23.5% were not sure.

4.2.1.8 Attitude to Native Speakers of English

It was hypothesised that the attitude of learners of English toward English native speakers may affect their learning of English. Students were asked to express their feelings on whether native speakers of English are friendly, unkind, impolite, or thoughtful, and whether they would like to marry a native speaker of English.

44.4% of the sample students agreed that native speakers of English are friendly, 20.2% disagreed and 35.4% were not sure.

When asked whether the native speakers of English are unkind or not, 20.2% of the students in the sample agreed with it, 48.5% disagreed and 31.3% were not sure.

To indicate whether native speakers of English are impolite, 25.3% agreed, 41.4% disagreed and 32.3% were not sure.

About 70.7% of the sample students agreed that native speakers of English are thoughtful, 9.1% disagreed and 19.2% were not sure.

To indicate whether they would marry a native speaker of English or not, 43.4% agreed, 20.2% disagreed and 36.4% were not sure.

4.2.1.9 Perception on Individual English Language Macroskills

Students in the sample were asked to express their views on the importance of each of the four English macroskills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). The intention was to identify whether the importance students put on each English language macroskill is related to their performances in each of those macroskills.

The Most Important English Language Macroskill to Develop at Secondary School

The students were asked to indicate the most important English language macroskill which should be developed at secondary school. In response, 43.4% indicated speaking, 6.1% indicated listening, 23.2% indicated reading and 27.3% indicated writing. Table 11 displays the mean scores of the students' performance in each English language macroskills in relation to their perceptions on the most important English macroskill to be developed at secondary school.

Table 11 *Mean Score (%) of Students' Performance in Relation to Their Perception on the Most Important Macroskill to be Developed*

Subgroup perceived most important macroskill	N as % of total sample	Sub-group mean performance on Macroskills			
		Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
Speaking	43.4	50.48 (+1.2)	58.26 (-0.4)	40.08 (+1.6)	37.02 (-0.6)
Listening	6.1	53.33 (+4.0)	55.83 (-2.9)	32.92 (-13.6)	18.12 (-19.5)
Reading	23.2	40.63 (-8.7)	55.65 (-3.1)	44.35 (-2.2)	35.54 (-2.1)
Writing	27.3	54.44 (+5.1)	62.59 (+3.9)	48.70 (+2.2)	43.24 (+5.6)
Total group	100	49.3	58.7	46.5	37.6

Note: Figures in brackets give the difference from the total sample mean rounded to one decimal place.

Table 11 shows, for instance, that the 43.4% of the sample who indicated speaking as the most important skill scored 48.08, 37.02, 58.26 and 50.48 on reading, writing, listening and speaking respectively.

Comparing the mean scores of the sub groups in Table 11 and the mean scores of the whole group, it was found that the sub group who indicated speaking to be the most important skill scored about 1.2% and 1.6% above the group average for reading and speaking respectively. They scored below the group averages for listening and writing. The sub-group who indicated listening to be the most important skill scored 4% above group average in listening and below the group average in the other three macroskills. For those who indicated reading, their average scores in all the macroskills were below the average scores of the whole group. It was only the sub group who indicated writing to be the most important skill that scored above the total group averages.

Scores of the sub-group who indicated listening diverge most from those of the total group, but they are less reliable because the number in this sub-group is small. In addition, scores on the speaking macroskill must be treated with caution because only 30 subjects were tested for speaking.

The English Language Macroskill That Form 5 Students Performed Best in

When students in the sample were asked for the English language macroskill that all Form 5 students performed best in, 48.5% showed speaking, 17.2% showed listening, 23.2% showed reading and 11.1% showed writing. Table 12 shows the mean score of students' performance in the four English language macroskills in relation to their perception on the English macroskill that Form 5 students performed best in.

Table 12 Mean Score (%) of Students' Performance in The Four English Language Macroskills in Relation to their Perception on the Macroskill that Form 5 Students Performed Best in

Sub-group perceived best Form 5 macroskill performance	N as % of total sample	Sub-group mean performance on Macroskills			
		Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
Speaking	48.5	44.96 (-4.3)	58.65 (-0.1)	44.53 (-2.0)	35.73 (-1.9)
Listening	17.2	52.50 (+3.2)	60.00 (+1.3)	50.74 (+4.2)	40.41 (+2.8)
Reading	23.2	58.10 (+8.8)	60.00 (+1.3)	45.43 (-1.1)	36.01 (-1.6)
Writing	11.1	34.44 (-14.9)	54.09 (-4.6)	50.45 (+4.0)	44.47 (+6.9)
Total sample mean	100	49.3	58.7	46.5	37.6

Note: Figures in brackets give the difference from the total sample mean rounded to one decimal place.

Table 12 reveals, for instance, that the 48.5% of the sample who said that speaking is the skill which Form 5 students performed best in scored 44.96 on speaking, 58.65 on listening, and 44.53 on reading and 35.73 on writing.

When comparing the mean scores of the sub-groups as shown on table 12 and the mean scores of the whole group, the sub-group who said that speaking was the skill which Form 5 students performed best in attained average scores which were less than the whole group average scores in all the four macroskills. The average scores of the sub-group who thought that listening was the skill which Form 5 students performed best in were above the mean scores for the whole group in all the four macroskills. The sub-group who indicated reading attained mean scores which were above the mean scores of the whole group in speaking and listening, and mean scores which were below the mean scores for the whole group in reading and writing. The mean scores of the sub-group who indicated writing to be the skill that Form 5 students performed best in were below those of the whole group in speaking and listening and above in reading and writing.

The English Language Macroskill That Students Who Participated in the Study Performed Best in

The students in the sample were also asked to indicate the English language macroskill that they themselves performed best in. About 23.2% revealed speaking, 7.1% revealed listening, 45.5% revealed reading, and 19.2% revealed writing. Table 13 reveals the mean score of students' performance in relation to their perception on the English language macroskill that they themselves performed best in.

Table 13 Mean Score of Students' Performance in Relation to the English Language Macroskill that they Performed best

Sub-group perceived best Form 5 macroskill performance	N as % of total sample	Sub-group mean performance on Macroskills			
		Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
Speaking	23.2	55.83 (+6.5)	50.22 (-8.5)	46.20 (-0.3)	38.75 (+1.2)
Listening	7.1	55.33 (+6.0)	66.43 (+7.7)	39.64 (-6.9)	35.09 (-2.5)
Reading	45.5	44.31 (-5.0)	60.00 (+1.3)	45.39 (-1.1)	35.07 (-2.5)
Writing	18.2	54.44 (+5.1)	65.26 (+6.6)	54.47 (+8.07)	44.39 (+6.8)
Total sample mean	100	49.3	58.7	46.5	37.6

Note: Figures in brackets give the difference from the total sample mean rounded to one decimal place.

Column N for the four sub-groups does not add up to 100% because there were five students who provided no response to this question.

Table 13 reveals, for instance, that the sub-group who regarded speaking to be the skill that they themselves performed best in scored 46.20 in reading, 38.75 in writing, 50.22 in listening and 55.83 in speaking.

Table 13 also reveals that the sub-group who regarded speaking as the macroskill that they performed best in got mean scores which were below the mean scores for the whole group in listening and reading, while their mean scores in speaking and writing were above the mean scores of the whole group. The sub-group who indicated listening as the skill that they performed best in attained mean scores which were above the mean scores for the whole group for speaking and listening, and mean scores that were below the mean scores of the whole group in reading and writing. The sub-group who indicated reading got mean scores which were below the total group mean scores in speaking, reading and writing, while the mean score for listening was above the mean score of the whole group. The sub-group who indicated writing as the skill that they performed best in attained mean scores which were above the mean scores of the whole group in all four macroskills.

The English Language Macroskill Most Related to the Tonga School Certificate Examination Results

In relation to the results of the Tonga School Certificate Examination, students were asked to indicate the English language macroskills which are most related to them. About 6.1% showed speaking, 2.0% showed listening, 16.2% showed reading, and 74.7% showed writing. Table 14 shows the mean score of the students' performance in all the four English language macroskills in relation to their perception on the English language macroskills most related to the Tonga School Certificate examination results.

Table 14 Mean Score (%) of Students' Performance in Relation to their Perception on English Language Macroskill Most Related to the Tonga School Certificate Examination Results

Sub-group perceived relationship with TSC	N as % of total sample	Sub-group mean performance on Macroskills			
		Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
Speaking	6.1	29.44 (-19.9)	48.33 (-10.4)	31.25 (-15.3)	21.38 (-16.2)
Listening	2.0	62.22 (+12.9)	52.50 (-6.2)	30.00 (-16.5)	26.09 (-11.5)
Reading	16.2	33.33 (-16.0)	58.13 (-0.6)	44.84 (-1.7)	36.14 (-1.5)
Writing	74.7	52.78 (+3.5)	59.73 (+1.0)	48.38 (+1.9)	39.01 (+1.4)
Total sample mean	100	49.3	58.7	46.5	37.6

Note: Figures in brackets give the difference from the total sample mean rounded to one decimal place.

Table 14 shows, for instance, that the group of students who said that speaking is the macroskill most related to the Tonga School Certificate examination results scored 31.25 in reading, 21.38 in writing, 48.33 in listening and 29.44 in speaking.

Table 14 also reveals some differences between the mean scores of the sub-groups and the whole group in their performance across the English language macroskills. The mean scores of the sub-group who regarded speaking as the skill most related to the Tongan School Certificate Examination results were below the mean scores of the total group in all four macroskills. The only mean score of the sub-group who indicated listening which was above the mean scores of the total group was in listening, but these two sub-groups contained very few subjects. The mean scores of the other three macroskills were below the mean scores of the total group. The sub-group who indicated reading attained mean scores which were below the mean scores of the total group in all four macroskills, and the sub-group who indicated writing attained

mean scores which were all above the mean scores of the total group in all four macroskills.

The English Language Macroskill that Students Liked the Best

Students in the sample were asked to show the English language macroskills that they themselves liked the best. About 49.5% showed speaking, 3.0% showed listening, 31.3% showed reading, and 13.1% showed writing. Table 15 shows the mean score of the students' performance in the four English language macroskills in relation to their perception on the English language macroskill that they liked the best.

Table 15 *Mean Score of Students' Performance in Relation to their Perception on the English Language Macroskill that they Liked the Best*

Sub-group perceived best Form 5 macroskill performance	N as % of total sample	Sub-group mean performance on Macroskills			
		Speaking	Listening	Reading	Writing
Speaking	49.5	50.56 (+1.3)	55.82 (-2.9)	43.98 (-2.5)	34.61 (-3.0)
Listening	3.0	68.89 (+19.6)	53.33 (-5.4)	38.33 (-8.2)	36.96 (-0.6)
Reading	31.3	40.93 (-8.4)	62.10 (+3.4)	49.60 (+3.1)	42.57 (+5.0)
Writing	13.1	66.67 (+17.4)	65.77 (+7.1)	53.85 (+7.4)	40.64 (+3.0)
Total sample mean	100	49.3	58.7	46.5	37.6

Note: Figures in brackets give the difference from the total sample mean rounded to one decimal place.

Table 15 shows, for instance, that students who indicated speaking as the macroskill that they liked best scored 43.98 in reading, 34.61 in writing, 55.82 in listening and 50.56 in speaking.

4.2.1.10 English Versus Other Subjects

Students were asked to indicate the subject they liked best, the subject they most disliked, their best subject, and their worst subject. The original intention was to determine whether perceived strength in or favourable attitude toward particular subjects (particular science vs humanities) correlated with English macroskills. However, to devise an adequate categorisation of subject groupings and correlation by individual subjects was not manageable. It was decided then to determine whether students' attitudes to English versus other subjects contributes to their performance in and learning of the four English language macroskills.

The Subject they Liked Best

When students were asked about the subject they liked best, 44% of only 93 students of the sample indicated English and the other 56% of those 93 indicated subjects other than English. Table 16 displays the mean score of the students' performance in the four English language macroskills in relation to their perception on the subject they liked best.

Table 16 *Mean Score in the Students' Performance in Relation to Their Perception of the Subject They Liked*

Sub-group: Worst subject	N as %	Performance			
		Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
English	44 (of 93)	48.50	39.57	58.63	54.07
Subjects Other Than English	56 (of 93)	46.86	38.02	61.08	47.97
English sub-group difference from other subjects sub-group		+1.64	+1.55	-2.45	+6.1

Table 16 shows that students who liked English and other subjects best did up to 2% better than the whole group in reading and writing. With listening, the students who liked English did 0.07% worse than the total group. It was only in speaking that students who liked English best scored higher and those who liked other subjects better scored lower than the total group. It seems that liking English best is related most

directly to scores on speaking (though this was based on testing only 30 subjects). The results are anomalous in that reading and writing mean scores for both subgroups are higher than the mean for the whole sample. The apparent anomalies in the results for reading and writing may be explained by the exclusion of the results of seven students who did not respond to this question. Their scores appear to have dragged down the mean of the total group.

When comparing the mean scores of the two sub groups, however, Table 16 shows that students who liked English best attained mean scores which were higher than those of the students who liked other subjects. It was only in listening that subgroup who liked other subjects scored higher.

The Subject They Disliked the Most

Only 10.3% of the 97 of the sample who responded to this question indicated English to be the subject they disliked the most. 89.7% of the these 97 students indicated subjects other than English to be the subjects they disliked the most. Table 17 shows the mean score of students' performance in the four English language macroskills in relation to their perception on the subject they disliked the most.

Table 17 Mean Score of Students' Performance in Relation to Their Perception on the Subject They Disliked the Most

Sub-group: Subject disliked	N%	Performance			
		Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
English	10 (of 98)	52.5	45.00	65.50	40.32
Subjects other than English	89 (of 98)	45.55	36.51	57.75	52.08
English Sub-group difference from other subject Sub-group		+6.95	+8.49	+7.75	-11.76

Table 17 reveals that students who disliked English most scored higher than the total group in reading, writing and listening. It was only in speaking that those who disliked English did worse than the total group. Comparing Table 16 and 17 it appears that liking and disliking of English is related most directly to speaking. In listening, both

subgroups scored better than the total group. This anomaly may be explained by the fact that two subjects did not respond to this question.

When comparing the mean scores of the two subgroups, Table 17 shows that students who disliked English the most attained higher scores than those who disliked subjects other than English in reading, writing and listening. It was only in speaking that the subgroup who disliked English the most scored lower than those who disliked subjects other than English. The result may suggest that students' attitude to English does not necessarily affect their performance except in speaking (though the fact that only 30 were tested for speaking requires caution in the use of the figures).

Best Subject

Only 21.2 % of the students in the sample showed English to be their best subject. The other 78.8% indicated subjects other than English to be their best subject. Table 18 shows the mean score of the students' performance in the four English language skills in relation to their perception on their best subject.

Table 18 Mean Score of the Students' Performance in Relation to Their Perception on Their Best Subject

Sub-group: Worst subject	N %	Performance			
		Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
English	21	55.36	45.76	60.00	66.30
Subjects Other Than English	78	44.07	35.37	58.33	45.09
English sub-group difference from other subjects sub- group		+11.29	+10.39	+1.64	+21.21

Table 18 reveals that students who indicated English to be their best subject scored higher than the total group in the four macroskills. Students who indicated subjects other than English as their best subject attained lower mean scores than the total group in all four English language macroskills.

Table 18 also shows that students whose best subject was English scored higher than students whose best subjects were subjects other than English in all four macroskills.

Worst Subject

Only 28.6% of the students in the sample showed English to be their worst subject. 71.4% indicated subjects other than English to be their worst subject. Table 19 shows the mean score students' performance in the four English language macroskills in relation to their perception on their worst subject.

Table 19 *Mean Score of the Students' Performance in Relation to Their Perception on Their Worst Subject*

Skill	N %	Perception			
		Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
English	28	36.79	30.12	52.86	40.49
Subjects Other Than English	71	49.93	40.22	60.64	53.12
English sub-group difference from other subjects subgroup		-13.14	-10.10	-7.78	-12.63

It is shown in Table 19 that students who showed English to be their worst subject got lower mean scores than the total group. The sub group whose worst subjects are subjects other than English got higher mean scores than the total group in all four macroskills.

Table 19 also reveals that the subgroup who indicated English to be their worst subject got lower scores than the subgroup who indicated subjects other than English to be their worst subject in all four macroskills.

4.3 Correlations of Students' Perceptions and Their Performance in the Four English Language Macroskills

A series of bivariate correlation analyses was performed to identify the associations between the performance of the students in the four English macro skills and their perceptions of factors believed to be affecting their learning of English at secondary school. A series of standard multiple regression analyses was also performed. This made it possible to delineate a more complete picture of the relational structure between the two domains (performance and perception), by identifying how much of the students' performance can be accounted for by sets of perceived variables.

4.3.1 Bivariate Correlations

Appendix 7 presents the correlation matrix for all the independent variables that were correlated with the performance of students in all the four English language skills.

Appendix 7 reveals no significant correlations between the performance of students across the four English language skills and the following variables: Gender, Perceived ability in Tongan, Attitude to English at school (surprising), Use of English for communication with Tongan friends, Frequency of use of English (at home with neighbours and friends, inside and outside the classroom with Tongan schoolmates and teachers), Purposes for learning English at school (to continue learning it in the future, to help in their daily life, their English teachers wanted them to, their parents' wish, and because English was a compulsory subject at school), Use of free time (to read English books, to watch Tongan dances and join a Tongan dance club), Attitude to native speakers of English (native speakers of English are impolite and thoughtless and whether they would marry a native speaker of English), Teaching of English at school (the time allocated for teaching English at school, whether the English teaching material was easy, and whether the native speakers of English should teach English at school).

Table 20 presents the correlation matrix of the only variables which had significant correlations with the students' performance in one or more of the four English language macroskills.

Table 20 Correlation Coefficients for Variables Which Had Significant Correlations with Students' Performance in One or More of the Four English Macroskills

Demographic factors	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
Age	-0.4018 **	-0.4294 **	-0.2944 **	-0.5717 **
Year	-0.2004 *	-0.1881	-0.1541	-0.1482
English Perception Scale				
Perceived ability in English	-0.4264 **	-0.4448 **	-0.3621 **	-0.2861
Attitude to Tongan at School	0.1537	0.1653	0.2153 *	0.3155
Frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers at school	-0.3379 **	-0.2986 **	-0.1982 *	-0.4104 *
Integrative motivation for learning English at School	0.2884 **	0.2412 *	0.3620 **	0.2831
Career aspirations	0.5070 **	0.4644 **	0.3672 **	0.4047 *
Education aspirations	-0.2024 *	-0.2121 *	-0.0030	-0.1573
Purpose English is used for				
Study at school	0.1728	0.1741	0.1292	0.4604 *
Read for enjoyment	0.2995 **	0.3178 **	0.2247 *	0.3761 *
Watch English movies	0.1949	0.2368 *	0.1939	0.1889
Communication in the family Home	0.4275 **	0.4400 **	0.3015 **	0.2593
Communication with non-Tongan speakers	0.1862	0.2195 *	0.2065 *	0.1141
Frequency of use of English at home				
With brothers and sisters	-0.2504 *	-0.2023	-0.1452	-0.0346
With parents and relatives	-0.1914	-0.1825	-0.1984 *	-0.2025
Purposes for learning English				
To help in getting a job when leaving school	0.1046	0.2177 *	0.0564	0.2027
Use of Free Time				
To watch English movies	-0.2205 *	-0.2099 *	-0.1519	0.0490
Attitude to native speakers of English				
Native speakers of English are friendly	0.0694	0.0881	0.2077 *	0.1159
Native speakers of English are unkind	0.3057 **	0.2364 *	0.2678 **	0.2132
Teaching of English at school				
English is taught well in English classes	0.1561	0.0960	0.2960 **	0.1726
The English skill that you perform best in	0.1060	0.0490	0.2176 *	-0.1557
The English skill that is closely related to English results in the Tonga School Certificate	0.2157 *	0.2141 *	0.1286	0.3773 *

* : p < .05 ** p < .01

Table 20 reveals the following significant correlations.

Moderate and negative correlations were found between the reading, writing, and speaking performance of students in the sample and their age. Those who were young in age performed better. There was also a weak and negative correlation between the students' performance in listening and their age.

A weak and negative correlation was found between the students' reading performance and the number of years they had spent learning English at secondary school. This means that the more years students have spent learning English the poorer their reading performance was.

The moderate and negative correlations found between the students' performance in reading, writing, and listening and their perceived ability in English indicated that those who thought they were good in English scored higher in those skills.

A weak and positive correlation was found between the attitude of students to Tongan as a subject at school and their performance in listening. Those who had negative attitude performed better.

There were also weak and positive correlations between reading, writing, and listening performance and integrative motivation for learning English at secondary school. Students who learned English for integrative motivation attained lower scores in reading, writing and listening.

Moderate and negative correlations were found between the frequency of use of English with Non-Tongan speakers at school and the students' performance in all the four English skills. Students who used English more often with non-Tongan speakers at school performed better in all the four English language macroskills.

Moderate and positive correlations were however found between the performance of students in reading, writing, and speaking and their career aspirations. Students who aspired not to get a job immediately after secondary education performed better in reading, writing and speaking. A weak and positive correlation was found between the listening performance of students and their career aspirations. Again

students who aspired not to get a job immediately after secondary education got better marks in listening.

There were weak and negative correlations between the students' performance in reading and writing and their aspirations for future education. Students who aspired to have further education performed better in reading and writing.

The purposes which English was used for showed significant differences in the students' performance across the four English skills. Those who used English to study at school scored significantly higher in speaking than those who did not. The performance, in all the four English skills, of those who used English to read for enjoyment was also higher than those who did not use English for that purpose. It was only in writing that those who used English to watch English movies performed higher than those who did not. Those who used English for communication in the family home scored significantly higher in reading, writing, and listening than those who did not. It was only in writing and listening performance that those who used English for communication with Non-Tongan speakers scored significantly higher than those who did not.

There were weak and negative correlations between the reading and writing performance and the frequency of use of English with brothers and sisters at home. Students who used English more frequently with brothers and sisters at home got better marks in reading and writing. There was also a weak and negative correlation between the students' listening performance and their frequency of use of English with parents and relatives at home. Students who used English more frequently with parents and relatives at home performed better in listening.

Those who studied English to help in getting a job when they leave school performed significantly higher in writing than those who did not.

There were weak and negative correlations between the students' performance in reading and writing and their use of free time for English-related or Tongan-related activities. Students who used their free time for English-related or Tongan-related activities got better marks in reading and writing.

A weak and negative correlation was found between the performance of students in writing and the motivation they had to work hard in English lessons. Students who were motivated to work hard in English lessons performed better in writing. There was also a weak and negative correlation in the students' listening performance and how English was taught at English classes. Students who thought that English was taught well at English classes performed better in listening.

There was a weak and positive correlation between the listening performance of students and their attitude to native speakers of English as friendly people. Those who thought that native speakers of English were not friendly people performed better in listening.

4.3.2 Multiple Regression

On the basis of the bivariate correlations, seven independent variables were selected as predictors in three of the four standard multiple regressions which were performed. These were age, frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers, use of English to read for enjoyment, use of English for communication at home, students' perceived ability in English, integrative motivation for learning English, and career aspirations. The dependent variables for these three regressions were reading, writing, and listening.

As for the standard multiple regression with speaking as the dependent variable, only five variables from the seven stated above were selected as the independent variables. Because the number of participants in the speaking test was small (only 30 students), the "bare minimum requirement is to have at least 5 times more cases than independent" (Tabachnick and Fidell, 1989:129), in order to compute a standard multiple regression. That was the main rationale behind the selection of only five independent variables for this regression.

The intention behind these regressions was to identify how much of the variance in the students' performance in each English skill could be accounted for by these independent variables.

4.3.2.1 Reading

The R Square coefficient for reading was 0.5002 which indicated that 50.0% of the variance in reading could be accounted for by age, frequency of use of English with Non-Tongan speakers, use of English to read for enjoyment, use of English for communication at home, students' perceived ability in English, integrative motivation for learning English, and students' career aspirations.

Table 21 reports the Beta and t values of the independent variables in the reading regression.

Table 21 *Beta and t Values of Independent Variables in the Regression with Reading as the Dependent Variable*

Variable	Beta	T
Age	-.1568	1.91*
Frequency of use of English with Non Tongan Speakers	-.1175	1.38
Use of English to read for enjoyment	.1629	2.02*
Use of English for communication at home	.2093	2.50*
Perceived ability in English	-.2137	2.42*
Integrative Motivation	.1564	1.96
Career Aspirations	.2425	2.71**

*p<.05 **p<.01.

table 21 reveals that students' age, their use of English to read for enjoyment, their use of English for communication at home, their perceived ability in English and career aspirations contributed significantly to the students' performance in reading.

4.3.2.2 Writing

The R Square coefficient for writing was 0.4938 which indicated that 49.4% of the variance in writing can be accounted for by age, frequency of use of English with Non-Tongan speakers of English, use of English to read for enjoyment, use of English

for communication at home, students' perceived ability in English, integrative motivation and students' career aspirations.

Table 22 presents the beta and t values of the independent variables in writing regression.

Table 22 *Beta and t values of Independent Variables in the Regression with Writing and the Dependent Variable*

Variable	Beta	T
Age	-.2085	2.53*
Frequency of use of English with Non Tongan Speakers	-.0389	.46
Speakers Use of English to read for enjoyment	.1821	2.24*
Use of English for communication at home	.2316	2.75**
Perceived ability in English	-.2725	3.07**
Integrative Motivation	.1221	1.52
Career aspirations	.1771	3.68***

*p<.05 **p<.01 ***p<.001

Table 22 shows that students' age, their use of English to read for enjoyment, their use of English for communication at home, their perceived ability in English and their career aspirations contribute significantly to the variance of the students' performance in writing.

4.3.2.3 Listening

The R Square coefficient for listening was 0.2926 and that indicated that only 29.3% of the variance in listening can be accounted for by the same independent variables (age, frequency of use of English with Non-Tongan speakers, use of English to read for enjoyment, use of English for communication at home, perceived ability in English, integrative motivation, and career aspirations).

Table 23 shows the beta and t values of those independent variables in listening.

Table 23 Beta and t Values of the Independent Variables in the Regression with Listening as the Dependent Variable

Variable	Beta	T
Age	-.1205	1.28
Frequency of use of English with Non Tongan Speakers	-.0024	.03
Speakers Use of English to read for enjoyment	.1448	1.56
Use of English for communication at home	.1407	1.47
Perceived ability in English	-.2721	2.70**
Integrative Motivation	.2957	3.24**
Career aspirations	.0783	2.96**

*p<.05 **p<.01

Table 23 shows that students' perceived ability in English, their learning of English for integrative motivation and their career aspirations contributed significantly to the variance of the students performance in listening.

4.3.2.4 Speaking

The R Square coefficient was 0.4848 which meant that 48.5% of the variance in speaking can be accounted for by only age, frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers, students' perceived ability in English, integrative motivation, and career aspirations.

Table 24 displays the beta and t values of the independent variables in the speaking regression.

Table 24 *Beta and t Values of the Independent Variables in the Speaking Regression*

Variable	Beta	T
Age	-.4422	2.69*
Frequency of use of English with Non Tongan Speakers	-.1643	.99
Use of English to read for enjoyment	.1382	.86
Perceived ability in English	-.0373	.23
Career aspirations	.2554	1.62

*p<.05

Table 24 reveals that students' age was the only factor which contributed in a significant way to the variance in the students' performance in speaking.

4.4 Teachers perceptions

In this section the linguistic and non-linguistic factors perceived by teachers of the students to be associated with the students' learning of English are presented. The teachers' and students' perceptions on such factors were also compared so as to identify the similarities and differences in their perceptions.

The teacher questionnaire was designed to be as parallel as possible to the student questionnaire. However, some items in the teacher questionnaire which aimed at eliciting demographic information on the teachers were not the same as those in the student questionnaire. Few other items in the student questionnaire were also excluded from the teacher questionnaire as they were considered not applicable.

The teacher questionnaire contained 40 items and they were grouped in the following categories:

- Demographic factors
- Current use of English
- Perceived ability in English
- Attitude to Tongan at school
- Attitude to English at school
- Integrative Motivation
- Teaching of English at school
- Perceptions on individual English macro-skills

The items under the category of perceived ability in English were put into a scale. It had a reliability coefficient of 0.96. The rest of the items were analysed as individual variables.

4.4.1 Characteristics of Teachers' Responses in The Questionnaire

Information on gender, years of teaching experience at secondary level, years spent in an English speaking country, the forms they presently taught at secondary

school, use of English, perceived ability in English, and perceived ability in Tongan are summarised in this section.

Of the 24 teachers who participated in the study, 75% were females and 25% were males.

The data indicated that 50.1% of the Form 5 English teachers who participated in the study had been teaching in secondary schools for about 10-20 years. 37.5% of the teachers had been teaching in secondary schools for 2-9 years and only 12.4% had been teaching for 21-25 years.

It was found that 47% of the Form 5 English teachers who participated in the study had spent about 2-9 years in an English speaking country. 21% of the teachers had spent 10-25 years in an English speaking country and 32% had spent 26-44 years.

All of the 24 teachers who participated in the study taught English at Form 5 level. While teaching English in Form 5, 12.5% also taught English in Forms 1, 12.5% taught English in Form 2, 16.7% taught English in Form 3, 54.2% also taught Form 4 English and 45.8% taught English also in Form 6.

4.4.1.1 Purposes English is Used For

It was found that 95.8% of the teachers who participated in the study used English to teach at school, to read for enjoyment and to communicate with Non-Tongan people. 83.3% used English to watch English movies, 58.3% used English when talking with Tongan friends and only 45.8% used it for communication with family at home.

Table 25 shows the frequency of use of English by Form 5 English teachers who participated in the study.

Table 25 *Frequency of Use of English by Form 5 English Teachers*

At Home	Always	Most times	Some times	Very Little	Never
Sisters and Brothers	12.5	20.8	29.2	4.2	12.5
Spouse and children	20.8	16.7	25.0	8.3	-
Parents and relatives	16.7	8.3	25.0	16.7	16.7
Neighbours and friends	12.5	16.7	41.7	16.7	-
Inside classroom					
Students	33.3	62.5	4.2	-	-
Non-Tongan Teachers	79.2	8.3	8.3	-	-
Other Tongan Teachers	20.8	33.3	37.5	4.2	-
Outside Classroom					
Students	25.0	41.7	16.7	8.3	-
Non-Tongan Teachers	66.7	20.8	4.2	8.3	-
Other Tongan Teachers	20.8	33.3	29.2	4.2	4.2

Table 25 shows that the frequency of use of English by English teachers depended on where they used English and with whom they used it with. It appeared that teachers used English most frequently at school especially inside the classroom and much less frequently at home.

Inside and outside the classroom at school, teachers indicated to use English most frequently with Non-Tongan speakers, less with students and least frequently with other Tongan teachers. At home, teachers used English most frequently with spouses and children, with parents and relatives then with sisters and brothers and neighbours and friends.

As for their perceived ability in English, teachers who participated in the study rated themselves as having very high ability in English ($M = 6.3$) with a total score of 20, and $N = 24$.

4.5 Similarities and differences in the perceptions of teachers and students

In this section the perceptions of teachers and students participating in the study were compared under the following variables: attitude to Tongan at school, attitude to English at school, integrative motivation for learning English, and teaching of English at secondary level. The purpose was to identify whether Form 5 English teachers and Form 5 students participating in the study hold similar or different views on factors believed to be related to the teaching and learning of English skills at secondary school.

The table attached as Appendix 8 summarises the frequency distribution of both teachers' and students' views on the following factors.

4.5.1 Attitude to Tongan at School

Almost the same number of teachers (41.7%) and students (46%) who participated in the study felt that there should be more emphasis on Tongan at secondary school. It is interesting to see that fewer than half of both teachers and students agreed that more emphasis should be put on Tongan at secondary school.

Most teachers (70.8%) and students (90%) agreed when they were asked whether traditional culture should be taught at secondary school or not. 12.5% of the teachers disagreed and 8.3% were not sure. Only 5% of the students disagreed and 5% were not sure. More students than teachers were in favour of the idea.

Again most teachers (95.8%) and students (67%) supported the idea that Tongan is a worthwhile and necessary subject. However, as the figures show, many more teachers than students were in favour of the idea. Only 4.2% of the teachers disagreed with the idea. 8% of the students did not think that Tongan was a worthwhile and necessary subject and 25% were not sure.

More difference was found when they were asked to indicate whether learning of Tongan helps the learning of English at school. A little more than half (66.7%) of the teachers thought so while only 37% of the students thought so. 4.1% of the teachers disagreed and 29.2% were not sure. With the students, 29% disagreed and 32% were not sure.

4.5.2 Attitude to English at School

Almost all of the teachers (95.8%) and students (97%) who participated in the study (also almost the same number) felt that English should be taught as a compulsory subject at secondary school. Only 4.2% of the teachers disagreed with it and 3% of the students were not sure.

When asked whether teaching at secondary should be done in English or not, 83.3% of the Form 5 English teachers agreed with it and 16.7% were not sure. Similarly, 88% of the Form 5 students in the study agreed with it, 10% were not sure and only 1% disagreed.

Both teachers and students were also asked to indicate whether students in secondary school should pass the English examination before being promoted to the next level. 75% of the teachers agreed with it, 8.3% disagreed and 16.7% were not sure. With the students, 83% agreed, 4% disagreed and 9% were not sure. The figures show that a few more students were in favour of the idea than the teachers.

Because English plays a major role in the rating of the Tonga School Certificate Examination, teachers and students were asked as to whether students should pass the English examination paper before getting a full pass in the whole examination. 79.2% of the teachers agreed with it, 4.2% disagreed and 16.7% were not sure. With the students, 82% agreed, 9% disagreed and 9% also were not sure. Again most teachers and students agreed with the idea

When asked whether English is a worthwhile and necessary subject, 100% of the teachers agreed while 97% of the students agreed, 1% disagreed, and 1% were not sure. There is also not much difference in their opinion.

Teachers only were asked whether students should learn English in order to help them do well at school. In response, 100% of the 24 teachers agreed.

4.5.3 Integrative Motivation

To seek the teachers' and students' views on whether learning of English should be for integrative purposes, 83.3% of the teachers thought that students should learn English to help them understand English native speakers and the way they live, and 4.2% were not sure. With the students, 66.6% agreed and 18% were not sure. Although most of the teachers and the students agreed with the idea, more teachers than students were in favour of it.

When asked whether students should learn English to help them think and act like native English speakers, only 25% of the teachers agreed, 45.8% disagreed, and 29.2% were not sure. With the students' responses, 45.5% agreed, 25% disagreed, and were not sure. Most teachers and students disagreed with the idea.

4.5.4 Teaching of English at School

There was a vast difference between the views of teachers and students regarding the motivation that students had to make them work hard in English. 70.8% of the teachers thought that students are not motivated enough to work hard in English lessons, 8.3% disagreed, and 20.8% were not sure. Only 25.2% of the students felt that they were not motivated enough to work hard in English, 50% felt that they were motivated enough and 22.5% were not sure.

When asked whether native speakers of English should teach English at secondary school, not many teachers (45.8%) agreed. About 25% disagreed and again 25% were not sure. Slightly more than half (56%) of the students agreed, 19% disagreed and 23% were not sure.

When asked whether there was enough time allocated in the school timetable for English teaching, 66.7% of the teachers agreed, 20.9% disagreed, and 12.5% were not sure. 56% of the students thought that there was enough time, 20% disagreed, and 21% were not sure.

With regard to the English teaching material used for teaching of English in classes, only 25% of the teachers agreed that that it was easy for the students. Half of the teachers thought that it was not easy for the students, and 25% were not sure. With the students, 68% agreed that it is easy, 18% disagreed, and 12% were not sure. A vast difference was also found in their views regarding this issue. A comparison of this result and that on suitability of material below suggests that the majority of teachers believed the material was not too easy, that is it was not inappropriate in its level of difficulty.

For the last three items, only the teachers' perceptions were sought. When asked whether the Form 5 English syllabus was suitable for the needs of the students, 62.5% of the teachers agreed, 25% disagreed, and 12.5% were not sure.

Likewise teachers were asked whether Form 5 English teaching material serves the needs of the students. Again 62.5% believed so, 12.5% did not think so, and 25% were not sure.

Finally, teachers were asked whether teaching methods for teaching English in Form 5 should be more communicative. In response, 87.5% of them agreed, only 4.2% disagreed and 8.3% were not sure.

Appendix 9 shows the mean scores and standard deviations of the perceptions of both teachers and students on the same factors as presented above.

Regarding their attitude to Tongan at school, the only difference appeared to be in their attitude to the teaching of Tongan traditional culture at school and whether Tongan was a worthwhile and necessary subject or not. Students had a more positive attitude to the teaching of Tongan traditional culture at secondary school than the teachers. The teachers, however, had a more positive attitude to Tongan as a worthwhile and necessary subject than the students. However, the difference was shown to be very slight.

As far as their attitude to English at school is concerned, both teachers and students generally had very positive attitudes to all the attitude variables investigated under this category. They both had a positive attitude to English as a subject at school.

Although there was a slight difference in their attitude to students learning English at school in order to help them understand native English speakers and the way they live, both teachers and students had a fairly positive attitude. There was, however, a generally more negative attitude, particularly the teachers, to the learning of English to help the students think and act like native English speakers.

Teachers were more positive than students themselves in thinking that students are not motivated enough to work hard in English lessons.

It was interesting to find that teachers had a negative attitude to native speakers of English teaching English at secondary school. The students, on the other hand had a more positive attitude toward it. Some teachers may think that they can assist students better by using Tongan to explain when students do not seem to understand what is being taught. To some perhaps it implies that they are professionally inadequate or they may even see it as a threat to their jobs.

Both teachers and students were positive that there was enough time allocated in the school timetable for the teaching of English at secondary school.

A difference was also found in their attitude as to whether English teaching material used to assist teaching English in Form 5 was easy or not. Teachers thought that the material was not easy for the students, while the students themselves thought that the material was easy.

More than half of the teachers believed that the Form 5 English syllabus is suitable for the needs of students in Form 5, while more than half of them felt that the Form 5 English material used in the teaching of English is not easy.

Finally, the teachers in the study had a very positive attitude to the use of communicative methods in teaching of English in Form 5. However, very few of them would have already done TESL courses and therefore would not be using communicative methodology in their teaching of English in this level. They may not even have a clear or accurate perception of what communicative methodology is.

Chapter five

Discussion of the findings

This chapter discusses the findings of the study as reported in the previous chapter. The discussion is presented in accordance with the purposes of the study and appropriate linguistic theories are used to try and account for the findings. The first part discusses the students' performance in the four English language macroskills. The second part discusses the relationships established between the students' performance and their perceptions on factors influencing their learning of English at school. The last part discusses the comparison of students' and teachers' views on factors related to the learning of English as a second language at school.

5.1 Students' Performance in the Four English Language Macroskills

The first purpose of the study aimed at determining a profile of the students' performance across the four English language macro-skills. Only two sets of findings characterising the students' performance will be discussed here.

The set of findings presents the results of the students' test performance in each of the four English language macroskills. Within each of the macroskills, the results showed a wide spread with the listening scores tending to cluster above 50%, writing scores tending to cluster below 50% and the other two more evenly distributed. Comparison between the scores was not possible.

While no comparison between macroskills can be undertaken within the present study due to the lack of established comparability between the different sections of the test, we note that Spolsky (1989) states, as one of the typical graded conditions in his general theory for second language learning, that receptive skills (reading and listening) develop before productive skills (speaking and writing) and usually develop to a higher level. In as far as the global scores attained in this study, students' performance in one

receptive skill (listening) was high while their performance in the other receptive skill (reading) took a similar pattern to that in one productive skill (speaking). Their performance in the other productive skill (writing) was low.

Considering the fact that the visual/literate modality skills (reading and writing) rather than the auditory/oral modality skills are the ones emphasised, taught and formally examined at this level in school, it should be significant to identify whether the results of the students' performance in the visual/literate skills in this study are related in any way to the overall results of the students taking the Form 5 national examination. As the reading and writing test questions used in this study were directly modelled on the examination questions prescribed in the Form 5 English syllabus, the results of the students' performance in this study were, generally, found to be quite similar to the overall results consistently found in the performance of Tongan Form 5 students in the national English examination, that is, attainment of low scores (See Table 1, page 12). What is interesting though is that since reading and writing are formally taught at this level, one would naturally expect the students' performance in them to yield higher scores. The results. Instead, varied across the four macroskills with listening the highest and writing the lowest, but these differences are unlikely to be attributable to different levels of achievement by students in the different macroskills.

To account for the disparity in the scores, one may need to look rather at test related factors and their effects on this disparity. It seems very possible that the listening test questions were much the easiest of the four macroskills and the writing test questions the most difficult ones. This was particularly true when there was no control factor in the form of a battery of past examination questions. In addition, it appeared from the students' performance that 'Part A' of the listening questions and 'Part B' of the speaking questions were less difficult questions. If, therefore the test questions in listening were much easier than the ones in the other tests, then the attainment of higher scores in listening and lower scores in the other macroskills, especially writing should be expected. This is perhaps the most likely explanation for the disparity in the scores.

However, even if the level of difficulty was much higher in the reading and writing test questions, the fact that they are taught and emphasised in this level at school

should still help the students' performance. This points to the need to account for the high correlations between results across all four macroskills with other factors and not just test factors.

Studies carried out in a University of Hawaii, English Language Institute (ELI), suggest that students from oral cultures in the South Pacific tend to have an advantage in oral tests over Asians who tend to do better on written tests. These general impressions were supported by Hansen's (1984) study of ESL noise tests. Of the five oral tests (which included Michigan Test of Aural Comprehension, a dictation test, two noise tests, and a speaking evaluation consisting of a three-minute prepared speech, reading of a prepared passage, and interaction with examiners focusing on a picture), Hansen (1984) found that the Samoan and Tongan students tended to score higher than the Hong Kong and Korean students. On the other hand, the two Asian groups scored significantly higher on the two written tests (Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency and a close test) than the Samoans and Tongans. Hansen-Strain (1989) found similar results in a study of speaking and writing among university ESL students. The Polynesian students (Samoans and Tongans) gave the impression of greater command of relative clauses when tested in the spoken modality than in the written. These learners with strong oral traditions were also found to have more difficulty with tasks requiring the production of content-focused essay-text prose than did the learners from societies with more literary traditions. Despite the differences in the test instruments, contexts, and level of students involved in the two studies mentioned above and this current study, it appears that Tongan students in all these studies show greater strength in the auditory/oral modality skills than in the visual/literate modality skills. An insight from oracy-literacy studies with application to second language acquisition might therefore help to explain the findings of this study.

Underlying the theoretical framework provided by the literature on oracy and literacy is the view that a learner's L1 background is immediately apparent in L2 performance, be it in L2 discourse strategies or L2 modality preferences (Hansen-Strain, 1989). Ong (1982) identifies 'verbomotor' cultures to be in contrast to high technology societies because courses of action and attitudes in 'verbomotor' cultures depend

significantly more upon effective use of words and human interaction. Powerful verbal performance are produced in these groups. According to Ong, 'this high societal value placed on speech and interaction fosters personality structures that in certain ways are more communal and externalised and less introspective than are those common among people from literate traditions. Ong's further assertion that people from societies with oral traditions understand language and numbers codes better by listening than by looking suggests also the possibility that learning styles in orally oriented groups may tend toward modality preferences for hearing over seeing' (cited by Hansen-Strain, 1989:474).

Aural/oral modalities are a significant part of communication and social interaction in almost all domains of the Tongan community. In the home, oral communication is paramount, even to a point where children are traditionally taught to listen to whatever the parents and elders have to say without answering back or even expressing any ideas. Answering back while parents and elders talk is a sign of disrespect. In the church domain, activities mainly involve someone preaching with the rest of those present listening. In most traditional ceremonies, speech-making is an essential element. Speeches must be made while again the rest of those present listen. It is only in the school domain that reading and writing are emphasised and reinforced although speaking and listening are still part of the school life. All in all, aural and oral modalities play significant roles in the presentation and learning of ideas and messages in the Tongan community.

Because Tongan students come to English language learning at school with these background community experiences, there is likely to be a tendency that their development in auditory/oral modalities will be faster than their development of visual/literate modalities. This could help to explain why the students attained high scores in listening.

It is also important to note here that all schools, especially primary schools, have very little written material. A lot of teaching and learning involves aural/oral activities and students, therefore, have to listen. In fact, English has been taught for 30 years

using oral drills. This again could help explain why students did well in their listening performance.

The other set of findings considered significant in the students' performance in this study relates to the relationships found in their performance across the four English language macro skills. Students' performances across the four English language macroskills were found to be highly correlated. Significant and positive correlations were found in their performance across all four English language macroskills. The strengths of the relationships, though differing slightly (ranging from 0.66 to 0.87) were all marked, the strongest being between reading and writing (Refer to Table 6, page76). Despite the slight differences in the strengths of the correlations, the nature of the relationships generally revealed that students who attained high scores in one macroskill also attained high scores in the other three macroskills, and likewise those who attained lower scores in one macroskill also attained lower scores in their performance in the other three macroskills. For example, students who attained high scores in reading also attained high scores in writing, listening and speaking. However, it appeared that their writing scores were closer to their reading, than to their listening scores, or to their speaking scores.

One important feature implicated by the established correlations is that there are students in the sample whose performance in all the four English language macroskills yielded high scores and, on the other hand, there are students whose performance in all the four macroskills yielded low scores. That can be generally taken to mean that some students in the sample have greater overall ability in English while at the same time there are some students whose overall ability is much lower.

From a Language Testing perspective, Testing of Integrated Functions, (See section 2.3), the four macroskills are taken as language functions through which students are to use English in order to capture the internal nature of their language or to assess how much knowledge they have of the target language, in this study, English language. The results therefore of the students' performance in those functions describe their competency (knowledge) in that language.

Using this perspective to explain the important feature of the correlations mentioned above, it can be said that underlying the high scores attained by some students in their performance in all four English language macroskills is their competency in English. In other words, the more knowledge that students have of English as a language, the more effective will be their performance in the use of English.

5.2 Relationships Between Students' Performance and their Perceptions

The second purpose of the study dealt with determining the linguistic and non-linguistic factors associated with students' learning of English as a second language. What those factors were was determined by investigating the correlations between the students' performance in the four English language macroskills and their perceptions of factors hypothesised to be associated with learning English as a second language in the students' context. The correlations established as significant indicated that the factors concerned were related to the learning of English as a second language by students of the sample. The correlations which were not significant indicated no relations between the factors concerned and the learning of English.

From the number of significant and nonsignificant correlations established so far in this investigation, a selection only will be discussed. Among the correlations established as nonsignificant are these two factors: perceived ability in Tongan and attitude to English at school. These were selected because they were discussed as having theoretical significance in second language learning yet they showed no significant correlation with the students' performance. It would be worth pursuing the reasons for this. Among the significant correlations are the factors: age, perceived ability in English, use of English to read for enjoyment, use of English for communication at home, frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers, integrative motivation, and career aspirations. These were selected because the correlations were significant in at least three of the four English language macroskills.

5.2.1 Perceived Ability in Tongan

Among the nonsignificant correlations established in this study was the relationship between the students' performance and their perceived ability in their first language (Tongan). Students in the sample rated themselves as having good perceived ability in reading, writing, listening, and speaking in Tongan. However, when correlated with their performance in English, no significant correlation was found, which implies that there was no significant relationship between the students' ability in Tongan and their learning of English at school. The students' actual ability in Tongan was not tested during the study.

This finding is considered important because it is different from the findings of most studies and theoretical explanations regarding the role of L1 in second language learning as discussed in the literature review. According to Cummins' theoretical generalisations (1983), L1 proficiency can be transferred to L2, particularly in making input in L2 comprehensible. There must be, however, adequate exposure to L2 (in the classroom or environment), adequate motivation to learn L2, and accessibility to comprehensible L2 input. Because these conditions were not specifically assessed in this study, the effective role of L1 in the learning of English as an L2 cannot be clearly identified. The fact that these conditions were not specifically addressed in this study may help to explain the lack of correlation between the students' perceived ability in Tongan and their performance in the English language macroskills.

There is also a question regarding the students' assessment of their own ability in Tongan. Whether their rating of their ability in Tongan would be the same if they were performing in Tongan may account also for the uncertainty of the role of Tongan in the learning of English language macroskills. An assessment of the students' ability in Tongan through performance might contribute differently to the correlation.

Although no significant correlation was established between the students' ability in Tongan and their performance in the four English language macroskills, the result should be taken cautiously in line with the earlier discussion. Further research on this

issue would be useful. Also, general attitudes to languages and to language learning in Tonga need to be taken into account.

5.2.2 Attitude to English and Native Speakers of English

Students in the sample were asked to express their attitude to English as a subject at school particularly its roles in the school context. They were also asked to express their attitude towards native speakers of English. These two kinds of attitudes are similar to the two types of attitude identified by Gardner (1985) (referred to by Spolsky, 1989). Many students had a fairly positive attitude to English (Table 16, p. 93) yet no significant correlation was found between their attitudes to English and their performance in the four English macroskills. Their attitudes to native speakers of English varied depending on the particular behaviour of English speakers investigated (See 4.2.1.8, page 85). Only a few significant correlations were found between some of the students' attitudes to English native speakers and their performance in the four language skills (See Appendix 7).

Numerous researchers have suggested that successful achievement among second language learners might create positive attitudes in them toward both language and language community (See 2.4.3 Attitude and Motivation, page 45) So rather than positive attitudes toward English leading to successful English language learning, it appears that positive attitudes result from doing well in the language. Taufe'ulungaki (1986) found this to be true in her study of attitudes in the Tongan community toward English and Tongan: 'Tongan competency is strongly related to positive attitudes towards Tongan, while English competence is equally related to positive attitudes toward English' (p. 17). It is possible that students in this study have not learned English sufficiently or perhaps have not grasped meaningfully the significant roles of English in education so as to effect positive attitudes towards English. This might help to explain the lack of correlation between the students' attitudes to English and their performance in the four English language macroskills.

The rest of the discussion in this section will focus on some of the factors which were found to have significant correlations with the students' performance in the four English language macroskills.

5.2.3 Age

The largest group of students in the sample were 16 years of age, 20 was the maximum age and 14 the minimum age. Significant and negative correlations were found between the students' age and their performance in all the four English language macroskills. It was indicated that the younger students in the sample attained higher scores than the older students in all the four English language macroskills.

The "Critical Period" hypothesis cannot explain this finding because students in this study started learning English around the same age (6 years) at primary level. Therefore it is not necessarily true that those who are younger at this level started learning English before those who are older. One may perhaps need to look into the context of English language learning in order to explain this finding of the study.

Students who were 16 in this Form 5 level have since entry to class 1 at primary school at six years of age, spent one year in each of the lower levels. Students who were younger than 16 have skipped a level or two before reaching Form 5. In most cases students are allowed to do that if they are considered to be too advanced in their achievement to be in that particular level. Finally, students who were older than 16 in this level have been repeating Form 5 or some levels below Form 5, or entered primary school at an age later than 6 (which is rarely the case). The main reason for repeating Form 5 or some levels below Form 5 is the failure of students to manage the materials in that particular level, so they have needed to repeat it. The achievement here refers not only to English but also to other academic subjects.

In as far as the learning of English is concerned, students who have repeated Form 5 or any level below Form 5 have had more time learning and more exposure to English, at least through instruction, than those who did not. Relating this to the issue of age, students in the sample who were 17 or older had more time learning English at

school than those who were 16 or younger. One would therefore expect students in the sample who have had more time learning English to have higher scores in their performance. It was, however, the younger students who attained higher scores.

The age results here show that it is not simply time spent in English classes which determine performance. It is most likely that the younger students in this study were more able students while the older students were less able students. This may explain why younger students in this study attained higher scores than the older ones.

One caution heeded by Pienemann and Johnston (1987) regarding this age-related differences in the students' performance in L2 is that 'differences of this kind do not, therefore, constitute evidence for any qualitative difference between the two populations. All we can say is that the group mean scores suggest that there is a quantitative difference in the distribution of interlanguage variation for the two groups' (p. 99). An evaluation of qualitative differences in relation to the notion of age would be helpful in explaining this relationship.

5.2.4 Perceived Ability in English

Significant and negative correlations were found between the students' performance in three of the English macroskills (reading, writing and listening) and their perceived ability in those macroskills. That indicated that those students who thought they were good at English attained higher scores in their performance in those English language macroskills.

The weakness in the correlations established between the students; performance and their perceived ability in English may be due to the inaccuracy in the students' assessing their own ability in English.

Similar to the suggestions regarding the notion of age, the correlations only indicate quantitative differences between the two groups of students with different English abilities. An evaluation of qualitative differences would be useful in substantiating the established quantitative differences.

5.2.5 Frequency of Use of English with non-Tongan Speakers at School

Students were asked to state the frequency of their use of English with non-Tongan speakers inside and outside the classroom school environment. Students in the sample revealed that they used English with non-Tongan speakers at school very frequently. It was also found that students who frequently used English with non-Tongan speakers at school attained higher scores in the four English macroskills.

Basically the non-Tongan speakers at Tongan schools are teachers teaching English or other academic subjects, and students studying at different levels. These non-Tongan speakers are a minority in number and they are not necessarily all native speakers of English. Most of these non-Tongan teachers are native speakers of English (teachers from overseas). However, there are also those whose first language is not English but they are not Tongans and they neither understand nor use the Tongan language. For example, among the teachers, there are some Solomon Islanders, Chinese, and Sri Lankans, and at some schools, there are some in Vanuatu, Chinese and Indian students. English is also used for communication with non-Tongan speakers who are also not native speakers of English.

Use of English with these non-Tongan speakers takes place both in and outside the classroom. Inside the classroom, the use is mainly through the teaching and learning interactions. The English used is therefore constrained by the focus of the teaching, both by the content and structures. Outside the classroom, the use of English is for communication, therefore, the English used is not as restrained as in the classroom. In both contexts, Tongan students are pressured to use English.

The correlations, however, indicate that there are students who used English frequently with these non-Tongan speakers, and these have been shown to be more successful in their performance in the four English language macroskills. Other students used English with the non-Tongan speakers less frequently and they are the ones whose performance in the four English language macroskills was poorer. There is a variety of reasons for the less frequent use of English, but it is possible that these students are just

shy, or because they feel that they do not have a good command of English they deliberately avoid coming into contact with these people, particularly outside the classroom, in order to avoid having to use English.

Spolsky (1989), in his general theory of second language learning, argues that 'the outcome of language learning depends in large measure on the amount and kind of exposure to the target language' (p. 166). The amount of exposure refers to the amount of time spent in learning a language; the more time spent in learning an aspect of a second language, the more will be learned. The kind of exposure in second language learning normally refers to learning of English formally (classroom-based) or informally (communication outside the classroom). According to this theory, with the amount and kind of exposure, learners are provided with opportunities to analyse the input into its constituent parts, to combine (synthesise) those parts into larger parts, to embed these elements in linguistic and non-linguistic contexts, to match what they know with those of the native speakers, to remember new items, and to practise new skills thus resulting in fluency, as discussed above (5.2.3) simple amount of exposure, particularly in the classroom, has been shown to correlate poorly with language performance. Other factors are also important.

The advantage of the Tongan students using English with the non-Tongan speakers, particularly the native speakers of English, is that students are provided with opportunities to be exposed to English language input necessary for learning to take place. As these speakers are fluent, students are exposed to a wide variety of forms and styles against which they can match their own language. It is interesting to note at this point that no significant correlation was found between the students' performance and their frequent use of English with their teachers, both inside and outside of the classroom. This can be explained by the fact that most of the teachers in most schools are Tongan, and most of the time, they prefer to teach in Tongan. In such ways, English language input is not provided. The students who therefore use English frequently with the non-Tongan speakers are more advantaged.

The learning taking place inside and outside the classroom has both advantages and disadvantages. As shown in the correlations, both the use of English inside and

outside the classroom with non-Tongan speakers is beneficial. This might suggest that there is a great value in adding informal exposure to formal instruction.

Despite the clear explanation given so far of the value of using English with non-Tongan speakers, there may still be a problem. Since not all of the non-Tongan speakers are native speakers of English, there is a possibility that they provide a variety of 'target norms', thus leaving the students with some difficulty choosing which norm to match their language against. As this issue was not investigated, nothing much can be said about it at this stage. A qualitative investigation of this issue might be useful in the future.

5.2.6 Purposes for Use of English

Two purposes for which students in the sample used English appeared to have significant correlations with the students' performance in all the four English language macroskills: the use of English to read for enjoyment and the use of English for communication in the family home.

Fewer than half (42.4%) of the students in the sample used English for this purpose. These students scored significantly higher in all the four English macroskills than those who did not. As for the use of English for communication in the home, only 20.5% of the students in the sample used English for this purpose. Students who used English for this purpose scored significantly higher in reading, writing, and listening but (not speaking) than those who did not.

Through reading English for enjoyment and also using English for communication with the family at home, students are exposed to or come into contact with English, and with this exposure to English, students are provided with the language input which is necessary for English learning to take place. As discussed in relation to the frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers, the availability of English input provides the learners with opportunities to learn new words or structures, to analyse, synthesise, match or to practise using the language appropriately. This might

explain why students who used English for these purposes scored significantly higher in their performance in the English skills than those who did not.

However, if students fail to read they reduce English language input and consequently English learning would not be so enhanced. Alexander and Heathington (1988) refer to affective, cognitive, language, cultural, physical, and effective instruction as six areas contributing to reading problems. In their view, "affect" provides the will or desire to learn to read and to continue using reading for pleasure and for gaining information. "Affect" includes significant factors such as attitudes, motivation, and interest. Davis (1978) reviewed research on attitudes to reading and concluded: good comprehension is related to positive attitudes toward reading; attitudes affect achievement in reading; classroom organisation may influence attitudes toward reading; content of textbooks and instructional programs may affect attitudes towards reading. With regard to motivation, Mattewson (1985) argues that motivation affects the decision to read. As for interest, Alexander and Heathington state that interests affect reading in two main ways, the materials used and the procedures used. Specific types of materials can often be key motivational factors in getting a student to want to read. Estes and Vaughan (1973), and Belloni and Jongsma (1978) found that interest was a potent factor in determining how well a child comprehends a passage. Although various other factors may contribute to reading problems, affective factors are sufficient at this stage to explain why students might fail to read.

The conditions for reading, as explained above, are most likely to be met when students read for enjoyment rather than just being forced to read as is normally the case in the school context. Reading for enjoyment can be different from the way reading is conducted at school. Reading at school is, like other instructional programs, strictly structured in time and content and the focus is more on teaching students how to read. The content of reading is selected by teachers and that might not necessarily interest the students, thus creating negative attitudes and lack of motivation in students toward reading. Reading for enjoyment, on the other hand, is more relaxed and the focus is more meaning-based. Students have the chance to select materials of their own interest, they might also choose to spend more time reading, and because they read materials of

their own interest, they are more likely to have positive attitudes toward reading. This kind of reading, reading for enjoyment, facilitates reading and when reading is facilitated, students are increasingly exposed to or in contact with English language input thus contributing to more effective English language learning.

With regard to the use of English for communication in the home, no significant correlation was found between this purpose and the students' performance in the speaking skill. Because a small number of students participated in the speaking test, it is less likely that a significant correlation would be found.

The use of English for communication in the home is limited only to families where both parents and children know how to use English. This is common among families where both parents are educated and prefer their children to know and use English, or families who have been away overseas for a long period of time and then returned home. Though still restricted in some ways, this context can be generally regarded as the using and learning of English in the natural environment. The advantages and disadvantages, therefore, of language learning can be applied. Students in the sample who used English for this purpose are provided with contextual clues for understanding language in use thus making it easier to see the rules for language use in different physical and social contexts. They are also exposed to natural styles and registers, and there is always an effort on the part of the speaker to make the language comprehensible for the understanding of the learner. Finally, students are provided with opportunities to practise using English which helps the development of fluency and accuracy. With these advantages, students in the sample who used English for this purpose appear to have benefited more. This may explain why their performance in three of the English language macroskills (reading, writing, listening) were significantly higher than those who did not use English for this purpose.

There are still, however, some limitations in the learning and use of English in this context. For example, parents' knowledge of English is not the same as that of native speakers of English, therefore they might provide different English norms thus affecting the language intake of the students. In addition, parents might simplify and

modify their language to enhance understanding and this might lead to a 'pidginised' form of language (See Schumann, 1978a).

5.2.7 Integrative Motivation

Students in the sample indicated that they have integrative orientation for learning English at school. They learned English not only to understand the native speakers of English but to think and act like them. Significant and positive correlations were found between integrative orientation and the students' performance in reading, writing, and listening, but not speaking (ranging from 1 as having integrative orientation for learning English, to 5 as not having integrative motivation for learning English). The correlations revealed that students who had integrative orientation for learning English attained low scores and those who did not have integrative orientation for learning English attained higher scores in reading, writing, and listening.

The lack of significant correlation between integrative orientation and the students' performance in speaking can again be accounted for by the small number of students participating in the speaking test.

The relationship between integrative orientation for learning English and students' performance in this study was rather surprising because one would expect high attainment from students' performance since students appeared to have the drive to acquire English in order to understand and to be more like the speakers of the English language community. This finding is not supportive of Gardner's claim regarding the role of integrative motivation on second language learning. However, it is consistent with findings of other studies on integrative motivation (Cooper & Fishman, 1977; Pierson, Fu, & Lee, 1980; Oller, 1981).

One factor which can help to explain the surprising result of this study relates to the ambiguities in the definition of the concept of integrative motivation. Gardner (1985) claims that attitudes do have direct influence on language learning. For him, motivation is a construct which involves four aspects: goal, effortful behaviour, a desire to gain the goal, and favourable attitudes toward the activity of learning. For motivation

to show an influence in the language learning, therefore, these aspects should be included in any measurement of motivation. In this study, the measurement of motivation was only a measurement of the goals (orientation) for learning of English at school. It is obvious that the whole construct of motivation was not investigated and that might help to explain the lack of influence of integrative motivation on English language learning as investigated in this study.

The other possible explanation given so far in literature regarding the insignificant or contradictory results in studies of integrative motivation relates to the kind of environment where language learning takes place. In a foreign-language learning context, Dornyei (1990) argues that as a common feature, 'learners often have not had sufficient experience of the target-language community to have attitudes for or against it' (p. 49). Littlewood (1984) also points out that this is particularly true of learning an international language, in which the aim of learning is not so much to get into contact with the native-speaking community, as to communicate with others who have already learned it as a foreign language. What seems to be reflected from these arguments is that in foreign language learning situations, especially with the learning of an international target language such as English, affective predispositions toward the target language are unlikely to explain a great proportion of the variance in language attainment.

The arguments given above appear to be very appropriate in explaining the results of this study regarding the role of integrative motivation in English language learning. English serves as an international language in Tonga, and it is learned as a second language in a foreign context. Most students in the sample then lack the knowledge and experience of the English language community to help them when formulating attitudes and opinions towards the English language community and the learning of English. This may help to explain why their integrative motivation for learning English at school does not relate to their attainment in English.

5.2.8 Career Aspirations

Students' career aspirations were measured so as to reflect their attitude and motivation for the learning of English at school. Students in the sample were asked if

they would leave school immediately once they got a job, whether they would leave school at the end of Forms 5 or 6 and look for a job, or whether they would leave secondary school and attend a vocational school. It appeared from the results that students in the sample mainly wished to leave school immediately to obtain employment. The significant positive correlations found revealed that students who aspired to leave school as soon as possible to get a job obtained lower scores in their performance in the four English language macro skills than those who did not want to leave school immediately to obtain employment.

It can be taken to mean that those who did not aspire to leave secondary school immediately and look for employment probably had aspirations to pursue their studies overseas and at university. These might be the students who realised the relevance of English for their study and the need for them to learn English if they were to be successful. This was rather an indirect way of investigating whether students in the sample were showing "instrumental motivation" as outlined for learning English at school. However, unlike the measurement of integrative motivation where the goal was measured, it is the aspect of attitudes to the learning activity that is measured here. Again the whole construct of motivation as outlined by Gardner (1985) was not measured. This may help to explain the attainment of high scores by students who had no aspirations to leave secondary school immediately and look for a job.

Students in the sample who, on the other hand, aspired to leave secondary school as soon as they could get a job may, in the first place, have had negative attitudes toward English and therefore regarded having a job as a way to avoid learning English any longer. It could very well be that because they wanted to leave secondary school immediately and look for a job they did not see the need to learn English in a serious way and that may have contributed to their attainment of low scores in their performance in the English language macro skills. These are but mere speculations in an attempt to explain the findings. A qualitative type of study to investigate these issues would be quite useful in the future.

5.3 Multiple Regression

Of all the factors discussed so far in this section, seven of them: age, perceived ability in English, frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers, use of English to read for enjoyment, use of English for communication at home, integrative motivation, and career aspirations, were selected as independent variables for the first three standard multiple regressions performed with three of the English language macroskills (reading, writing, and listening) as the dependent variables. As for the multiple regression with speaking as the dependent variable, only five of the seven independent variables were used: age, frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers, use of English to read for enjoyment, perceived ability in English, career aspirations.

The findings revealed that 50.2% of the variance in reading, 49.38% of the variance in writing, and 34.43% of the variance in listening, could be accounted for by age, perceived ability of students in English, frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers, use of English to read for enjoyment, use of English for communication at home, integrative motivation, and career aspirations. It was also found that 48.48% of the variance in speaking could be accounted for by age, frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers, use of English to read for enjoyment, perceived ability in English, and career aspirations.

It is interesting to see that the seven factors used in the standard regressions with reading, writing, and listening, and the five factors used in the regression with speaking, contributed in different degrees to the students' performance in the four English language macroskills. With reading, for example, career aspiration, students' perceived ability in English, use of English for communication at home, use of English to read for enjoyment, and age were the factors which contributed most significantly to the variance in the students' performance. The most significant contributors to the variance in writing were career aspirations, students' perceived ability in English, use of English for communication at home, use of English to read for enjoyment and age. With listening, the most significant contributors to the variance were career aspirations, integrative motivation and students' ability in English. With speaking, age was the only factor which significantly contributed to its variance.

It is also interesting to point out that less than half of variance in the students' performance across the four English language macroskills as accounted for by the selected independent variables, reflects that there are other factors related to the learning of English as a second language by the secondary students in Tonga. These other factors may relate to the general ability, intelligence and overall academic achievement of the students.

5.4 Comparison of Students' and Teachers' Perceptions

The third purpose of the study dealt with comparing the similarities of and differences between students' and teachers' perceptions of certain factors relating to the learning of English as a second language by secondary students in Tonga. The factors involved were: attitude to Tongan at school, attitude to English at school, Integrative motivation for learning English at school, and teaching of English at school.

It was rather interesting to find that students' and teachers' perceptions of most factors outlined above were very similar. In most cases the differences were too slight to be regarded as significant. There were only a few factors where the differences were considered significant and warranted some discussion. The discussion in this section will therefore focus only on those few factors.

5.4.1 Learning of Tongan Helps the learning of English at Secondary School

This was among the variables investigated under the category of 'Attitudes to Tongan at School'. It was found that students had a slightly more negative attitude toward the learning of Tongan in order to help the learning of English at secondary school. In other words, students did not think that learning of English could be helped by the learning of Tongan. The teachers, on the other hand, had a positive attitude toward this, which means, teachers believed that students' learning of English could be assisted by their learning of Tongan.

The teachers' view is supportive of Cummins' theoretical generalisation which claims that "learning L1 is not just developing L1 skills but also of a deeper conceptual and linguistic proficiency which is strongly related to the development of L2 and general academic skills" (See literature review, under the section, Learner's knowledge of L1). As for the students, it seems that they view Tongan and English as two completely different subjects. This might help to explain why there was no significant correlation between the students' attitudes to Tongan at school and their performance in the four English language macroskills.

5.4.2 Native Speakers of English Should Teach English at Secondary School

This was among the variables which sought to identify whether the teaching of English in classes contributes to the achievement of English at secondary school in Tonga. On the part of the students this could be related to their integrative motivation for learning English.

It was found that teachers had a more negative attitude towards native speakers of English teaching English at secondary school while students held a more positive attitude towards this variable.

One can only speculate as to why these two groups differed regarding this issue. It is possible that teachers thought of Tongan English teachers knowing the Tongan language as an advantage to the teaching of English because the Tongan English teachers can always change and use Tongan to clarify meanings to the students if necessary. On the other hand, however, Tongan English teachers may see native English speakers teaching English as a rejection of their professional expertise or even a threat to their own employment. For the students, it is possible that they regarded being taught by the native English speaking teachers as an advantage for, since English is their language, they could provide sufficient input and the "target norms" necessary for the effective learning of English as a second language. On the other hand, students may have supported the notion of native English speakers as teachers in order to blame their own weaknesses in achievement on their native Tongan speaking English teachers.

It is possible that the teachers' assessment of the material was based on the experience that they had when teaching the material, and the knowledge that they had of the level of their students. They could have observed that students failed to understand and well when doing the activities given in the material because the material was not easy for them, that could be because the level of difficulty in the material was high or because the students' knowledge of English is not sufficient to enable them to tackle the material. As for the students, they thought the material was easy enough for them, and it is possible that they associated the difficulty in their learning of English at this level more with other aspects of course rather than the teaching material used. Again these speculations could be further explored in a qualitative type of study.

5.4.3 Form 5 English Material is Easy for the Students

This was again one of the variables included under the category of the teaching of English at school. The results revealed that teachers did not agree that Form 5 English teaching material used for teaching in the level was easy for the students. The students, however, thought otherwise.

It was possible that the teachers' assessment of the material has been based on the experiences that they had when teaching the material, and the knowledge that they had of the level of their students. They could have observed that students found it difficult to learn English through the material because the material was not easy for them. As for the students, it is possible that they associated the difficulty in their learning of English at this level more with other aspects of the course rather than the teaching material used. Again these speculations could be further explored in a qualitative type of study.

Chapter 6

Conclusions

This chapter attempts to do three things. The first part presents a summary of the findings. The second part makes recommendations for English language teaching and learning in Tonga based on the findings of the study, and the last part presents research implications, again based on the findings of this study.

6.1 Summary

To determine factors which might influence learning of English as a second language in Tonga, the study has focused on identifying relationships between the perceptions of Tongan Form 5 students regarding factors that may relate to their learning of English at school and their performance in the four English language macro skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking). The study is the first of its kind done within the Tongan community so it should provide baseline data for future studies of English language learning in the community.

Since participants were selected on the basis of random sampling from as complete a list as possible of the total population of Form 5 secondary students on Tongatapu, it is reasonable to assume that the results can be considered representative of the whole Form 5 population on this island.

In particular, this research has described, on the basis of survey and performance data:

1. the profile of students' performance in the four English language macro skills;
2. the linguistic and non-linguistic factors correlated with the learning of English language macroskills in Tongan secondary schools;

3. the similarities and differences between the students' and Form 5 English teachers' perceptions of factors relating to the learning of English as a second language at school;
4. the research findings (i - iii) in the light of linguistic theories.

Each of these is discussed in turn below.

6.1.1 Students' Performance

The students obtained low scores in writing and high scores in listening. Their scores in reading and speaking were clustered more towards the middle of the results. There was a wide range of scores in each macroskill and the only macroskill in which the mean score exceeded 50% was listening.

The students' performances across the four English language macroskills were also found to be highly related. Students who attained high scores in one macroskill also attained high scores in the other three macroskills. Likewise, students who obtained low scores in one macroskill also obtained low scores in the other three macroskills. This suggests that some students in the sample appeared to have more knowledge and ability in English than others. It can be concluded then that underlying the students' performance in the four English language macroskills was their knowledge and ability in English as a second language.

6.1.2 The Linguistic and non-Linguistic Factors

From the calculations of bivariate correlations, various linguistic and non-linguistic factors were determined as having significant relationships with the students' performance across the four English language macroskills.

Six non-linguistic factors were determined as significantly related to the students' performance in the English language macro skills:

1. Age. Students who were younger in age attained higher scores in all the four English language macroskills.
2. The use of English to read for enjoyment. Students who used English for this purpose scored significantly higher than students who did not.
3. The use of English for communication with the family at home. Again students who used English for this purpose scored significantly higher in reading, writing, and listening (understanding) of English.
4. Frequent use of English with non-Tongan speakers. Students who engaged in this use of English, both inside and outside the classroom in school environment, attained higher scores in all the four macroskills than those who did not.
5. Integrative motivation. There was a surprising relationship between this factor and the students' performance. Students who had integrative motivation for learning English attained low scores in reading, writing, and listening.
6. Career aspirations. Students who aspired to leave secondary school as soon as possible to look for a job attained low scores in reading, writing, and speaking. Students who aspired not to do that scored higher in those macro skills.

With regard to the linguistic factors, one factor was determined to be significantly related to the students' performance:

Perceived ability in English. Students who thought that they had high ability in the four English language macroskills attained high scores in reading, writing, and listening. Those who thought that they had low ability obtained low scores.

It should be cautioned again at this point that the relationships established between these factors and the students' performance across the four English language

macroskills are not necessarily 'cause-effect' relationships. Further research is required to determine whether these factors have the potential to influence the Tongan secondary students learning English as a second language at school.

For the three standard multiple regressions performed with three of the English language macroskills (reading, writing, listening) as the dependent variables, a combination of seven factors (age, frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers, use of English to read for enjoyment, use of English for communication at home, perceived ability in English, integrative motivation, career aspirations) were used as independent variables. For the standard regression with speaking as the dependent variable, only five of the seven factors (age, frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers, use of English to read for enjoyment, perceived ability in English, career aspirations) were used as independent variables.

The regressions revealed that only 50% of the variance in reading, 49.4% of the variance in writing, and 29.3% of the variance in listening can be accounted for by the students' age, frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers in the school environment, use of English to read for enjoyment, use of English for communication at home, students' perceived ability in English, integrative motivation, and career aspirations. As for speaking, only 48.5% of the variance can be accounted for by the students' age, their frequency of use of English with non-Tongan speakers in the school environment, use of English to read for enjoyment, students' perceived ability in English and their career aspirations.

The unaccounted percentages of the variances in each English language macroskill realistically indicated that there are still many other factors (besides the ones investigated in this study) involved in the learning of English as a second language in the Tongan secondary schools. This identifies some avenues for further research in this area.

Ultimately, however, the study has established that factors associated with the learning of English as a second language (in the Tongan secondary schools) are not only related directly to the mechanics of English as a language (linguistic factors), but also to the learners involved and the learning environment where learning takes place (non-

linguistic factors). Ellis's (1986) reference to second language learning as a product of many factors pertaining to the learner on the one hand and the learning situation on the other probably applies here.

6.1.3 Students' and Teachers' Perceptions

It was interesting to find that students and Form 5 English teachers who participated in this study had very similar views on most of the issues investigated in this comparison. Of the items in the category, attitude to Tongan at school, both students and teachers were positive that traditional culture should be taught at secondary school (with students more positive), and that Tongan is a worthwhile and necessary subject at school (with teachers more positive). They were both negative about putting an emphasis on Tongan at school. The only issue on which they differed was whether learning of Tongan helps the learning of English. The teachers were more positive than the students.

Both teachers and students agreed that: English should be compulsory at school, teaching at school should be done in English, students should pass the English examination before promoted to the next level, students should pass the English examination paper before passing the Tonga School Certificate Examination, English is a worthwhile and necessary subject, and students should learn English to do well at school.

Their perceptions on having integrative motivation for learning English were also similar. Both teachers and students agreed that students should learn English to understand the native speakers and the way they live but they were both negative about learning English to think and act like native English speakers, teachers more so.

With the teaching of English at school, students agreed that English native speakers should teach English at school, and the teachers disagreed. Students also agreed that Form 5 English teaching material was easy for them while the teachers disagreed. Teachers thought that students are not motivated enough to work hard in English lessons and the students disagreed. Both teachers and students felt that there is enough time to teach English in the timetable.

6.2 Recommendations for Learning and Teaching of English at Secondary School

It is on the basis of these research findings that the following recommendations are made, with the numbers of the most relevant sections of this thesis given in brackets:

1. Listening and speaking English macroskills should be formally examined in Form 5 at secondary school, especially at Forms 5 and 6, because they may help to reflect the true ability of students in English. (4.1.3, 4.1.4)
2. The teaching of the formal aspects of the linguistic code of English should still be emphasised.
3. The age of the learners is to be taken as an indirect marker of ability. Learners should be kept motivated with the age and peer group. (4.3.1 - Table 20, 5.2.3)
4. Students should be encouraged to read as much as possible in English, particularly for their own pleasure. Reading for pleasure should also be facilitated and encouraged particularly in the school environment. (4.3.1 - Table 20, 5.2.6)
5. Students should be encouraged to use English as much as possible in their communication at school and also at home, if possible. (4.3.1 - Table 20, 5.2.6)
6. The role of English in education and future careers should be explained clearly to the students so as to help them develop positive attitudes to the learning of English at school. (4.3.1 - Table 20)
7. Both teachers and students should be made aware of the complexity of the process of English language learning at school, and the high involvement of non-linguistic factors as much as the linguistic factors, and thereby plan the learning activities accordingly to facilitate learning.

6.3 Research Implications

Based on the findings of this study, some related areas were implicated as possible avenues for further research

1. The current study can be replicated, either at the same level with more participants or at different levels, so as to verify the findings which have been established in this study.
2. Other factors can be further investigated in studies similar to this current one so as to determine other factors which might influence English language learning at the Tongan secondary school.
3. More qualitative types of studies with an emphasis on more specific aspects of English (structures or functions) can be carried out to improve understanding of the quantitative correlations established in this study. For example, instead of regarding the students' ability in English as one general factor, more specific English features can be investigated.
4. Further research on the relationship between Tongan and English can be pursued for the development of bilingual education. A co-relational study between the performances of students in Tongan and English would be interesting.
5. On the cause and effect question, experimental studies could be carried out in which students are encouraged to read more in English and speak more English in everyday life to see whether this increases their performance on English tests.
6. Further explore students' Tongan cultural learning styles and their relevance to English as a second language acquisition in Tonga.

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Appendix 1

INSTRUCTIONS

**PLEASE READ THE INSTRUCTIONS CAREFULLY BEFORE YOU
START**

1. There are two booklets: Question and Answer booklets

2. There are four sections altogether.

Section 1. Reading (Question Booklet)

Section 2. Writing (Question Booklet)

Section 3. Listening (To be conducted by Examiner)

Section 4. Speaking (To be conducted by Examiner)

Section 1 and 2 are not in the Question Booklet.

3. There will be 3 hours to do sections 1 to 3.

Time for section 4 is indicated in the instructions

4. Please write clearly and correctly

5. Thank you for your participation

SECTION 1: READING COMPREHENSION.

DO ALL PARTS.

PART A:

Read the passage given below and answer the questions that follow. Put the letter of your answers in the box beside the corresponding number in your answer booklet.

GROWTH OF TOURISM IN TONGA.

Tourism is Tonga's main source of foreign income. It is fortunate that more and more tourists are visiting our country.

Semisi Taumoepeau, the Director of the Tourist Bureau, stressed the growth of tourism over the last five years. He presented statistics showing that the number of tourists increased from 70,969 in 1980 to 84,769 in 1984. The highest point reached so far was in 1983, with 92,494 visitors. On Vava'u alone, spending by yacht visitors increased from \$45,000 in 1982 to \$156,000 in 1984.

The number of hotel rooms throughout the Kingdom now stand at 425, with 873 beds available to accommodate tourists.

At the end of 1984, six airlines were serving the Kingdom on local and overseas flights. Each week international aircraft with more than 1,000 available seats arrive in the Kingdom.

'Tonga can- and should- attract a whole more visitors once we improve and expand our tourist facilities to an international standard,' said Semisi Taumoepeau.

He presented estimates to show the growth in the Kingdom's tourist employment- from only 185 employees at the beginning of 1976 to more than 900 full-time employees by the end of 1985.

Since 1976, income from tourism has climbed from T\$4.1 million to an estimated T\$8 million in 1985. It was T\$6.1 million in 1984.

Semisi Taumoepeau said, "In order to help us compete with other tourist markets, the Tonga Visitors' Bureau has identified the following strengths:

- 1) Tonga is the only Polynesian Kingdom.
- 2) Tonga has a safe, relaxing and unpolluted environment.
- 3) Tonga has friendly, helpful and religious people, and
- 4) Tonga is a desirable South Pacific destination which the visitor will find memorable and rewarding."

New Zealand, Australia and the United States- in that order- provide the lion's share of air tourists, a total of 62.4 per cent with targeted annual growth rate for these visitors of 10 to 15 per cent.

(Adapted from The Tonga Chronicle, 31 May 1985).

COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS.

CHOOSE THE BEST ANSWER.

1. The writer thinks that tourism
 - (a) is now at its highest.
 - (b) continues to provide services.
 - (c) is still increasing.
 - (d) seems to be standing still.
2. Semisi Taumoepeau presented statistics to
 - (a) emphasise the growth of tourism.
 - (b) show that tourism has dropped.
 - (c) point out the number of yacht visitors.
 - (d) stress the number of visitors to Vava'u.
3. Semisi Taumeopeau says Tonga could attract more tourists if
 - (a) more hotels were built.
 - (b) there were more beds available.
 - (c) facilities were upgraded.
 - (d) more seats were available on planes.
4. Between 1976 and 1985 the increase in tourist employees was about ___ people.
 - (a) 90
 - (b) 185
 - (c) 715
 - (d) 275
5. What did the Visitors' Bureau think the earnings from tourism would be by the end of 1985?
 - (a) \$4.1 million
 - (b) \$6.1 million
 - (c) \$10 million
 - (d) \$8 million
6. Which 'strength' (paragraph 8) deals with the physical surroundings?
 - (a) 1
 - (b) 2
 - (c) 3
 - (d) 4
7. From which country do we get most of the air tourists?
 - (a) United States
 - (b) Australia
 - (c) Other Pacific Islands
 - (d) New Zealand

8. When did the greatest number of tourists come to Tonga?

- (a) 1976 (b) 1980 (c) 1983 (d) 1984

9. In 1985, if all available seats in international planes were occupied, how many tourists would have arrived in Tonga each week?

- (a) exactly 1,000
(b) less than 1,000
(c) more than 1,000
(d) no more than 1,000

10. The writer appears to be stating

- (a) an opinion
(b) a fact

PART B. CLOZE.

Read through this passage and write suitable words for each space beside the numbers given in your answer booklet.

Our parents were shocked and disappointed when my sister wanted to marry someone who was of a different religion. My mother (1) angry, hurt, betrayed, and numb and (2) not want to give her daughter (3) wedding feast, or even see her. The (4) day my mother told her (5) friend about her feelings and she (6) this reply: " What kind of a mother are (7) that you only love her when (8) does what you want her to (9) ? That is selfish. It's easy to (10) our children when they are good; (11) when they make mistakes, they need (12) love even more. We should love (13) no matter what they do. (14) doesn't mean we approve of the errors, (15) we help, not condemn; love not (16); forgive, not judge. We build them (17) rather than tear them down: (18) lead them, not desert them. We (19) them when they are the most unlovable, and (20) you can't do that, you are a poor mother".

PART C. PASSAGE WITH GAPS

Read the following passage carefully and then select words from the list given below to fill the gaps in the passage. Write the words of your answer beside the corresponding letter in the answer booklet.

Local tradition is the pathway into the dim and distant (a) . The Tu'i Tonga was of Divine Origin. It was believed that he was the (b) of the Creator God Tangaloa 'Eitumatupu'a. He was (c) ruler, and his power was at its height in the 13th century when his (d) covered part of the Lau group in Fiji, Rotuma, Futuna, Tokelau, Samoa, and Niue. The fall of this empire was a serious blow to his (e) and authority. The steady growth of (f) and the control of more and more subjects became a great burden. Political (g) followed, and after a series of Tu'i Tonga killings, the 24th Tu'i Tonga, (h) created the new office of "hau". Temporal (i) . The Tu'i Tonga, because of his divine origin became (j) ruler. The year was 1470.

List of words

Kau'ulufonuafekai	unrest
past	debate
supreme	ruler
son	sacred
kingdom	status
sun	passed
population	chief

SECTION 2: WRITING.

Do all parts.

PART A. REQUEST LETTER.

Choose one from the following and write to the person concerned on the topic given. Do not include the addresses, just write the content of your letter. Use the spaces provided in the answer booklet.

1. Write to the chairman of Tonga Environment Group, c/- Training Maritime Polytechnical Institute, P. O. Box 61, Nuku'alofa, and ask if a speaker from that group visit the school and give a talk on environmental problems.

2. Write to the Royal Society, Private Bag, Wellington, New Zealand, and ask them if they can give you any information on the effects of nuclear war and nuclear accidents.

3. Write to the manager of Tonga Small Industries, P. O. Box 51, Nuku'alofa, and ask if your class can come and visit the shoe-making factories as part of their social studies.

4. Write to the secretary of cabinet, Prime Minister's Office, Nuku'alofa, and ask for permission to conduct a fieldwork research in Secondary Schools in Tongatapu regarding the use of English in Tonga.

PART B: NARRATIVE WRITING

Write about 150 words on any one of the openings.

1. Was I imagining this?
2. I'm really good at and I enjoy it too
3. I wish I could
4. There was no way out now
5. Last Friday night there was a concert in our village

PART C: JUMBLED SENTENCES

The following sentences are in mixed order. Rearrange them to make a meaningful story. The number of the sentences are listed in the answer booklet. Alongside the, write the numbers of the correct order.

1. Sateki saw a small boat at the bank.
2. Suddenly, there was a strong wind, rain and big waves.
3. They were wrapped in warm blankets.
4. When Lute woke up, she was surprised to see his father, Siosifa.
5. Lute, Sateki and the children walked along the bank of Lake Taupo one fine morning.
6. They were so tired that they slept for a long time.
7. The children got into the boat and paddled off.
8. The boat was swept further away from the bank of the lake.
9. He took her to a room where she met her mother, Makeleta.
10. Fortunately, a ship came by and picked the children up.

SECTION 3: LISTENING COMPREHENSION

Do all parts

PART A: DICTATION

Instruction

Listen very carefully to the following passage. It will be read only once. After the reading, fill in the blank in the passage using the exact word read out in the passage. The passage is give in the answer booklet.

One day, Feleti Hihifo decided to look for a job. He (applied) for a job as a clerk at the B. P's. He (felt) worried when he (stood) in front of the Personnel Manager. The clothes he (wore) were quite old. Also he (tore) the pocket off his shirt when he was hurrying to get dressed in the morning. However, when the Personal Manager (began) to ask the questions, he (became) more confident. He (tried) to answer each question in good English. To Feleti's delight, he got the job. And imagine his surprise when he (travelled) to Fiji the following week for training. He (flew) by Air Pacific. He was a lucky man.

PART B: MAP EXERCISE

Instruction

The map in your answer booklet is the village of Sione Mafi. First study the map carefully and then follow the instructions given before answering the questions.

The triangle at the bottom right hand corner shows where he lives. Every morning, Sione Mafi comes out of his house, turns left, takes the second turning on the right and the third turning on the left. He calls at a building which is halfway down the street on the right. What is the letter on this building? Write is the letter on this building? Write in the space given in your answer booklet.

PART C: USE OF DIAGRAMS

Instruction

Look carefully at each of the four diagrams in your answer booklet. You will hear a series of statements about each of the diagrams. Write down the appropriate letter for each statement.

(spoken)

1. A white circle is inside a square
2. A black circle is above a square
3. A circle is on the left of a square
4. Neither a white nor a black circle is in a square
5. A black circle is under a square
6. A square is under black circle
7. A square is on the left of a circle

SECTION 4: SPEAKING

Do all parts. All parts will be tape recorded.

PART A: SITUATIONAL TEST

Instruction

The subjects will be given six situations written in English. The subjects will be instructed to read situation silently and then to tape record in three or four sentences what they would say in English if they found themselves in such a situation. They will be asked to respond as if they were actually addressing the imagined interlocutor. Here are the situations.

1. Tone: Stimulus; There is a visitor in your house. You want to offer him something to drink. What do you say?

2. Tone: Polite; Stimulus; Sione wants to go to the toilet in the middle of a lesson. He goes to his teacher and say:

3. Tone: Anger; Stimulus; Your younger sister has torn one of your school books and you are very angry with her. You tell her not to do it again and threaten to hit her if she does it again. You say:

4. Tone: Persuasive; Stimulus; This is your final year at school and all the students in your class would like to get together for a final picnic. You ask your parents if you can go there. You say:

5. Tone: excited; Stimulus; You have found out that your best friend passed his/her Tongan school certificate exam. Soon after you see him/her in town. You are very happy for him/her and you go over to congratulate him/her. You say:

6. Tone: Polite; Stimulus; You are late for your English lesson. You say:

PART B: TALKING ABOUT CARTOON STRIPS

Instruction

The subjects will be given a picture to study for a few minutes. They are then required to describe the strips in three minutes. The examiner may, however, ask questions and discuss the strips with the subjects. Even if there is no discussion, this may be needed to prompt the subject whenever he/she appears to need encouragement.

PART C: ORAL INTERVIEW

This interview will be based on an interactional model.

Function/	Language	Elicited Function
Activity		
Parts 1-4		
(30 sec.)		
(1) Have student enter room and be seated	Please come in and have a seat	Suitable reply
(2) Put a student at ease	How are you today?	Suitable reply
(3) Explain format and purpose of interview		
(4) Check personal details- name, number	What's your	Personal info.

Part 5

(3 Min.)

**(5) Ask for
opinions and
reasons**

**What do you think
about making English
a compulsory subject
at school. I think
it should be,
(agreeing), don't you
(disagreeing).**

**Stating
opinions
and
reasons**

Appendix 2

STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE.

NAME:.....

CODE NUMBER:.....

DIRECTIONS:

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out how you feel about English and factors which you think might affect your learning of English. You are asked to give your honest and frank opinions.

This questionnaire will not be seen by any of the school authorities. Only the researcher will have access to your answers. Please be as accurate as possible.

Please do write your name and your code number in the spaces provided at the top.

Please try and answer all questions. Do not leave any blank.

THIS IS NOT A TEST.

THERE IS NO TIME LIMIT.

PLEASE CIRCLE THE NUMBER WHICH BEST REPRESENTS YOUR ANSWER.

1. Name of your school (Please specify).....
2. What is your age? (please specify).....
3. Please state whether you are:

Male (1)

Female (2)

4. How long have you studied English in secondary school?

- 5 years (1)
- 6 years (2)
- 7 years (3)
- Over 7 years (4)

5. What do you use English for?

(Please circle as many as appropriate)

- Study at school (1)
- Read for enjoyment (2)
- Watch movies (3)
- Talk with my Tongan friends (4)
- Communicate with my family at home (5)
- Communicate with non-Tongan people (6)

Others: (please specify).....

6. How often do you use English at home?

Always	most times	some times	very little	Never
1	2	3	4	5

With sisters & brothers

Always	most times	some times	very little	Never
1	2	3	4	5

With parents & relatives

Always	most times	some times	very little	Never
1	2	3	4	5

With neighbours & friends

Always	most times	some times	very little	Never
1	2	3	4	5

7. How often do you use English inside the classroom?

With Tongan schoolmates

Always	most times	some times	very little	Never
1	2	3	4	5

With non/Tongan schoolmates

Always	most times	some times	very little	Never
1	2	3	4	5

With teachers

Always	most times	some times	very little	Never
1	2	3	4	5

8. How often do you use English outside the classroom?

With Tongan friends

Always	most times	some times	very little	Never
1	2	3	4	5

With non/Tongan friends

Always	most times	some times	very little	Never
1	2	3	4	5

With teachers

Always	most times	some times	very little	Never
1	2	3	4	5

9. Why have you studied English at secondary school?

(you may circle more than one)

I wish to study English in the future (1)

It will help me to get a job when I leave school (2)

It will help me in my everyday life (3)

My English teacher told me to do it (4)

My parents wanted me to (5)

It is a compulsory subject at school (6)

Others (please specify).....

10. How well do you
speak Tongan

Very well	Fairly well	OK	Not too well	Not at all
1	2	3	4	5

11. How well do you
understand Tongan

Very well	Fairly well	OK	Not too well	Not at all
1	2	3	4	5

12. How well do you
read Tongan

Very well	Fairly well	OK	Not too well	Not at all
1	2	3	4	5

13. How well do you
write Tongan

Very well	Fairly well	OK	Not too well	Not at all
1	2	3	4	5

14. How well do you
speak English

Very well	Fairly well	OK	Not too well	Not at all
1	2	3	4	5

15. How well do you
understand English

Very well	Fairly well	OK	Not too well	Not at all
1	2	3	4	5

16. How well do you
write English

Very well	Fairly well	OK	Not too well	Not at all
1	2	3	4	5

17. How well do you
read English

Very well	Fairly well	OK	Not too well	Not at all
1	2	3	4	5

Strongly agree - SA - (1)

Agree - A - (2)

Not sure - N - (3)

Disagree - D - (4)

Strongly disagree - SD - (5)

Use the keys shown above to indicate your ideas in the following statements. Circle the number that best represents your ideas.

- | | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|---|
| 18. There should be more emphasis on Tongan at secondary school | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. Traditional culture should be taught at secondary school | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. English should be compulsory at secondary school | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Teaching should be done in English at secondary school | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Students in each level should pass the English exam before being promoted to the next level | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 23. Students should pass English exam before having a full pass in the Tonga School Certificate Exam | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 24. When I have free time to relax I prefer to read a book rather than other activities | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 25. When I have free time to relax, I prefer to watch an English movie | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. When I have free time to relax, I prefer to watch Tongan cultural dances | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. When I have free time to relax, I prefer to join the Tongan cultural dance club | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

28. Form five English will help me find my future career 1 2 3 4 5
29. I will leave school as soon as I can get a job 1 2 3 4 5
30. I will leave school at the end of form five and look for a job 1 2 3 4 5
31. I will complete form 6 and then look for a job 1 2 3 4 5
32. I will complete form 7 and then go on to university 1 2 3 4 5
33. I will go and study overseas 1 2 3 4 5
34. I will leave secondary school and attend a vocational school 1 2 3 4 5
35. I learn English to help me understand the native speakers and the way they live 1 2 3 4 5
36. I learn English to help me think and act like the English native speakers 1 2 3 4 5
37. I learn English to help me do well at school 1 2 3 4 5
38. I think Tongan is a very worthwhile and necessary subject 1 2 3 4 5
39. I think English is a very worthwhile and necessary subject 1 2 3 4 5
40. I am not motivated to work very hard at English lessons 1 2 3 4 5
41. I am not motivated to work hard on Tongan lessons 1 2 3 4 5
42. Learning Tongan helps me in my learning of English 1 2 3 4 5
43. I think native speakers of English are usually friendly 1 2 3 4 5
44. I think native speakers of English are usually unkind 1 2 3 4 5
45. I think native speakers of English are usually impolite 1 2 3 4 5
46. English is taught very well in our English classes 1 2 3 4 5

47. I think native speakers of English are thoughtful 1 2 3 4 5
48. I would marry a native speaker of English 1 2 3 4 5
49. There is enough time to teach English in the timetable 1 2 3 4 5
50. I think English materials are easy to learn 1 2 3 4 5
51. I think native speakers of English should teach English at school 1 2 3 4 5

Speak Listen Read Write

52. Which is the most important English macroskill to develop 1 2 3 4
53. Which English macroskill do students do best in 1 2 3 4
54. Which English macroskill do you feel you learn the best 1 2 3 4
55. Which English macroskill do you feel is most related to students' English exam results in the Tonga School Certificate exam 1 2 3 4
56. Which English macroskill do you like the most 1 2 3 4
57. The subject I like best is.....
58. The subject I dislike the most is.....
59. My best subject is.....
60. My worst subject is

Appendix 3

Hingoa:.....

Fika:.....

Pepa Fehu'i

Ko e taumu'a 'o e pepa fchu'i ni ko e fekumi ke 'ilo'i ko e ha ho'o fakakaukau ki he ngaahi me'a 'oku nau ala uesia ho'o ako 'Ingilisi (English). 'Oku ou kole atu ke 'omi mu'a ho'o ngaahi fakakaukau mo'oni mo totonu taha.

'E 'ikai fakaha ho'o ngaahi tali ki ho kau pule 'i he 'apiako ngata pe 'i he tokotaha 'oku ne fai 'a e fakatotolo ni.

Kataki 'o tali 'a e ngaahi fehu'i kotoa. 'Oua 'e tuku ta'e tali ha fehu'i.

**'Oku 'ikai ko ha sivi 'eni.
'Oku 'ikai fakangatangata 'a e taimi.**

Kataki 'o siakale'i 'a e mata'ifika 'oku ne fakafofonga lelei taha ho'o tali.

1. Hingoa ho'o 'apiako (Kataki 'o fakaha).....
2. Ko e ha ho ta'u motu'a(Kataki 'o fakaha).....
3. Kataki 'o fakaha pe ko e:
 - Fefine.....(1)
 - Tangata.....(2)
4. Ko e ha hono loloa ho'o ako 'a e 'Ingilisi (English) he kolisi:
 - Ta'u 5.....(1)
 - Ta'u 6.....(2)
 - Ta'u 7.....(3)
 - Lahi hake he ta'u 7.....(4)
5. Ko e ha 'a e ngaahi me'a 'oku ke ngaue'aki ki ai 'a e 'Ingilisi (Kataki 'o siakale'i 'a e lahi taha 'oku ke fiema'u):
 - Ako 'i 'apiako..... (1)
 - Lautohi ki he'eku fiefia..... (2)
 - Sio faiva faka-Palangi..... (3)
 - Talanoa mo hoku ngaahi kaume'a Tonga..... (4)
 - Fetu'utaki mo hoku famili 'i 'api..... (5)
 - Fetu'utaki mo kinautolu 'oku 'ikai
lea Faka-Tonga..... (6)
 - Tali Kehe.....

Ma'u pe (1)

Meimei kotoa hoku taimi (2)

Taimi ni'ihii (3)

Si'isi'i pe (4)

'Ikai 'aupito (5)

Ngaue'aki 'a e ki 'i 'olunga ke tali 'a e ngaahi fehu'i 'i lalo.

6. Ko e ha hono lahi ho'o ngaue'aki 'a e lea faka-Palangi 'i 'api?

Mo e fanga tuofafine/tuonga'ane 1 2 3 4 5

Mo e matu'a mo e kainga 1 2 3 4 5

Mo e kaunga'api mo e ngaahi
kaungame'a 1 2 3 4 5

7. Ko e ha hono lahi ho'o ngaue'aki 'a e lea faka-Palangi 'i 'apiako?

Mo ho kaungaako Tonga 1 2 3 4 5

Mo ho kaungaako 'oku
'ikai lea faka-Tonga 1 2 3 4 5

Mo e kau faiako 1 2 3 4 5

8. Ko e ha hono lahi ho'o ngaue'aki 'a e lea faka-Palangi 'i tu'a 'i loki ako?

Mo ho ngaahi kaungme'a Tonga 1 2 3 4 5

Mo ho ngaahi kaungame'a muli 1 2 3 4 5

Mo e kau faiako 1 2 3 4 5

9 Ko e ha hono 'uhinga ho'o ako 'a e 'Ingilisi 'i he kolisi?

'Oku ou faka'amu ke hoko atu 'eku ako
'a e 'Ingilisi he kaha'u (1)

'E tokoni kiate au ke ma'u ha'aku ngaue
'o kau ka nofo mei he ako (2)

'E tokoni kiate au he'eku mo'ui faka'aho (3)

Ko e tu'utu'uni mai pe he'eku faiako
'Ingilisi (4)

Ko e loto 'o 'eku matu'a (5)

Ko e lesoni ia kuopau ke fai 'i he ako (6)

Tali Kehe:

Fu'u lelei 'aupito (1)

Lelei 'aupito pe (2)

Sai pe (3)

'Ikai fu'u lelei (4)

'Ikai 'aupito lelei (5)

Ngaue'aki 'a e ki 'i 'olunga ke tali 'a e ngaahi fehu'i 'i lalo.

10. 'Oku lelei fefe ho'o lea faka-Tonga?

1 2 3 4 5

11. 'Oku fefe 'a e anga 'o e mahino kiate koe 'a e lea faka-Tonga?

1 2 3 4 5

12. 'Oku fefe 'a e anga ho'o lautohi faka-Tonga?

1 2 3 4 5

13. 'Oku fefe 'a e anga ho'o tohi faka-Tonga?

1 2 3 4 5

14. 'Oku fefe 'a e anga ho'o lea faka-Palangi?

1 2 3 4 5

15. 'Oku fefe 'a e mahino kiate koe 'a e lea faka-Palangi?

1 2 3 4 5

16. 'Oku fefe 'a e anga ho'o lautohi faka-Palangi?

1 2 3 4 5

17. 'Oku fefe 'a e anga ho'o tohi faka-Palangi?

1 2 3 4 5

Strongly Agree	SA	(1)
Agree	A	(2)
Not Sure	N	(3)
Disagree	D	(4)
Strongly Disagree	SD	(5)

Ngaue'aki 'a e ki 'i 'olunga ke fakamatala'i ho'o fakakaukau ki he ngaahi me'a 'oku ha atu 'i lalo. Siakale'i 'a e mata'ifika 'oku ne fakamatala'i lelei taha ho'o fakakaukau.

18. 'Oku totonu ke lahi ange 'a e fakamamafa he lesoni Tonga he ako kolisi.

1 2 3 4 5

19. 'Oku totonu ke ako'i 'a e 'ulungaanga faka-fonua he ako kolisi.

1 2 3 4 5

20. 'Oku totonu ke hoko 'a e 'Ingilisi ko e lesoni pau ke fai 'i he kolisi.

1 2 3 4 5

21. 'Oku totonu ke fai 'a e faiako 'i he kolisi 'i he 'Ingilisi.

1 2 3 4 5

22. 'Oku totonu ke lava 'a e tokotaha kotoa pe he sivi 'Ingilisi pea toki hiki ki he kalasi 'oku hoko.

1 2 3 4 5

23. 'Oku totonu ke lava 'a e tokotaha kotoa pe he sivi 'Ingilisi, pea toki lava kakato he sivi Tonga School Certificate.

1 2 3 4 5

24. 'I hoku taimi 'ata ke u ma'u ai ha malolo, 'oku ou sai'ia ange ke u lau ha tohi faka-Palangi 'i ha toe fai ha me'a kehe.

1 2 3 4 5

25. 'I hoku taimi 'ata ke u ma'u ai ha malolo, 'oku ou sai'ia ange ke u sio 'i ha faiva faka-Palangi.

1 2 3 4 5

26. 'I hoku taimi 'ata ke u ma'u ai ha malolo, 'oku ou sai'ia ange ke u sio 'i ha ngaahi faiva faka-Tonga.

1 2 3 4 5

27. 'I hoku taimi 'ata ke u ma'u ai ha malolo, 'oku ou sai'ia ange ke kau ki ha kalapu 'oku ako'i ai 'a e faiva faka-Tonga.

1 2 3 4 5.

28. 'E tokoni 'a e 'Ingilisi 'i he Form 5 ki he kumi ha'aku ngaue he kaha'u.

1 2 3 4 5

29. Te u nofo au he ako 'i hano ma'u pe ha'aku ngaue.

1 2 3 4 5

30. Te u nofo au he 'osi 'eku Form 5 'o kumi ha'aku ngaue.

1 2 3 4 5

31. Te u feinga pe ke faka-kakato 'a e Form 6 pea u toki nofo he kolisi 'o kumi ha'aku ngaue.

1 2 3 4 5

32. Te u feinga ke faka-kakato 'a e Form 7, pea hoko atu ki ha 'univesiti.
1 2 3 4 5
33. Te u feinga ke u 'alu 'o ako 'i muli.
1 2 3 4 5.
34. Te u nofo mei he kolisi 'o hu ki ha 'apiako ngaue
(vocational school).
1 2 3 4 5
35. 'Oku ou ako 'a e 'Ingilisi ke tokoni kiate au ke mahino 'a e to'onga mo'ui
'a kinautolu 'oku 'a kinautolu 'a e lea ko ia.
1 2 3 4 5
36. 'Oku ou ako 'a e 'Ingilisi ke tokoni kiate au ke u fakakaukau mo mo'ui
hange ko kinautolu 'oku 'a nautolu 'a e lea ko ia.
1 2 3 4 5
37. 'Oku ou ako 'a e 'Ingilisi ke tokoni kiate au ke fai lelei 'eku ako he kolisi.
1 2 3 4 5
38. 'Oku ou tui ko e lesoni Tonga ko e lesoni mahu'inga mo fiema'u foki.
1 2 3 4 5
39. 'Oku ou tui ko e 'Ingilisi ko e lesoni mahu'inga mo fiema'u foki.
1 2 3 4 5
40. 'Oku 'ikai te u ma'u ha faka'ai'ai fe'unga ke u ngaue malohi he lesoni
'Ingilisi.
1 2 3 4 5
41. 'Oku 'ikai te u ma'u ha faka'ai'ai fe'unga ke u ngaue malohi he lesoni
Tonga.
1 2 3 4 5
42. 'Oku tokoni 'eku ako 'a e lesoni Tonga ki he'eku ako 'a e 'Ingilisi.
1 2 3 4 5
43. Ko e kakai anga fakakaume'a 'a kinautolu ko 'enau lea 'a e lea faka-
Palangi.
1 2 3 4 5
44. Ko e kakai ta'e'ofa 'a kinautolu ko 'enau lea 'a e lea faka-Palangi.
1 2 3 4 5
45. Ko e kakai anga ta'e faka'apa'apa 'a kinautolu ko 'enau lea 'a e lea faka-
Palangi.
1 2 3 4 5
46. Ko e kakai fa'a fakakaukau 'a kinautolu ko 'enau lea 'a e lea faka-
Palangi.
1 2 3 4 5
47. Te u mali mo ha taha ko 'ene lea fakafonua 'a e lea faka-Palangi.
1 2 3 4 5
48. 'Oku ako'i lelei 'aupito 'a e 'Ingilisi he ngaahi kalasi 'Ingilisi.
1 2 3 4 5
49. 'Oku lahi fe'unga pe 'a e taimi ke ako'i ai 'a e 'Ingilisi he taimi tepile.
1 2 3 4 5
50. 'Oku ma'ama'a fe'unga pe 'a e me'a 'oku ako'i he 'Ingilisi.
1 2 3 4 5

51. 'Oku totonu ko kinautolu ko 'enau lea 'a e lea faka-Palangi ke nau ako'i 'a e 'Ingilisi.

1 2 3 4 5

Lea (speaking) (1)

Fanongo (listening) (2)

Lautohi (reading) (3)

Tohi (writing) (4)

Ngaue'aki 'a e ki 'i 'olunga ke tali 'a e ngaahi fehu'i 'i lalo.

52. Ko e fe 'a e fa'ahinga taukei mahu'inga taha 'i he 'Ingilisi 'oku totonu ke ako'i?

1 2 3 4

53. Ko e fe 'a e fa'ahinga taukei 'i he 'Ingilisi 'oku lelei taha ai 'a e fanau ako?

1 2 3 4

54. Ko e fe 'a e fa'ahinga taukei 'i he 'Ingilisi 'oku ke lelei taha ai?

1 2 3 4

55. Ko e fe 'a e fa'ahinga taukei 'i he 'Ingilisi 'oku felave'i lahi taha mo e ola 'o e sivi 'Ingilisi 'i he Tonga School Certificate?

1 2 3 4

56. Ko e fe 'a e fa'ahinga taukei 'i he 'Ingilisi 'oku ke sai'ia taha ai?

1 2 3 4

57. Ko e lesoni 'oku ou sai'ia taha ai

58. Ko e lesoni 'oku ou fehi'a taha ai.....

59. Ko e lesoni 'oku ou lelei taha ai.....

60. Ko e lesoni 'oku ou kovi taha ai.....

Appendix 4

TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE.

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out how you feel about English and factors which you think might affect its learning by secondary students in Tonga.

Please give your honest and frank opinions.

Please circle the appropriate number that best represents your answer.

1. Name of your school (Please specify).....

2. Sex:

3. At the end of this year, for how many years will you have been teaching full time in secondary school?

.....years (Please specify)

4. How much time you spent altogether in an English speaking country?

.....years.....months (Please specify)

5. Which forms are you presently teaching?

Form 1.....(1)

Form 2.....(2)

Form 3.....(3)

Form 4.....(4)

Form 5.....(5)

Form 6.....(6)

Form 7.....(7)

6. What do you use English for? (Please circle as many as possible)

To teach at school..... (1)

To read for enjoyment..... (2)

To talk with my Tongan friends..... (3)

To communicate with my family at home... (4)

To communicate with other teachers at school.... (5)

To communicate with non-Tongan speakers..... (6)

To watch English movies..... (7)

Others (Please specify).....

7. How often do you use English at home?

	Always	Most	Some	Very	Never
		Time	Time	Little	
With brothers/sisters	1	2	3	4	5
With spouse/children	1	2	3	4	5
With parents/relatives	1	2	3	4	5
With neighbours/friends	1	2	3	4	5

8. How often do you use English inside the classroom?

With students	1	2	3	4	5
With non-Tongan teachers	1	2	3	4	5
with Tongan teachers	1	2	3	4	5

9. How often do you use English outside the classroom?

With students	1	2	3	4	5
With non-Tongan teachers	1	2	3	4	5
With Tongan teachers	1	2	3	4	5

	Very well	Fairly well	OK	Not too well	Not at all
10. How well do you speak Tongan?	1	2	3	4	5
11. How well do you understand Tongan	1	2	3	4	5
12. How well do you read Tongan	1	2	3	4	5
13. How well do you write Tongan	1	2	3	4	5
14. How well do you speak English	1	2	3	4	5
15. How well do you understand English	1	2	3	4	5
16. How well do you read English	1	2	3	4	5
17. How well do you write English	1	2	3	4	5

Strongly Agree	SA	(1)
Agree	A	(2)
Not Sure	N	(3)
Disagree	D	(4)
Strongly Disagree	SD	(5)

Use the key shown above to indicate your ideas on the statements given below.

	SA	A	N	D	SD
18. When I have free time to relax, I prefer to read a book in English rather than other activities	1	2	3	4	5
19. There should be more emphasis on Tongan at school	1	2	3	4	5
20. Traditional culture should be taught at secondary school	1	2	3	4	5
21. English should be compulsory at secondary school	1	2	3	4	5
22. Teaching should be done in English at secondary school	1	2	3	4	5
23. Students at each level should have to pass the English exam before being promoted to the next level	1	2	3	4	5
24. Students should have to pass the English exam before having a full pass in the Tonga School Certificate Exam	1	2	3	4	5
25. I think students should learn English to help them understand native speakers of English and the way they live	1	2	3	4	5
26. I think students should learn English to help them think and act like native speakers of English	1	2	3	4	5

27. I think students should learn English to help them do well in school	1	2	3	4	5
28. I think English is a very worthwhile and necessary subject	1	2	3	4	5
29. I think Tongan is a very worthwhile and necessary subject	1	2	3	4	5
30. The students are not motivated to work very hard at English classes	1	2	3	4	5
31. I think learning of Tongan helps the students in their learning of English	1	2	3	4	5
32. I think native speakers of English are usually friendly	1	2	3	4	5
33. I think native speakers of English are usually unkind	1	2	3	4	5
34. I think native speakers of English are usually thoughtful	1	2	3	4	5
35. I think native speakers of English should teach English at school	1	2	3	4	5
36. I think there is enough time to teach English in the timetable	1	2	3	4	5
37. I think the Form 5 English syllabus is suitable for the needs of the students	1	2	3	4	5
38. I think the Form 5 English material is appropriate for the students	1	2	3	4	5
39. I think Form 5 English material is easy for the students	1	2	3	4	5
40. I think that teaching methods for teaching English in Form 5 should be more communicative in nature	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 5 Assessment criteria

Criteria for assessing written production

A. Relevance and adequacy of content

0. The answer bears almost no relation to the task set. Totally inadequate answer.
1. Answer of limited relevance to the task set. Possibly major gaps in treatment of topic and/or pointless repetition.
2. For the most part answers the task set, though there may be some gaps or redundant information.
3. Relevant and adequate answer to the task set.

B. Compositional organisation

0. No apparent organisation of content.
1. Very little organisation of content. Underlying structure not sufficiently apparent.
2. Some organisational skills I evidence, but not adequately controlled.
3. Overall shape and internal pattern clear. Organisational skills adequately controlled.

C. Cohesion

0. Cohesion totally absent. Writings so fragmentary that comprehension of the intended communication is virtually impossible.
1. Unsatisfactory cohesion may cause difficulty in comprehension of most of the intended communication.
2. For the most part satisfactory cohesion though occasional deficiencies may mean that certain parts of the communication not always effective.
3. Satisfactory use of cohesion resulting in effective communication.

D. Adequacy of vocabulary for purpose

0. Vocabulary inadequate even for the most basic parts of the intended communication.
1. Frequent inadequacies in vocabulary for the task. Perhaps frequent lexical inappropriacies and/or repetition.
2. Some inadequacies in vocabulary for the task. Perhaps some lexical inappropriacies and/or circumlocution.
3. Almost no inadequacies in vocabulary for the task. Only rare inappropriacies and/or circumlocution.

E. Grammar

0. Almost all grammatical patterns inaccurate.
1. Frequent grammatical inaccuracies.
2. Some grammatical inaccuracies.
3. Almost no grammatical inaccuracies.

F. Mechanical accuracy in punctuation and spelling.

0. Ignorance of conventions of punctuation and almost all spelling inaccurate.
1. Low standard of accuracy in punctuation and spelling.
2. Some inaccuracies in punctuation and spelling.
3. Almost no inaccuracies in punctuation and spelling.

Assessment criteria for oral test

Appropriateness

0. Unable to function in the spoken language.
1. Able to operate only in a very limited capacity; responses characterised by socio-cultural inappropriateness.
2. Signs of developing attempts at response to role, setting etc. But misunderstanding may occasionally arise through inappropriateness, particularly of socio-cultural convention.
3. Almost no errors in the socio-cultural conventions of language; errors not significant enough to be likely to cause social misunderstanding.

Adequacy of vocabulary for purpose

0. Vocabulary inadequate even for the most basic parts of intended communication.
1. Vocabulary limited to that necessary to express simple elementary needs; inadequacy of vocabulary restricts topics of interaction to the most basic; perhaps frequent lexical inaccuracies and/or excessive repetitions.
2. Some misunderstandings may arise through lexical inadequacy or inaccuracy; hesitation and circumlocution are frequent, though these are signs of developing active vocabulary.
3. Almost no inadequacies or inaccuracies in vocabulary for the task. Only rare circumlocution.

Grammatical accuracy

0. Unable to function in the spoken language; almost all grammatical patterns inaccurate, except for a few stock phrases.
1. Syntax is fragmented and there are frequent grammatical inaccuracies; some patterns may be mastered but speech may be characterised by telegraphing style and/or confusion of structural elements.
2. Some grammatical inaccuracies; developing control of major patterns, but sometimes unable to sustain coherence in longer utterances.
3. Almost no grammatical inaccuracies; occasional imperfect control of a few patterns.

Intelligibility

0. Severe and constant rhythm, intonation and pronunciation problems cause almost complete unintelligibility.
1. Strong interference from L1 in rhythm, intonation and pronunciation; understanding is difficult, and achieved often only after frequent repetition.
2. Rhythm, intonation and pronunciation require concentrated listening, but only occasional misunderstanding is caused or repetition required.
3. Articulation is reasonably comprehensible to native speakers; there may be a marked 'foreign accent' but almost no misunderstanding is caused and repetition required only infrequently.

Fluency

0. Utterances halting, fragmentary and incoherent.
1. Utterances hesitant and often incomplete except in a few stock remarks and responses. Sentences are, for the most part, disjointed and restricted in length.
2. Signs at developing attempts at using cohesive devices, especially conjunctions. Utterances may still be hesitant, but are gathering in coherence, speed and length.
3. Utterances, while occasionally hesitant, are characterised by an evenness and flow hindered, very occasionally, by groping, rephrasing and circumlocutions. Intersentential connectors are used effectively as filters.

Relevance and adequacy of content

0. Response irrelevant to the task set; totally inadequate response.
1. Response of limited relevance to the task set; possibly major gaps and/or pointless repetition.
2. Response for the most part relevant to the task set, though there may be some gaps or redundancy.
3. Relevant and adequate response to the task set.

Appendix 6 Items for which there were missing data

Item number	Number of missing cases
54	3
56	3
57	7
58	2
60	1
Career aspirations	3
Attitude to Tongan	2
Attitude to English	2
Ability in English	8
Ability in Tongan	1
Integrative motivation	1

Appendix 7

Correlation Matrix of all the Independent Variables and The Students' Performance in all the Four English Language Skills

Variable	Reading	Writing	Listening	Speaking
Demographic factors				
Age	-.4018**	-.4294**	-.2944**	-.5717**
Gender	-.0980	-.1536	-.0824	-.2090
Year	-.2018*	-.1881	-.1559	-.1482

English language perception

Perceived ability in English	-.1264**	-.4448**	-.3621**	-.2861
Perceived ability in Tongan	.1098	.1783	.0727	.3288
Attitude to English at School	-.1636	-.1000	.0504	-.1361
Attitude to Tongan at School	.1537	.1653	.2153*	.3155
Frequency of use of English with Non Tongan Speakers at School	-.3379**	-.2986**	-.1982*	-.4014*
Integrative Motivation for learning English at School	.2884**	.2412*	.3620**	.2831
Career Aspirations	.5070**	.4644**	.3672**	.4047*
Education Aspirations	-.2024*	-.2121*	-.0030	-.1573

Purposes English is used for

Study at School	.1728	.1741	.1292	.4604*
Read for Enjoyment	.2995**	.3178**	.2247*	.3761**
Watch English Movies	.1949	.2368*	.1939	.1889
Talk with Tongan Friends	-.0239	.0293	-.1619	.1454
Communication in the Family Home	.4275**	.4400**	.3015**	.2593
Communication with Non Tongan Speakers	.1862	.2195*	.2065*	.1141

Frequency of use of English at home

With Brothers and Sisters	-.2504*	-.2023*	-.1452	.0346
With Parents and Relatives	-.1914	-.1825	-.1984*	-.2025
With Neighbours and Friends	-.0248	-.0965	-.0727	-.0745

Inside classroom

With Tongan Schoolmates	.0404	.0088	.1690	.1143
With Teachers	-.0049	-.0048	-.0585	.0177

Outside classroom

With Tongan Schoolmates	.0002	-.0848	.0664	.0685
With Teachers	.1304	.0783	.0840	-.2664

Purposes for learning English

To Continue Learning it in the Future	-.0667	-.1038	-.0194	-.0512
To Help in Getting a Job When Leaving School	.1046	.2177*	.0586	.2027
To Help in Daily Life	.0443	.0421	-.0492	.0560
My Parents Wanted me to	.0538	.0113	-.0004	.1503
My English Teacher Told me to	-.1008	-.0451	-.0973	.3012
English is a compulsory subject at School	.0500	.1100	.0375	.3524

Use of free time

To Read English Books	.0801	.1073	.1131	.0920
To Watch English Movies	-.2205*	-.2099*	-.1519	.0490
To Watch Tongan Dance	-.0476	-.1005	-.0275	.1314
To Join a Tongan Dance Club	-.0976	-.0740	-.0694	.0618

Attitude to native speakers of English

Native Speakers of English are Friendly	.0694	.0881	.2077*	.1159
Native Speakers of English are Unkind	.3057**	.2364*	.2678**	.2132
Native Speakers of English are Impolite	.0633	.0359	.0364	.2116
Native Speakers of English are Thoughtful	.0442	.1257	.0699	.1709
I Will Marry a Native Speaker of English	.0798	.0573	.1520	-.0939

Teaching of English at school

Students are not Motivated to Work Hard in English	.1381	.2480	.0238	.1305
English is Taught Well in English Classes	.1561	.0960	.2960**	.1726
There is Enough Time to Teach English in the School Timetable	-.0187	-.0058	-.0740	.2726
Form 5 English Material is Easy Enough for Students	-.0450	-.0595	.0340	.1297
Native Speakers of English Should Teach English at School	.0636	.1003	-.0162	-.0265

Perception on individual English macroskills

The Most Important English to be Taught in Form 5	.0010	.0960	.0589	.0066
The English Skill that Form 5 Students Perform Best in	.0693	.0936	-.0302	.1060
The English Skill That You Perform Best in	.1060	.0490	.2176*	-.1557
The English Skill That is Closely Related to English Results in the Tonga School Certificate	.2157*	.2141*	.1286	.3773*
The English Skill That You Like Best	.1682	.1615	.1752	.0355

English versus other subjects

The Subject I Like Best	.0882	.0805	.0472	-.0202
The Subject I Dislike the Most	.0643	.0684	-.0029	-.2016
The Subject I Perform Best in	-.0547	-.0676	.0085	-.2605
The Subject I Perform Worst in	.0653	.0437	.0738	.0714

*p<.05 **p<.01

Appendix 8

Mean scores and standard deviations of teachers' and students' perceptions on some independent variables

Variable	Teachers		Students	
	Mean(SD)	N	Mean(SD)	N
Attitude to Tongan at school				
There should be more emphasis on Tongan	2.77(1.06)	24	2.69(1.23)	99
Traditional culture should be taught	2.14(1.15)	24	1.54(.88)	99
Tongan is a worthwhile and necessary subject	1.50(.59)	24	2.14(.94)	99
Learning of Tongan helps the learning of English	2.25(.74)	24	2.91(1.31)	99
Attitude to English at school				
English should be compulsory at school	1.42(.72)	24	1.13(.42)	99
Teaching should be done in English	1.79(.72)	24	1.41(.71)	99
Students should pass English exam before promoted to next level	1.88(.99)	24	1.71(1.06)	99
Students should pass English before passing the Tonga SC exam	1.83(1.01)	24	1.73(1.08)	99
English is worthwhile and necessary subject	1.38(.49)	24	1.26(.63)	99
Students learn English to do well at school	1.42(.50)	24	1.48(.81)	99
Integrative motivation				
Students learn English to help them understand English native speakers and the way they live	1.96(.95)	24	2.23(1.16)	99
Students learn English to help them think and act like English native speakers	3.21(1.22)	24	2.75(1.23)	99

	Teachers		Students	
Variable	Mean(SD)	N	Mean(SD)	N
Teaching of English at school				
Students are not motivated to work hard at English lessons	2.17(.87)	24	2.64(1.29)	99
Native speakers of English should teach English at school	3.88(6.07)	24	2.42(1.21)	99
There is enough time to teach English in the timetable	2.38(1.13)	24	2.42(1.16)	99
Form 5 English syllabus is suitable for the needs of the students	2.50(1.02)	24		
Form 5 English material is suitable for the students	2.37(.88)	24		
Form 5 English material is easy for the students	3.25(.85)	24	2.29(1.07)	99
Teaching methods for form 5 English should be more communicative	1.79(.78)	24		