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EFL Students’ Performance in the Analysis of Syntactic Structures

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Abstract

This study aimed to determine the performance of EFL graduate students in the analysis of form and function of syntactic structures. It also determined the respondents’ index of mastery and index of difficulty and to identify the scope of grammar which requires remediation. It also aimed to compare significant differences between the level of mastery and level of difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of syntactic structure as to form and function. The descriptive – comparative method was used to determine the group’s over-all performance in the analysis of syntactic structures. Results of the study show that the index of mastery of 2 groups in the analysis of form of syntactic structure was satisfactory; while their index of mastery in the analysis of function of syntactic structure was poor. The overall mean was fair. The index of difficulty of both groups in the analysis of form and function was moderately difficult. It was found out that there was no significant difference of the Index of Mastery of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form of syntactic structures but there was significant difference in the analysis of function of syntactic structures. This means that batch 2 is better than batch 1. In the test of difference between 2 groups in the index of difficulty, there was a significant difference of the Index of Difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form and function of syntactic structures.

Keywords: form, function, performance, syntactic structure

Introduction

The globalization of English language is continuously gaining widespread acceptance all over the world. This is influenced by many fields like education, science and technology, trade and commerce, infrastructure, politics and culture, and other priority concerns of both public and private sectors. Many countries in Asia have already embraced English language teaching. As a proof that English has become official language in Asia, (Tang, 2007) the ASEAN Economic
Community blueprint was written in English and was signed by 10 heads of member countries: Brunei, Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Myanmar, Philippines, Singapore, Thailand and Viet Nam. Along the trends of international development, cooperation and globalization, these countries recognized the role of English language in the harmonization of countries in terms of implementing its security, economic, and socio-cultural community visions.

On the other hand, Uchibori, et. al. (2006) study discussed ways to make the instruction of grammar more effective, especially for Japanese beginning level English students. In particular, they discussed what grammatical features and structures students should be aware of in order to both enhance their classroom learning and their ability to understand and respond to practical English expressions such those in the TOEIC test, which measure proficiency in international English communication. They (a) assessed both grammatical features and structures of three high school English textbook series widely used in high-schools in Japan and those of test questions in the TOEIC reading sections; (b) uncover discrepancies that exist between those textbooks and TOEIC; (c) make suggestions about how to approach the instruction of grammar; and (d) reported the results of their case study in which grammar instruction was given to beginning level university students in the suggested way.

English language is now being capitalized in a global standard. Researches claim that language proficiency is strongly related to economic performance. This is proven by the title given to the Philippines as number 1 BPO country in 2010. English language proficiency opened opportunities for Filipinos since then. This is attributed to the high English proficiency of 500,000 employees who contributed US $ 9 billion dollar revenue in the BPO industry. In 2015, Malaysia is cited to have the highest English proficiency index in Asian countries excluding Philippines since it is still considered as the being 5th largest English speaking in the world, in 2011. Rapoza (2012) and Maxwell (2015).

Sepassi (2006) investigated the relationship between the age of Iranian EFL learners and the strategy they seek in their interpretation of sentences. A task was devised to solicit either prosodically or syntactically motivated responses from two groups of participants aged 12-13, and 17 and over, respectively. Comparison of the different age groups’ performance on the task revealed that younger learners were more inclined to follow prosodic cues and older learners were more inclined to follow syntactic ones. Proven by international research and surveys, the Philippines’ universities produce not less 500,000 English speaking graduates each year. The
country continues to attract foreign students from Asian universities like Iran, Libya, Brazil, Russia, China, Japan and south Korea to earn graduate and post graduate degrees at a less expensive cost compared to migrating in US, UK, New Zealand and Australia which demand higher tuition rates proportionate to standard of living. Chavez (2014)

In the Philippines, the National Development Plan on Education, Training and Culture set a standard for an improved access to quality education, with the number of graduates on higher education as indicators, NEDA (2011, hence, study was conceptualized.

METHODOLOGY

Respondents

This study was conducted among 2 batches of foreign students enrolled in Ph. D. in Education major in Language Education program during the school years 2014 – 2015 and 2015–2016. Batch 1 was composed of 12 students and Batch 2, 7 students.

Research Problem

Guided by the following research problems, this study aimed to answer the following:

1. What is the index of mastery and level of difficulty of the two groups of respondents in the analysis of syntactic structure as to:
   1.1 Form
   1.2 Function

2. Is there a significant difference between the index of mastery of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of syntactic structure as to:
   2.1 Form
   2.2 Function

3. Is there a significant difference between the level of difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of syntactic structure as to:
   3.1 Form
   3.2 Function

4. In which area/s do they need remediation?
Hypothesis:
The study was guided with the following hypotheses:

1. There is no significant difference between the index of mastery of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of syntactic structures as to:
   1.1 form
   1.2 function
2. There is no significant difference between the index of difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of syntactic structures as to:
   2.1 form
   2.2 function

Conceptual Framework
Descriptive – comparative method was used to determine the performance of 2 groups in the analysis of form and function of syntactic structures such as content words, phrases and clauses. The index of mastery with its equivalent descriptive value was used to determine the level of performance and overall performance of 2 groups.

![Figure 1. A diagram showing the relationship of form and function of syntactic structure](image)

The study made use of the following statistical tools which were needed in the analysis of the data:

For the index of mastery, the formula below was used:
To categorize the level of mastery a modified scale was assigned to score the 5 categories:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Index of Mastery Range</th>
<th>Descriptive scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>90.00 - above</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>83.00 - 89.99</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.00 - 82.99</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69.00 - 75.99</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68.99 - below</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the level of difficulty the item analysis was used. A modified 5 scale was assigned to score the 5 categories.

For the index of difficulty, the formula below was used:

\[
ID = \frac{\text{upper 27%+lower 27% of correct scores}}{\text{number of respondents}}
\]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Difficulty Index Range</th>
<th>Descriptive scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.91 - above</td>
<td>Very easy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.76 – 0.90</td>
<td>Easy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.26 – 0.75</td>
<td>Moderately difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.11 – 0.25</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0.10 - below</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the significant difference of the index of mastery and the index of difficulty between the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of syntactic structure as to form and function, the t-test of 2 independent groups was used. The needed data for this study were gathered using a self–constructed test. This was validated by English teachers. The instrument was composed of 136 sentences and respondents were given choices to identify what are being represented by the
The test consisted of two parts: Part I for form of syntactic structures, and Part II for their function. The test on form was composed of 73 items of which 33 were content words, 25 for phrases, and 15 for clauses. The words, phrase and clauses were used in sentences and were underlined. These sentences were jumbled to check familiarity of respondents on form and function.

The respondents were made to identify content words by providing choices like noun, adjective, adverb and verb. Choices on phrases were subdivided into present participle, past participle, infinitive, gerund and prepositional phrase. Choices on clauses composed of noun clause, adjectival clause and adverbial clause.

On the other hand, the test on function was composed of 63 items of which 5 were for subject, 18 for verbs, 5 for indirect object, 5 for direct object, 5 for subjective complement, 5 for objective complement, 11 for object of the preposition, 5 for appositive, and 9 for modifiers. These sentences were also jumbled. These nine functions of syntactic structure were also presented as choices in the analysis of function of syntactic structures.

RESULT AND DISCUSSION

Table 1a. Index of Mastery of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form of syntactic structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>IM Group 1</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
<th>IM Group 2</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
<th>Overall IM</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. CONTENT WORDS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>96.67</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>98.34</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>78.33</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>82.86</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>80.60</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>80.00</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>94.29</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>87.15</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>90.74</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>91.26</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>91.00</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Mean</td>
<td>86.44</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
<td>92.10</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>89.27</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### B. PHRASES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Category Mean</th>
<th>Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present Participle</td>
<td>60.00</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past Participle</td>
<td>88.33</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>95.00</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gerund</td>
<td>71.67</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositional Phrases</td>
<td>93.33</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Category Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>81.67</strong></td>
<td><strong>Satisfactory</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### C. CLAUSES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Category Mean</th>
<th>Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Noun Clause</td>
<td>48.33</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective Clause</td>
<td>46.67</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial Clause</td>
<td>76.67</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Category Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>57.22</strong></td>
<td><strong>Poor</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Over-all Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>75.11</strong></td>
<td><strong>Fair</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IM - Index of Mastery

Table 1A shows 3 categories of form of syntactic structures in content words, phrases and clauses. The 2 groups of respondents showed mastery in content words like noun, adjective, adverb and verb having scored an overall performance of very satisfactory. Nouns are easily identifiable with their unique markers like ending in –ness, –ist, –ism, –ment. My instrument used noun ending in –ian, –tion, –er, –ure, –ogy or in proper noun form since one word was capitalized. Aside from markers that aid in the recognition of nouns being count nouns and non-count nouns or in abstract form, other pre-determiners of nouns are articles a, an, and the, quantifiers and determiners.

On the other hand, common adjectives have basic forms, too; they have typical endings, like –al, –ant, –ent, –ous, –ic, –y, –ive, –able, –ible, –ful, –less, –ed, –ing, –ly, –ate, –est, –an, –r, –
st, –er, –est, –ier, –iest. BBC (2011), Gorbaniuk, et. al. (2014) and Enchanted Learning (2015). Adjectives simply describe noun or pronoun. (O’Brien, 2016). My respondents scored satisfactory in adjectives. Their level of mastery to adjective is average. The next content word is adverb. Common forms of adverbs include place, manner, time and frequency. The easiest to identify having word ending in –ly is adverb of manner. English Practice (2016) adds other forms of adverb like adverbs of number, (e.g. firstly, secondly), adverbs of degree or quantity, (e.g. very, little) adverbs of reason (e.g. consequently, thus) and adverbs of affirmation or negation (e.g. surely, yes, no). The respondents’ scores were extreme since group 1 got satisfactory and the other is excellent. This shows that group 2 is more familiar with adverbs.

The last content word is verb. The respondents scored excellent in this area which means that they master verb formations. Verb changes in form when they are conjugated in tenses (Egipto, 2013). Basic tenses of verbs include simple, progressive, perfect and perfect progressive. Word formation in simple tense used main verb plus –s or –es in present tense, ending in –d or –ed in past tense and addition of will or shall in future tense. Progressive tense has more additions to the main verb. Present progressive tense has markers like: [is/are + main verb + –ing]; past progressive tense can be identified with clusters [was/were + main verb + –ing]; future progressive compose of markers [will be/shall be + main verb + –ing]. Looking at these word formations, main verb + –ing is an equivalent formation of present participle form or gerund form. Perfect tense can be identified with a word formation of [has/have + past participle of main verb] for perfect tense, [has + past participle of main verb] for past perfect and [will have / shall have + past participle of main verb] for future perfect. The perfect progressive tenses are formed by using [have been/has been + present participle of main verb] for present perfect progressive; [had been + present participle of main verb] for past perfect progressive and [will have been / shall have been + present participle of main verb] for future perfect progressive. The perfect progressive tense is also called future perfect continuous. (Grammarly Hanbook, 2013)

Why the content words are easiest to master? Because these compose basic words before an English speaker can communicate. Amirio (2015) says that in the whole world, people at 35 years of age earn higher proficiency level in English. Exposure to the English language contributes to the mastery of my respondents whose mean age is 34. On the other hand, my respondent’s mastery level on phrases earned a category mean of satisfactory and very satisfactory, for group 1 and group 2, respectively. The two groups’ scores prove that they are proficient in analyzing
phrases. However, the overall indexes of mastery of 2 groups in analyzing present participle and gerund are poor and satisfactory, respectively. This may be attributed to the marker –ing found in both phrases. The group failed to see the word order of gerund used as a noun and the present participle used as an adjective. For the groups’ performance in the analysis of clauses, both groups find difficulty in the forms of noun clauses and adjectival clauses. This shows that the respondents are not familiar with compound sentence, complex sentence and/or compound–complex sentence. Adverbial clause was the easiest to identify by the respondents. This is attributed to the timeline or adverb of time, and the adverb of manner emphasized by the sentences used. In conclusion, Tang (2007) says that Vietnamese find difficulty in lexical–semantic distinctions not found in their L1. They interpret words depending on the sentence context (rather than morphology) as different word classes. This explains why the overall mastery indexes of the 2 groups of respondents on content words are fair and satisfactory, respectively. This can be explained by the influence of the first language of respondents since the Vietnamese language is composed of mono-syllabic sentence structure.

Table 1b. Index of Mastery of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of function of syntactic structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>IM Group 1</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
<th>IM Group 2</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
<th>Overall IM</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>76.67</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>85.71</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
<td>81.19</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>79.63</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>97.62</td>
<td>Excellent</td>
<td>88.63</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect Object</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>68.57</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>51.79</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object</td>
<td>61.67</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>65.71</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>63.69</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjective Complement</td>
<td>50.00</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>65.71</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>57.86</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective Complement</td>
<td>68.33</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>37.14</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>52.74</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Object of the Preposition</td>
<td>76.67</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>85.71</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
<td>81.19</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appositive</td>
<td>53.33</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>88.57</td>
<td>Very Satisfactory</td>
<td>70.95</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modifier</td>
<td>37.96</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>58.73</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>48.35</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Over-all Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>59.92</strong></td>
<td><strong>Poor</strong></td>
<td><strong>72.61</strong></td>
<td><strong>Fair</strong></td>
<td><strong>66.27</strong></td>
<td><strong>Poor</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IM = Index of Mastery

Table 1B shows the index of mastery of the two groups in the analysis of function of syntactic structures. The respondents’ over-all performance is poor. However, the respondents find other areas like subject, verb and object of the preposition easy. This is attributed to the Vietnamese
language syntax S (subject) – V (verb) – O (object) sentence pattern or OSV less common noun + adjective. (Tang, 2007) The respondents find difficulty in identifying word order in the form of indirect object, object, subjective complement, objective complement, and modifier. The most common sentence patterns include a combination of subject (S), verb (V), indirect object (IO), object (O), subjective complement (SC), objective complement (OC), object of the preposition (OP), appositive (A) and modifier (M). e.g. SV, SVO, SVC, SVOO, SVOC, SVA, and SVOA.

The result shows that the respondents’ poor performance is affected by the respondent’s first language structure. The Vietnamese language is rich in lexical tone expounded in the vowel sound structure, thus, meanings of words are influenced by the tonal sound rather than word order structure in sentences. Tang (2007) describes potential influences of the Vietnamese language with English language levels: phonology (sound level), lexical semantic (word level) and syntax (grammar).

In the area of phonology, the patterns that more likely occur in adult learners are deletion or simplification of initial or final consonant clusters, substitution with Vietnamese vowel and consonant sounds, intonation pattern influenced by tone. In the area of lexical semantics, patterns of errors include difficulty using reduplications, words using kinship terms and words without direct English translations, overgeneralization or omission of classifiers. Finally, along morpho–syntax, Vietnamese have difficulty of word order for questions and for possessions, and they place adjectives before the nouns. That’s why, the respondent’s performance in modifiers is poor.

Table 1c. Overall Index of Mastery of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form and function of syntactic structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>IM Group 1</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
<th>IM Group 2</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
<th>Overall IM</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>75.11</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>82.76</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>78.94</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>59.92</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>72.61</td>
<td>Fair</td>
<td>66.27</td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mean</td>
<td>67.50</td>
<td>Poor</td>
<td>77.68</td>
<td>Satisfactory</td>
<td>72.65</td>
<td>Fair</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IM – Index of Mastery

The respondents’ overall index of mastery in the analysis of form and function of syntactic structure is fair. However, they have satisfactory performance in the analysis of form. This means
that the students possess average proficiency in the sentence structure of English. Mastery of English structure begins with proficiency in form then expands with mastery of function. Once both syntax are equally mastered, the speaker of English earns higher proficiency level.

| Table 1d. Index of Difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form of syntactic structures on content words |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Form of Syntactic Structures | Item No. | Words / Phrases / Clauses Used in Sentences | ID Grp 1 Interpretation | ID Grp 2 Interpretation | Overall Interpretation |
| A. CONTENT WORDS |
| 1. NOUN |
| 2 | politician | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
| 3 | education | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
| 5 | architecture | 0.42 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.50 | MD |
| 9 | experimenter | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
| 12 | Sociology | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
| Category Mean | 0.48 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.53 | MD |
| 2. ADJECTIVE |
| 4 | psychotic | 0.00 | Very difficult | 0.14 | Difficult | 0.07 | Very difficult |
| 6 | valuable | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
| 11 | nervous | 0.42 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.50 | MD |
| 13 | furious | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
| 15 | greatest | 0.42 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.50 | MD |
| Category Mean | 0.37 | MD | 0.51 | MD | 0.49 | MD |
| 3. ADVERB |
| 1 | really | 0.50 | MD | 0.43 | MD | 0.47 | MD |
| 7 | increasingly | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
| 8 | quickly | 0.50 | MD | 0.43 | MD | 0.47 | MD |
| 10 | softly | 0.33 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.45 | MD |
| 14 | bravely | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
| Category Mean | 0.47 | MD | 0.51 | MD | 0.49 | MD |
| 4. VERB |
| 4.1. simple present | 17 | choose | 0.33 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.45 | MD |
| 22 | make | 0.33 | MD | 0.43 | MD | 0.38 | MD |
| 4.2. simple past | 24 | built | 0.17 | Difficult | 0.57 | MD | 0.37 | MD |
| 26 | came | 0.17 | Difficult | 0.43 | MD | 0.30 | MD |
| 4.3. simple future | 27 | will tell | 0.33 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.45 | MD |
| 29 | will try | 0.33 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.45 | MD |
| 4.4. present progressive | 16 | is thinking | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
| 31 | are working | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
| 19 | was driving | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
Table 1d presents the level of difficulty of respondents in the analysis of form of syntactic structures on content words. The overall category mean of respondents is moderately difficult. The respondents found nouns to be moderately difficult. For adjective, number 4 sentence is found to be very difficult by group 1 and difficult by group 2. This adjective is formed by ending in –ic. The respondents are confused on this word formation since words ending in –ic looks like a noun. Both groups find adverbs and verbs moderately difficult. However, group 1 finds past tense of verbs to be difficult because the verbs used are irregular verbs. The basic word formation of past tense is adding –d or –ed. So the respondents are confused with the irregular form of verb as past participle. This implies that the respondents have an average ability in labeling content words such nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs based on the suffixes they contain.

Table 1e. Index of Difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form of syntactic structures on phrases.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Words / Phrases / Clauses Used in Sentences</th>
<th>ID Grp 1</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID Grp 2</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.5. past progressive</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>was walking</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6. future progressive</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>will be waiting</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>will be singing</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7. present perfect</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>have done</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>have made</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8. past perfect</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>had sunk</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>had thought</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.9. future perfect</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>will have used</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>will have worked</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.042</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ID – Index of Difficulty
MD – Moderately difficult
G1 – Group 1
G2 – Group 2
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>2. Past</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Participle</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>brought up</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>43</td>
<td>built last year</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>48</td>
<td>posed</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>53</td>
<td>burned with many cares</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>54</td>
<td>surrounded by tight security</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Category Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

|   | 3. Infinitive | 42 | to believe | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
|   | 46 | to improve building facilities | 0.42 | MD | 0.43 | MD | 0.43 | MD |
|   | 47 | to enable voters | 0.50 | MD | 0.43 | MD | 0.47 | MD |
|   | 51 | to investigate his case | 0.50 | MD | 0.43 | MD | 0.47 | MD |
|   | 56 | to look always | 0.50 | MD | 0.43 | MD | 0.47 | MD |
|   | Category Mean |   | 0.48 | MD | 0.46 | MD | 0.47 | MD |

|   | 4. Gerund | 36 | selling door to door | 0.42 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.50 | MD |
|   | 37 | ignoring the special problems of our cultural minorities | 0.33 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.45 | MD |
|   | 38 | listening to the concert | 0.08 | Very | 0.57 | MD | 0.33 | MD |
|   | 49 | reading of the entire contents of the library | 0.42 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.50 | MD |
|   | 55 | marrying hastily | 0.33 | MD | 0.29 | MD | 0.31 | MD |
|   | Category Mean |   | 0.32 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.50 | MD |

|   | 5. Prepositional Phrase | 39 | through your notes | 0.42 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.50 | MD |
|   | 45 | against them | 0.42 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.50 | MD |
|   | 50 | for the trees | 0.42 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.50 | MD |
|   | 57 | between the lines | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
|   | 58 | underneath her harmless looks | 0.50 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.54 | MD |
|   | Category Mean |   | 0.45 | MD | 0.57 | MD | 0.51 | MD |

|   | OVERALL CATEGORY MEAN |   | 0.41 | MD | 0.50 | MD | 0.46 | MD |

MD – Moderately Difficult

Table 1e shows the index of difficulty of respondents on phrases. Only number 41 was found difficult; this is caused by the structure of the phrase that looks like gerund. Number 38 was found very difficult by group 1. There is a confusion between present participle used as an adjective and gerund used as a noun because of their –ing form.

As a whole, the respondents moderately understand the position of the phrases within the sentences with their index of mastery of moderately difficult.

Table 1f. Index of Difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form of syntactic structures on clauses.
### Form of Syntactic Structures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Words / Phrases / Clauses Used in Sentences</th>
<th>ID Grp 1</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID Grp 2</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Noun Clause</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61</td>
<td>that Newton had missed the point</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>that courage is better than fear</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65</td>
<td>where she was going</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67</td>
<td>how highly motivated people become successful</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68</td>
<td>who is a better critic than painter</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>that always confuses me</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>who have status in their world</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>which she concealed from everybody</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>that two heads are better than one</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>that afflict those who enter cemeteries at night</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Adjectival Clauses</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>when he was hungry</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>66</td>
<td>as we strolled through the park</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71</td>
<td>when Job heard the voice from the whirlwind</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72</td>
<td>whenever the phone or the door bell rings</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73</td>
<td>while making hay</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**MD** – Moderately Difficult

The table presents 4 items found to be difficult by the respondents. They were confused with the conjunctions used in noun clauses found in items 65 (where) and 67 (how) the where and how markers may function as adverb of place and adverb manner; and item number 68 (who) is a marker for adjective that refers to a person. One item from adjectival clause beginning with marker *that* in item 59 is found difficult by respondents. They were confused that the marker *that* is a noun clause. This means that the respondents cannot differentiate the three types of clauses. They are not familiar with the headwords of clauses that determine their type. In conclusion, the respondents’ index of difficulty in the analysis of form on clauses is moderately difficult.
Table 1g. Summary Index of difficulty in the analysis of form of syntactic structure.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>ID Group 1</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
<th>ID Group 2</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Content Words</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adverb</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verb</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phrases</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clauses</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mean</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ID – Index of Difficulty  
MD – Moderately Difficult

The overall index of difficulty of respondents is moderately difficult. It means that the foreign students possess average mastery level of form of syntactic structures.

Table 1h. Index of difficulty on function of syntactic structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>Ite</th>
<th>Word / Phrase / Clause</th>
<th>ID G1</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID G2</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Subject</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1. Noun</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>creature</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.2. Infinitive</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>to feel angry at the wrong time</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.3. Gerund</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>repeating the experiment</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.4. Adjective</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>fanatic</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.5. Noun Clause</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>how Filipinos choose their heroes</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Verb

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>Ite</th>
<th>Word / Phrase / Clause</th>
<th>ID G1</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID G2</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.1. Simple Present</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>Block (P)</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>61</td>
<td>makes (S)</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2. Simple Past</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>believed</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>53</td>
<td>sought</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3. Simple Future</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>will device</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>59</td>
<td>will rule</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4. Present Progressive</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>is sitting</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>are waiting</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>was waiting</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function of Syntactic Structures</td>
<td>Item(s)</td>
<td>Word / Phrase / Clause</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>ID</td>
<td>Interpretation</td>
<td>Overall ID</td>
<td>Interpretation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
<td>---------</td>
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<td>----</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5. Past Progressive</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>were collecting</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6. Future Progressive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>will be preparing</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>60</td>
<td>will be working</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.7. Present Perfect</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>have killed</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16</td>
<td>has forgotten</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.8. Past Perfect</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>had been inspected</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>58</td>
<td>had become</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>MD</td>
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<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Table 1h continued; Index of difficulty on function of syntactic structure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>Item(s)</th>
<th>Word / Phrase / Clause</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2.9. Future Perfect</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>shall have presented</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51</td>
<td>shall have collected</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Indirect Object</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>the audience</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>the children</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>44</td>
<td>the victims</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>the student</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>63</td>
<td>the citizens</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.18</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| 4. Object                        |         |                                        |     |                |     |                |            |               |
| 4.1. Noun (S)                    | 8       | fish                                   | 0.5  | MD             | 0.57 | MD             | 0.54       | MD           |
| 4.2. Noun (P)                    | 32      | cargoes                                | 0.25 | Difficult      | 0.57 | MD             | 0.41       | MD           |
| 4.3. Infinitive                  | 18      | to sing                                | 0.08 | Very difficult | 0.29 | Difficult      | 0.11       | Difficult    |
| 4.4. Gerund                      | 29      | watching tv shows                      | 0.33 | MD             | 0.29 | MD             | 0.31       | MD           |
| 4.5. Noun Clause                 | 43      | what is in his mind                    | 0.42 | MD             | 0.57 | MD             | 0.50       | MD           |
| Category Mean                    |         |                                        | 0.32 | MD             | 0.43 | MD             | 0.37       | MD           |

| 5. Subjective Complement         |         |                                        |     |                |     |                |            |               |
| 5.1. Noun                        | 46      | witness                                | 0.33 | MD             | 0.14 | Difficult      | 0.24       | Difficult    |
| 5.2. Adjective                   | 52      | golden                                 | 0.25 | Difficult      | 0.43 | MD             | 0.34       | MD           |
|                                  | 54      | easy                                   | 0.33 | MD             | 0.29 | MD             | 0.31       | MD           |
| 5.3. Noun Clause                 | 49      | that the typhoon will change direction | 0.25 | Difficult      | 0.57 | MD             | 0.41       | MD           |
| 5.4. Infinitive                  | 42      | to print their name legibly            | 0.17 | Difficult      | 0.29 | MD             | 0.23       | Difficult    |
| Category Mean                    |         |                                        | 0.27 | MD             | 0.34 | MD             | 0.31       |               |

| 6. Objective Complement          |         |                                        |     |                |     |                |            |               |
| 6.1. Noun                        | 10      | man                                    | 0.25 | Difficult      | 0.43 | MD             | 0.34       | MD           |
|                                  | 31      | Brandy                                 | 0.42 | MD             | 0.29 | MD             | 0.36       | MD           |
|                                  | 45      | impostor                               | 0.33 | MD             | 0.29 | MD             | 0.31       | MD           |
| 6.2. Adjective                   | 13      | wiser                                  | 0.33 | MD             | 0.43 | MD             | 0.38       | MD           |
|                                  | 39      | brighter                               | 0.42 | MD             | 0.43 | MD             | 0.43       | MD           |
| Category Mean                    |         |                                        | 0.35 | MD             | 0.37 | MD             | 0.36       | MD           |
### 7. Object of the Preposition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Word / Phrase / Clause</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7.1. Noun</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>residents</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>55</td>
<td>field</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.2. Gerund</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>studying</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41</td>
<td>banning</td>
<td>0.5</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.3. Infinitive</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>to return</td>
<td>0.08</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.4. Noun Clause</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>whom Lea sat at dinner</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Category Mean**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.60</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>MD</td>
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</table>

### 8. Appositive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Word / Phrase / Clause</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.1. Adjective</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>dreadful</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.2. Prep Phrase</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>toward the roof</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.07</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.3. Present Par</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>falling</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.4. Past Participle</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>disappointed</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.5. Infinitive</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>to visit</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Category Mean**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>MD</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### 9. Modifier

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Function of Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Word / Phrase / Clause</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9.6. Adverb</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>quickly</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.45</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.7. Adjectival Clause</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>who are generally active and restless</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.14</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.16</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.8. Adverbial Phrase Clause</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>through the manuscripts</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>Very difficult</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.9. Adverbial Clause</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>since she was a little girl</td>
<td>0.17</td>
<td>Difficult</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Category Mean**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ID</th>
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<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.19</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>0.30</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>MD</td>
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</table>

**Overall Index of difficulty in the analysis of function**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MD – Moderately Difficult  
ID – Index of Difficulty  
G1 – Group 1  
G2 – Group 2

Table 1h presents the index of difficulty of respondents in the analysis of function syntactic structure where the respondents got an overall index of difficulty as moderately difficult. There are nine functions of syntactic structures: subject, verb, object, subjective complement, objective complement, object of the preposition, appositive and modifier. The subject may be a noun, an
infinitive, a gerund, an adjective and a noun clause. All of these forms of syntactic structures may function as a subject. As a whole, the respondents found this area as moderately difficult. The verb is represented by 9 conjugated forms of verb: simple present tense singular, simple present tense plural, simple past tense, simple future tense, present progressive singular, present progressive plural, past progressive singular, past progressive plural, future progressive, present perfect singular, present perfect plural, past perfect, future perfect. The overall index of difficulty of respondents is moderately difficult. On the other hand, the respondents’ difficulty index on indirect object is difficult. This is associated with the SVIOO sentence pattern. The subject-verb-indirect object, and object word order is not common among the respondents.

The following forms were used to illustrate object like nouns in singular form and plural form, one infinitive, one gerund and one noun clause. The examples were used in sentence pattern SVO. The respondents find it difficult to identify an infinitive phrase used as an object.

In the area of subjective complement category, the respondents find number 46 as difficult. The word used was witness used as a subjective complement. There was an intervening word (only) between the linking verb and the complement so the respondents were confused. The respondents failed to see the linking verb as a marker to subjective complement.

Along objective complement, the respondents found the sentences to be moderately difficult. Number 10 was found difficult for group 1 because the sentence pattern used was SVOOC. This sentence pattern is seldom used in daily conversations since this structure is basically long.

Other function of syntactic structure is the object of the preposition. Noun, gerund, infinitive and noun clause can become object of the preposition. The respondents’ difficulty index is moderately difficult. However, group 1 found sentence number 4 using gerund as an object of the preposition and number 35 using noun as object of the preposition, to be difficult. The appositive is easy to identify with the comma markers between the noun being describe then a comma before the verb. This structure was not familiar to the respondents. Hence, they found appositive as moderately difficult. Lastly, modifiers have many forms: these may either be adjective, prepositional phrase, present participle, past participle, infinitive, adverb, adjectival clause, adverbial clause, adverbial phrase and adverbial clause. Among these, the prepositional phrase, infinitive, adjectival and adverbial phrase used as a modifier are found by the respondents to be difficult, very difficult, difficult and very difficult respectively. The case of prepositional phrase, the marker used was toward, this preposition is either unpopular to the respondents or they
were confused in the word order. All other clauses were difficult because the respondents lost the basic framework of sentences with the intervening clauses. As a whole, the respondents’ index of difficulty is moderately difficult.

**Table 1i. Summary Index of difficulty in the analysis of form and function of syntactic structure**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Syntactic Structures</th>
<th>ID Group 1</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
<th>ID Group 2</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
<th>Overall ID</th>
<th>Descriptive Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Form</td>
<td>0.40</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Function</td>
<td>0.31</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.42</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall Mean</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td>MD</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>MD</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

MD – Moderately difficult

This table presents the index of difficulty of respondents in the analysis of form and function of syntactic structure as moderately difficult. This means that all respondents, regardless of their mastery level, find the same difficulty level.

**Table 2a. Test of significant difference of the Index of Mastery of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form of syntactic structures**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P–value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>81.5050</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>85.7129</td>
<td>-1.36 ns</td>
<td>.1914</td>
<td>Do not reject Ho</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

ns – not significant

Since the computed p-value of 0.1914 is greater than the alpha of 0.05, the null hypothesis stated earlier is not rejected. This implies that there is no significant difference of the Index of Mastery of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form of syntactic structures. The two groups equally master the forms.

**Table 2b. Test of significant difference of the Index of Mastery of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of function of syntactic structures.**
Group  Mean  T  P–value  Decision
Group 1  64.8142  -2.35*  .0318  Reject Ho
Group 2  78.4571  

* - significant at .05 level of significance

Since the computed p-value of 0.0318 is less than the alpha of 0.05, the null hypothesis stated earlier is rejected. Hence, the alternative hypothesis is accepted. This implies that there is a significant difference of the Index of Mastery of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of function of syntactic structures. This means that group 2 has better mastery level than group 1.

**Table 3a. Test of significant difference of the Index of Difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form of syntactic structures.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P–value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>0.3995</td>
<td>-4.14**</td>
<td>.0001</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>0.4853</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** - significant at .01 level of significance

Since the computed p-value of 0.0001 is less than the alpha of 0.05, the null hypothesis stated earlier is rejected. Hence, alternative hypothesis is accepted. This implies that there a significant difference of the Index of Difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of form of syntactic structures.

This also means that Group 2 performs better in the analysis of form of syntactic structure. Since the EFL students come from different locations of Vietnam, their level of proficiency and background contribute to the present mastery level of English.

**Table 3b. Test of significant difference of the Index of Difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of function of syntactic structures.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>P–value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group 1</td>
<td>0.3307</td>
<td>-3.85</td>
<td>.0005</td>
<td>Reject Ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group 2</td>
<td>0.4354</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* - significant at .05 level of significance
Since the computed p-value of 0.0005 which is less than the alpha of 0.05, the null hypothesis stated earlier is rejected. Hence, alternative hypothesis is accepted. This implies that there is a significant difference of the Index of Difficulty of the 2 groups of respondents in the analysis of function of syntactic structures. This implies that the level of mastery and level of difficulty of respondents significantly differ with each other. This is attributed to the exposure of some EFL students having enrolled their master’s degree outside Vietnam. This may have contributed to their proficiency level in the analysis of syntactic structures.

Conclusions
Based on the findings of this study, the following conclusions were drawn:

The respondents master the content words and phrases but they cannot master clauses on the basis of form or of markers present in them. Each word, phrase or clause has its own distinguishing form yet these may confuse them. Moreover, they find difficulty in determining the function of the same structures based on the position they occupy in sentences. Though in most areas, group 2 are better in analyzing the form and function of syntactic structure. On the whole they are not better than group 1. They have similar abilities in this aspect of grammatical analysis. The concept of form and function of content words, phrases and clauses needed in grammatical analysis is obscure to the respondents. They may not have been emphasized in the teaching process, or they may have already forgotten since their mean age is 34. Since the research was conducted prior to the respondents’ official classroom instruction in the doctorate program, post-test may be undertaken to validate their performance in the analysis of syntactic structure.

Recommendations
Follow up study should be conducted as a post-test to the 2 groups of respondents to measure their improvement or mastery on syntax. Enhancement program is recommended to be given to the next group respondents focusing on form and function of content words, phrases and clauses. A further study should be conducted to assess the teaching of major subject courses of the Graduate School program in Language Education. Grammar in Contemporary English should be reviewed to include improvement of syntactic analysis skills of English major students.
References


Linguistic ethnography in teacher training program: Evidence from onsite training FGD, online Facebook conversation and follow-up classroom observations

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Bioprofile

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Abstract

Guided by the following theories employed in linguistic ethnography studies: Fairclough’s (2003) identity, Chang’s (2012) authorial stance, Goffman’s (1967) face, Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness, Canagarajah’s (2011) translanguaging, I conceptualized this paper with the teacher-training in mind. The research context commenced during a three-day training, I spearheaded as the director, involving 10 teachers and progressed for three months. The main assumption was that teachers would manifest their own identity out of the generation of linguistic modalities taken from FGD, Facebook group conversation and follow-up classroom observations. Consistent with this assumption, I found that teachers elicited the following major linguistic aspects: authorial, politeness, humor, translanguaging, lexical and grammatical categories that indeed helped deduced their unique identity embedded in their own speech community and culture, in particular.

Keywords: linguistic ethnography, language and identity, speech community, authorial stance and translanguaging
Introduction

Teacher training is essential in ensuring that the mission and vision of colleges and universities are achieved and carried out systematically and objectively. The researcher, being the director for Center for Continuing Education (CCE) is closely in contact with teachers and educational administrators in the quest for pedagogical innovation through state-of-the-art training programs as evidenced by its current ISO compliant status. One of the mandates of CCE is to train teachers to be effective educators in the classroom. Given the high demands of K-12 curriculum in the Philippines, it is necessary for this office to prioritize continuous trainings to upgrade teachers’ capabilities particularly here in Western Mindanao. The target training was focused on the senior high school and college’s new general education core courses with the participation of multidisciplinary areas: science, liberal arts, teacher education and physical education.

Along with training goals, performance assessment is also primordial to the management team and the target participants. Being a training management office, it is expected that the training programs offered be evaluated by the participants and to ascertain that the participants like this target teachers in the present study, learned something functional. Participants were expected to apply what they absorbed from the three-day training. Thus, the teachers’ feedback through oral or written output be necessary as performance indicators.

The true test of whether the participants learned something significant was to conduct follow-up classroom observations on the application of the teaching innovations proposed during the training. So, the purpose of the present study was far from just administering self-perceived survey questionnaire. But, to determine how and why teachers implement or not implement suggested teaching approaches. This study delved in deeper on their identity and beliefs and explore further on how they conduct their actual teaching in the classroom. Their beliefs and preconceived notions about education were measured by FGD during the actual training and extended further on a more modern platform of communication structures, the Facebook group page conversation. It is in my conviction that teachers manifest their own identity as belonging to a culture distinct with other professionals.

My view of teachers as being unequivocal from other group of professionals is based on the concept of “speech community.” One of the early conceptualizations of the term speech community was defined by Gumperz (1982):
A speech community is defined in functionalist terms as a system of organized diversity held together by common norms and aspirations...Members of such a community typically vary with respect to certain beliefs and other aspects of behavior. Such variation, which seems irregular when observed at the level of the individual, nonetheless shows systematic regularities at the statistical level of social facts. (p. 24)

This proponent somewhat agreed with Labov’s extensive research into a broader social framework to consider a group as a speech community. But, Gumperz seriously questioned its applicability and proposed exploring how interaction using language comprised social reality. Its classic definition was conceptualized as “linguistic distribution within a social or geographical space” (Gumperz, 1972: 463). The succeeding models considered geographical location that included critical mass as the main criteria for qualifying a group as a speech community. However, Gumperz (1996) argued if meaning depends on practices of interpretation structured within interpersonal system, an individual is socialized in, then the culture and language as composing units are not nations, ethnic groups, etc…but a nexus of interrelating beings.

I see Gumperz’ conceptualization of speech community applicable to the teachers involved in the study. Teachers’ identity as a group, I argue, manifest their own culture and distinct language compared to other professionals. Weedon (1997) posited that language is integral to identity, and vice-versa; thus, language and identity are interrelated. While language provides meaning to social reality, it can also be a medium to account for the sense of being and subjectivity. The argument to Weedon’s framework of identity was it lacked coherence to the model of language use. Fairclough (2003) refined this previous identity framework by proposing identity formation model which basically argued that “what people commit themselves to in texts is an important part of how they identify themselves, texturing of identity” (p.164). For example, examining how individuals used modal verbs, should, must, probably or possibly, Fairclough observed that authors commit themselves to in terms of reality, necessity and obligation. The use of modality would reveal one’s identity as it can be used as attitudinal linguistic markers. I would like to believe that Fairclough’s identity framework can also be translated to oral discourse. Thus, it can be applied to this study to determine what linguistic modality markers were manifested in the teachers’ language and culture.
Literature review

Goffman dramaturgy theory

In the field of studying linguistic interactions, one of the most important concepts developed is the concept of “face” or “facework”. Rooted from the seminal work of Erving Goffman (1967), “face” deals with the idea that people have certain images in which they project during an interaction to achieve a desirable social role. In the words of Goffman himself, he defined face as “the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact” (Goffman, 1967 as cited by Creese & Copland, 2015, p. 20). For instance, a woman may see herself according to the desirable image of her profession such as being eloquent and polite because she wants to fit into social situations. In the production of utterances during a particular social encounter, the interlocutors involved take into consideration their “faces”. So, in addition to the example, the woman can use polite words and intelligent communicative skills because that is the face, she wants people to see of her and thus, project a professional identity.

Erving Goffman also emphasized on the concept of constructing identity in social situations by looking at it with the lenses of dramaturgy. Goffman (1990 as cited by Bullingham & Vasconcelos, 2013, p. 1) stated that during these interactions, individuals take on a role as if they are actors in a theatre wherein they are “conscious of being observed by an audience and will perform to those watching by observing certain rules and social conventions”. In such an event, the actors are in a situation of either “losing” their face or “saving” it because people have “face needs”. This concept can uphold to the idea that teachers act in a similar way wherein the onsite and online FGD serves as a stage for them to project their identity of being good educators.

From this, I drew the idea that in order for teachers to maintain their faces in an educational culture conventions such as the training context, they perform certain linguistic practices evident in distinction in terms of grammatical features, non-grammatical features such as the unconventional use of punctuations, different ways of using lower-cases & upper cases, spoken-like spellings, rapid typing results and repetition of letters, among others. These linguistic practices constitute to how they construct their identity and membership to their speech community at an onsite training venue or online Facebook communication.

Goffman’s theoretical contributions were highly based on real-life, face-to-face interactions observations. In the case of this study, this was particularly concerned with onsite
training and online computer-mediated communication, the researcher noted that Goffman’s framework is relevant and therefore was applicable to studying interactions in actual teacher training and the cyberspace. Bullingham & Vasconcelos (2013) also argued that Goffman’s concepts of identity have extended in a way that the communicative features microblogging technology has provided allow individuals to choose between many options of indicating their identity online.

*Brown & Levinson’s politeness theory*

The Politeness Theory states that people protect, promote, and save “face” on how other people react to their speech (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Coupland & Jaworski, 1999). To enter a social relationship, all people should show acknowledgement of other people’s “face”. Brown and Levinson’s (1987) definition of “face” is a self-image presented in the public that every person asserts for herself/himself. It supports the idea that people try to maintain two types of “face” during an interaction, namely the positive and negative face. The concept of positive face is created out of a person’s undeviating self-image or personality, in a sense that it is the desire of being appreciated and approved to be seen by other people in a positive way that will require certain behaviors.

As for negative face, it talks about not feeling a need to be liked between the people they are interacting with; they think that other people will respect them and think of them as competent and independent. Brown and Levinson (1987) also explained face threatening acts are what represents a threat to other people’s expectations regarding self-image and what type of face is being threatened, such as positive or negative faces. Additionally, they also discussed that the acts that threaten individuals’ positive face pertain to acts which a speaker does not support the person’s self-image or positive face. The acts that threaten negative face pertain to the instances where the person is forced to accept or to reject the future act of the speaker or when the person believe that his or her goods are being taken advantage of.

Cvjetkovic (2010) who investigated the linguistic practices of an internet relay chat group highlights Thornborrow (as cited in Wareing, et. al, 2004) when it comes to relating identity with language. Thornborrow stated that “As with other kinds of social codes which people use to display membership of a social group, like dress codes, certain kinds of linguistic behaviour also signal your identity in relation to a group, as well as your position within it.” (as cited in Wareing, et. Al.,
He adds that being able to show that you can use linguistic terms accordingly in line with the conventions associated with a particular group contribute to the establishment of a person’s membership to it. Upon Cvjetkovic’s (2010) investigation on the linguistic features and practices used by online participants, he then concluded that “language is adapted to the medium and context where it is used” and that any language such as English is subject to this system. Language on computer-mediated communication such as the social media is affected by consequences of social aspects and thus presents a unique and creative representation once it is used on the virtual space. These creativity and peculiarity in the use of language is then associated with how the group negotiates their identity and eventually establish what becomes normal to them.

In a case study by Trzcinska & Nozewski (2017), they explain that social media is a dynamic and slightly open environment where people’s opinions come out. People often use the web to break the silo of silence in presenting their very own individual statements, ideas, feelings, passions or solutions which is a sure assertion of their imaginations about the reality (Trzcinska & Nozewski, 2017). The social media is understood as a communication space that facilitates all attempts to establish the digital fandom.

Discussing discourse and identity on Facebook, Georgalou (2017) stresses on the idea that modern-day socio-cultural arenas such as social networking sites enable individuals to present themselves in multiple, new ways by integrating language with other features made available to them. Georgalou believes in the connection of discourse to the construction of identity of online representations, applying the methodological framework of online ethnography and discourse analysis as it can reveal the everyday activities of the participants and the expression of their identities through language (Gee, 2011; Georgalou, 2017).

*Linguistic ethnography*

Linguistic ethnography holds to the idea that an intimate look at language use produced culturally in a situated society provides the researcher rich and significant insights (UK Linguistic Ethnography Forum, 2004) such as “the mechanisms and dynamics of social and cultural production in everyday activity.” Sapir (1921) in Creese & Copland (2015, p. 14) stated that language and culture are inextricable such as if one is driven to study a culture, one must look at its language. And since Twitter is a place of language, culture and identity, online ethnography will enable the researchers to explore the culture manifested and exemplified by young Filipino K-Pop fans through their communication in tweets.
In a discussion paper articulated by UK Linguistic Ethnographers (2004), they revealed seven characteristics of the methodology of ethnography. Firstly, the methodology looks at the interplay between “strangeness and familiarity”. Researchers who use the method enter a culture or community and thus, understand the activities of the participants which are then reported to outsiders. Second, it investigates the small things that affect the painting of the community’s picture. This helps the researchers to contribute to the generalizations the community has and helps it become relevant. The third characteristic of ethnography is that it focuses on the levels of the socio-cultural processes and meanings behind it. It understands the significance of the community’s practices and interactions. Fourth, ethnography also emphasizes on the patterns of a community’s activities. During the researchers’ involvement in the selected culture, it looked for systems that can eventually help the process of meaning-making of the researcher. Its fifth characteristic is that it is able to sensitize concepts and data. The method allows researchers to be flexible with their enquiries, whatever questions or theories established during the beginning of the research are suggested with directions of “where/which to look”. The next characteristic is that ethnography gives importance on the role of the researchers. It recognises that the researchers have the possibility to produce subjective analysis during the process of the research and this influence the interpretations of the activities of the participants. Lastly, ethnographers have a sense of limitation. The experiences within the selected community are seen as unique and one-time events and this leads the researchers to think that experiences are irreducible.

Linguistic ethnography is a method that examines both social and linguistic processes and thus gives equal attention to how the society and its activities transpire as well as the communication that happens within it. The characteristics of ethnography combines with the same degree of attention to the linguistic aspect influence the process of language’s impact on social processes and vice-versa (Copland, Creese, Rock & Shaw, 2015).

Precisely, fundamental to the purpose of this present study was to find meaning in both the processes of language and culture embedded in the teachers’ social interactions. This aspect of theorizing pedagogical research is in fact least considered. Most studies would perhaps look into performance assessment indicators of the actual training analyzing the average performance of teachers based on subjective rating scales. Few studies would really delve into the culture behind what teachers believe about teaching and how they establish their identity with colleagues during the training, in Facebook group page and with their students in the classroom. Individual reality
would sometimes be more meaningful than an average truth in the case of teachers as they embody “language and culture” constructs that cannot be simply reduced or simplified. Teaching, as a variable, is profoundly complex. Its construct may incorporate intricacies of communication structures that can lead us to their true identity as social beings.

**Authorial identity**

In this study, this rhetorical concept, I argue, is not limited to writing. Authorial identity was also apparent during FGD. Teachers were observed to manifest that level of “authority” being an “expert” in their field of teaching while they were interacting with other teacher-interlocutors. Teachers would always have answers to questions. Based on observation, teachers do their job on a daily routine. This motoric process may have instilled in their cognitive system that they have mastered the contents and any issues concerning teaching. Thus, the level of authorial identity can be high on teachers compared to other professionals such as engineers who may be quite reserved or tentative in my observation during verbal or written discourse.

**The present study**

The current study is an exploratory study that is inclined to the linguistic ethnographic approach in theorizing social science variables particularly in the educational context. I attempted to determine categorical patterns that served as the basis for the generated communication structures, I argued, to be embedded in the teachers’ speech community or in a broader context, their culture as an organization and not merely based on their average quantitative perceptions, skills or abilities. This study pre-selected 136 teachers who were required by administration to attend a 3 day-training on curriculum enhancement. Out of the 136 teachers belonging to multi-disciplinary fields of expertise enrolled in this training, only 10 teachers agreed to be participants in this study. After the 3-day training, a follow up classroom observation was conducted for 3 months with 2 hours contact per teacher in a week. So, the researcher observed 2 teachers per day in a week. Additionally, the following languages emerged in the data: Chabacano, Bisaya, Filipino, and English.
**Chabacano**

Chabacano, whose variant is commonly known as Zamboangueño, is considered as a Philippine Creole Spanish (Lipski, 1987). According to Barrios (2006), Zamboangueño words are predominantly derived from Spanish such as number of words, days, weeks, months and body parts. This is supported by Crowley’s (1997) hypothesis of creoles that the superstrate language or the lexifier language (e.g. Spanish) of a creole contributes to its vocabulary.

Based on the dominance of the superstrate or the lexifier language Spanish in Zamboangueño, it is safe to say that this creole still falls under the Romance language family. This makes Chabacano different from Filipino which belong to Austronesian languages. Romance and Austronesian languages are different in terms of lexical or orthographic representation (Ethnologue.com). However, research showed that substrates of Austronesian origin (i.e. Bisaya and Sama) influence the lexicon of Chabacano (Rubino, 2005) and that substrates of Austronesian traces (i.e. Tagalog & Cebuano) also influence the Chabacano pronouns and morpho-syntactic structure (Barrios, 2006). In similar vein, Frake (1971; 1980) pointed out that Zamboanga Chabacano has been enriched with the inclusion of Cebuano, Ilonggo, Sama, and Subanen words. Frake also noted that the source of the Philippine Austronesian elements in Zamboanga Chabacano were the Bisayan languages, more closely related to modern standard Hiligaynon than to the modern standard Cebuano which Zamboangueño speakers are now in contact (Madrazo & Bernardo, 2012, 2018).

**Bisaya**

Bisaya is a variant of Cebuano. It is widespread in parts of Luzon and Mindanao and throughout Visayas regions. Bisaya belongs to the Austronesian, Malayo-Polynesian language descent (Ethnologue, 2019). It is now considered as a major language spoken in the Philippines with approximately a million speakers. It is also considered a transported language in Zamboanga City just like Filipino. Bisaya is spoken by a number of people whose ancestors were expatriates from Visayas during the Spanish and American occupations (Franco, 2001). Bisaya speakers utilize it primordially at their residence and in various communities and public places. But it is not used in formal instruction in schools or in the city’s linguistic landscapes (Delos Reyes, 2018).
Filipino

The Filipino used in the present study is derived from Austronesian language family of a Malayo-Polynesian origin, particularly known as Tagalog. According to Gonzales (1998), Filipino, based on the 1987 Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines, is a language enriched with elements (largely vocabulary) from the other Philippine languages and non-local languages used in the Philippines. The structural base of Filipino is Tagalog, a language spoken in Manila and in the provinces of Rizal, Cavite, Laguna, Batangas, Quezon, Camarines Norte to the south of Manila and Bulacan, Nueva Ecija, and part of Tarlac to the north of Manila. Filipino is now considered as the national language being taught in the entire Philippines from pre-school, primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education by virtue of the Philippine Bilingual Education Policy (BPE) of 1974.

English

The English language used in the study is based on American English that is of Germanic language family descent (ethnologue.com). English has long been existed in the Philippine educational system since the 1900s. English was first implemented as the medium of instruction when US President William McKinley issued a letter of instruction to the Philippine Commission in April 1, 1900 (Bernardo, 2004). Since then, English has been used as medium of instruction for all content learning areas. But when the BPE was implemented in 1974, Pilipino and English became the media of instruction in elementary and high school. The subjects were divided into the English domain (English communication arts, mathematics, science) and Pilipino domain (Pilipino communication arts, social studies, history).

In 1987, BPE was recast under the Department of Education Culture and Sports. The role of Filipino was emphasized to be the language of literacy and scholarly discourse while English was narrowly defined as the international language and the non-exclusive language of science and technology. It also mandated higher education schools to spearhead in ‘intellectualizing’ Filipino (Bernardo, 2004, 2007). To date, however, English is still dominating the Philippine educational system, being the medium of instruction for the major content learning areas from pre-school, primary, secondary and tertiary levels.
Objective and significance

The main objective is to determine any usual and unusual linguistic patterns existing in the teachers' language that can help explain their unique identity. It is essential to identify this unique identity as it can lead us to understand how and why they believe a teaching approach to be effective or ineffective. This academic conversation matters in the implementation of any pedagogical programs valorized by the Center for Continuing Education where I serve as the director.

Method

Design

This study is exploratory in nature. Linguistic ethnography is considered a qualitative design that aims to allow data to emerge on the process of actual FGD for example during onsite training, online Facebook conversation and follow-up classroom observations.

Instrument

Focus group discussion guide. It is prompted by the activities or exercises the trainer provided after the lecture. The proceedings were recorded during onsite and online Facebook interaction. The researcher seats as a participant to prompt or activate points or issues for discussion.

Classroom observation guide. It ensures that only relevant points are documented that are coherent with the training’s scope.

The data

All recorded data is transcribed from the onsite training discussion, online Facebook conversation and follow-up classroom observation. Before the data was uploaded using NVivo 12 Plus software for data organization, the transcripts were formatted with headings, the general observed categories generated using MS Word. These headings composed of categories were instantly detected by NVivo for automatic coding of relevant nodes. The nodes in this case were T-units defined by Castro (2004) and C. Madrazo (forthcoming) as 1 independent clause and its corresponding subordinate clause/s.
The organized data processed via NVivo were made ready for close inspection of usual and unusual linguistic patterns that shed light to the meaning and identity of the teachers. These patterns helped explain how and why they acted in a given pedagogical environment. In sum, the total number of T-units generated were 30,256 (Onsite training venue), 58,734 (Classroom observation) and 23,871 (Online Facebook conversation).

**Results and Discussion**

There were six major aspects presented in this segment: teachers’ authorial identity, being polite, translanguaging, being humorous, lexical identity, and grammatical identity. These six broad linguistic aspects were found in both oral and written discourse among the teachers. The latter two categories: lexical and grammatical identities can be intertwined with the former aspects, but these two categories had also specific features that could help justify that teachers manifested their own culture. It can also be observed that all these aspects can be interrelated.

**Authorial identity**

In this study, this rhetorical concept, I argue, was not only limited to writing. Authorial identity was also apparent during FGD. Teachers were observed to manifest that level of “authority” being “expert” in their field of teaching while they were interacting with other interlocutors. Teachers would always have answers to questions. Based on observation, teachers do their job on a daily routine. This motoric process may have instilled in their cognitive system that they have mastered the contents and any issues concerning any education. Thus, the level of authorial identity could be high on teachers compared to other professionals such as engineers, medical or social workers. This assumption is substantiated by Fairclough (2003) that modality can indeed determine one’s identity. Given that teachers were exposed to public speaking on a daily routine, it was possible that said modality markers were customarily used during oral or written discourse.

The transcript below was a best example of this assumption. Observe how the teachers’ authorial identity was revealed. Participant 1 in T-unit 8 started the issue on traditional teaching. He admitted he practiced traditional approach because it was time-efficient and could allow him to establish control in class. It was evident in this FGD that the level of being argumentative was high on the questioning remark of participant 3 in T-unit 14 about need to explain clearly given
the students’ lack of comprehension skills. Same is true with the question of participant 5 asking about the source. Additionally, the emphatic verb “does” T-unit 25 and T-unit 26 by participant 6 is high level argumentative attitudinal marker.

**Traditional teaching approach**

I think…. ahhh…maybe hindi naman talaga masama ang [it’s not really that bad] lecturing method, kase ako mas [ time-efficient and my control ako sa I have] students [P1, T8]. For me…since I graduated BSEd, we’re trained to use the modern approach where…ahh students are encouraged to talk rather than the teachers …ahh doing most of the talking [P2, T13]

So, what’s wrong with teachers speaking? [P3, T14] Aren’t we supposed to explain things clearly given their very limited understanding of what they read? [P3, T15]

Well, actually…ahhh…It’s like this, according to research, in class where teachers dominate most of the talking, minimal learning occurs [P4, T24]

What’s your source? [P5, T25]

Wait, wait, wait, I don’t need to cite sources in this line of discussion ……which leads me to the point that …that it is a common knowledge. My experience is factual same with my observation. [P6, T25]

Do I need to explain here that modern methods…ahhh? far outweigh the benefits of traditional methods. [P6, T26]

Maybe it depends on what type of personalities in the classroom. For the bright students…. yes, you can leave them with exercises with just a few explanations. [P7, T38]

Other teachers may also be tentative in advancing their arguments. Participant 7 in T-unit 38 was quite tentative in advancing her point with the use of hedging device, *may* and the lexical item, *depends*. The use of *depends* was an indication of tentativeness in an utterance.

Chang (2012) utilized the concept authorial identity in L2 writing research and analyzed the moves in writing an introduction following Swales’ (2004) CARS model. The authorial stance categories include *high argumentative, non-argumentative, moderately argumentative* and *tentative*—which is by nature interactional resources relative to Hyland’s (2010) boosters and *hedges*. These authorial stance categories can also be related to the utterance of the teachers in the
FGD. As pointed above, part of the teachers’ identity is being argumentative particularly in this pedagogical training context.

**Being polite**

The transcript above showed how teachers save their “face” amidst advancing their points pertaining to teaching approaches. Taking into account the entirety of the data, it is safe to say that only a few would really argue aggressively. Aggressive argument for Brown and Levinson (1987) was actually taking the risk in presenting one’s face during FGD, FB conversation and classroom observation. The classroom observation scenario was quite different compared to FGD and FB conversation because students, in general, were not aggressive in presenting their face to the teacher. Similarly, teachers need not be too highly argumentative with their students since very few asked questions. If queries were asked, students would stick to tentative modality markers like may, could, would and the like. No student I observed argued critically with the teachers.

**Translanguaging in formal and informal teachers’ identity**

As presented above, there was an occurrence of translanguaging on the part of participant 1, shifting from Tagalog to English. Translanguaging is the shifting from one language to the other for a particular purpose based on a given contexts. Research studies on translanguaging focused more on ESL classroom with bilingual or multilingual speakers interacting with each other for teaching and learning goals (Canagarajah, 2011; Delos Reyes, 2018). Translanguaging is based on a holistic approach in theorizing bilingualism or multilingualism treating languages as a unified system that allows one to communicate in a given oral or written discourse. In contrast, code switching reductionist framework in bilingualism research simplifies two languages into two separate systems. I preferred to adapt translanguaging rather than code-switching because the latter viewed languages as two or three or more different linguistic systems that situated one language to be superior to the other inferior language/s. Early theorizing in the field of bilingualism would tend to degrade the minority language/s that claimed to be causing a bilingual student’s confusion thereby resulting in deficiency in the target L2 learning. The code-switching approach in theorizing bilingualism postulated the notion of “named language” resulting in the perceived inequality between two monolingualisms (Garcia & Lin, 2016).
Most of translanguaging occurred in the Facebook (FB) conversation after the onsite training. Considered as a social media platform, this group page allows a free-flow expression of ideas, thoughts, beliefs or feelings about what transpired during the training and their actual teaching in their respective classrooms after the training. An example of textual translanguaging is articulated in the sample transcript below:

Researcher: Good evening dear teachers! How are you all doing? So, how’s day 1 of our training? [T1]
Participant 8: Good evening po Ma’am! [T-unit 2] Okay lang po Ma’am! [I am okay] [T3] Kumusta po? [How are you]
Researcher: Okay lang naman busy lang sa [I am okay] [A bit busy in] preparation. [T4]
Participant 2: Sigurao tu participant 8 okay lang tu? [Are you sure you’re okay?] [T5]
Daw ta uli gayod yo de tu sangre tan tulo na naris. [I can seem to smell blood running from your nose]. NOSEBLEED!!! Hahaha!

As compared to FGD conducted during the parallel session of the training, FB group page was an informal venue to converse one’s thoughts with fellow teachers who were also engaged in airing whatever that kept the conversation going, serious or not so serious issues. I observed that as days progressed, teachers became more open, spontaneous and expressive. I sensed that one purpose of code-switching, be it intrasentential or intersentential, is to express humor especially if uttered in Chabacano or Bisaya.

**Being humorous**

Below is another transcript showing humor during FB conversation between participant 3 and participant 8 in T5901 to T5906. The utterance of participant 3 was an example of intrasentential and participant 8’s was intersentential. The former occurs when only certain grammatical categories are shifted from L1 Bisaya to L2 English. The latter happens when the entire sentence is shifted to first language. Or it could also be that “superwoman” is a borrowed term if the language of interest is just L1 Bisaya. Hence, translanguaging identity of teachers can be in the form of code-switching and borrowing as well.

Participant 3: You are really AMAZING! [T5901] Murag si Super Woman ka man ’day? [You’re like…girl] [T5902]
Participant 8: Dili man uy. [Oh, not really!] [T5903] Aku lang gikugihan. [I just work very hard] [T5904]
Participant 3: Yes, right Ma’am! [T5905] Tinuud pud. [I couldn’t agree more] [T5906]

**Lexical identity**

One teacher identity that elicited in the conversations was being humorous as evidenced by participant 2 in T-unit 5. “Nosebleed” is a typical English word used by Filipinos to convey exaggeration. For American speakers, the term “nosebleed” is not typically used in hilarious expressions. The word “nosebleed” has been repeatedly used for 38 times during FGD and FB conversation when the issue is leading to workload in teaching, paper reports, research and graduate schooling. Consider the sample transcript from participant 7 in T-unit 378-381 of FB conversation:

Participant 7: Bien nosebleed gayot mareng! [This is too much gay!] [T378] Nuay por acabar el maga reports and meetings. [Never ending...] [T379] Daw man resign ya lang gaha yo. [T380] Hahaha! [T381]

Another interesting lexical item that is used to generate humor is the word “mareng” in T378. It is not used as a stereotyping marker, but it is simply used by Chabacano speakers to convey a joyful expression coming from mirthful people in their ways regardless of gender types.

In its modern textual form, “hahaha” is an expression of laughter now being coined by millennial as LOL which means laugh out loud. But, given the adult age bracket in this group, it is quite acceptable why only 5 occurrences came out during the conversation. Generally, “hahaha” or its longer form was expressed. Teachers, I observed would prefer to write the complete word rather than the acronym or the clipping form of the term like the word “vacation.” No occurrence of the modern term vacay was used. Perhaps, again the influence of that sense of being an authority or expert in their writing, would still lead to projecting the correct preference of lexical items despite the informal platform like Facebook group page.

Positive words like PERFECT or OUTSTANDING, all letters capitalized were frequently elicited for every statement of achievement or success. For instance, consider participant 10 remark to participant 3 during FB conversation in T-units 278:
Participant 3: Done. [T278] Yup, submitted all my reports and passed quarterly observations with flying colors. [T279]. Hahaha! [T280].

Participant 10: PERFECT! [T281] man gayot tu! How to be you po? OUTSTANDING!

All capitalized letterform was commonly used by teachers when expressing mirthful surprise like PERFECT in T281 or the word “WOW,” an intense or exaggerated utterance like WHAT? not only in cases when anger is expressed. This leads us to the point that even in informal virtual venue like FB, reactions such as in the use of word “WHAT?” in all capitalized form, can also be emerged in the text. From hilarity to being serious, a dramatic issue was raised about depression among teachers in the FB group conversation. Refer to the sample transcript below:

Participant 1: WHAT! Wait, wait Ma’am. Was it confirmed that the teacher committed a suicide [T4709]?

Participant 2: Well, I heard about it over the news and some friends. Depression was the cause. [T4710]

In my observation, teachers in many cases in the data both oral and textual, would tend to shift to English from their L1 Chabacano or L1 Bisaya when the issue being discussed was profoundly serious even if the platform is informal.

**Grammatical identity**

The sample transcript mentioned above on intrasential and intersential code-switching features were evidence of the teachers’ grammaticality. The common patterns elicited in this communicative structure were basis to consider that teachers projected their own grammatical markers reflective on their culture. But, during the classroom observation, there were minimal cases of translanguaging. The possible reasons why there were few occurrences of code-switching would be: (a) teachers are discouraged by their superiors as straight English or straight Filipino is required in the formal educational context teaching science, math, and languages; (b) the observer-researcher may have constantly intimidated the teachers when I come in to observe their classes, albeit, I did not give any instructions as regards prescribed language or languages to be utilized during the observation process. Few teachers resulted in translanguaging. There were few instances when a teacher needed to simplify scientific concepts or mathematical problems by translating some difficult terms just like a language teacher in Filipino or English.
It is interesting to note that teachers were well-verse on shifting to the formal grammar or informal grammar depending on what contexts. I observed that teachers while they taught in the classroom were using formal standard English. But they tend to be quite informal or colloquial in FB group page, depending of course on the issue being discussed. As pointed out earlier, they tended to switch to English when serious issues were discussed. When this happened, standard formal English was manifested from the teachers.

General implications

Quantifying authorial stance, politeness, humor, translanguage, lexical or grammatical features may be misleading. Hence, this exploratory qualitative study was conducted to analyze usual and unusual categorical patterns that emerged out of their meaningful discussions about a wide array of issues concerning teaching approaches and their applications in actual teaching contexts. The purpose of the study was not to count frequencies that could lead us to assume that teachers were high argumentative in nature, albeit, they tended to show authorial markers like do, should, must and the like. It would be illogical to conclude that teachers were highly argumentative on the basis, for example, of 58 occurrences when in fact they elicited 54 features of being tentative and 50 occurrences of being moderately argumentative. A teacher may be highly argumentative on one issue but may be tentative on another controversy. In essence, the point of analyzing the teachers’ authorial stance was to determine why they do believe a teaching approach to be effective and ineffective. These beliefs and preconceived notions are necessary to understand with authenticity what has been actually practiced and transpired in their own respective classrooms rather than just prescribing immediately the hegemony of educational principles from the West—without considering what the actual teaching and learning contexts is for them. So, their authorial identity and voice mattered in this study.

The data extracted several suppositions from basic arguments between traditional vs. communicative approach in teaching language, science, mathematics, and education to critical views about content-based evaluation vs. performance-based assessment and basic thinking skills against critical thinking skills. Despite all these critical pedagogical issues, teachers were able to advance their arguments with poise. Their degree or level of authorial stance mattered, be it in oral or written discourse, as it was necessary for them to save their “face” to remain polite even if they already seemed moderately argumentative. But a highly argumentative teacher in this study may
have sacrificed his politeness when he projected a dominant and aggressing face. A few of these instances occurred regarding dominance face projection. Mostly, teachers were tentative or moderately argumentative. A few occurrences for being non-argumentative was observed. Teachers expressed attitudinal markers like hedges or boosters in arguing their propositional content. With the high intensity of debating during oral or written discourse, teachers manifested their being humorous especially in FB group conversation as seen in their translanguaging, lexical and grammatical identity.

Further, despite all the dilemmas faced by teachers nationwide nowadays—from economics to psychological—teachers are observed to be resilient still. But the challenges confronting the welfare of teachers for authorities concerned is now in question because of the recent increase of depression and suicide cases reported in online news and reliable professional blogsites. Given the limited income and tons of daily workload, teachers in this study still find themselves to be mirthful as evidenced by their humorous identity. That joyful nature of teachers can be their fuel to wake up in the morning and perform their best with their students as their audience.

In conclusion, I found six interrelated main linguistic aspects: authorial identity, politeness, humor, translanguaging, lexico-semantic identity and grammatical identity that emerged from both oral and written discourse. Out of these six major linguistic categories, I discovered that teachers who appear to be critical about teaching innovative methods and strategies and who appeared to be constantly complaining about several issues from lack of instructional materials to meager salary compensation, were obedient teachers. They seemed to follow the innovative curriculum introduced to them during the training such as communicative approach in teaching, modern methods in teaching such as the use of multi-modal strategies and the performance assessment. Students were observed to be responding to the innovations implemented in class as evidenced by consistent oral participation and performance on tasks like roleplaying in language classes, investigative documentary oral reporting in science classes and real-life problem solving using authentic materials for algebraic and geometric computations. All the 10 teacher-participants manifested good communication skills in the classroom. There were only relatively few occurrences of translanguaging particularly among science, mathematics and physical education teachers. There was a conscious effort among language teachers to enunciate
words correctly in Filipino or in English. Perhaps, my presence as the observer, may have altered
their actual nature in class.

Future study along this line of inquiry may look into a possible mixed method approach to
further theorize on the presence of these linguistic modalities among teachers. For example, the
inclusion of quantitative variables using appropriate statistics to validate if teachers do really differ
in their authorial stance, politeness, humor, translanguaging, lexical and grammatical identities.
Perhaps, increase the number of samples to warrant the use of inferential statistics.

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English Learning Motivation and Self-Efficacy of Filipino Senior High School Students

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Abstract
The present study is an attempt to examine how the two psychological constructs, motivation and self-efficacy, work among Filipino ESL learners. Using two instruments, English Learning Motivation Scale and English Self-Efficacy Scale, the study reports the levels of English learning motivation and self-efficacy of 160 Grade 12 senior high school students in a city in Nueva Ecija. Differences on motivation and self-efficacy levels were also examined in terms of participants’ gender and academic tracks. Finally, the relationship between motivation and self-efficacy was also explored. Results present a challenge among ESL teachers and curriculum planners on how to come up with pedagogical programs, both in the micro and the macro-levels, that will be responsive to students’ levels of English motivation and self-efficacy.

Keywords: English learning motivation, self-efficacy, gender, academic tracks
1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Attitudes toward the learning situation refer to the individual’s reaction to anything associated with the immediate context in which the language is taught. It goes without saying that the constructs of “motivation” and “self-efficacy” have always been emphasized in the academic setting. Owing to this fact, psychologists and educators have long considered motivation and self-efficacy as predictors of students’ achievement and learning which in turn contribute considerably to students’ performance (Graham & Weiner, 1996; Bandura & Locke, 2003; Pajares, 1996). Both motivation and self-efficacy are driving forces that make people pursue a goal and overcome obstacles because people with higher motivation and self-efficacy do their best and do not easily give up when confronted with difficulties (Ersanli, 2015). Motivation consists of the internal and external factors that stimulate the desire to attain a goal, while the belief in one’s capabilities to carry out, organize and perform a task successfully refers to self-efficacy.

In the field of language learning, a number of perspectives and issues have been developed to differentiate motivation types. Gardner and Lambert (1973 as cited in Chung, 2013) identified and proposed integrative and instrumental motivation as two kinds of motivation related to second language learning. Integrative motivation reflects the learners’ desire or willingness to master the target language for knowing more about the target culture, while instrumental motivation places emphasis on the practical value and advantages of learning a new language.

Gholami, Allahyar and Rafik-Galea (2012) in their quantitative study surveyed high school students and identified that the motivation type dominant among the students was the instrumental orientation. Likewise, Basco and Han (2016) also found the same motivational orientation among high school students on the results of the studies of Tsui and Chang (2013) and Wang (2010) that most of the learners were more likely to have instrumental motivation than integrative motivation when it comes to learning English. Further, Rodchamnan (2005) also found that students are motivated to learn English because they realize that they can find a job easily and can earn much money if they are competent in English.

Research findings from several academic domains have demonstrated that students’ judgments of their own academic capabilities or self-efficacy beliefs influence their academic behaviors and performances (Ayoobiyani & Soleimani, 2015). According to Ersanli (2015), researchers like Pajares (1996), Jackson (2002), Ching (2002), Margolis and McCabe (2003) agree
on the idea that individuals who perceive themselves capable on a given task will probably engage more than when they do not feel themselves competent enough. Therefore, higher levels of self-efficacy will lead to learners’ persistence on tasks to overcome difficulties. Studies have shown that students who have a higher level of self-efficacy tend to have more success in second language learning.

Researchers (Bandura, 2002, as cited in Bandura & Locke, 2003; Pajares, 1996; Bandura & Schunk, 1981, as cited in Dornyei, 2001) found increased self-efficacy to positively influence one’s choice of task, effort in completing a task, and endurance in mastering a task. Shi (2016, as cited in Tsao, Tseng & Wang, 2017) reviewed empirical research in the ESL and EFL settings done in the last 10 years and found that learners with high self-efficacy have performed better in academic, utilized more learning strategies and maintained healthy traits.

In the western and EFL contexts, English learning motivation and self-efficacy have been thoroughly studied in the past decade, yet limited studies have been conducted to determine how the two constructs are applied to Filipino ESL Learners. Determining the levels of English learning motivation and self-efficacy, the relationship between these two equally prominent determiners on second language learning proficiency as well as their differences when it comes to senior high school’s genders and academic tracks seem to be worth exploring to help English teachers gain better understanding of the reasons underlying learners’ varying levels of motivation and self-efficacy, and thus may help teachers design pedagogical activities responsive to learners’ motivation and self-efficacy levels.

1.2 Research Questions

1. What are the participants’ levels of English motivation and English self-efficacy?
2. Is there a significant difference between the male and the female participants in terms of their:
   2.1 English learning motivation; and
   2.2 English self-efficacy?
3. Is there a significant difference on the levels of English motivation and English self-efficacy when participants are grouped according to academic tracks such as ABM, HUMMS, STEM, and TECHVOC?
4. Is there a significant relationship between English motivation and English self-efficacy?

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1 Research Design

The study used the quantitative descriptive research design. Descriptive research was used since the study aims to describe the participants’ levels of English learning motivation and English self-efficacy through collections of quantitative information such as levels of motivation and self-efficacy. It also describes categories of information such as participants’ gender and academic track such as ABM, HUMMS, TECHVOC, and STEM. Finally, it describes pattern of interaction between English motivation and self-efficacy.

2.2 Participants

A total of 160 (equal distribution of males and females) Grade 12 senior high school students enrolled in School Year 2017-2018 in a national high school in Nueva Ecija participated in the study. Equal distribution of 40 participants from the four academic tracks (ABM, HUMMS, STEM, and TECHVOC) was done.

2.3 Research Instruments

2.3.1 English Motivation and Self-Efficacy Scales

The questionnaires for English motivation and self-efficacy were patterned from the motivation and self-efficacy surveys administered by Clement and Kruidenier (1983), Clement et.al (1994) and Ely (1986) in foreign settings.

Both the motivation and self-efficacy scales follow five-point Likert scale. For the motivation scale, Items 1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 10, 11, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18 and 20 pertain to instrumental motivation, while Items 4, 6, 7, 8, 9, 12, 17 and 19 deal with integrative motivation.

For the self-efficacy scale: Items 1-5 deal with listening skills; Items 6-8 focus on speaking skills; Items 9-13 capture readings skills; Items 14-16 deal with writing skills; and Items 17-20 cover participants’ overall communication skills. The self-efficacy scale is also a five-point interval scale (5= Highly Confident; 4= Confident; 3=Moderately Confident; 2= Not Confident; 1= Strongly Not Confident)
2.3.2 Reliability and Validity of the Scales

The similarity between the instruments used in this study and the standardized ones extends only from the usage of a range of one-to-five degree of responses—with one as the lowest and five as the highest. After thorough reading and comparison of the scales used by Kruidenier, Clement et al., and Ely, the researcher were able to frame 20 items each for motivation and self-efficacy. The instruments were then presented to the Director of Center for Testing and Evaluation at Central Luzon State University, a registered psychometrician, for scrutiny and content analysis. In the process of evaluating the questionnaire, all items for motivation scale qualified with minor revisions. Meanwhile, items for self-efficacy scale were grouped and arranged based on the communication skills. Finally, the director also commented on the questionnaire format for easy administration.

To determine the reliability of the two scales, they were pilot tested to 20 non-participants senior high school students of Central Luzon State University. The answers were analyzed using Cronbach’s alpha that resulted in high value for motivation scale ($\alpha = .902$) and self-efficacy scale ($\alpha = .951$).

2.3.3 Data Collection

Prior to the distribution of the questionnaires, the researcher sought permission, through a formal letter from the School Principal. The scales were administered to 160 Grade 12 Senior High School Students.

2.3.4 Data Analysis

Responses in the motivation scale were tabulated and coded as follows: 5 = Strongly Agree; 4 = Agree; 3 = Moderately Agree; 2 = Disagree; 1 = Strongly Disagree. The computed means were interpreted as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean Scores</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.22 – 5.00</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.42 - 4.21</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.62 - 3.41</td>
<td>Moderately Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.80 – 2.61</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00 - 1.79</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Responses in the self-efficacy scale were tabulated and coded as follows: 5 = Highly Confident; 4= Confident; 3= Moderately Confident; 2= Not Confident; 1=Strongly Not Confident. The computed mean scores will be interpreted as follows:

<table>
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<td>4.22 – 5.00</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Confident</td>
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<tr>
<td>2.62 - 3.41</td>
<td>Moderately Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.80 – 2.61</td>
<td>Not Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00 - 1.79</td>
<td>Strongly Not Confident</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To answer the first research question, descriptive statistics such as mean and standard deviation was used. For the second research question, independent sample t-test was used. Research question 3 was answered using One-way ANNOVA. To determine significant relationship between English motivation and self-efficacy, Pearson-r was used.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Participants’ Levels of English Learning Motivation

Presented in Table 1 is the participants’ motivation in learning English. The overall weighted mean is 4.19 (SD= 0.50) with verbal description of “agree”. The obtained value for SD means that the participants’ responses to the questionnaire are close to the mean. Data further reveal that of the 20 items in the English Motivation Scale, Item 1 (English will be helpful for my future career) obtained the highest mean of 4.65, followed by Item 2 (I may need English to be admitted to colleges or universities), Item 4 (English helps me to understand English speaking people and their way of life) and Item 5 (Knowledge of English will be helpful when I take examinations) with similar weighted mean of 4.41. Those items were followed by Item 16 (English helps me to accomplish school requirements) with a mean of 4.40 and Item 20 (English will be useful when I transact businesses in government, economics and school) obtaining a mean of 4.38. The previous items have means ranging from 4.20-5.00 with verbal description of “strongly agree”. The top five items that received highest mean are classified as instrumental motivation. This concurs the findings of Tsui and Chang (2013), and Wang (2010) as cited in
Basco and Han (2016), and Gholami, Allahyar and Rafik-Galea (2012) that most of the learners were more likely to have instrumental motivation, than integrative motivation, when it comes to learning English. Gardner and Lambert (1997, as cited in Chung 2013) noted that instrumental motivation prompts learners to strive to achieve some utilitarian goals, such as getting good grades, passing an examination, securing admittance to university and getting promising and rewarding jobs in the future.

Table 1

*Participants’ Levels of English Learning Motivation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items on English Learning Motivation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. English will be helpful for my future career.</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I may need English to be admitted to colleges or universities.</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.69</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I want to understand English films/videos, pop music or books/magazines.</td>
<td>4.25</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. English helps me to understand English speaking people and their way of life.</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Knowledge of English will be helpful when I take examinations</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I am interested in English culture, history and literature.</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I feel English is an important language in the world.</td>
<td>4.30</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Knowledge of English helps me to perform well in other subjects.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. I feel English is mentally challenging.</td>
<td>4.13</td>
<td>0.85</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I can get pleasure from learning English.</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
11. I gain recognitions when I have good command of English. 3.66 0.84 Agree
12. I am interested in increasing my English vocabulary. 4.28 0.87 Strongly Agree
13. Knowledge of English helps me to become a better person. 4.08 0.91 Agree
14. Skills in the use of English help me to improve my life in the future. 4.16 0.84 Agree
15. It pays to learn and master English because of the many benefits that come along learning it. 4.01 0.83 Agree
16. English helps me to accomplish school requirements. 4.09 0.78 Agree
17. I gain confidence when I know I use the English language well. 4.17 0.79 Agree
18. I need English to get the best job. 4.16 0.84 Agree
19. Learning and mastering the English language is very fulfilling. 4.17 0.78 Agree
20. English will be useful when I transact businesses in government, economics and school. 4.38 0.76 Strongly Agree

**Overall Mean** 4.19 0.50 Agree

Legend: 4.50 - 5.00 Strongly Agree
3.40-4.19 Agree
2.60-3.39 Moderately Agree
1.80-2.59 Disagree
1.00-1.79 Strongly Disagree

The previous result also conforms to the findings of Rodchamnan (2005) that students are motivated to learn English because they realize that they can find a job easily and can earn much money if they are competent in English. It is believed that learners having this motivation type want to learn English because of the practical reason and the benefit they may get from learning
it. In the study, respondents believed that learning English will help them do well during their examinations and in their future undertakings. Many language learners have a clear instrumental motivation for language learning and that is to fulfill a college language requirement.

Meanwhile, of the top five items with highest means, only Item 4 fall under integrative motivation. This means that respondents also view English learning as a way for them to comprehend and interact with English speaking people as well as their way of life. While the previous item got high mean, it can also be noted that the three items (Items 6, 10 and 11) that received the lowest means had to do with respondents’ interest in learning English culture, history and literature; recognition they receive from having good command in English; and the pleasure they get from learning it. Those three items are also classified as integrative motivation, which comes into play when language learners have positive attitude towards and are interested in the country, culture or people of the language they are learning. This suggests that respondents are more instrumentally motivated than integratively motivated to learn English since they anchor on the idea that their proficiency in English will help them to achieve their goals in life particularly those that are related to their future, only few of them had acknowledged the fact that they really like to learn English setting aside their utilitarian goals. This is consistent with what Gholami, Allahyar and Galer (2012) found that though high school students have both types of motivation, the dominant is the instrumental motivation.

3.2 Participants’ Levels of English Self-Efficacy

The summary of respondents self-reported assessment of their second language self-efficacy is shown in Table 2. The overall mean is 3.66 (SD = 0.58) described as “confident”. The obtained value for SD means that the participants’ responses in the instrument were homogenous. Of the 20 items, Item 2 (x̅=4.04), Item 3 (x̅=3.97) and Item 12 (x̅=3.94) received the highest means. Since Item 2 obtained the highest mean, it reveals that respondents were confident in listening and comprehending the details of short conversations in English. This was followed by Item 3 (Listen to and understand the main ideas of a short televised news report in English). The top two items deal with listening activities in English. This was an expected result since respondents were already in their senior high school years and had much exposure to listening activities inside the classroom. English conversations in which they were usually engaged in include that with their language teachers and classmates especially during their English class.
### Table 2

*Participants’ Levels of English Self-Efficacy*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items on English Self-Efficacy</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Verbal Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Listen to and understand the main ideas of a televised public service announcement in English.</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Listen to and understand the details of short conversations in English.</td>
<td>4.04</td>
<td>0.78</td>
<td>Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Listen to and understand the main ideas of a short televised news report in English.</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Listen to and comprehend the details of conversations in English documentaries, films, songs and television programs.</td>
<td>3.89</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Listen to and comprehend the idea given in a lecture delivered by an English speaker.</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Recite in English class fluently.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Deliver report using English as the medium.</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>Moderately Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Deliver solo performances like oration, and declamation and some modes of public speaking.</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>Moderately Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Read and understand the main ideas of print ads in English.</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Read and understand the main ideas of a short English article.</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td>Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Read and understand the news articles and features in an English newspaper.</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Confident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Read and understand instructions in manuals of gadgets</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.81</td>
<td>Confident</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
or appliances.

13. Read and understand the details of a poem, essay, short story and novels in English.  
   3.89  0.72  Confident

14. Write a business letter in English.  
   3.53  0.88  Confident

15. Write a short narrative with correct English.  
   3.50  0.86  Confident

16. Write a long narrative with correct English.  
   3.32  0.93  Moderately Confident

17. Engage in an informal conversation using English.  
   3.46  0.87  Confident

18. Communicate ideas in English clearly and correctly.  
   3.51  0.92  Confident

   3.48  0.82  Confident

20. Communicate ideas effectively and efficiently in English written discourse.  
   3.46  0.88  Confident

**Overall Mean**  
   3.66  0.58  Confident

Legend:  
   4.50 - 5.00  Highly Confident  
   3.40-4.19  Confident  
   2.60-3.39  Moderately Confident  
   1.80-2.59  Not Confident  
   1.00-1.79  Strongly Not Confident

Item 12 (Read and understand instructions in manuals of gadgets or appliances) got the third highest mean. It can be deduced that with the fast changing world in which technology, equipment and state of the art media accessories are accessible, respondents rated themselves “confident” when it comes to reading and understanding instructions or users guide of the manuals or appliances. This suggests that youth nowadays do not want to be left behind especially on the trends in technology and to do so, they keep adept in understanding what are written on gadgets’ instructional manuals to get familiar of their uses.

Of the 20 items in the English Self-Efficacy Scale, 17 items obtained means ranging from 3.40 to 4.19 with verbal description of “confident” and only in three items (Items 7, 8 and 16) in which respondents considered themselves “moderately confident”. Item 8 (Deliver solo
performances like oration and declamation and some modes of public speaking) got the lowest mean of 3.21. This was followed by Item 16 (Write a long narrative with correct English) and Item 7 (Deliver report using English as the medium) with means equivalent to 3.32 and 3.34, respectively.

From the foregoing results, it can be deduced that writing and speaking activities specified in Items 16 and 7 are skills in which respondents assessed themselves moderately confident to not confident doing, while majority of them have “highly confident” and “confident” levels in most of the listening and reading activities. Listening and reading are considered input process in language, while speaking and writing are considered output. Further, it can be deduced that Filipino ESL learners tend to exhibit moderately level of confidence in instances when they are required to speak in class. Since Item 16 pertains to writing a long narrative with correct English, it was not surprising that respondents considered themselves moderately confident in this aspect since in language learning, writing is the most difficult skill since it requires different sub-skills and background information. According to Bourdin and Payol (1994, as cited in Baker & Mc Intyre, 2003), composing written text is arguably the most cognitively taxing of language production tasks requiring the integration of multiple process demands across lower order (such as handwriting and spelling) and higher order (idea generation and organization) skill.

The foregoing results can be attributed to the nature of the English classrooms in the Philippine educational setting specifically the size of students in a classroom. The reality is, Filipino English teachers find it difficult to provide students activities in these two skills for two reasons: one they do not have much time to teach all the speaking and writing sub-skills and the other one has still to do with time constraints since not all the students can be given the opportunity to speak before the class given the fact that observing such will take much of the time allotted for classroom instruction.

Had there been truth in the concept that achievement is greatly influenced by the learners’ perception of their abilities and that it positively affects a person’s choice of task and the effort they put into completing a task and their persistence until mastery of the task; hence, there is a reason to believe that the respondents are more likely to put less involvement in communication activities in which they assessed themselves less confident of performing.
3.3 Gender Differences on the Levels of English Learning Motivation

Result (p value = .173) in Table 3 shows that there is no significant difference between males and females’ motivation levels when it comes to learning English. The foregoing finding contradicts that of Dornyei et al. (2006), Carreira (2011), MacIntyre (2002), Baker and MacIntyre (2003), Mori and Gabe (2006, as cited in Huang, 2013), and Yeung et al. (2011) who found that girls had higher motivational level than boys as regards language learning and that gender is an important variable in second language motivation. Meanwhile, the result conforms with that of Abu-Rabia (1997).

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation Male</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>4.1375</td>
<td>.56414</td>
<td>.173</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>4.2463</td>
<td>.43164</td>
<td>.173</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p value significant at 0.05*

In the past, it has been the belief that English is a subject for women and that females are more motivated to learn it. However, the result may suggest that gone are the days when females are more motivated to study English because in the Philippine context, both genders see the importance of learning the language to perform well in their academic undertakings as well as to prepare for their future. Thus, regardless of gender, Filipino ESL learners believe that learning English can make them academically and professional successful.

3.4 Gender Differences on the Levels of English Self-Efficacy

The obtained p-value (0.722) in Table 4 indicates that there is no significant difference in the levels of self-efficacy between males and females.
Table 4

*Result of Independent Samples T-test for Gender Difference on Levels of English Learning Self-Efficacy*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Self Efficacy</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3.6378</td>
<td>.62115</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>3.6742</td>
<td>.67285</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p value* significant at 0.05

The results in Table 4 conform with the findings of Meera and Jumana (2015) and Sawari and Mansor (2013) but differs with that of Williams (2014), Britner and Pajares (2001), Pajares (1999), Mettalidou and Viachou (2007), Kurtz-Costes et. al. (2008), Ireson and Hallam (2009), Yeung et. al. (2011) and Huang (2013)

This implies that both males and females in the study had the same way of perceiving their abilities to perform different tasks using the English language, ranging from listening, speaking, reading and writing. What can be deduced from the foregoing results is that Filipino senior high school students, regardless of their genders, have the same perception as regards to their levels of abilities in performing communicative tasks in English. This can be attributed to the fact that Filipino learners receive continuous exposure and training, from primary to tertiary years of schooling, as regards the nature and structure of English as well as various activities related to it.

### 3.5 Difference on participants’ Levels of English Learning Motivation when grouped according to Academic Tracks

The study also sought to determine if senior high school students in the K12 curriculum enrolled in different academic tracks such as HUMMS, ABM, HUMMS, STEM and TECHVOC differ in terms of their levels of English learning motivation. Result (*p value* = 0.121) of the One-way ANOVA in Table 5 shows that there is no significant difference on the levels of English motivation when participants are grouped according to their respective academic disciplines. This is to some extent in consonance with what Gibbons (2016) found that no large differences can be
found between students’ academic tracks and their perception of their motivation to learn and self-efficacy in general.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.490</td>
<td>.121</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>.249</td>
<td></td>
<td>Accept the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p value significant at 0.05*

Since, no studies so far have investigated the possible relationship between learner’s academic tracks and motivation to learn English, the foregoing result can serve as a basis in determining if there is a significant difference on learner’s English learning motivation when they are grouped according to discipline. This implies that motivation to learn English does not vary across learners, who pursue different tracks or disciplines. It proves that English, being the language of the world, is seen by the students as an important tool to fare well in this competitive society regardless of the academic tracks they pursue.

3.6 Difference on participants’ Levels of English Self-Efficacy when grouped according to Academic Tracks

Similar to English learning motivation, results of one-way ANOVA in Table 6 show no significant difference (p value = .533) on the levels of English self-efficacy when students are grouped according to discipline. This is still somewhat related to Gibbon’s (2016) initial response to a perennial query if academic tracks students pursue influence their perception of their self-efficacy in doing English communicative tasks. This means that English self-efficacy levels does not vary despite the fact that participants in the study were enrolled in the different tracks in the K12 curriculum.
It can be inferred that since the participants were senior high school students and have just completed their junior high school, their efficacy levels in performing English related activities do not yet vary given the fact that they all have received lessons and experienced performing similar activities back in their senior high schools.

Table 6

*Result of One-way ANOVA for Difference in Levels of English learning Motivation when participants are grouped according to Academic Tracks*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.308</td>
<td>.533</td>
<td>Accept the null hypothesis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>.419</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p value significant at 0.05*

**Relationship between Motivation and Self-Efficacy**

Table 7

*Correlation between English learning motivation and Self-Efficacy*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Self-Efficacy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Motivation Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.514**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td></td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Efficiency</td>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>.514**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>160</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Data in Table 7 show that motivation and self-efficacy have significant positive relationship (p value=0.514). Thus, the alternate hypothesis was accepted and the null hypothesis was rejected. The significant positive relationship between the motivation and self-efficacy validated Piniel and Osizer (2013), Bandura (1977, 1986, 1995 in Bandura, 1997), and Basco and Han’s (2016) assertions that motivation and self-efficacy are related constructs with the latter having a strong effect on the former.

This implies that enhancing students’ motivated learning behavior can have an effect on the way learners process the experience of language learning and the self-efficacy beliefs they develop. Individual’s efficacy beliefs influence the way an individual feels, thinks, motivates himself, and behaves. This means that self-efficacy beliefs determine the goals people set for themselves, how much effort they exert, how they persevere when faced with obstacles as well as their resilience in face of failures (Bandura, 1995, as cited in Bandura, 1997). Thus, individuals who judge themselves as incapable will lower their efforts or give up quickly in the face of difficulties and failures. Meanwhile, those who have a deep faith in their capabilities invest more considerable effort when they fail to overcome a challenge.

4. Conclusion

Results on the second language motivation can be seen as an advantage on the part of English teachers because they no longer need to emphasize to their students the importance of learning English, since students have already a clear framework on their mind as to why there is a need in learning the subject. Like other ESL and EFL learners from the rest of the world, Filipino ESL learners are more instrumentally motivated to learn English. Filipino ESL learners also need to develop within themselves a high level of integrative motivation and not only that of instrumental motivation. This is in relation to what Gardner and Lambert (1972, as cited in Chung, 2013) asserted that integrative motivation is a requisite for successful language acquisition.

Results on self-efficacy can serve as an eye opener to language teachers on the amount of teaching that has to be done to ensure the mastery of the communication skills. Given the fact that each of the communication skills has influence on the mastery of the other skills, it is necessary for language teachers to focus not only on a single communication skill but on all of the skills. Based on the participants’ moderate confidence level in doing English speaking and writing tasks, it can be concluded that in the Philippine language classrooms the two most neglected
communication skills are speaking and listening. Therefore, before English teachers can help students to develop high level of confidence in performing speaking and writing related activities, the teaching of listening and reading skills as well as provision of classroom activities to ensure mastery of the two skills must be underscored in the teachers’ pedagogical practices.

Since there is no significant difference on the levels of English motivation and English self-efficacy when the participants are grouped according to gender and academic tracks, it could mean that English teachers are not required to come up with instructional activities specific to each gender and academic track since all Filipino secondary ESL learners have the perception as regards the importance of English regardless of their genders and academic tracks.

The fact that Filipino senior high school students in the study are more instrumentally motivated in learning English, in which their prime motivation in studying the language is for purpose like fulfilling an academic requirement such as in taking examination, and preparing for the future this suggests that developing curricula to prepare and direct students for or towards these purposes and planning courses in high schools based on the students’ goals and need can be practiced. Likewise, with the result that Filipino ESL learners have higher instrumental motivation it is now up to the English teachers, curriculum developers and policy makers to make English instruction in the micro and macro levels as training grounds for students who have equal value for integrative and instrumental motivation in learning English. Such will be more practical and accordingly enhance the learner’s motivation and achievement as well. However, while Filipino English teachers are teaching the learners to have higher level of integrative motivation, extra care should be done on the part of the former in such a way that much emphasis on teaching Filipino learners to have a sense of openness and identity to English will not result in the lost of their sense of nationalism.

Since self-efficacy serves as one of the most influential factors for language learning, it is deemed necessary for language teachers to enrich pedagogy by combining linguistics and psychology. Language teachers must acknowledge the fact that learners who have repeated experience success have higher self-efficacy than those students who experience repeated. Thus, providing abundance of experiences and building positive beliefs in students is essential for students to develop the sense of self-efficacy.

There is also the need for the teaching of all communication skills along with variety of classroom activities and strategies that are unique, engaging, entertaining and learners based. In
doing so, language teachers should ensure that all learners will be actively involved in the whole process.

**Recommendations**

To cope with modern students’ learning needs, a good language teacher must redefine his teaching strategies that is, a shift from being subject-centered to learner centered teaching. Language educator must be creative in tailoring the instructional needs of the students by coming up with variety of classroom activities based on learners’ styles, background and interest. He must think hard and try his best to employ every means of teaching listening, speaking, reading and writing according to the course content. As mentioned by Robinnet (1988 in Chung 2013), effective teachers, no matter what their method may be, are those who think of the students as the most important ingredient in the teaching-learning process and adapt their approach to students and to circumstances.

As what Bandura (1997, p.214) mentioned, “the major goal of formal education should be to equip students with the intellectual tools, efficacy beliefs and intrinsic interests to educate themselves in a variety of pursuits throughout their lifetime.”

More studies including larger samples from various academic tracks or disciplines should be done to prove if there is really difference as regards English learning motivation and self-efficacy in relation to academic tracks.

**References**


Lexical inferencing strategies and reading comprehension in English: A case of ESL third graders

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Abstract

The empirical investigation enlisted seventy-six (76) third graders with age ranging from 8-10. Out of the total number of respondents, males and females are equally represented. The study employed a descriptive-quantitative-correlational design. Moreover, the gathering of data was realized through the use of survey and comprehension reading questionnaires. The analysis of the data disclosed that the strategies ‘While reading, I translate word for word in an attempt to guess the word meaning’ (M=4.18, SD= 1.029), ‘I try to relate the unknown word by its word form (i.e. appearance similarity) to another word I previously learned and generate a hypothesis on the word meaning’ (M=4.11, SD= 1.150), and ‘I guess word meaning from prior knowledge by examining the title or illustration’(M= 3.84, SD=1.189) are the top most used by the respondents. Furthermore, the strategies ‘I guess word meaning from context utilizing semantic cues (i.e. synonyms, restatement, comparison and contrast’ (p-value =0.048, r-value= 0.328) and ‘I guess word meaning from prior knowledge by examining the title or illustration’ (p-value =0.009, r-value= 0.569) were found to significantly correlate with reading comprehension in English among the respondents.

Keywords: Inferencing, ESL, Reading comprehension, Reading strategies, English

1. INTRODUCTION

Kaivanpanah and Moghaddam (2012) contend that lexical inferencing plays a central role in reading, because whenever one intends to understand written materials deciphering the meaning of unknown words becomes crucially important. The reason for this is the fact that a written text contains a number of unfamiliar words that need to be comprehended. It must be noted that unfamiliar words pose problem in reading comprehension. This lack of lexical knowledge demands the need for readers to determine the meaning of the difficult word through employment of different strategies. One way of doing this is through the use of lexical inferencing which is a strategy employed to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words through the use of contextual clues (Nation, 1990).

Although varied strategies are employed in unlocking meaning of difficult words in a text, lexical inferencing (LI) is determined to be one of the most used strategy (Wang, 2011). Supporting examples are the investigations of Fraser (1999) and Paribakht and Wesche (1997) conclude that
among their adult learners LI is the most frequently used and preferred. It is therefore not a surprise that lexical inferencing has become a central topic to numerous investigations (Nassaji, 2003; Parel, 2004; Bengeleil & Paribakht, 2004; Nakagawa, 2006; Tavakoli & Hayati, 2011; Kaivanpanah & Moghaddam, 2012; Safa & Kokabi, 2017; Muikku-Werner, 2017). Moreover, the topic lexical inferencing has also been studied in relation with other variables. Illustrative of this include the study of Nakagawa (2006) which delve into determining the effects of morphological and contextual clues on the inferences of 148 Japanese EFL readers. Addition is the work of Shen (2017) on determining the effect of text type and strategy use on the performance of respondents on lexical inferencing. Another example is the investigation of Chegeni and Tabatabaei (2014) which accounted the influence of number and density of unknown words toward lexical inferencing. Additional is the research of Pourghasemian, Zarei and Jalali (2014) that looked into the influence of learning preference relative to participants lexical inference. Another study proving the point is that of Cain, Lemmon and Oakhill (2004) in which they investigated LI factoring learners’ mental capacity. The study of Huckin and Bloch (1993) cited in Nassaji (2013) adds to the list as their investigation include the components of knowledge module and metalinguistic strategic as strategies that play important role in lexical inferencing. One more study illustrative of the point is that of de Bot, Paribakth and Wesche (1997) which investigated the success of inferencing with the type of word and nature of text containing the words. Indeed, lexical inference is a subject of much research accounting the various empirical inquiries done in relation to it. However, there remain a dearth in literature relative to investigations that explore the lexical inferences of Filipino English as second language (ESL) third graders. Moreover, there is no or at best limited studies that relate lexical inferences with reading comprehension of the mentioned respondents. Investigation aimed at such purpose is essential considering that reading comprehension is associated with school success and is one of the primary concerns of parents and learners alike—the gap that this study intended to fill.

1.2. Related Literature
1.2.1 On Lexical Inferencing strategies in Reading

Wang (2011) discussed that inferencing is a cognitive process. Further, Nassaji (2002) maintained that it is one if not the most important cognitive process needed for successful comprehension. On the other hand, Haastrup (1999) claimed that inferencing is a kind of
calculated guessing with reliance on available linguistics cues combined with knowledge of the world and background. Furthermore, since this strategy requires effort from the learners to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words through contextual clues and not simply an act of referring, LI encourages independence (Shen, 2017).

Moreover, Studies have established that whenever learners use inferencing as strategy background knowledge was utilized (Wesche & Paribakht, 2010). This suggests that if a learner has more knowledge about the central topic of the text being read the better the inferencing will be for the case L2 (Zeeland, 2014). In addition, Hu and Nation (2000) maintained that it is a very satisfactory case for ESL/EFL readers to cover 98% of the words in a text. The set standard is ideal and fit for good learners but not for those marginalized ones. Accordingly, for a text to be comprehended well, a reader must at the minimum cover 95% of the words used (Chegeni & Tabatabaei, 2014). This means that another contributor toward success of LI is vocabulary knowledge as strong correlation has been found existing between the two (Puildo, 2007; Wesche & Paribakht, 2010).

The ability to make accurate guesses as a mean of dealing with the complexity of reading is proven to be possessed by good learners (Rubin, 1975). LI is even to an extent claimed to be a form of compensation strategy for low receptive vocabulary (Parel, 2004). Basing on this claims, good learners are strategic learners who are able to use strategies appropriately depending on circumstance (Oxford, 2011). Whenever a reader employs inferencing as a strategy in unlocking meaning of unfamiliar words, he or she is actively and creatively hypothesizing about the meaning of word and testing the correctness of the same (Chegeni & Tabatabaei, 2014).

Because of the linguistic richness of any language, it impossible for an individual to claim full mastery over all the lexical tokens there are in any language. Hence, it remains inevitable for learners to stumble upon unfamiliar words whenever reading or listening to any discourse. This is especially true to young learners as they themselves are still at the stage of building up their vocabulary both in L1 more so in L2.

Pressley, Borkowski, and Schneider (1987) as cited in Nassaji (2003) discussed that there are five factors important in the successful use of LI as strategy, viz: “1. having wide repertoire of general as well as domain-specific strategies; 2. having the ability to use the strategy appropriately and in appropriate contexts; 3. having an extensive task-relevant knowledge base, ranging from general knowledge of the world to knowledge about the specific strategies and their causes of
success and failure; 4. being able to automatically execute and coordinate the use of strategies with various knowledge sources; and, 5. having an awareness that, although success is related to effort, effort alone may not be enough” (p.649).

On another note, there are two aspects to consider in so far as LI is accounted, “the linguistic and other knowledge to infer meaning and the the cognitive processes to infer the meaning of new word” (Roskams, 1998 : 71). Additionally, in the study of Julianna (2017), she noted seven (7) types of LI, to wit: “1. guessing the unfamiliar word from extra textual context (thematic/world knowledge), 2. guessing the unfamiliar word from the discourse context like outside the sentence in which the word occurred (using forward or backward context), 3. guessing the unfamiliar word meaning from local context (sentence level), 4. guessing from association or collocation knowledge (a clue word), 5. guessing from syntactic knowledge, 6. guessing from visual form (similarity or morphological understanding, and 7. Guessing from phonological similarity” (p.2). Another set of category is also provided by Paribakht and Wesche (1997), to wit: 1. homonym, 2. morphology, 3. word associations, 4. sentence-level grammatical knowledge, 5. discourse knowledge, 6. Cognates, 7. world knowledge, and 8. punctuation. There are quite a number of LI strategies discussed in the literature. However, for manageability, the study limits the investigation to the seven (7) noted strategies of Julianna (2017).

1.2.2 On Inferring Strategies in English as L2

The ability to arrive at a successful inference in L2 is relative and variable (Haastrup, 1991; Paribakht & Wesche, 1997). As a result, the way learners deal with unknown words during reading has become the focus of many empirical studies in recent years. These recent researches have tried to discover how lexical inferencing strategies function and what factors affect their success. Also, most research in this area has focused on identifying lexical strategies employed by second language learners in the target language, such as English.

de Bot et al. (1997) identified a set of eight knowledge sources used in inferring meanings of unknown words, based on evidence from their introspective verbal protocols of 10 English as Second Language (ESL) learners. The eight knowledge sources are: 1. sentence level grammar; 2. word morphology; 3. punctuation; 4. world knowledge; 5. discourse and text; 6. homonymy; 7. word associations; and 8. cognates. Although organized in a different way, these knowledge sources generally correspond to categories of Haastrup's (1991) taxonomy.
1.2.3. On Reading Comprehension

Comprehension is the core of reading (Tavakoli & Hayati, 2011). This means that the main reason for engaging in reading is to understand or comprehend the message and meaning of any given or found written texts. Reading is considered to be a cognitive (Julianna, 2017) and a multi-process activity (Block & Pressley, 2002). As a cognitive process, reading involves mental activities such as summarizing and clarifying meaning. In fact, Block and Pressley (2002) claimed that reading process involves more than 30 cognitive and metacognitive processes. Therefore, due to the numerous mental processes involved, reading then is considered as a complex skill requiring subskills (Tavakoli & Hayati, 2011).

Correspondingly, Curtis (2002 in Chegeni & Tabatabaei, 2014) is of the contention that skills such as deciding about the main idea of a text, creating questions relative to the content of the text and summarizing passages are some of the many processes that readers must do in order to maximize comprehension. Moreover, Guterman (2003) discussed that readers employ posteriori knowledge in order to comprehend reading materials. The same researcher explained that the more knowledge the individual has and uses in understanding texts the better one’s comprehension is. In addition to the list, Block and Pressley (2002) also explained that prior knowledge about the text to be read or to be understood plays also an imperative role in decoding the meaning of the text and understanding it. On the other hand, Verhoeven and Van Leeuwe (2008) advanced that reading is supported by knowledge of words, orthographic, phonological and semantic representation.

Likewise, reading comprehension is claimed to serve as the foundation of academic success (Alderson, 2000). Considerably, this is a sound conclusion to make noting that most academic output and production is dependent on reading. Before an essay is produced or a research output, students must engage themselves first with reading of various and numerous materials. Moreover, to be able to perform well in written and oral exams, students much read and understand handouts and lectures provided.

However, among the different factors affecting and influencing reading comprehension, lexical problem has been considered to be the most serious (Chi & Chern, 1988 cited in Tavakoli & Hayati, 2011). Therefore, reading comprehension cannot be thoroughly understood without analyzing and determining process known as ‘intelligent guessing’ or inferencing. The reason behind is the fact that vocabulary is a sizable component; therefore, learners in different
proficiency levels will be confronted with situations where part of the text could only be understood because of the words difficult to understand and are unfamiliar to the readers.

1.2 RESEARCH PROBLEMS

The study primarily aimed to determine the respondents’ lexical inferencing strategies and reading comprehension in English. Specifically, this investigation sought to answer the following questions:

1. What are the most employed lexical inferencing strategies by the respondents?
2. What is the English reading comprehension performance of the respondents?
3. Is there a significant relationship between the respondents’ lexical inferencing strategies and their reading comprehension performance in English?

2. METHODOLOGY
2.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

The study utilized a quantitative-descriptive-correlational design. Setia (2016) explained that the selection of participants in the cross-sectional design is based on the inclusion and exclusion criteria set for the study. Moreover, the same design is ideal for population-based surveys because the gathering of the data is done for a relatively short period of time. As the study intends to survey a large sample of third graders estimating to be around 76, the use of cross-sectional design as approach in the gathering of data for the study is determined both economical and feasible. Additionally, Johnson (2000 cited in Alieto, 2018) claimed that a study with a primary objective of describing the phenomenon is classified as a descriptive study. Furthermore, if the main goal of the study is to predict or forecast an event it is classified as predictive. In the case of this study, the goal is three-pronged. First is to descriptively determine the LIS strategies of respondents when reading English texts. To this end, a quantitative approach was used through the use of survey-questionnaire in determining the strategies used. Second is to determine the English reading comprehension of the respondents. Moreover, to determine the a significant relationship between the LIS and reading comprehension in English.
2.2. PARTICIPANTS OF THE STUDY

A total of seventy-six third graders form the sample of the study equally distributed between sexes. The age range of the respondents is 8-10 years old. Moreover, total population sampling was the technique used in this study which involves the examination of the entire population having a set of characteristics.

2.3 THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENTS

Three instruments were used in the conduct of this study – the reading comprehension test, the vocabulary test and the lexical inferencing questionnaire. Moreover, a reading passage was used to serve as springboard for students to identify their most employed inferencing strategy.

The Reading Passage
The reading passage entitled ‘The Four Silly Schoolmates’ is of 192 words. The number of words in considering the passage to be used is informed by the criteria set such as student factor (Frantzen, 2013), and text factor (Hu & Nation, 2000) The student factor refers to the alignment of the comprehension ability of the students. The two texts were taken from the grade three books ensuring appropriateness of the material and students ability. On the other hand, the text factor means that the text must be related to the learners’ experience. The chosen text revolves around relatable central topics for young graders. The English passage centers about a type of classmate.

The reading comprehension test
For each passage, five (5) research questions were formulated observing Bloom’s Taxonomy. One for each level of cognitive taxonomy, viz: comprehension, application, synthesis, analysis and evaluation. The teacher made test shall underwent validation by three (3) English language teachers for the passage. Moreover, the test was checked for comprehensibility of instruction and face validity.

The vocabulary test
Sixteen (16) items form part of the vocabulary exam. In each item, three options are provided. Also, the difficult words in the items are glossed. Moreover, the instrument was validated and administered for item analysis.
The Lexical Inferencing Inventory

An 8-item Likert-type instrument adapted from Shen (2009) was designed and administered to investigate the LIS used by the students. As modification was made from the original instrument for contextualization of the same for this study, pilot testing was conducted to determine comprehensibility, face validity and reliability and appropriateness.

2.3.1 VALIDITY OF THE INSTRUMENTS

For the reading passage in English

The reading passage in English was checked for comprehensibility of instruction and face validity. The font size and style were also considered and commented on by the validators. Three (3) experts were enlisted for validation. Two (2) of which are master’s degree holder in Language Teaching, and one is Ph.D. holder. Comments were limited to the technical characteristics of the passage – spacing, margin, size and style. Moreover, typographic errors and entries were noted and necessary corrections were made.

For the reading comprehension test

The reading comprehension test was a 5-item test. Table of specification (ToS) was developed identifying the cognitive level for each question. Bloom’s Cognitive taxonomy was used for the classification of the cognitive level of each question. Three (3) validators, all of which are seasoned teachers, checked and cross-referenced the questionnaire and the TOS. All of the questions were determined appropriate and correlated with the level of cognition determined.

For the Vocabulary Test

The 16-item test was first validated by three (3) teachers – all of which are English Language Teachers with at least a master’s degree in either education or in language teaching. Comments were limited to typographic errors and phrasing of options. Choices for each item were ascertained to be of equal length as per recommendation of the validators. After incorporating all comments of the validators, the version of the questionnaire was prepared for pilot testing.

For the Lexical Inferencing Test (LIT)
Adaption was made from the original lexical inferencing inventory of Shen (2009). The choice was made on the consideration of the characteristics of the respondents of this study. Items considered inappropriate were not included. Validation was conducted by three teachers. One of which is a master’s degree holder, another is a Ph.D. candidate and the last is a Ph.D. holder.

2.3.2 RELIABILITY

For the Vocabulary Test (VT)
The VT was pilot tested to forty (40) elementary students not forming part of the final sample frame. After the administration, the test was checked and item analysis was conducted. Three items were considered to be very difficult, another three (3) were noted to be very easy, while the remaining items are moderately difficult. In total, six items were removed; the final version of lexical inference test and the lexical inference test version were composed of 10 items.

For the Lexical Inferencing Inventory (LII)
The LII version for pilot testing was of 8-item. After incorporating the comments of the validators, a version for pilot testing was produced and administered to 40 students. The test was subject for reliability testing using Cronbach’s alpha reliability test. The result was 0.935 which was identified to have an ‘excellent’ reliability (George and Maller, 2003); thus, the final instrument for data gathering included all the items.

2.4 PROCEDURE

Upon the approval of the panel and preparation of the instruments, the researcher composed letter of permission and submitted to the principal of the Integrated Laboratory School Elementary Department. After the approval of the request, the researcher made an appointment with the teachers concerned for the schedule of the administration of the research instruments to the respondents. Moreover, consent of participation to the research was given to parents of respective students as the respondents are of minor age and as part of the ethical consideration. A correspondence was provided to the parents explaining details and mechanics of the investigation. Moreover, in the event the parents approved their son’s/daughter’s participation, a consent form was asked to be signed and returned to the researcher prior to the dates set for data gathering. Only
students whose parents’ consented for the participation of their respected child were allowed to be part of the sampling population. Neither additional points in academic markings nor incentives in whatever form was provided to the pupils. Conversely, no forms of demerits were charged to any students who did not intend to participate. Participation was purely voluntary. Students were allowed to stop answering the questionnaires and allowed to withdraw participation even in the middle of the administration of the research tools. Furthermore, it was declared that the study posts neither apparent harm nor foreseeable risk because the data collection was done at their respective classroom. The answering of the comprehension test and checklist took about 15 to 20 minutes. Moreover, the room capacity to be used as venue was limited only to 40 students. As such, the 76 students were batched with 40 students as maximum number. Batching of the respondents was done through their sections. All information collected was dealt with great confidentiality. Neither demographic profile nor background information was solicited from the respondents. A coding system was utilized simply for filing of the questionnaires.

2.5 METHOD OF ANALYSIS

2.5.1 DATA ANALYSIS PROCEDURE

To determine the Lexical Inferencing strategies utilized for English passage, the responses of the respondents were coded as: 5 for always, 4 for frequently, 3 for sometime, 2 for rarely and 1 for never. The scores then mean score for each strategy was computed and the ranked to determine the top 3 most used strategy and be given interpretation through the use of table 1. Table 1. Scale of Measurement for the Inferencing Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.2 – 5.0</td>
<td>Always</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4 – 4.19</td>
<td>Frequently</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.6 – 3.39</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.8 – 2.59</td>
<td>Rarely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0 – 1.79</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the determination of the reading achievements in English, correct respondents were given varying points according to the level of cognition involved, viz: evaluation – 5, synthesis –
4, analysis – 3, application – 2, comprehension – 1. The highest possible points is 15. The scores for the reading comprehension was interpreted using table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Range of Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15</td>
<td>Proficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10</td>
<td>Somehow Proficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 – 5</td>
<td>Less Proficient</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.5.2 STATISTICAL TREATMENT OF THE DATA

Upon determination of the nature of the data and the normality of the distribution, the following statistical tools were employed for analysis of data:

1. To answer research question aimed at determining the most used inferencing strategies, descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) was used.
2. To determine the reading comprehension performance of the respondents, descriptive statistics (percentage) was employed.
3. To determine the significant correlation between the lexical inferencing strategies used and English reading comprehension achievement, pearson product moment coefficient was used.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 MOST USED INFERENCING STRATEGY

To determine the most utilized LIS when reading in English, the mean scores of the 8 LIS were computed. Moreover, the items are ranked.

Table 3. Most utilized LIS when reading in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Lexical Inferencing Strategies</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>While reading, I translate word for word in an attempt to guess the word meaning.</td>
<td>4.18</td>
<td>1.029</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I try to relate the unknown word by its word form (i.e. appearance similarity) to</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>another word I previously learned and generate a hypothesis on the word meaning.</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>1.150</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I guess word meaning from prior knowledge by examining the title or illustration</td>
<td>3.84</td>
<td>1.189</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From Table 3, it can be seen that the most frequently used inferencing strategy is (7) ‘While reading, I translate word for word in an attempt to guess the word meaning.’ (M=4.18, SD=1.029), following next is (1) ‘I try to relate the unknown word by its word form (i.e. appearance similarity) to another word I previously learned and generate a hypothesis on the word meaning.’ (M=4.11, SD=1.150), and (4) ‘I guess word meaning from prior knowledge by examining the title or illustration.’ (M=3.84, SD=1.189).

Further probing of the data revealed that the strategy ‘While reading, I translate word for word in an attempt to guess the word meaning.’ was reported to be utilized by 41 (53.9%) respondents ‘always’, 14 (18.4%) ‘frequently’, 16 (21.1%) ‘sometimes’, 4 (5.3%) ‘rarely’, and 1 (1.3%) ‘never’. Moreover, for the strategy ‘I try to relate the unknown word by its word form (i.e. appearance similarity) to another word I previously learned and generate a hypothesis on the word meaning.’, 39 (51.3%) claimed to have done it ‘always’, 19 (25%) ‘frequently’, 7 (9.2%) ‘sometimes’, 9 (11.8%) ‘rarely’, and 2 (2.6%) ‘never’. For the case of the strategy ‘I guess word meaning from prior knowledge by examining the title or illustration.’, 32 (42.1%) of the respondents reported to have used it ‘always’, 14 (18.4%) ‘frequently’, 18 (23.7%) ‘sometimes’, 10 (13.2%) ‘rarely’, and 2 (2.6%) ‘never’.

Moreover, the data proved that for the respondents of this study, learners at the early stage of basic education, capitalize on schema and experiences to go through unfamiliar words. This implies that teachers must account students’ personal experiences in introducing reading texts because if students are knowledgeable about the topic of the text, they are likely to perform good inferences (Zeeland, 2014). Furthermore, for the strategy that relates to use of knowledge about words previously encountered to make sense of newly read unfamiliar words, the claim of Dunmore (1989) that vocabulary enrichment and reading comprehension bear a ‘cyclical’ relationship. As the data reports the strategy to be among the most used LIS, teachers must expose the students to more reading activities as these activities shall enrich students’ vocabulary bank and lead to better performance at inferencing.
3.2 READING COMPREHENSION (RC) OF THE RESPONDENTS

To determine the reading comprehension of the students, the scores of the students in the English reading comprehension questions were computed for average. In addition, the standard deviation and interpretation were also given.

Table 4.0 English Reading comprehension performance of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Descriptor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Reading Comprehension in English</td>
<td>12.18</td>
<td>2.424</td>
<td>Proficient</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend: 15 to 11 – Proficient; 10 to 6 – Somehow Proficient; and 5 to 1 – Less Proficient

Table 2.0 presents the reading comprehension performance (RCP) of the respondents. The data revealed that the respondents are ‘proficient’ (M=12.18) in their reading performance. It can be further seen from the table that the lowest score attained by the respondents in reading English is only 4.

Further analysis of the data provide that for RCP in English, 57 (75%) answered the comprehension level correctly, 54 (71%) for the application level question, 69 (90.8%) for the analysis, 66 (86.8%) for the synthesis level, and 65 (85.5%) for the evaluation level. From these data, a similar result was found, and that is students performed least in application (only 54 correctly answered the questions) level questions. However, students performed best in analysis level question (69 correctly answered the question).

As reading is a cognitive process (Julianna, 2017), the study probed into the level of cognitive processes in which students made correct responses. It was found out that the students, on the average, find application questions in reading comprehension test in English challenging. It is contended that because application involves a myriad of processes in order to be performed, processes like deciding the main idea of the text and understanding the whole idea of the text and considering the new context presented by the question. These complex processes contribute to the difficulty in correctly answering application question.
Further, the difficulty students have in answering application type of question can be alluded to the limited exposure provided to students in answering this type of question. Practices in answering higher order type of question may have not been provided in abundance enough to develop and train students. Supportive of this claim is the findings of Silva, Rosaldo and Tendero (2011). In their study which documented descriptively the types of questions asked by teachers, their data revealed that most of teachers’ questions are ‘knowledge type’ which accounted nearly half (42.9%) of the total questions asked in class, and application types (9.5%) are those least inquired. Although this cited empirical investigation was in the context of college instructors, the practice of teachers asking mostly low-level type of questions has been found across teachers in various levels (Silva et al., 2011).

3.3 LEXICAL INFERENCE STRATEGIES AND READING COMPREHENSION PERFORMANCE (RCP) OF THE RESPONDENTS

To determine the significant relationship between the inferencing strategies and the respondents reading comprehension, Pearson r was the statistical tool used to draw the relationship.

Table 5.0 Correlation: Inferencing strategies and RC in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>English RCP</th>
<th>Intpn.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>p-value</td>
<td>r-value</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I try to relate the unknown word by its word form (i.e. appearance similarity) to another word I previously learned and generate a hypothesis on the word meaning.</td>
<td>0.817</td>
<td>0.027</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I guess word meaning from context utilizing morphological analysis (i.e. prefix, suffix).</td>
<td>0.720</td>
<td>0.042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I guess word meaning from context utilizing semantic cues (i.e. synonyms, restatement, comparison and contrast.</td>
<td>0.048*</td>
<td>0.328</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As it can be gleaned in Table 5.0, LIS numbers 3 (p-value = 0.048) and 4 (p-value = 0.009) significantly impacted RCP in English. Strategy (3) ‘I guess word meaning from context utilizing semantic cues (i.e. synonyms, restatement, comparison and contrast.’ has a significant correlation with RCP in English, and the relationship is low and positive (p-value =0.328). On the other hand, strategy (4) ‘I guess word meaning from prior knowledge by examining the title or illustration’ has a moderate positive relationship (p-value = 0.569) with RCP in English. This means that the higher frequency strategies numbered 3 (synonyms, restatement, comparison and contrast) and 4 (guess word meaning form prior knowledge, title of the story, and illustration) are employed by the students the higher their RC scores are in English. Conversely, in the case of the respondents of this study, the lesser times the strategies 3 and 4 are used the lower their RCP scores are. This implies that, as evidenced by this data, frequent use of strategies 3 and 4 impacts English reading comprehension performance of the students.

This finding corroborates with claims that LIS influence comprehension (Nassaji, 2002; Puildo, 2007; Wesche & Paribakht, 2010). At this juncture, it must be pointed that these studies have claimed LIS, in general, influences reading comprehension. This study

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I guess word meaning from prior knowledge by examining the title or illustration</td>
<td>0.009*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>When appropriate, I try to visualize the content in an attempt to guess the meaning of the unknown words.</td>
<td>0.125</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>While I am reading, I try to to produce synonyms to substitute for the unknown word in an attempt to guess the word meaning.</td>
<td>0.908</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>While reading, I translate word for word in an attempt to guess the word meaning.</td>
<td>0.869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>While reading, I distinguish between words that are unimportant and those that seem critical to the meaning of the text, I skip the unimportant words.</td>
<td>0.921</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note:*Significant at alpha=0.05
however provided an extension to these findings by probing which particular strategies significantly relate to reading comprehension.

On another note, the finding that LIS relate with English reading comprehension supports research findings of Schmitt (2010), Haastrup (1999), Paribakht and Wesche (1997), de Bot et al. (1997), Nassaji (2002), and Puildo (2007). However, the study provides more specific findings.

This implies that strategies 3 (synonyms, restatement, comparison and contrast) and 4 (guess word meaning form prior knowledge, title of the story, and illustration) are factors influencing comprehension in reading texts in English. The study however is limited in further providing empirical data to probe explanation for this result. It is however speculated that since English is a second language and that more materials are produced in the language, the students have had abundant experiences in reading in English.

4. CONCLUSION

The following are reasonable conclusions to make:

As regards the lexical inferencing strategies utilized by the young learners in English, the most utilized strategies are translation, appearance similarity, and the use of prior knowledge.

As regards the extent of comprehension of the respondents, they are proficient in comprehending texts in English. In addition, lexical strategies 3 (synonyms, restatement, comparison and contrast) and 4 (guess word meaning form prior knowledge, title of the story, and illustration) significantly correlate with reading comprehension in English.

These imply that students must be exposed by the teachers to the varied strategies apart from the ones mentioned as it is always beneficial to learn as many lexical inferencing strategies as possible, exposure of students to varied reading materials across media should be done as a regular academic practice to train students both for reading and inferencing activities. Such practice would continuously enhance and develop students ability to comprehend and infer; teachers must ascertain appropriateness of reading materials. Which would allow students background knowledge to serve as learning resource enabling correct inferences; teachers must ensure that reading materials to be introduce are within students circumference of interest and reading ability.
Doing so, students could be encouraged to read with minimal guidance eventually developing independent readers; and practice test relating to use of inferences must be given. Inferencing strategies must be explicitly taught and assessed like the teaching and assessment of macro skills despite being a micro one. The rationale is that the macro skill reading is largely dependent on the skill of inferencing as dictated by the literature.

References


Measuring degree of bilingualism and trilingualism and its interaction on executive control: Evidence from lexical, speaking, writing proficiencies and shape-matching task

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Abstract
While there have been studies proving the bilinguals’ advantage compared to monolinguals on executive functions (Kroll & Bialystok, 2013; Morales, Calvo, & Bialystok, 2013; Schalley, Eisenchlas, & Guillemin, 2016; Astheimer, Berkes, & Bialystok, 2015; Friesen, Latman, Calvo, & Bialystok, 2015; Janus, Moreno & Bialystok, 2016), there were also studies that found no bilinguals’ edge on executive control (Paap & Greenberg, 2013; Paap, Johnson, & Sawi, 2015, 2016). The bilingual’s edge hypothesis has carried on to compare not only monolinguals with bilinguals, but with trilinguals as well (Poarch and van Hell, 2012, 2015; Schroeder and Marian, 2016) showing bilinguals’ advantage
compared to monolinguals; but, there was no difference between bilinguals and trilinguals.

In a more current study, Madrazo and Bernardo (2018) found that trilinguals outperformed bilinguals in Simon arrow task that activates inhibitory control, interference suppression in particular. The present study also determined whether the additional language representation on trilinguals would vary compared to bilinguals on inhibitory control. Data showed that there was no significant interaction between language groups and inhibitory control as evidenced from shape-matching trials. It was implied that the null effect could have brought about by the similar Austronesian elements found in both Filipino and Chabacano (Rubino, 2005; Barrios, 2006). The expected higher conflict in trilinguals may not have occurred. Conflict, in fact, can boost executive control because of the constant attention to three language representations (Madrazo & Bernardo, 2018). The small effect size can also imply that data is not conclusive. Hence, it does necessarily follow that null effect in one experimental task would not absolutely mean null effect also in the other task, albeit both tasks measure inhibitory control. There might be other methodological factors such as the type of stimuli presented—whether non-linguistic or linguistic, number of trials, the participants' language background and degree of bilingualism and trilingualism.

**Keywords:** executive control, inhibitory control, interference suppression, degree of bilingualism and trilingualism, verbal fluency and shape-matching task

**Introduction**

Bilingualism and trilingualism are widespread in many parts of the world. Grosjean (2012) claimed that more than half of the earth’s human inhabitants is bilingual. Bilingualism, according to Grosjean, refers to people who can speak more than one language including multilinguals. In relation to multilingualism, trilingualism—the knowledge of three language representations, can be observed in multilingual communities such as Zamboanga City, Philippines. Students who reach the tertiary level in this part of the region can already speak more than two languages (i.e. Chabacano, Filipino & English). Their L1 could be Chabacano which is dominantly spoken in the city. Their L2 Filipino and L3 English are required to be taken as literacy languages as early as pre-school level.
by virtue of the Philippine bilingual education policy. Additionally, there are also bilinguals in the city. Most of these bilinguals who speak Filipino and English could be children of military personnels who were transferred to Arm Forces of the Philippines Southern Command, Edwin Andrews Air Base Philippine Air force and Naval Forces Western Mindanao. These families of men-in-uniform most likely came from Luzon where the language is dominantly Tagalog or Filipino.

Language, be it local, national or international, is not only vital for social interaction or cultural identity but it can also serve as an essential medium for learning concepts and knowledge for linguistic and cognitive development. Bialystok (2007) emphasized that in a multilingual society, language is the fundamental link between social and cognitive dimensions. As a communicative instrument, it is used for human interconnectivity. Through language, status is identified, and pedagogical circumstances are delineated; as a cognitive tool, it grants access to concepts and meanings, the logical system for problem solving, and creates the organizational basis for knowledge.

**Bilingualism and executive control**

Monitoring and regulating the processing of information are some of the functions of executive control. It also pertains in particular, with selecting intentionally an appropriate option and applying knowledge utilized in problem-solving such as inhibition of distracting conflict via verbal or non-verbal processing. This is an essential cognitive system that directs individuals to attend to the relevant information given a complicated environment (Bialystok, 1999). Research shows that bilingual children performed better in executive control tasks than comparable monolinguals (Bialystok, 1999; Bialystok, Fergus, Klein & Viswanathan, 2004; Bialystok et al., 2008; Bialystok & Majumber, 1998; Cromdal, 1999; Eviatar & Ibrahim, 2000).

Executive control or executive function refers to a range of related cognitive abilities, including the ability to plan and regulate goal-directed behavior, to sustain attention, to remain objective and to use information flexibly for the conception of alternatives and the making of appropriate choices (Baddeley, 1986). It is used to describe certain brain processes that guide thought and behavior associated with internal goals or plans. The executive functions are often tapped when it is necessary to ignore responses
that may otherwise be automatically elicited by stimuli in the external environment. For example, in shape-matching task, the goal is to respond automatically by pressing the left-response-key on the white shape (left monitor) and right-response-key on the red shape (right monitor). However, conflict occurs when there is a distracting green shape overlapping the red shape; thus, one has to ignore the distraction to respond correctly. The ability to ignore distraction is an executive function.

A number of hypotheses have been advanced for the non-linguistic cognitive edge of bilinguals over monolinguals. The broadest hypothesis suggests that the bilingual experiences have an vigorous effect on general cognitive processes (Kroll & Bialystok, 2013; Morales, Calvo, & Bialystok, 2013; Schalley et al., 2016); a less broad hypothesis suggests that bilingualism demands a more sustained conflict monitoring between two active linguistic representations, leading to improved broad executive functions (Astheimer et al., 2015; Costa, Hernandez, 2009; Friesen et al., 2015; Janus et al., 2016). Other hypotheses make more narrow assumptions; for example, the bilingual’s episodes of transferring between two linguistic systems is hypothesized to bring about improved cognitive transference (Bialystok, Craik & Luk., 2012; Verreyt, Woumans, Vandelanotte, Aszmalec, & Duyck, 2016).

As regards inhibitory control, the assumption is that bilinguals are continuously demanded to inhibit complicated information from the irrelevant language when they are using the target language (Kroll & Bialystok, 2013). Thus, what allows bilinguals to be communicatively competent in a specific linguistic communicative context is their ability to produce output using one language and inhibit conflicting information from their other language (Gambi & Hartsuiker, 2016; Gass, Behney, Plonsky, 2013; Ortega, 2013). This regular exercise of cross-linguistic inhibitory control requires the bilingual to select from the basic domain-general executive function of inhibitory control (Green, 1998, 2000; Green & Abutalebi, 2013). Hence, the hypothesis is that inhibitory control is developed in bilinguals compared to monolinguals, and that minimal interference effects due to conflicting information should be observed with bilinguals.

This improved inhibitory control in bilinguals has been proven in many studies (e.g., Bialystok, Craik, Klein, & Viswanathan, 2004; Bialystok et al., 2005; Martin-Rhee & Bialystok, 2008), although some other studies did not find this bilingual advantage in
inhibitory control (e.g., Paap & Greenberg, 2013; Paap, Johnson, & Sawi, 2015). Other studies provided clarification on the specific factors pertaining to the improved inhibition. For instance, the age of acquisition and bilingual proficiency were viewed as significant factors because stronger control ability in inhibition was observed in younger bilinguals but not in late adult bilinguals (Luk, De Sa, & Bialystok, 2011). Language switching episode was also linked with improved inhibition (Verreyt et al., 2016). These inquiries suggest that just the knowledge of dual linguistic systems is inadequate; instead specific switching experiences that lead to simultaneous L1-L2 conflict and inhibition are highly essential to investigating the bilinguals’ advantage in inhibitory control.

Other studies have further clarified that the bilingual advantage is found specifically in inhibitory control tasks that involve greater cognitive complexity; in particular in tasks that involve interference suppression and response inhibition. The distinction between two types of inhibitory control has been proposed (Bunge, Dudukovic, Thomason, Vaidya, & Gabrieli, 2002) to have different developmental trajectories and to involve different neural pathways in the cortex. Interference suppression is typically required in tasks with bivalent stimuli, or those that comprise two potentially conflicting dimensions. When the two dimensions in a bivalent stimulus indicate different responses, the incongruence requires suppression of the irrelevant dimension and the inhibition of the incorrect response. In this regard, tasks that measure interference suppression are more cognitively demanding compared to tasks that only require response inhibition. The latter typically involve univalent stimuli that only feature one dimension and two possible responses; and thus, the task only involves response inhibition but no interference suppression (Bunge et al., 2002).

**Trilingualism and executive control**

There have been studies showing the facilitating role of L1 and L2 to L3 learning (Jessner, 1999; Sanz, 2000). In Philippine context, research also reported on the beneficial role of local languages (e.g. Hiligaynon) used as medium of instruction in content learning areas (Ramos, Aguilar, & Sibayan, 1967). However, Chabacano is still not that valorized as a literacy language in Zamboanga City even with the implementation of mother tongue-based education under the K-12 program. A number of language planners and teachers still adhere to the monolingual framework of language teaching. This is evidenced by the
imposition of English-only-policy in the teaching of English and major content learning areas from the primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education. The English-only-policy in the classroom may have influenced by the assumption that vernaculars interfere rather than facilitate in learning English and other content learning areas. In fact, translanguaging, the switching from one language to the other language/s, academically used for teaching and learning (Garcia & Li, 2014) would still be viewed as a substandard approach compared to the hegemony of “standard” English-only-policy.

Although there are some researchers who claim that the acquisition of a third language is a qualitatively different processes from acquiring a second language (De Bot, Jaensch, Garcia & Maria, 2015; 2014; Pap, 2016; Bhatia & Ritchie 2016), most bilingual theorists consider trilingualism as a variant of bilingualism and as such studies on trilingualism use models of bilingualism. For example, some studies characterize the process of acquiring a trilingualism using models of second language acquisition (Chevalier, 2015; Schepens, van der Slik, and van Hout, 2016). Using this general assumption, a few researchers have inquired into whether inhibitory control would be further enhanced in trilinguals compared to bilinguals.

Some of the earliest research on non-linguistic cognitive processes in bilinguals assumed that similar control processes are involved in bilingualism, trilingualism, or multilingualism, regardless of the number of languages the person knows (McNamara and Kushnir, 1972; McNamara, Krauthammer, and Bolgar, 1968). The theory is that regardless of the number of languages a person speaks, the person uses the “shut down” activation process deactivating or activating the languages “not-in-use” in particular linguistic experiences. Bilinguals and trilinguals use the same process to deactivate the irrelevant language or languages so that only one language is actively processing; the process works similarly whether one or two or more languages are “shut down.” Thus, there should be no difference in the level of deactivation or activation between trilinguals and bilinguals.

This prediction has been supported in a few studies that compared different types of inhibitory control in monolinguals, bilinguals, and trilinguals. Poarch and van Hell (2012) used the Simon tasks to measure inhibitory control; monolinguals were slower compared to bilinguals and trilinguals, suggesting that bilinguals and trilinguals performed better in the inhibitory control than monolinguals. However, there was no difference between th
bilinguals and trilinguals. Schroeder and Marian (2016) compared children and younger adults who were monolinguals, bilinguals, and trilinguals using the flanker task another measure of inhibitory control tasks. Their results were similar; bilinguals and trilinguals outperformed monolinguals, but trilinguals did not outperform bilinguals. This pattern of results was also found in similar studies with other younger participants (Poarch and Bialystok, 2015; Vega-Mendoza, West, Sorace, and Bak, 2015).

*Degree of bilingualism: A proficiency-based theory*

Degree of bilingualism is crucial in accounting for differences between monolinguals and bilinguals in cognitive processing. In general, when bilingualism is defined as having equal facility in both languages (balanced and full bilingualism), bilinguals have demonstrated superior cognitive abilities when compared with monolingual counterparts matched on SES variables (Diaz, 1985). Testing this hypothesis, Hakuta (1987) found that degree of bilingualism is positively related to cognitive ability among 111 children in a longitudinal study from Kinder 1 to Grade 4-5. Positive statistical results were obtained between nonverbal intelligence measures and degree of bilingualism.

Bialystok and Majumber (1998) also examined the effects of differing degrees of bilingualism on the non-verbal problem-solving abilities of children in Grade 3. Three linguistic groups were compared in problem-solving tasks designed to measure control of attention or analysis of knowledge processes previously shown to develop differently in monolingual and bilingual children solving linguistic problems. An English-speaking monolingual group was compared with a French-English bilingual group and a Bengali-English bilingual group. Tests of language proficiency confirmed that the French-English bilingual participants were full bilinguals and that the Bengali-English participants were partial bilinguals. The full French bilinguals showed better performance on the non-linguistic tasks requiring control of attention than both the partial bilinguals and the monolinguals. There were no differences found between the groups on the non-linguistic task requiring analysis of representational structures. They posited that full bilinguals carry over their linguistic advantage in control of attention into the non-linguistic domain. In addition, a recent study of Xie (2018) supported this early claim about degree of bilingualism in that language proficiency positively affect executive control.
Distinguishing Chabacano from Filipino and English languages

Chabacano

Chabacano, whose variant is commonly known as Zamboangueño, is considered as a Philippine Creole Spanish (Lipski, 1987). According to Barrios (2006), Zamboangueño words are predominantly derived from Spanish such as number of words, days, weeks, months and body parts. This is supported by Crowley’s (1997) hypothesis of creoles that the superstrate language or the lexifier language (e.g. Spanish) of a creole contributes to its vocabulary.

Based on the dominance of the superstrate or the lexifier language Spanish in Zamboangueño, it is safe to say that this creole still falls under the Romance language family. This makes Chabacano different from Filipino which belong to Austronesian languages. Romance and Austronesian languages are different in terms of lexical or orthographic representation (ethnologue.com). However, research showed that substrates of Austronesian origin (i.e. Bisaya and Sama) influence the lexicon of Chabacano (Rubino, 2005) and that substrates of Austronesian traces (i.e. Tagalog & Cebuano) also influence the Chabacano pronouns and morpho-syntactic structure (Barrios, 2006). In similar vein, Frake (1971; 1980) pointed out that Zamboanga Chabacano has been enriched with the inclusion of Cebuano, Ilongo, Sama, and Subanen words. Frake also noted that the source of the Philippine Austronesian elements in Zamboanga Chabacano were the Bisayan languages, more closely related to modern standard Hiligaynon than to the modern standard Cebuano which Zamboangueño speakers are now in contact.

Filipino

The Filipino used in the present study is derived from Austronesian language family of a Malayo-Polynesian origin, particularly known as Tagalog. According to Gonzales (1998), Filipino, based on the 1987 Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines, is a language enriched with elements (largely vocabulary) from the other Philippine languages and non-local languages used in the Philippines. The structural base of Filipino is Tagalog, a language spoken in Manila and in the provinces of Rizal, Cavite, Laguna, Batangas, Quezon, Camarines Norte to the south of Manila and Bulacan, Nueva Ecija, and part of
Tarlac to the north of Manila. Filipino is now considered as the national language being taught in the entire Philippines from pre-school, primary, secondary and tertiary levels of education by virtue of the Philippine Bilingual Education Policy (BPE) of 1974.

**English**

The English language used in the study is based on American English that is of Germanic language family descent (ethnologue.com). English has long been existed in the Philippine educational system since the 1900s. English was first implemented as the medium of instruction when US President William McKinley issued a letter of instruction to the Philippine Commission in April 1, 1900 (Bernardo, 2004). Since then, English has been used as medium of instruction for all content learning areas. But when the BPE was implemented in 1974, Pilipino and English became the media of instruction in elementary and high school. The subjects were divided into the English domain (English communication arts, mathematics, science) and Pilipino domain (Pilipino communication arts, social studies, history).

In 1987, BPE was recast under the Department of Education Culture and Sports. The role of Filipino was emphasized to be the language of literacy and scholarly discourse while English was narrowly defined as the international language and the non-exclusive language of science and technology. It also mandated higher education schools to spearhead in ‘intellectualizing’ Filipino (Bernardo, 2004, 2007). To date, however, English is still dominating the Philippine educational system, being the medium of instruction for the major content learning areas from pre-school, primary, secondary and tertiary levels.

While it is true that Filipino belonging to Austronesian languages is different from English classified under Germanic languages, Chabacano is somehow not that different compared to Filipino in terms of lexical representation as substrates of Austronesian origin (Malayo-Polynesian language family i.e. Tagalog) have already influenced the Chabacano lexicon as previously pointed out. Would trilinguals manifest higher conflict given the similar lexical Austronesian elements of L1 Chabacano and L2 Filipino?

In summary, the beneficial role of trilingualism in language learning and cognitive processing was discussed. The specific purpose of the present study is to determine whether young adult trilinguals would demonstrate better performance in executive control
compared to bilinguals. In other words, the present study aimed to provide empirical data that can highlight the consequence of trilingualism in cognitive processing (i.e. inhibitory control). A study that would go beyond simply looking into the sequence of language acquisition or identifying the facilitating role of L1 and L2 to L3 acquisition.

**The present study**

The participants were limited to two language groups: (1) bilinguals; and (2) trilinguals. There were 104 bilinguals and 106 trilinguals. The participants were college students ages 15-25 in a certain university in the Southernmost part of Philippines. The present study was limited to young adult bilinguals and trilinguals. Since the target participants were taken from Zamboanga City, the target languages were Chabacano, Filipino and English. Their SES were determined through the language background questionnaire where their parents or guardians’ income was stated. They were also categorized as partial/ full bilinguals/ trilinguals through the language-background questionnaire, verbal fluency tests, extemporaneous speaking and essay test. Both proficiency tests were constructed in three languages (trilinguals) and two languages (bilinguals).

Partial bilinguals and partial trilinguals yielded insufficient number to be compared to full bilinguals and full trilinguals respectively. Generally, there were full Filipino-English bilinguals and full Chabacano-Filipino-English trilinguals among the college students because they have already been exposed to these languages both formally and informally. Thus, only two language groups: full bilinguals and full trilinguals were compared. Full bilingualism or full trilingualism meant equal “average to high” level of proficiency in two or three languages.

Executive control was limited to interference suppression, a higher level inhibitory which is the ability to ignore distracting stimuli in order to focus attention on a target stimuli.
Problem Statement

This study determined whether comparable bilinguals and trilinguals would vary in their performance in executive control task that activates higher level inhibitory control via shape-matching task.

The present study seeks to answer the following research question:

1. What is the college students’ proficiency level in lexical, speaking and writing tasks?
2. How do bilinguals and trilinguals compare in terms of executive control?

Hypothesis

This study hypothesized that trilinguals would perform better in executive control compared to bilinguals.

Significance

The present study theorized on the consequences of trilingualism on cognitive processes. To date, there have been a few studies that probe on the effect of trilingualism on executive control. This current study probed on the specific cognitive processes involving the interaction of three language representations and their link to executive functioning. Hence, the results in the trilinguals’ performance on executive control compared to matched bilinguals could contribute in the pool of knowledge of psycholinguistics research particularly in the arguments concerning the interrelationship between linguistic representational systems and cognitive control mechanisms.

This study constructed appropriate experimental tasks that correctly assessed executive control and lexical access. Research investigating executive control and lexical access vis-à-vis bilingualism (i.e. Bialystok, Craik & Luk., 2008) may have failed to define and distinguish verbal from non-verbal task. For example, the Stroop task, supposed to measure non-verbal processing, incorporated lexical items (i.e. red or blue) as stimulus. The present study ensured that only novel abstract shapes were used as stimuli shape-matching task as these experiments were measures of non-verbal processing. Since these tasks aimed to tap executive control in determining possible language effect, it is important
therefore to distinguish more consistently, verbal from non-verbal cognitive processing. The verbal fluency task, particularly the naming task ensured non-inclusion of definition (used by Bialystok et al., 2008) as it might trigger syntactic level of processing.

This research also constructed appropriate instruments: extemporaneous speaking and essay test in Chabacano, Filipino and English to measure the participants’ degree of bilingualism and trilingualism which can be used to test college students’ proficiencies in these languages in the tertiary schools in Zamboanga City. These language assessment tools could serve as benchmarks in measuring trilingual college students to enhance language teaching and learning.

The verbal fluency tasks (i.e. naming and category tasks in Chabacano, Filipino and English) can serve as measures of bilingual and trilingual language proficiencies which can be used by language educators and L2 researchers probing lexical or vocabulary strengths and weaknesses of the students learning English as their second or third language.

The hypothesized advantage of bilingualism and trilingualism in executive control could serve as basis for curriculum language planners to consistently implement the inclusion of L1 (i.e. Chabacano) to be a literacy language starting as early as pre-school to develop the students’ cognitive control skills in relation to the mother-tongue based multilingual education. The knowledge of three language representations has been proven in the literature to be beneficial in developing executive functioning.

Method
Design

This study employed mixed design in factorial experiment, particularly 2 X 2 ANOVA in repeated measures wherein the between group comparison is language group (bilingual and trilingual) and the within group comparison is the executive control shape-matching variables (no-distractor vs. with distractor trials).

Instruments

Language background questionnaire. This was a survey of the participants’ exposure with their languages since their early childhood. This was a checklist of their language history or recollection of when they started to speak and understand these
languages at home, in the community, church and schools and even their regular place of vacation. This survey contributed information essential in profiling the participants’ language background (Madrazo and Bernardo, 2012, 2018).

**Naming task.** This task was an adaptation of the Boston naming test (Kaplan et al., 1983 cited in Bialystok et al., 2008; Madrazo and Bernardo, 2012, 2018)). The original Boston naming task consisted of 60-line drawings of objects that participants were asked to name. The modified version used in Bialystok et al. (2008) was composed of 30 line drawings and 30 definitions. The original version was preferred because definitions can activate syntactic level of processing that could involve different cognitive processing system from lexical access mechanism.

The first step in constructing this task was to list as many possible Nouns in the target languages: Chabacano, Filipino and English with the use of dictionaries. The Nouns chosen were items that can be illustrated and be identified by college students. These words were expected to have already been used by college students in an “average” frequency—not too frequent and not too least/infrequently used. In the second step, the list of 170 Chabacano 171 Filipino and 200 English Nouns were subjected to a survey. The Chabacano nouns were taken from Camins (1999). The Filipino and English nouns were taken from dictionary.com (n.d). A class of college students composed of 50 students in Western Mindanao State University was involved in this survey to determine the frequency of word-use. In the third step, the frequency of word-use was computed by the given numerical value: 5-very frequent, 4-frequent, 3-average, 2-not that frequent and 1-not used at all. Words with only the rating of 3 used by majority of respondents were included in the Naming task. Out of the list of words used in an average frequency, only 60 Chabacano, 60 Filipino and 60 English Nouns were included in the Naming task.

The drawings were downloaded from googleimage.com and pasted on power point. The experimenter went through each slide with the participant and recorded the accuracy of the response. The RT was recorded with the use of stopwatch. The maximum time spent was less than 1 min. Participants decided when they did not know an answer and the next slide was shown. Scores were the total number of correct answers out of 60 for each of the picture. Thus, the total for the task is a score out of 60. Average RT was only computed for the correct response. The RT in seconds were converted to milliseconds for the analysis.
**Category task.** Participants were given a category (i.e., animal or parts of the body) for Chabacano, Filipino and English. Different category was given for each language. Only one category was required for each language and they were given the option of what language came first. They were told to say as many words as they could for the given category within 1 minute for each language. The experimenter timed the task with a stopwatch and recorded all the words that were produced. Scores were the total number of unique items, excluding repetitions, produced within the 1 minute allowed for each condition (Milner, 1964; Bialystok et al., 2008; Madrazo and Bernardo, 2012, 2018). The highest score obtain was considered to be the possible total number of items. Percentage was computed by the score obtained divided by the highest possible score.

These survey instruments and the proficiency tests below were validated by a Language Professor (with Ph.D. degree in Linguistics), a Ph.D. Linguistics student and a Language Professor (with MA degree) both teaching at Philippine Normal University Graduate School, and a Ph.D. student and Language Professor (with MA Degree), a faculty of Western Mindanao State University, to ascertain high level of validity. Validity refers to how correct, consistent or appropriate the items are in obtaining survey information or measuring the participants’ proficiency in the target language. Each validator was given a validation sheet where they were required to state the items to be discarded, retained or revised. The validators stated their suggestions for the items they proposed to be revised.

**Proficiency tests.** The proficiency tests were measures of reception (comprehension) and production (speaking/ writing) designed to determine the participants’ degree of bilingualism and trilingualism. There were two proficiency tests appropriate for college students. These were extemporaneous speaking and essay test. The former aims to measure the participants’ understanding of the questions or issues presented to them and their speaking abilities in three languages whereas the essay test assessed their understanding of the given issues or problems and their writing skills. Both proficiency tests were designed to measure the participants’ indexes of proficiency and not the content of reception and production.

**Extemporaneous speaking.** This was an oral proficiency test that measured comprehension/listening skill (given question) and speaking skill in Chabacano, Filipino and English (Madrazo and Bernardo (2012, 2018). The participants were given different
question or issue for each language. The question was read to the participant to test their listening skill. They expressed spontaneously their opinion or reaction. Their speech was tape-recorded for evaluation. There were three evaluators who were proficient in Chabacano, Filipino and English for the extemporaneous speaking. The speech was rated using Heaton’s (1989) rating scale.

*Essay test.* This is a revised proficiency test used in Madrazo and Bernardo (2012, 2018), an English Proficiency Test administered to college students. Pictures eliciting environmental issues were prompted to the participants. They had to discuss the issue and propose solution to resolve the problem (i.e. illegal logging or drug addiction) in just one paragraph. The prompt images used for writing prompt or stimuli were taken from Editorial Cartoon (2009) of the Philippine Daily Inquirer. This revised essay test has undergone pilot testing administered to students with similar characteristics with the target participants. The Chabacano, Filipino & English essay test results were submitted to inter-rater reliability through Pearson r correlation computation and were found to have high correlation. There were three evaluators for essay test. The three evaluators were professors teaching English at Western Mindanao State University. A revised rating scale (Heaton, 1999) was used to grade the essay test.

*Shape-matching task.* The shape-matching task tapped the participants’ ability to inhibit a distractor in order for them to correctly compare a white and a red abstract shape (DeSchepper & Treisman, 1996) that appeared side by side. The distractor was in the form of a green abstract shape overlapping the red shape. The task was adapted from Friedman and Miyake (2004). Participants were required to press X for identical assigned key if the left shape was identical to right shape and to press ? for different-assigned key if the left shape is different from the right shape.

The two abstract shapes compared were displayed side by side on the computer screen with a white background. In 60% of the trials, the left shape was superimposed on a distractor shape. These were referred to as distractor trials. In 40% of the trials, only the two shapes to be compared appeared on the screen. These were no-distractor trials. In all trials, the distractor shape differed from the two shapes to be compared. The two abstract shapes to be compared were always drawn in red and the distractor shape was always drawn in green. At points where the lines of the distractor and the left shape intersected, the left
shape, which was colored red, appeared superimposed on the distractor shape, which was green. All of the ten shapes used to make the stimuli for this task were approximately two inches in length and width. The two shapes compared were placed two inches apart and the midpoint of the distance between them was the center of the computer screen. This illustrated in Figure 3 below.

![Figure 1](image)

Figure 1. Similar shapes with distractor trial: the white shape is the same as the red shape. The participant should press the left response key (X) ignoring the distracting and overlapping green shape on the red shape.

There were 150 trials with 60 no-distractor trials and 90 distractor trials that were randomly arranged excluding instruction, practice trials and self-correct responses. Specifically, there were 6 blocks with 25 trials in each block which contained 10 no-distractor and 15 with-distractor trials. The constraints for the random arrangement were that no more than three consecutive trials of the same type occurred and the distractor shape for consecutive distractor trials were different. Six practice trials were given prior to the test proper. The indicator variable or measure for the shape-matching task was the difference between the mean response time in distractor trials and mean response time in no-distractor trials between bilinguals and trilinguals. Only correct responses were considered for analysis. Smaller differences or smaller values were taken to mean faster or higher interference suppression.
The data

Participants were always informed of the nature of the tasks and how long each task would take. It was clarified to them that withdrawal from the study any time was an option and they were asked to sign a consent statement found at the bottom of the language background questionnaire. The administration of survey, proficiency tests and experimental tasks were held in a conducive environment. The instructions for all computer–based tasks were posted on the screen and read to the participants. After the administration of the tasks, they were debriefed about the study and their performance. The target testing time for all the tasks, survey and proficiency tests were approximately 3 to 4 hours per participant depending on their speed.

All participants were required to accomplish the language background questionnaire before taking the proficiency tests and the experimental tasks. With only one laptop for the experimental tasks, some participants waiting to take the experiment were allowed to take the proficiency tests, naming and category tests located at the other room.

Data analysis

Data cleaning was performed prior to statistical analysis. All values that were two standard deviation higher or lower than the mean were considered outliers and were excluded.

To determine how do bilinguals and trilinguals compare on executive control mean accuracy scores, standard deviations and reaction times (RT) were computed. The results were submitted to repeated measures in mixed-design, two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to determine the difference between group comparison: bilinguals and trilinguals and within group comparison (e.g. no-distractor vs. with-distractor conditions trials).
Results

Background measures: Gender, age, course, SES, language proficiency and verbal fluency

The actual number of participants was 210. There were 61 (29%) males and 149 (71%) females. Participants were dominated by ages 16 (20.50%), 17 (52.90%) and 18 (17.10%) years old. They were Bachelor of Science in Nursing (BSN) (90%) students. There were also Bachelor of Science in Nutrition and Dietetics (BSND) (4.80%), Bachelor of Science in Physical Education (BSPE) (3.30%), Bachelor of Science in Electrical Engineering (BSEE) (1.40%) and Bachelor in Science in Criminology (BSCRIM) (0.50%) students. Their parents' income were mostly belonging to 5000-8999 (14.7%) and 9000-16999 bracket (45%) which were average to above average. Only 7 (3.33%) students stated high to very high income of 48,000 and above.

The bases for categorizing the participants into language groups: bilingual and trilingual were the proficiency tests: extemporaneous speaking and essay test in three languages: Chabacano, Filipino and English. Results showed that bilinguals were proficient in Filipino extemporaneous speaking obtaining the mean score of 83.35% and were also proficient in English extemporaneous speaking with the mean of 79.66%. Trilinguals were also proficient in Chabacano extemporaneous speaking with the mean of 75.04%, in Filipino extemporaneous speaking with \( M = 81.97\% \) and in English extemporaneous speaking with \( M = 79.07\% \).

In addition, bilinguals were average in Filipino essay test obtaining the mean score of 55.61% and were average in English essay test with a mean of 55.42%. Trilinguals were also average in Chabacano essay test with \( M = 56.98\% \), proficient in Filipino essay test with the \( M = 64.78\% \), and “proficient” in English essay test with a \( M = 62.44\% \).

Grouping the participants into 2 language groups, there were 104 (49.50%) bilinguals and 106 (50.50%) trilinguals. When classified according to degree, there were 0 (0.00%) partial bilinguals, 104 (49.50) full bilinguals, 8 (3.8%) partial trilinguals and 98 (46.70%) full trilinguals. With the insufficient number of partial bilinguals and partial trilinguals, only two language groups: 104 bilinguals and 106 trilinguals were compared to determine language effect in executive control and lexical access.
As regards verbal fluency task, bilinguals and trilinguals were both proficient in Filipino and English naming tasks while both language groups were average in Filipino and English category tasks. Only trilinguals were tested in Chabacano naming and category tasks. Trilinguals were proficient in Chabacano as expected because it is their L1. Mean scores are stated in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Mean Accuracy (and Standard Deviation) in Percent Score between Language Groups and Naming Task or Category Task

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Filipino Naming Task</th>
<th>English Naming Task</th>
<th>Filipino Category Task</th>
<th>English Category Task</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bilingual</td>
<td>74.54 (10.99)</td>
<td>84.70 (7.33)</td>
<td>59.19 (15.26)</td>
<td>56.15 (16.57)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trilingual</td>
<td>74.45 (10.28)</td>
<td>85.96 (6.95)</td>
<td>59.39 (21.17)</td>
<td>57.85 (14.10)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Executive control: Shape-matching task

The mean response time and standard deviation for language groups by Shape-matching conditions are presented in Table 2. All participants were slower to perform in with-distractor-different (WDD) trials than in no-distractor-different (NDD) trials \( [F(1, 208) = 105, MSE =0.00, p < 0.0001, \, \chi^2p = .41] \) with no difference between language groups \( [F(1, 208) = 1.11, MSE =0.00, p = 0.243, \, \chi^2p = .031] \). There was no interaction between conditions (WDD vs. NDD) and language groups \([F(1, 208) = 0.34, MSE =0.01, p= .34, \, \chi^2p = .011]\). As expected, participants struggled in with-distractor-similar (WDS) trials than in no-distractor-similar trials (NDS) \([F(1, 208) = 516.89, MSE =0.00, p < 0.0001, \, \chi^2p = .32]\), with no language effect \([F(1, 208) = 0.62, MSE =0.00, p= .44, \, \chi^2p = .021]\). There was also no interaction between conditions (WDS vs. NDS) and language groups \([F(1, 208) = 0.70, MSE =0.00, p= .54, \, \chi^2p = .015]\).
Table 2

*Mean Reaction Time (and Standard Deviation) in Milliseconds between Language Groups and Shape-Matching Conditions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language group</th>
<th>Response time (ms)</th>
<th>Response time (ms)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>NDD</td>
<td>WDD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDD- No Distractor Different</td>
<td>2112.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Distractor Different</td>
<td>1971.15 (265.06)</td>
<td>(310.33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NDS- No Distractor Similar</td>
<td>2161.14</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>With Distractor Similar</td>
<td>2002.32 (265.37)</td>
<td>(327.59)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bilingual

Trilingual

Discussion

The background measures: gender, age, course, SES, language proficiency and verbal fluency ensured that target languages groups: bilinguals and trilinguals were comparable. The degree of bilingualism and trilingualism were clearly defined and measured using appropriate proficiency tests measuring college students’ reception and production skills in two or three languages. The data on language proficiency was substantiated by the verbal fluency tasks used in cognitive psychology as standard background measures prior to the administration of executive control experimental tasks to ensure comparability of language groups (Bialystok et al., 2008; Bialystok et al., 2009; Xie, 2018; Madrazo & Bernardo, 2012; Madrazo & Bernardo, 2018).

In a more current bilingual investigation in relation to cognitive control, Xie (2018) saw the need to measure the participants’ degree of bilingualism and probed the effect of L2 fluency on executive control employing three comparable groups of unbalanced Chinese-English bilinguals. To assess conflict monitoring and inhibition, Flanker task was conducted and to assess cognitive shifting, Wisconsin Card Sorting Test (WCST) was administered. Flanker data showed null effect in inhibition in all groups and null interaction between group and trials. In contrast, the Flanker data revealed quick response
time from the group with the highest L2 fluency compared to the group with poor L2 competence in all trials (incongruent, neutral, and congruent), reflecting stronger ability of monitoring complicated stimuli. The data suggests that L2 proficiency determines cognitive control, but only in conflict monitoring, not in inhibition or mental set shifting.

As with the early findings on degree of bilingualism (Hakuta, 1987; Bialystok & Majumber, 1998), language proficiency does matter in measuring executive control. However, Verreyt, Woumans, Vandelanotte, Aszmalec, and Duyck (2016) argued that it is the experience of language switching, not merely language proficiency that can affect the bilinguals’ performance on executive control. It also makes sense when a bilingual switch that frequently or not, because a bilingual could experience “language attrition”. when his/her L1 is not used that often (Genuino, 2005, p. 8). The only argument with Verreyt et al. (2016) study is that proficiency was not measured and only self-rating survey was used to classify students’ proficiency and switching experience. I think survey is not enough to measure the participants’ degree of bilingualism. Appropriate measures should be administered to ensure claim that participants are bilinguals or trilinguals as proven in this present study and Xie’s (2018) results.

On the null effect between language groups and executive control ability, it is possible that Chabacano language representation may not have caused that much conflict. The basis for this assumption is that Zamboanga Chabacano is a creole that has already been influenced by Austronesian lexical elements (Frake, 1971; 1980; Rubino, 2005; Barrios, 2006). Filipino belongs to an Austronesian language family more closely related to Malayo-Polynesian particularly known as Tagalog. While it is true that there is distinction between Filipino and English that belongs to Germanic language family, Filipino and Chabacano shares resemblance in terms of lexical or orthographic representation with the inclusion of some Austronesian lexical traces (ethnologue.com).

In essence, the young adult bilinguals and trilinguals in this study may have experienced somewhat the same level of conflict. Conflict from attention to two or three language representations actually enhances executive control (Bialystok et al. 2008, Madrazo & Bernardo, 2012, 2018). The data on shape-matching task seemed not supporting the hypothesized trilinguals’ increased conflict as Chabacano has already been influenced by Austronesian lexical elements such as Filipino. Perhaps, it is interesting to
use an L1 that is totally different in terms of orthographic representation from L2 and L3 if trilinguals would really experience higher conflict compared to bilinguals. The small effect size derived from shape-matching task would imply that data is not conclusive. Hence, it does not necessarily follow that null effect in one task (i.e. shape-matching task) absolutely means null effect in another task (e.g. Simon arrow task). In fact, Madrazo and Bernardo (2018) employing similar matched groups found positive interaction between language groups: bilinguals and trilinguals and executive control task measured through Simon arrow. To clarify these different accounts, it necessary to examine what Yang (2017) postulated. Yang emphasized that executive functioning and working memory tasks vary widely across studies, as they involved different stimuli, procedures, and presentation modalities.

Bialystok (2017) argued that any alteration of cognition and brain from bilingual experience can be justified through the mechanisms linked to executive function processes that are located in frontal brain regions—that showed clear evidence of positive interaction between bilingualism and executive functioning, specifically in the anterior cingulate cortex (ACC) brain area. In fact, Costa et al. (2009) and Hilchey and Klein (2011) postulated that monitoring can account for the bilingual fundamental performance on tasks involving executive functioning. The improved ability and domain of ACC in dual-language system has already been proven (e.g. Abutalebi et al., 2012; Rodriguez-Pujadas et al., 2014). Bialystok further stressed that executive function is defined quite ambiguously in the literature. Executive control theorists problematizing these attributes have designed models that are somewhat distinct from one study to the other. So, given the brain research evidence on the bilingual advantage on executive functioning, executive control theorists should be prudent on their sweeping claims that the bilingual edge hypothesis is a myth.

In conclusion, I see the need to be prudent when theorizing bilingualism, trilingualism and executive control. Prudence is needed to be exercised when selecting the method to measure the non-linguistic domain of executive functioning. When the purpose is to measure executive control such as interference suppression, a higher level inhibitory control, it should be ascertained that the stimuli should not be digits, letters, words, phrases or sentences because these stimuli could activate the linguistic domain of executive functions.
functioning. It is also necessary to ensure that appropriate and standard background measures are used to define and measure the participants’ degree of bilingualism. Future studies should be certain that the three languages are total distinct to bring about that expected conflict in trilinguals compared to bilinguals.

The results here would also have implications to ESL particularly in teaching vocabulary and decision-making skills. Assessing the students’ lexical access skills in their L1 and L2 can provide teachers ideas to strategize on what to include and what not to include during classroom activities or assessments. Research proves that Non-target English language/s can be beneficial to their English processing skills both in reading and writing (C. Madrazo, forthcoming). Of course, executive functioning skills can definitely help students develop their decision making skills, for example on what to focus and what to inhibit in order to select the right option in a given task or it could be to select the most logical option for life’s goals.

References


Paap, K., Johnson, H., & Sawi, O. (2015). Bilingual advantages in executive functioning either do not exist or are restricted to very specific and undetermined circumstances. *Cortex, 69*, 256-278.


Communication Strategies of Cagayan State University Professors: Basis for the Conduct of Common European Framework Reference (CEFR) Proficiency Test in Higher Institution

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Bioprofile

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Dr. Ria Arellano-Tamayo finished Doctor of Philosophy Major in Language Education. She is a language professor at College of Teacher Education, Cagayan State University, Andrews Campus for 10 years. And she has various papers presented to International Conferences and have three (3) published papers in SCOPUS-Indexed journals.

Abstract

Successful language teaching and learning depends on the proficiency and productivity of the language professor and students. In order to be proficient and productive language users, there is need for many opportunities to interact in social and academic situations.
This study determined the profile and the communication strategies of the Cagayan State University Professors. It also determined the relationship between the discourse patterns and the language preference in instruction. It further analyzed if the language used is useful or not to language teaching and learning.

The study used descriptive-qualitative design. And the schematic approach by Cots is adopted in analyzing the transcribed dialogues.

It was found out that majority of the respondents are middle-aged, female, speak Ibanag, LET passers, doctorate degree holders, have 10 years teaching experience and use English language in instruction. The teachers and the students used different communication strategies such as translation, code-mixing and code-switching in teaching. It is revealed that those teachers who used varied communication strategies have lively classes than those who used straight English in instruction. And it is also revealed that profile of the teachers is not significantly related to their language use in instruction.

It is concluded then, that teachers used communication strategies for enhancing classroom interaction, thus, making possible conversational contributions in the class which adhere to Grice’s Cooperative Principle which posits that effective communication is in consonance with the maxims of quality, quantity, relevance, and manner.

**Keywords:** Common European Framework Reference, code-mixing, code-switching, communication strategies, English as a Foreign Language (EFL), proficiency test and translation.

**INTRODUCTION**

At Cagayan State University, English is the official medium of instruction in all subjects taught in the university. Thus, professors should be the conduit of language efficiency, effectiveness and accuracy. They are expected to be English language proficient because successful language acquisition of the students greatly depends on the medium of communication and instruction used by the professors and the quality of education given to these students.

English Proficiency of the teachers and students can be determined in various levels. One of which is the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages
(CEFR) descriptive levels. CEFR is an international standard for describing language ability of a teacher or a student. The English language levels descriptions can be English basic user which is A1 as a beginner and A2 as Elementary English. While, the other level is English independent user which can either be B1 (Intermediate English) or B2 (Upper-Intermediate English). And the last level is proficient English user which either be a C1 (Advanced English) or C2 (Proficiency English).

Expectedly, university students and graduates are expected to be in the C1 and C2 levels who can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognize implicit meaning; can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions; can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes, and who can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing a controlled use of organizational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.

On the other hand, language professors should be in the C2 level. They should understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. They can summarize information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of meaning even in more complex situations. And have the ease in using the target language

However, there are studies conducted that show the low proficiency level of the Filipinos. An example of this is the research study of Tan (2016) of Hopkins International Partners, Haarms and Diamante (2016) of Southville International School and Aquino (2016) of Lyceum of the Philippines University. Their studies revealed that the average Philippine college graduate scores a TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) of 631.4 out of 990 (CEFR B1) which is similar to the English language target of Thailand and Vietnam for graduating high school students which is set at CEFR B1.

They also found out that the current English proficiency score of a Philippine college graduate is similar to that of an English speaking taxi driver in Tokyo, Japan. In addition to this, a public provincial institution case study revealed that All BS Education specialization in English graduated students scored between a Grade 2 and Grade 5 level
of English proficiency. 95 out of 100 graduates cannot be hired by BPO Industry because of poor communication in English.

At present, Singapore and Malaysia now outperform the Philippines with their college graduates in terms of English Proficiency particularly on comprehension and analytical skills. Philippines college graduates are just B1 or lower. While, Malaysia, Thailand, Taiwan and Vietnam have adopted International English standards (CEFR framework) by increasing their English language learning hours (from 2 hours to 5 hours per week) in their curriculum in the past 2 years.

Philippines has a declining status in terms of English proficiency now. This can be attributed to many influential factors such as language proficiency of teachers, quality of communication using the English language in the university and the communication strategies used by professors in instruction.

Given this premise, English professors in the state universities are expected to be exemplar models on the use of English language in instruction. They must abide the standing policy of the higher institution regarding language use. It is made clear in the updated CHED policy on language use as embodied in the CHED Memorandum Order (CMO) No. 59, s. 1996 which mandates that language courses, whether Filipino or English, should be taught in that language. It is too clear then, that English language should be used in teaching English subjects in the university.

Conversely, as observed, there are some teachers who used variety of languages in instruction. Some teachers code-shift from English to Filipino or vice versa; while, some teachers even code-mix English and Filipino. On the other hand, some English as a Foreign Language (EFL) professors translate English words or phrases into the mother tongue of the students for better understanding; however, using these various languages including translation method in teaching affect language accuracy and fluency of the teachers and the learners as well.

While it is true that communication strategies contribute to the success of language acquisition. The frequent use of code-mixing, code-switching and translation should be avoided since it has a negative impact to the proficiency of both teachers and students. Rather, communication strategy should be positively employed in class as what Cook, Nunan (1993) and Cots (1995) have viewed. According to them, it is the systematic
adoption of a series of verbal actions which respond to a more or less conscious plan or communicative routine to achieve a specific language goal. It allows teachers to conceive verbal behavior as consisting not of independent, isolated actions which are the result of sudden decisions by the speaker, but rather as the implementation of a plan or communicative routine in which a series of verbal actions are mutually dependent and they all contribute to the achievement of a specific goal.

In this research, the Cooperative Principle of Grice (1975) is used. In this principle, the communication in the classroom is based on the assumption that speakers obey four maxims: maxim of quality (be true), maxim of quantity (be brief), maxim of relevance (be relevant) and maxim of manner (be clear). The maxims of cooperative principle can be used to describe how teachers or learners in a classroom conversation derive information which is not literally said. In addition to this, the cooperative principle states that participants expect that each will make a “conversational contribution” at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange and listeners and speakers must speak cooperatively and mutually accept one another to be understood in a particular way.

There are innumerable studies that are somewhat related to the present study like Meyerhoff’s (2009) study, “Analysis of Communication Strategies used by Freshman Active English Students”. He analyzed the progress of Active English (AE) students speaking at Saga University over a five-week period in 2007. His study focused on both quantity (speech rate, lexical density, etc.) and quality (lexical and grammatical accuracy) of speech, as well as the implementation of communication strategies. He concluded that further studies be conducted to look at the roles of teacher and student feedback and motivation on speaking fluency and accuracy, challenging current assumptions, as well as the extent to which individual task questions impact on students speaking performance.

In addition to this, Shamala (2009) in her study, “Language transfer as a communication strategy and a language learning strategy in a Malaysian ESL classroom” reported on the use of language transfer as a type of communication strategy and language learning strategy drawing on a variety of oral interaction activities from a Malaysian classroom for English as a second language. Her study provided insights into not only how the learners first language functions as a strategy for communication but also how it can
enhance second language learning by way of helping learners expand their second language repertoire and increase their automatization of second language items.

The studies mentioned are related to the present study since all researches concerned on the use of communication strategies in English as a Second Language (ESL) classroom as means of medium of communication and instruction.

**OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY**

This study generally determined the communication strategies used by the CSU professors. It likewise identified the perceived factors affecting language use in instruction. Specifically, this study determined the profile of the teacher-respondents in terms of age, sex, college affiliation, highest educational attainment, eligibility, language spoken, length of service. Further, this study identified the language use of the teacher-respondents in teaching English; determined the communication strategies of the teacher-respondents, and it compared qualitatively the communication strategies of the respondents when grouped according to their profile variables.

**MATERIALS AND METHODS**

**Research Design**

The study made use of descriptive-qualitative research design since the profile of the teacher-respondents in terms of age, sex, language spoken, highest educational attainment, number of years in service and college affiliation, and language used in instruction were described. Moreover, the comparison of language use in instruction of the teacher-respondents when grouped according to profile was also described.

A careful analysis and interpretation of the transcripts of actual classroom discourse were recorded which became the main reference for documenting the communication strategies used in instruction by the teachers.

**Locale of the Study**

The study was conducted at Cagayan State University- Andrews Campus particularly in the College of Teacher Education, College of Business Entrepreneurship and Accountancy, College of Allied Health Sciences and College of Hospitality Industry
Management during the first semester of school year 2015-2016. These four colleges were selected on the merits of their offering of courses in the Andrews campus.

**Respondents and Sampling Procedure**

The respondents of the study were the 15 Grammar and Composition 1 Professors of the College of Teacher Education, College of Allied Health Sciences, College of Business Entrepreneurship and Accountancy and College of Hospitality Management. The number of respondents was based on sample size guidelines for grounded theory research which ranged from 15-20 participants (Creswell, 2003). Likewise, it was accorded to Fraenkel and Wallen’s (1993) and Walter’s (2015) suggestion on minimum number of participants to be considered in a correlational research. Total enumeration was employed in the study as all those teaching Grammar and Composition 1 at the Andrews campus were taken as respondents.

**Research Instruments**

The questionnaire was one of the instruments used in the study. The questionnaire consisted of the profile of the respondents which included their age, sex language spoken, highest educational attainment, number of years in service and the college where the teacher-respondents are affiliated.

In addition, audio and video recorders were also used to document and/or record the classroom activities and the language used by the language professors in instruction.

**Data Gathering Procedure**

The administration of instrument began after the courtesy calls were made. Thereafter, a recording of the teacher-respondent’s instruction in Grammar and Composition 1 was done and those recorded classroom discourses were transcribed which became the corpus for the analyses made.
Analysis of Data

The data were analyzed with the use of frequency counts and percentages to treat the profile of the teacher-respondents and their language preference in instruction. Ranking was also used based on the frequency counts.

On the other hand, Pearson-r was used to treat the significant relationship between the profile of the respondents and the language use by the teacher-respondents in instruction.

Lastly, in analyzing the discourse patterns evident in the instruction by the teacher-respondents, transcription was done first. Then, the schematic and practical approach by Cotts (1995) in analyzing the transcribed dialogues was adopted.

Results and Discussion

Table 1. Profile of the teacher-respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Frequency (N=15)</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-above</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard deviation</strong></td>
<td>10.48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sex</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language Spoken</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iloco</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ibanag</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>26.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itawes</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Itawes and Ibanag</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English, Filipino and Iloco</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Filipino, Iloco and Itawes 1 6.67

**Highest Educational Attainment**

| With Units in Master’s Degree | 1 | 6.67 |
| Master’s Graduate | 4 | 26.67 |
| With Units in Doctorate Degree | 8 | 53.33 |
| Doctorate Degree | 2 | 13.33 |

**Eligibility**

| CS Professional Passer | 1 | 6.67 |
| LET Passer | 9 | 60 |
| CS Sub-professional and LET Passer | 1 | 6.67 |
| CS Professional and LET Passer | 2 | 13.33 |
| P.D. 907, CS Professional and LET Passer | 2 | 13.33 |

**Length of Service**

| 1-3 | 1 | 6.67 |
| 4-6 | 6 | 40 |
| 7-9 | 2 | 13.33 |
| 10-above | 6 | 40 |

Mean 9.2

Standard Deviation 5.72

**College Affiliation**

| College of Teacher Education (CTEd) | 3 | 20 |
| College of Allied Health Sciences (CAHS) | 2 | 13.33 |
| College of Business and Entrepreneurship (CBEA) | 3 | 20 |
| College of Hospitality Industry Management (CHIM) | 7 | 46.67 |

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Majority of the teachers are middle-aged, female, Ibanags and have units in doctorate degree. They have two or more eligibilities, have a good number of rendered years as English teachers in the university and are from the College of Hospitality Industry Management.
Table 2. Language Use of the Teacher-Respondents in Teaching English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>53.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code-switch (English and Filipino)</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code-mix (English, Filipino and Iloco)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>15</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 reveals that majority of the respondents used English language in instruction; while, some of the respondents code-switched or code-shifted English and Filipino in instruction and code-mixed Filipino, English and Iloco. This is based on the tallied questionnaire given to the teacher-respondents. However, it was found out in the actual transcribed classroom conversations that there are few teacher-respondents who code-switched and code-mixed other languages such as English, Filipino, Itawes and Ibanag while employing the different types of adjacency pairs.

This finding implies that only more than half of the respondents followed the CHED policy on language use as embodied in the CHED Memorandum Order (CMO) No. 59, s. 1996 which mandates that language courses, whether Filipino or English, should be taught in that language. For it is too clear, that English language should be used in teaching English subjects such as Grammar and Composition 1 in college.

Table 3. Communication Strategies used by the CSU Professors

3.1 Communication Strategy: Code-mixing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code-mix statements/sentences/phrases/expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. <em>Okay, anong</em> spelling <em>ng</em> autistic? <em>Ganito ba? Sakto</em>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| 2. Pass *na muna ako diyan*, not because I don’t know how to use it in a sentence….may gender development issue *tayo diyan*.  
  *Kasi may* negative connotation *diyan*, pass *muna tayo diyan*. |
| 3. The hunted house mysteriously *eto na ah…sure na kayo*? |
| 4. We have the auxiliary verb are so *mag present* progressive *tayo* |
5. **Sige**, I will ask you common questions which I am sure you can answer.


7. So slightly beautiful? Beautiful *na nga slight pa... okay kayo ah*…

8. Slightly *lang*

9. Extremely... *sobra naman*

10. Whom do you consider *syempre sa klase niyo meron kayong matalino na kaklase*, so whom do you consider as the most intelligent?


   *Oh sige. Okay tandaan natin.*

12. Now, *asan na yung ating adverb natin dito?*

13. What about this one… *eto gawin natin, for example siya…* she comes five minutes before the time

14. He speaks slowly. He speaks slowly *kunana nu Ibanag*

15. *And last* sentence, roses…rose *kuna tayu nu Ilocano* smell sweetly… may ly

16. *Di ba*, I told you a while ago, most not all, most words with L-Y are adverbs…

17. No choice *tayo eh… kaya sinagot niyo na lahat.*

18. *Siguro ang nasa isip niyo ay parang ice cream… di ah?*

19. *Pag sinabing roses…smell or smells?*


**Statements/sentences/phrases/expression**

21. Alright class, remember that the aspect ….there are four aspects *di ba when we….baket nga pala may hindi nakauniporme?*

22. The term perfect in the perfect is completed, means completed, *tapos na, wala na okay na.*

23. Future perfect, of course *may* will okay (*may*-a Filipino term meaning there is)

24. *Ulit ha*, a verb in the past perfect generally means the action in the past which happened before another past action or condition in the past.

25. *Kapag may past perfect tayo* most of the time the sentence has two past actions may past action but remember that the verb happened before another past action.
26. So let’s go back to the definition of past perfect **tulad ng sinabi ko kanina**

27. **San yung action na ‘yun, past present future?**

28. In Filipino, **ang** past perfect **na** verb **ay isang** action **nangyari bago ang** isang past action. So, **ano ang naunang nangyari yung** past perfect or **yung isang** past action?

29. **Ano ba ang format kasi?**

30. **May duda ba kayo kung** past participle **yung** closed? Ah? Baket wala kayong duda? Past participle **ba** or past tense **yung** closed?

31. Remember what I told you last time……. If……… a verb has two classifications, irregular and regular. **Ang** regular verb form its past tense and past participle by adding…?

32. By adding D or E-D **yun yun**.

33. So, **ano ‘to?** Is it past participle or past tense?

34. **Kapag yung** verb **mo ay** regular to form its past tense you add D or E-D. **Ganun din ang** past participle **nya. Gets niyo?**

   So, the verb close… past tense **ng close ay** closed also. Past participle of close **ay** closed also.

   Can you follow? Present participle **nya ay** closing. **Nasusundan?**

35. So, **anong nauna?** Had closed… **hindi yun** broke. Gets **niyo**?

36. **Eto Tagalog ko. Naisara na ni Tina yung tindahan nang may nagtangkang basa….nang may bumasag sa salamin…sa glass door… sa salamin ng pintuan nito…. so anong mas nauna? Syempre yung pagsasara.**

37. **Karaniwan** most often you have two past actions. **Ano yung dalawang past actions? Ano yung mas nauna?**

38. **Maliwanang na sa** past perfect?

39. **Ano yung action?Yun lang yun. Ano yung action? Pagdradrive di ba?**

   If you look at the sentence closely, **ilang oras na ng… Tanong nagdra drive pa ba ngayon?Seven hours n siya nagda drive. Puwedeng tapos na siyang nagdra drive.**

   **Basta ngayon eto ang malinaw diyan basta ngayon nagdra drive na**
As of now, *pitong oras na siyang nagdra drive*. *Kung nadagdagan na yun ‘di na* seven hours… seven hours and one minute.

*Pwedeng nagdra drive pa siya or tumigil na.*

41. The whole set up is simpler *sa* past perfect tense.

42. *Yung idea neto ay parang* past perfect.

43. *Sa* future *baliktad naman…* a future perfect verb is a verb that was completed before another future action *kaya nga* perfect eh completed

44. E -N *kaagad?*

45. Will have closed ah… *hindi* closed

46. *Ulitin ko* the definition of future perfect.

47. *So dalawa ang* future *natin*. Ang tanong ano ang mas naunang natapos diyan? Will have closed though *hindi pa nangyayari bago may mag* try *na magbukaas nasara na.*

48. Will have been driving. Past perfect progressive apply *natin ito.*

49. *Tanong, nagdra drive pa ba si Lito?*

50. Yes *nagdra* drive pa. For the present perfect progressive….

51. Lito ….will have been driving for seven hours, when he got to Nueva Ecija.

*Tanong… ay mali mali nalito ako. Teka teka sorry ha* sorry

52. *Lito has been driving for seven hours by now. By now tapos na seven hours na siya nagdra driving.* Lito has been driving for seven hours. Okay.

53. *Nagdra drive pa b siya ngayon?*

54. At *nagdra* drive *pa ng patuloy.*

55. Question, *ngayong oras na to nakapitong oras na ba si Lito?*

56. *Mag seseven pa lang* or maybe he may not be driving at the moment.

He is not driving at the moment *baka bukas*. It maybe *na nagdra drive siya ngayon*

But your point he will be driving in that condition seven hours by the time he reaches Nueva Ecija. That is for your perfect progressive

57. *Tama* class?

58. *Pa’no kung present? What is the past perfect of drive?*
<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>59.</td>
<td>Both personal both singular <em>di ba?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60.</td>
<td>Okay, so <em>yan</em> remember these six words… <em>So kapag ours na siya, theirs …ang his ay walang there is no counterpart we have yours, mine.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>61.</td>
<td><em>Okay, tandaan ha?</em> here <em>may</em> noun <em>sa tabi</em> but when we use without a noun beside it, then, definitely you’re going…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.</td>
<td><em>Here is an adjective sabi ko nga, there’s a pronoun there’s a noun being described here.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63.</td>
<td><em>Isa pa? Another sentence pa?</em> Another sentence? <em>Marami na</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>64.</td>
<td><em>So saan mo then nilagay yung pronoun?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65.</td>
<td><em>This is… hawak mo</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>67.</td>
<td>This is interrogative <em>pala siya.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>68.</td>
<td><em>The meaning is “Ibabalik nya yung pera”</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>69.</td>
<td>That here is the relative pronoun which refers to the money <em>tinutukoy dito.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70.</td>
<td><em>Papalitan natin ang</em> money.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>71.</td>
<td><em>O ayan na</em> whose article article <em>na lang</em> is the best</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>72.</td>
<td><em>Sino yung</em> who that is questionable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>73.</td>
<td>We have five. <em>Ano yung</em> five relative?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>74.</td>
<td><em>Ang liit kasi ng</em> board <em>naten. Dun na lang. Taas na lang.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>75.</td>
<td><em>Meron bang</em> what?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>76.</td>
<td><em>May tanong ba diyan? Wala? Easy di ba?</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>77.</td>
<td><em>So, we have…and it is ahh mas mahirap yan …first you write your answer sa side na lang.</em> Classify tell whether interrogative, demonstrative or reflexive. <em>Mas enjoy kaya yan.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>79.</td>
<td><em>Eto yun baliktad, “His diet is vegetables and skin milk.”</em> <em>Eto naman,</em> raw vegetables and skin milk… <em>sila na yun nagiging</em> subject therefore the answer is are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80.</td>
<td><em>Yun ang nagdedetermine daw… ang order ng sentence.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>81.</td>
<td>Very simple <em>ano?</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
82. Oh you see that? **Binaliktad ko lng**

83. **Okay**, if you refer to different persons, places or things, **magkaiba si** Jaime at Jose, kung magkaibang tao ito, the answer is plural. **Halimbawa sa** things naman, pen ito iba naman ang paper therefore the verb is in the plural.

84. **Halimbawa**, bacon and egg is…ham and egg is… butter and bread is… Meaning eto iisa. Parang ganito, halimbawa, “Anong inorder mo?” **Spaghetii and… ganun tayo di ba?**

85. **Puwede rin naman daw plural ito** depending upon the meaning

86. **Lahat ay** titles. So all of these are titles.

87. **Kapag sinabing** people many persons. **Kapag** peoples tribes, tribo, races, nations.

### 3.2. Communication strategy 2: Code- switch / code-shift

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Code-switched statements/sentences/phrases/expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Let us speak one at a time. ‘<em>Di pumasok ang lahat.</em>’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. <strong>Baket di ka nakauniporme? Magpaliwanag ka sa prisinto.</strong> You go and make explanation to the police.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. If you want to come to my class, you can go to the CR and change. <strong>Oo kung ayaw mo sa prisinto sa barangay captain. Dali dali sa prisinto ka magpaliwanag.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Let me repeat and your correct in saying a past perfect is a verb happened before another past action. <strong>Tama yung sabi ninyo kanina.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Past perfect or past action? <strong>Ano ba?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. <strong>Tama ba?</strong> It’s closed. Is it regular or irregular?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. <strong>Parehas!</strong> Irregular verbs have the same form in terms of …let me repeat regular verbs have exactly the same past participle and past tense.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. How do you form the present perfect? How do you form it? <strong>Pa’no? pa’no?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. <strong>Paano? Pa’no? How do you form the present perfect?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Okay, the last topic we discussed is on adjectives. <strong>Tama?</strong> Aside from handsome, beautiful….can you give me, can you recall other adjectives aside from beautiful, handsome?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. If we’re going to use this in sentence…is it an adjective? <strong>Sige</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
12. Suppose the sentence: “The food is cooked deliciously.” Tama ba ang sentence?
13. I am not so sure if my spelling is correct? Tama ba? Tama 'no?
14. Syempre, ako talaga tinuturo ko yan. O sige. I will use autistically in a sentence then you use the other words in sentences.
15. The boy… ah…I don’t like the term. O sige.
16. Oh sige. My girlfriend is beautifully.
17. So, again that’s an adverb…it is not the hunted house. Di ba?
18. Oh tingan natin. When was… where was the hunted house discovered? Sakto ba?
19. Tama. How is the house discovered?
20. Mysteriously. Tama ‘no? Sakto ano?
21. How beautiful are you according to your mother? Gaano ka kaganda as in sobra?
22. She is late. Ano? How late is she?
24. It answers the question how or to what extent. Di ba?
25. So, adverb modify verb, adjectives and adverb. Get’s niyo?
26. Who says that especially is a verb of the sentence? Raise your hand. Walang sumusuporta sayo.
27. Who says is is the verb of the sentence? Marami
28. Okay, I will repeat the question ah…do you agree that smell is an auxiliary? Agree or disagree?
29. Oh eto.. dito na part. Is our sentence structurally correct?
30. But there’s no people or there’s no food in the sentence. Nakuha?
31. Okay, any question with personal pronouns? Wala?
32. So we have three specific possessive. Nakuha? Nakuha?
33. We have the pronoun himself there. It is used to answer the question whom did Benigno teach? Sino tinulungan nya?
34. Reflexive IO OD and PO. Sige ulit.
35. **Benigno tayo.** Whom did Benigno teach?

36. Is there any question as regards to intensive and reflexive? *Nalito?*

37. Demonstrative directs to specific people, places, or things. *Ito yun panturo.*

38. Those are chairs. *Nakuha?*

39. The meaning of this part is dependent to independent clause. *Nakadepende ito para sa kanya*

40. To make the meaning clearer to connect it to contestant. *Nakuha?*

41. You know these four sentences the relative is written after but there are times wherein the subordinate clause can be written in the middle of the sentence. *Pwede ba?*

42. *Yun lang naman.* They are used to ask questions.

43. *Ay dropped na rin siya?* Are you sure? *Baket?*

### 3.3. Communication Strategy 3: Translation Method

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Translated statements/sentences/phrases/expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The second person is the one whom you are speaking or maybe your <em>kausap</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. And the third is the <em>person, place, thing talked about</em> which is the <em>pinag-uusapan</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements/sentences/phrases/expression</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Eto Tagalogin ko. <em>Naisara na ni Tina yung tindahan nang may nagtangkang basa….nang may bumasag sa</em> salamin sa glass door sa salamin ng pintuan nito. So, anong mas nauna? syempre yung pagsasara</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. In Filipino, <em>ang</em> past perfect <em>na verb ay isang action nangyari bago ang isang past action</em> so, <em>ano ang mas nauuna nangyari yung past perfect or yung isang past action</em>?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows sample code-mixed, code-switched and translated statements, sentences, phrases and expressions as the communication strategies by the professors in teaching grammar. Majority of the respondents had various code-mixed statements than the other communication strategies since it is easier to code-mix two languages than switching or translating.

This finding implies that code-mixing, code-switching and translation as the communication strategies of the professors are extensively used by the teacher-
respondents. The respondents used these strategies to present and explain their topic, to give emphasis, to suggest, to cite examples, to clarify, to confirm, to ask questions, to reword or restate students’ answers. It also implies that these communication strategies were used with a purpose to make instruction and learning acquisition successful. This finding further infers that the professors did not find any difficulty in their instruction because the code-mixed, code-switched and translated statements helped them deliver their lesson easily and for their students to easily comprehend the lessons.

These findings conform to Malakoff and Hakuta’s ideas (2000) as cited by Bernardo (2005) in his study, “Bilingual Code-Switching as a Resource for Learning and Teaching: Alternative Reflections on the Language and Education Issue in the Philippines” that one of the two language behaviors which is code-switching may possibly happen in an English class. Code-switching according to them is used to enhance or complement communication to bilingual speakers even to teachers. It does not seek to reproduce what has already been said, but to enhance what is being said.

In addition to this, using Filipino in the respondent’s class agrees to the point of Long (1983), Swain (1985) as cited by Nunan (1993) that the process of acquisition is enhanced when learners are put in a position where they have to negotiate meaning in order to make themselves understood.

This also conforms to Grice’s (2000) maxim of quality and on his idea on communication strategies. He said that these communication strategies are systematic adoption of a series of verbal actions which respond to a more or less conscious plan or communicative routine to achieve a specific goal. It allows teachers to conceive verbal behavior as consisting not of independent, isolated actions which are the result of sudden decisions by the speaker, but rather as the implementation of a plan or communicative routine in which a series of verbal actions are mutually dependent and they all contribute to the achievement of a specific goal.

**Comparison of the Discourse Patterns when Grouped According to Profile Variables**

Based on the transcriptions analyzed, there was no difference on the discourse patterns evident in the instruction of the teacher-respondents when grouped according to
their age, sex, number of years in service, language spoken, eligibilities and college connected.

Furthermore, English language is used in the instruction and the use of translations, code-mixed and code-switched statements along adjacency pairs are evident in all colleges. On the other hand, the profile variables most especially the college affiliation have no significant relationships on the language used in instruction. In addition, the colleges with board courses like CTE, CBEA and CAHS and so with the college with non-board courses like the College of Hospitality Industry Management value the importance of English language. Thus, the English instructors used this in instruction more frequently than other language variations for the following reasons: 1) the CTE students are future teachers thus, they are required to be fluent and effective English speakers where English language is the medium of instruction in the class; 2) the CAHS set standard in terms of its screening and selection to their incoming students and it strictly follows its retention policy; 3) the CBEA students are expected to be in the business world where English language is used in transaction and communication, and 4) the CHIM students are expected to be hosts or front liners in local and international hotels and restaurants where English language is also used.

With this reality at hand, it is deemed necessary for and by the language professors of these colleges to use English language in teaching English subjects as mandated by CHED.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Professors used the three communication strategies, code-mix, code-switch and translation in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms to have a successful transfer of learning and to have lively and continued interactions between the teacher and the students. These communication strategies are extensively used by the English professors for purposes of enhancing classroom interaction; thus, making possible conversational contributions in the class which adhere to Grice’s Cooperative Principle which posits that effective communication is in consonance with the maxims of quality, quantity, relevance, and manner.

Remarkably, the EFL classroom is teacher-dominated and becomes less interactive when the language teachers use straight English as a medium of instruction, in
contrast to an active EFL classroom that engages students when the teachers used communication strategies and used languages within their level of understanding. Invariably, teachers’ language use in instruction is evident regardless of their profile variables.

This has essential implications for the language policy of the university, which among others, aims to develop students who are English proficient which is the primordial concern of EFL classrooms as mandated by CHED. This aim of developing English proficient students is clearly not going to be achieved unless the language teachers exemplarily model English language use in the University.

Thus, it is recommended that professors should be proficient language users and must intensify the use of English language in teaching as mandated in CHED Memorandum Order No. 59, s.1996. And since there will be additional English subject, Modern Grammar, to be offered next school year, the language professors to teach the said subject must take the Common European Framework Reference Proficiency Test which will serve as basis for language curriculum enhancement and for retraining of language professors.

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The Pragmatics of Political Apology

in the Philippines

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Abstract

This paper examines the structure of political apologies drawn from news articles published online. Guided by the five apology strategies proposed by Olshtain and Cohen (1983) such as direct apology (using illocutionary force indicating devices or IFIDs), providing an explanation, acknowledgement of responsibility, offer of repair, and promise of forbearance, data include eight (8) instances of apologies made by the presidents in the two recent administrations namely Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo, Benigno C. Aquino III, and in the present administration, President Rodrigo Roa Duterte, were analyzed. Study reveals that political apologies in the Philippines employ the five-step apology strategies in the following order: direct apology (IFIDs) being the most preferred strategy, followed by providing an explanation. Acknowledgement of responsibility and offering of repair are equally used moderately, while the promise of forbearance is the least preferred strategy. The political apologies in the Philippines are further described as Direct apologies.

Keywords: political apology, direct apology (using illocutionary force indicating devices or IFIDs), providing an explanation, acknowledgement of responsibility, offer of repair, promise of forbearance
1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Apology is a speech act which has been one of the main foci in the field of pragmatics because of its importance in human communication as a face-saving device and as an act of politeness. Over the past several decades, apology has been an area of interest to researchers who investigated the nature of pragmatic transfer using various types of speech acts (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, as cited by Wu & Soka, 2016). First defined by Austin (1962), consequently by Searle (1969), and Yule (1996), Speech Act aimed at explaining the language as a series of actions executed by means of utterances. The use of apologies appears in daily conversations, organizational designs, political reputations, legal litigations, international relations, corporate governance, and beyond. To be able to reach a clearer understanding of apologies, researchers have approached the matter in different ways.

According to Leech's (1983) "tact maxim", apology is a convivial speech act whose goal coincides with the social goal of maintaining harmony between Speaker and Hearer. The realization of an apology provides benefit for the Hearer and is to some degree at cost for the Speaker. Moreover, Huang, (2007) posited that apology is a speech act that expresses psychological attitude such as joy, sorrow, likes/dislikes, expressed through apologizing, blaming, congratulating, praising, thanking. Cohen & Olshtain (1983) noted that apologies as a speech act occur between two participants in which one of the participants expects or perceives oneself deserving a compensation or explanation because of an offense committed by the other. In that situation, one participant has a choice to apologize or deny the responsibility or the severity of the action; thus, an apology in that sense plays a role as a politeness strategy. In some other instances, an act of apology can be considered a remedial act of speech, which means that the speaker is trying to save his or her face because of an action. Because of the complexity of apology, it is crucial for people to understand what an apology is and how it functions.

Lingley’s (2006) study described in detail an example of a failed intercultural communication upon employment of "critical incidents" approach using the data on 2001 accident involving the sinking of the Ehime Maru, a Japanese fisheries high school training
boat. Lingley suggested how differing cultural norms and values surrounding apologies in America and Japan caused serious intercultural communication problems. Recasts are also considered a sub-strategy of apology where a speech is repaired. In a study by Sato (2016) where three high-intermediate Japanese university students’ perception of recasts were examined, it was found that in most cases of repair, learners noticed the recasts and that when they responded to recasts via verbal or non-verbal acknowledgement, recasts were rarely noticed. Recent study published in the Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences highlights the importance of apology in repairing and strengthening relationships. Cutting (2002) summarized the role of pragmatics as “the written maxims of conversation that speaker follows in order to cooperate and be socially acceptable to each other” (p. 187). For Brown and Levinson (1978) an apology is an attempt by the speaker to make up for a previous action that interfered with the addressee’s face-wants Thus, the aim of apologizing is to restore equilibrium between speaker and addressee (Leech, 1983). Apologies count as remedial work and have been traditionally regarded as hearer supportive as they provide some benefit to the addressee at cost to the speaker (Fraser & Nolan, 1981; Goffman, 1972; Leech, 1983). While Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, as cited by Wu & Soka, 2016) claimed that apologies are well-studied, Ho (2003) argued that apologies are a previously unstudied social institution integral in the maintenance of relationships within society and the subject of apologies in social institutions has a wide-ranging significance.

**Political Apologies**

Political apologies are in the public domain and, as a consequence, are highly mediated. They are often generated by (and generate further) conflict and controversy (Harris, Grainger, & Mullany, 2006). Political apologies can be considered political if they involve political issues and are delivered by an appropriate political agent. Apologies, like everything else, reflect the cultures within which they are embedded. In Japan, for example, a leader’s apology is not nearly so remarkable a gesture as it is in most other countries. One observer went so far as to describe Japan as the “apologetic society par excellence.” Still, it is not too much to say that the apology as a form of social exchange is growing in international importance. While the methods may differ—China has apology companies
that employ surrogates to provide explanations and express remorse—the apology culture is a global phenomenon. The rise in the number of leaders publicly apologizing has been especially remarkable. Apologies are tactics leaders now frequently use in an attempt to put behind them, at minimal cost, the errors of their ways.

Political apologies can be a powerful tool in the re-examination of a nation's history, and the significance this history has on democratic processes (Dodds, 2016). For Gibney and Hassan (2008), political apology is a social movement which started in 1960s from movements for liberation to indigenous demands for apology, and the politics of multiculturalism which ushered the emergence of Freeman’s Liberal theory on equality and liberty, and added that political apologies are one of the means that states and other social institutions could use to show empathy to those they had harmed, thus regarded as hopeful sign for a more peaceful world.

As Luke (1997) argues, the ‘apology has become a form of political speech with increasing significance and power’ (p. 344), especially given that these ‘speeches’ are usually the result of some kind of publicly voiced ‘demand’ and, as a consequence, they often generate a considerable amount of controversy, conflict and public debate in what is now, at least in most western countries, an unprecedented array of local textual sites, ranging from more traditional academic and print media forums, textbooks and journals, to radio and television talk shows, internet chat groups and websites, courts of law, conferences, legislatures and indeed in everyday face-to-face encounters. (Luke, 1997) Given their apparent cultural as well as political significance, it is perhaps surprising that, until recently (e.g. Lakoff, 2000, 2003; Meier, 2004; Zhang, 2001), there has been relatively little interest in political apologies in sociolinguistics and pragmatics. Likewise, Ho (2003) lamented that apologies are previously unstudied despite the fact that they are integral in the maintenance of relationships within society and the subject of apologies in social institutions has a wide-ranging significance. Moreover, they provide a rich source of natural language data (though highly mediated through various forms of broadcasting, the press, the internet, and other media sites). Despite the wealth of literature generated over the past two decades on the apology as speech act, and considered as one of the most prominent speech acts, the political apology has been relatively neglected as a research topic. (Harris, Grainger, & Mullany 2006).
Aimed at filling the gap in the study of political apologies, this empirical research is conceptualized to explore the pragmatics of the political apology by identifying its characteristics, drawing mainly on apologies which have generated public debates in conjunction with certain political events. Studies on the pragmatics on political apologies in other countries have been published, but no previous study has been conducted on the pragmatics of political apologies in the Philippines. This paper is a timely endeavour since apologies from politicians have recently plagued the Philippine society.

1.2 Theoretical Framework

One of the most crucial approaches in the study on apology is to classify apology strategies, such as in Cohen & Olshtain (1983) where they created a classification of universally occurring apology speech acts. These classifications are generally referred to as taxonomies or coding schemes and are used by many other researchers to further examine apology patterns in languages and provide more consistency across studies.

This study is guided by the framework of five apology strategies proposed by Olshtain and Cohen (1983). The five strategies which make up the speech act set of apology are either general and do not depend on contextual constraints, or situation specific. The explicit expression of an apology which contains the formulaic, routinized apology expressions or the explicit illocutionary force indicating devices (IFID), (I'm sorry, excuse me, I regret . . . etc.) which reflects the speaker’s degree of willingness to admit fault includes direct utterances of regret and apology, therefore they are considered to be direct apologies. The explicit expression of an apology and expression of responsibility which relate to "pleas for excusable lack of foresight and pleas for reduced competence and admissions of carelessness" are inherently related to the speaker’s willingness to express an apology for a violation and can be used across all situations which require the act of apology. The other strategies such as acknowledgement of responsibility, providing an explanation, the offer of repair and the promise of forbearance are situation specific and will semantically reflect the content of the situation. These are considered indirect apologies. This framework determines the presence of the conditions in the political apologies and describe further the directness and indirectness of the political apologies in the Philippines.
1.3 Research Questions

Given the theoretical framework, this paper advances the following research questions:

1) What conditions are met in the political apologies made by the Philippine Presidents in the three recent administrations in reference to Olshtain and Cohen’s (1983) five strategies in apologising such as direct apology (illocutionary force indicating device or IFIDs such as “sorry, i regret, i apologize, etc), providing an explanation, acknowledgement of responsibility, offer of repair, and promise of forbearance;

2) How are the structures of the political apologies in the Philippines be described in terms of directness and indirectness?

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1 Research Design

The study used content and or documentation analysis of the data. In particular, the incidence of explicit expressions of an apology is analysed through simple frequency counts.

2.2 Corpus of Data

The corpus of data consist of text of apologies retrieved from websites of newspapers or news agencies. The data include apologies made by the former president Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo on ‘Hello Garci’ during the 2005 National Election; former president Benigno S. Aquino III for slow government response to Yolanda victims in 2014, his appeal for public understanding over his shortcomings in the Mamasapano Tragedy in 2015, and his apology to Canadian Prime Minister Justin Trudeau for the death of another Canadian hostage held by the Abu Sayyaf in 2016; and President Rodrigo Roa Duterte’s apologies in various incidents, such as his apology to Prime Minister Justin Trudeau for the killing of Canadian hostage John Ridsdel, his apology to the Jewish community, his regret for calling former US President Barack Obama a ‘son of a bitch’, and to local
officials wrongly named in Narco-list. The full text of Arroyo’s apology speech was used for analysis, while those of Aquino and Duterte were direct quotations of apologies extracted from news stories and from YouTube.

2.3 Data Analysis

The data analysis of the current study is based on the classification of apologies suggested by Olshtain and Cohen (1983). The raw data are analyzed and classified according to the semantic formulas included in the each text. The classifications are as follows:

Five apology strategies:

a. direct apology (IFIDs): “sorry,” “excuse,” “forgive,” “I regret” etc.

b. providing an explanation: nonspecific (There has been a lot going on in my life), and specific (I could not catch the bus.)

c. acknowledgement of responsibility: implicit (I was sure I did it right.), lack of intent (I did not mean to.), self deficiency (How could I be so blind.), and self-blame (It is my fault.)
d. offer of repair: unspecified (How can I fix that?), and specified (Let me buy a new computer for you.)
e. promise of forbearance: such as, “It won’t happen again.”

The classification and description are shown in a table where the appropriate text of apologies from the data are filled-in to match the description. This coding scheme is the parameter used in the analysis.

Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFID</td>
<td>direct apology (IFIDs): “sorry,” “excuse,” “forgive,” “I regret” etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Explanation  
explanation: nonspecific  
(There has been a lot going on in my life),  
specific (I could not catch the bus.)

Responsibility  
implicit (I was sure I did it right.)  
lack of intent (I did not mean to)  
self-deficiency (How could I be so blind?)  
self-blame (It is my fault)

Repair  
unspecific (How can I fix that?),  
specified (Let me buy a new computer for you.)

Forbearance  
promise of forbearance: such as,  
“It won’t happen again.” etc

2.4 Limitation of the study

The study is limited to data available in websites of newspaper agencies, both in text and videos. The speech of former President Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo and Aquino’s speech on Mamasapano tragedy bear the full text of the apology speeches while the data used in analyzing the apology remarks made by former President Benigno Aquino III on other instances and President Rodrigo Roa Duterte are direct quotations embedded in news stories, and validated by videos in you tube. The data are limited to the apologies made by these three political leaders due to availability and since they are the latest three political figures who are known for the apologies they have made.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Arroyo’s apology on Hello Garci

Table 2.
Arroyo’s apology on Hello Garci
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Incidence of occurrence from data</th>
<th>frequency (n-1) or 100 %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFID</td>
<td>direct apology (IFIDs): “sorry,” “excuse,” “forgive,” “I regret” etc.</td>
<td>I am sorry. I also regret taking so long to speak before you on this matter. I am sorry</td>
<td>1 or 100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td>explanation: nonspecific (There has been a lot going on in my life), and and specific (I could not catch the bus.)</td>
<td>I was anxious to protect my votes and during that time had conversations with many people, including a Comelec official. My intent was not to influence the outcome of the election,</td>
<td>1 or 100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>implicit (I was sure I did it right.), lack of intent (I did not mean to.), self-deficiency (How could I be so blind?), and self-blame (It is my fault)</td>
<td>I recognize that making any such call was a lapse in judgment. I take full responsibility for my actions and to you and to all those good citizens who may have had their faith shaken by these events.</td>
<td>1 or 100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 1 reveals that Arroyo’s apology totally adhere (100%) to the five strategies of apology set by Olshtain and Cohen (1983) such as the use of explicit sorry as the form of IFID, followed by explanation, responsibility, repair, and forbearance. The explicit expression of an apology which contains the formulaic, routinized apology expressions (I’m sorry, excuse me, I regret . . . etc.) or IFID is present in her speech. The IFID contains performative verbs which express an apology in each language. “I am sorry. I also regret taking so long to speak before you on this matter. I am sorry.” Likewise, specific explanation is offered by her words“ I was anxious to protect my votes and during that time had conversations with many people, including a Comelec official. My intent was not to influence the outcome of the election”. The expression of responsibility by self-deficiency and self-blame is reflected in the words“ I recognize that making any such call was a lapse in judgment. I take full responsibility for my actions and to you and to all those good citizens who may have had their faith shaken by these events”. Strategy involving responsibility reflects the Speaker’s degree of willingness to admit fault. (Olshtain & Cohen, 1983). The expression of an apology and/or the expression of speaker’s responsibility could realize an apology act in any situation. Olshatin (1983) added that the expression of responsibility contains substrategies which relate to "pleas for excusable lack
of foresight and pleas for reduced competence and admissions of carelessness”. The other three strategies, the explanation, the offer of repair and the promise of forbearance are situation specific. Since apology is done to maintain or restore harmony, and implies the importance of relationship and guarding others’ feelings, the table reveals that Arroyo offers repair and forbearance, a promise of reconciliation by not repeating the same mistake again. Apology can be seen further as a form of emotional labour, part of the work of managing feelings. Willingness to perform emotional labour is one of the most basic things cast in a caring role (like ‘mother’). Women are expected to pay attention to others’ feelings and are final arbiters when harmony is threatened. They’re expected both to apologise when others are or could be offended, and to forgive when others have offended them. This table affirms the study of Schumann et al (2010) conducted to two studies to see if genders do indeed differ in how often they apologize., Rettner (2010) added that women apologized more and reported committing more offensive acts., Tannen,(1999, p. 67) cited by Schuman (2010) stated that there is ample evidence that women are more inclined to offer expressions of contrition than men.
### 3.2 Aquino’s apologies

Table 3.

Aquino’s apologies/regrets

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence (Typhoon Yolanda) extracted from news article and video</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence (Mamasapano tragedy) (Full Text) extracted from news article and video</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence (Prime Minister Justin Trudeau) extracted from news article and video</th>
<th>Frequency (n-3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFID</td>
<td>direct apology (IFIDs): “sorry,” “excuse,” “forgive,” “I regret” etc.</td>
<td>&quot;I apologize if we couldn't act even faster,&quot;</td>
<td>Ikinalulungkot kong may mga pamilyang nawalan ng asawa, ama, kapatid, anak, dahil sa nangyari sa Mamasapano.</td>
<td>Humingi ako ng paunmahin sa Prime Minister ng Canada dahil hindi lang isa, dalawa na sa kanilang mga kababayan ang namatay (I talked to Prime Minister of Canada. I apologized to the Prime)</td>
<td>3 or 100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apology Strategies</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence</td>
<td>Frequency (n=3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Typhoon Yolanda)</td>
<td>(Mamasapano tragedy)</td>
<td>(Prime Minister Justin)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>extracted</td>
<td>(Full Text)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>from news article and video</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pangyayaring kaugnay ng operasyong ito: Buong pagpapakumbaba kong hinihiling ang inyong pang-unawa.</td>
<td>Minister of Canada because not only one but two of their citizens died)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apology Strategies</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence (Typhoon Yolanda) extracted from news article and video</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence (Mamasapano tragedy) (Full Text)</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence (Prime Minister Justin Trudeau) extracted from news article and video</td>
<td>Frequency (n-3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>implicit (I was sure I did it right.), lack of intent (I did not mean to.), self-deficiency (How could I be so blind?), and self-blame (It is my fault)</td>
<td>“We did everything that could be done.”</td>
<td>Bilang Pangulo, pasan ko ang responsibilidad para sa anumang resulta, sa anumang tagumpay, pasakit, o trahedya, na maaari nating matamasa sa paghahangad ng pangmatagala ng seguridad at kapayapaan.</td>
<td></td>
<td>2 or 66.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apology Strategies</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence (Typhoon Yolanda) extracted from news article and video</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence (Mamasapano tragedy) (Full Text)</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence (Prime Minister Justin Trudeau) extracted from news article and video</td>
<td>Frequency (n-3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repair</td>
<td>unspecified (How can I fix that?), and specified (Let me buy a new computer for you.)</td>
<td>Humingi pong pang-unawa.</td>
<td>&quot;There will be no letup in the resolute efforts of the joint PNP-AFP task group in pursuing intensive and wide-ranging military and law enforcement operations to neutralize these lawless elements and thwart further threats to</td>
<td>3 or 100 %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apology Strategies</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence (Typhoon Yolanda) extracted from news article and video</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence (Mamasapano tragedy) (Full Text)</td>
<td>Incidence of Occurrence (Prime Minister Justin Trudeau) extracted from news article and video</td>
<td>Frequency (n-3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>-------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>peace and security, &quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Forbearance promise of forbearance: such as, “It won’t happen again.”

Kaya sinisiguro ko po sa inyo: Nirerespeto natin ang tamang proseso. Mananagot

The President remained steadfast on his administration’s no-ransom policy, saying payment of ransom would
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Frequency (n=3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Typhoon Yolanda)</td>
<td>(Mamasapano tragedy)</td>
<td>(Prime Minister Justin Trudeau)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>extracted from news article and video</td>
<td>extracted from news article and video</td>
<td>only fund the Abu Sayyaf's operations and entice more people to join the group.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There are three incidences which made up the data of apology made by Aquino. The incidence of apology in the first data (Typhoon Yolanda), and the apology to Trudeau were extracted from news articles in written and oral (you tube), while the Mamasapano incident is part of a full text on Aquino's 'final' speech on Mamasapano debacle as part of the graduation speech addressed to the PNPA “LAKANDULA” Class of 2015. For the IFID strategy described as direct apology: “sorry,” “excuse,” “forgive,” “I regret” etc., table shows that three out of three incidences or 100% is employed by the speaker in all the three incidences. The speaker’s use of "I apologize if we couldn't act even faster," Ikinalulungkot ko……Humingi po ng pang-unawa…..Buong pagpapakumbaba kong hinihiling ang inyong pang-unawa; (I am saddened….ask for understanding….in all humility i ask for your understanding); Humingi ako ng paunmahin sa Prime Minister ng Canada (I
apologized to the Prime Minister of Canada). Consequently, 100% explanation is revealed in all the incidences of IFIDs. Apologies made are followed by an explanation, to wit: “it shouldn't have taken them days to respond but that the extent of the damage caused by Yolanda was unprecedented”. This suggests that the speaker tried to justify his actions and that he was trying to put the blame on things beyond his physical control. Brooks, Dai, and Schweitzer (2013) emphasised that individuals often apologize for circumstances for which they are obviously not culpable (e.g., heavy traffic or bad weather) and defined superfluous apologies as expressions of regret for an undesirable circumstance for which the apologizer is clearly not responsible. This may also explain why the strategies on acknowledge of responsibility and promise of forbearance are the least fulfilled among the strategies. (66.67%). This maybe equated with Schuman’s study (2010) that men aren't actively apologizing because they think it will make them appear weak or because they don't want to take responsibility for their actions. The strategy on forbearance is equally least employed at 66.67%. This may suggest that promise of forbearance: such as, “It won’t happen again” is actually an indirect commitment that the speaker avoids as reflected in the 66.67% exercise of responsibility. Though the speaker employed low percentage on responsibility and forbearance, he offered a 100% repair strategy in the apology. This suggests that his intention and willingness to repair a tainted relationship is of high importance.
3.3. Duterte’s apologies

Table 4

### Duterte’s apologies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Incident of occurrence (Duterte visits synagogue to apologize for Hitler remark)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Incident of Occurrence (Duterte apologizes to local officials wrongly named in narco-list)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Incident of Occurrence (Philippine president tries to apologize for Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Incident of Occurrence (Duterte apologizes to Trudeau for Canadian’s beheading by Abu Sayyaf)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IFID</td>
<td>Frequenc (n-4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>direct apology (IFIDs): “sorry,” “excuse,” “forgive,” “I regret” etc.</td>
<td>4 or 100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;I apologize profoundly and deeply to the Jewish community publicly. And I would say now, I am very sorry,&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;I would like to apologize to you as a personal incident that resulted to the killing of your national,&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>we also regret it and deeply apologize to you as a personal incident that resulted to the killing of your national,&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&quot;Please accept my apologies for the incident that resulted to the killing of your national,&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>(Duterte visits synagogue to apologize for Hitler remark)</td>
<td>(Duterte apologizes to local officials for calling Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’)</td>
<td>(Philippine president tries to apologize for Canadian's beheading by Abu Sayyaf)</td>
<td>(Duterte apologizes for Duterte's calling Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’)</td>
<td>(n-4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Explanation**

It was never my intention, but the problem was I was criticized, using Hitler comparing to me." Duterte said that his "strong comments" was in response to questions by a reporter. Somehow, we were negligent in counter-checking during the first report, "Somehow, we were negligent in counter-checking during the first report," Duterte said that his "strong comments" was in response to questions by a reporter.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence (Duterte visits synagogue to apologize for Hitler remark)</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence (Duterte apologizes to local officials wrongly named in narco-list for calling Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’)</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence (Philippine president tries to apologize for Canadian’s beheading by Abu Sayyaf)</th>
<th>Frequency (n-4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>implicit (I was sure I did it right.), lack of intent (I did not mean to.), self-deficiency (How could I be so blind?), and self-blame (It is my fault)</td>
<td>I would like to make it now, here and now, that there was never an intention on my part to derogate the memory of the six million Jews murdered, &quot;I take full responsibility. Ako yung nag-announce. [I was the one who announced.] Even if the soldiers and the police commit a serious mistake, I will assume full</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2 or 50%
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Incidence of occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Frequency (n-4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Duterte visits synagogue to apologize for Hitler remark)</td>
<td>Duterte apologizes to local officials wrongly named in narco-list</td>
<td>Duterte apologizes to local officials wrongly named in narco-list</td>
<td>Duterte president apologizes for calling Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’)</td>
<td>Duterte president apologizes for calling Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’)</td>
<td>Duterte president apologizes for calling Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’)</td>
<td>Duterte president apologizes for calling Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

"..." said Duterte.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Incidence of occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Duterte visits synagogue to apologize for Hitler remark)</td>
<td>(Duterte apologizes to local officials for calling Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’)</td>
<td>(Philippine president tries to apologize for Canadian’s beheading by Abu Sayyaf)</td>
<td>(Duterte apologizes for Hitler)</td>
<td>(n-4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| Repair | unspecified (How can I fix that?), and specified (Let me buy a new computer for you.) | &quot;Hindi ako kargado ng &quot;pride chicken&quot; kung nagkakamali ako.&quot; [I am not held by 'pride'(chicken), especially if I'm wrong.] | “We look forward to ironing out differences arising out of national priorities and perceptions, and working in mutually responsible ways for both countries, 2 or 50% |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence (Duterte visits synagogue to apologize for Hitler remark)</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence (Duterte apologizes to local officials wrongly named in narco-list for calling Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’)</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence (Philippine president tries to apologize for Canadian’s beheading by Abu Sayyaf)</th>
<th>Incidence of Occurrence (Duterte apologizes to Trudeau for)</th>
<th>Frequency (n-4)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Forbearance</td>
<td>promise of forbearance: such as, “It won’t happen again.”</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1 or 25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Revealed in Table 4 are the four apologies were made by Duterte in different instances. All are direct quotations extracted from news articles and validated by videos through you tube. It can be noted that IFIDs are employed in all the apologies. Interestingly, these apologies are intensified as evidenced by the use of intensifiers such as very, really, terribly, deeply and others. Duterte’s "I apologize profoundly and deeply to the Jewish community …;"I would like to apologize to you publicly. And I would say now, I am very sorry,…” are intensified in two instances. This is explained by Olshtain and Cohen (1983)
that there are additions to the main strategies which make up the speech act set, there are ways in which the speaker can modify the apology by either intensifying it or by downgrading it. An intensification would make the apology stronger, creating even more support for Hearer and more humiliation for Speaker. The routinized intensification usually occurs internally to the apology expression (internal modification) in the form of a conventional intensifier such as very, really, terribly, deeply and others. External modification can take the form of a comment with added concern for the Hearer which intensifies the apology since it expresses stronger interest on the part of Speaker to placate Hearer. External modification which downgrades the apology, lessening its strength or sincerity, can take the form of a comment which minimizes either the offence or the harm it may have caused. Thus a "downgraded" apology may sound less sincere and may not be accepted as an apology.” (p.47)

It is also important to note that Duterte’s use of inclusive “we” in his statement “we also regret it came across as a personal attack on the U.S. president” denotes that this apology, though classified as IFID is a form of “downgraded apology” which sounds insincere (Olshtain & Cohen (1983) and is validated by the same headline “Philippine president tries to apologize for calling Obama a ‘son of a bitch’ but can’t quite get to ‘I’m sorry’” In another similar instance, the exclusive use of “your” in the statement “Please accept my apologies for the incident that resulted to the killing of your national,” distances himself from one’s nation though he made use of the inclusive “my apologies”. Meanwhile, three or 75% of the data bears explanation of the instances. It can be observed that the explanations all point to the media as the ones who aggravated his actions. Responsibility and repair are both at 50%, suggesting that responsibility and repair are not the preferred component or strategy of Duterte in the specific instances mentioned. It is worth mentioning that his acknowledgement of fault and consequently taking the responsibility is in the instance of an offense made against a Filipino, to quote “I take full
responsibility. Ako yung nag-announce. [I was the one who announced.] Even if the soldiers and the police commit a serious mistake, I will assume full responsibility,”. At 50%, it can be said that this strategy is not the most preferred strategy by Duterte as opposed to Grabmeier (2016) stressing that acknowledgement of responsibility is the most important component in an apology; say it is your fault, that you made a mistake.” Although past research has shown that a key part of a successful apology is assuring that the bad behavior won’t happen again, and without the promise of change—an apology sounds insincere (Frantz, 2004), at one or 25%, the table reveals that forbearance is the least strategy employed in the data. This suggests that Duterte does not make any promise of not committing the same offense again.

It is worthy to note the study of Sabio and Lintao (2018) where they emphasized that from a linguistic point-of-view, the Philippine President may be interpreted (or misinterpreted) through his choices in language use whenever participating in a public communication discourse. They argued that Duterte’s use of ordinary words, metaphors, and arguments by cause is a tool for persuasion, and a representation of himself and of how he perceives reality

### 3.4 Summary of apology strategies

Table 4.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Table 1 n-1</th>
<th>Table 2 n-3</th>
<th>Table 3 n-4</th>
<th>Frequency n-8</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>IFID</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>87.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responsibility</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repair</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Forbearance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4 summarizes the five strategies (semantic formulas) which make up the speech act set of apology (Olshtain and Cohen 1983). Interestingly, data reveal that 100% of the apologies are expressed using the IFID strategy where the explicit expression of an apology contains the formulaic, routinized apology expressions (I'm sorry, excuse me, I regret . . . etc.) and the expression of responsibility which reflects the Speakers’ degree of willingness to admit to fault for Hearers. Potentially, the expression of an apology and/or the expression of Speakers’ responsibility could realize an apology act in any situation. The IFIDs contain the explicit, performative verbs which express an apology in each language. The table further reveals that the Speakers offered explanation at 87.50%, a strategy which ranks second to the the IFID strategy. The strategy using explanation somehow is a technique a speaker employs to give a picture of how the situation came about and indirectly saying that the fault committed is not entirely his intention but because of some situations that came accross. Both at at 62.5%, the expressions of responsibility and offer of repair are employed. Goffman, as cited by Owen (1983), responsibility contains substrategies which relate to "pleas for excusable lack of foresight and pleas for reduced competence and admissions of carelessness". These two strategies which are inherently related to the Speakers’ willingness to express an apology for a violation can be used across all situations which require the act of apology. On the other hand, Grabmeier (2016) found that that the most important component in an apology is an acknowledgement of responsibility by saying it is your fault, that you made a mistake,” The other three strategies, the explanation, the offer of repair and the promise of forebearance are situation specific and will semantically reflect the content of the situation. Although not covered in the study, the least effective element of an apology is a request for forgiveness. “That’s the one you can leave out if you have to,” Lewicki, cited by Grabmeier, J. (2016)

3.4 Summary of Direct and Indirect Apologies
Table 5.

Summary of Direct and Indirect Apologies
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Apology Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct (IFID)</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indirect</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>65.63%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Explanation, Responsibility, Repair, Forbearance)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 describes the political apologies in the Philippines as direct (100%) significantly far from Indirect structure at 65.63%. This contradicts the idea of Kaplan, cited by Connor (2001) that oriental writing (where Philippines belong) is marked by what may be called an approach by indirection. ....The circles or gyres turn around the subject and the subject is never looked at directly. The Oriental writing’s “beating around the bush” is not evident in the table. This findings coincides with the case of English where studies have shown that direct apologies are the most widely used apology strategies of all. Holmes (1990) mentions apology strategies used in New Zealand English, by using an ethnographic study in which she composed a corpus based on ethnographic methodology by collecting data based on naturally occurring conversations and apology exchanges with the help of college students. Completing the study, she found out that almost exactly half of the apologies included an expression of apology, especially expressing regret for an action.

Moreover, Indirect apologies are employed at 65.63%. Olshtain and Cohen (1983) categorized the indirect apologies in the following ways: providing an explanation, an acknowledgement of responsibility, an offer of repair, a promise of forbearance. Providing an explanation for an action could be a strategy for apologizing in an indirect manner. In the case of a formula, the offender of the action uses an explanation for the offence. For example, to apologize for being late for the class, a student could provide an explanation by stating that the tire of his or her car exploded on the way. This particular apology strategy could be acceptable or not according to the contextual factors; culture, severity of action, age, gender, the particular situation, and other various factors. Holmes (1990) states that providing an explanation for the action was the second dominant apology strategy used...
in New Zealand English, and the most used indirect apology strategy. Another indirect way to convey an apology is “acknowledgment of responsibility” which includes acceptance of the fault or responsibility by the speaker. The speaker can use different sub-sets to convey the meaning of responsibility or even deny the responsibility. These subsets can be listed as follows: accepting the blame, e.g. “It is my fault,” expressing self-deficiency, e.g. “I was confused,” recognizing the other person’s deserving of an apology, e.g. “You are right!” and expressing lack of intent, “I didn’t mean to” (Cohen & Olshtain, 1983). In other situations, speakers could offer to repair the damage caused by his or her action. In a given context, repairing might include repairing or replacing the damaged good by the offender, or repairing the inconvenience caused by the action.

4. Conclusion

Drawing mainly from the eight political apologies made by the Philippine Presidents who occupied the most recent three presidential seats, and analysed using the five strategies of apology proposed by Olshtain and Cohen (1983), the data revealed that political apologies in the Philippines employ the five-step apology strategies in the following order: direct apology (IFIDs) at 100%; offering of an explanation at 87.50%; acknowledgement of responsibility and offering of repair both at 62.50%; and promise of forbearance at 50%.

The political apologies in the Philippines are further described as Direct apologies (100%) and Indirect (Explanation, Responsibility, Repair, Forbearance) at 65.63%. It can be concluded that political apologies in the Philippines made by the three recent Presidents employ the five strategies, IFID being the most preferred strategy and forbearance being the least preferred strategy.

Directness is the word which describes political apologies in the Philippines, as opposed to digressiveness which is a characteristic of writings of Oriental writers. The three speakers do not beat around the bush when apologising but provides explanation, too.

5. Recommendations

Based on the results of the present study, a follow-up study on the degree of acceptability of apologies by political leaders to a number of Filipinos is recommended.
References


The Canadian Press. (2016, May 26) Trudeau gets apology from Filipino president-elect for Canadian hostage death 'We will try our very best and see to it that nothing of this sort will happen again,' Duterte says. The Canadian Press. Retrieved from The Canadian Press. Posted: May 26, 2016 12:39 AM ET Last Updated: May 26, 2016 3:03 AM


STUDENTS’ STRATEGIES AND COMPETENCE IN WRITING COMPOSITIONS

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Abstract

This study investigated on the use of writing strategies in three different types of compositions namely narrative, descriptive, and explanatory and its effect in the level of writing competence among sophomore students enrolled in the different programs in the College of Teacher Education of Cagayan State University–Andrews Campus, Tuguegarao City during the school year 2016-2017. Through the use of the descriptive-inferential method and correlation techniques, it ascertained the different strategies used by students in writing and its relationship to their level of competence. The students certainly used strategies often and that generally, they are considered developing in terms of their competence level. There was no significant difference in the use of strategies between the male and female gender. The students usually used cognitive writing strategies which have a positive impact on their level of competence. Strategies in prewriting, writing, and revising proved to be effective in writing compositions such as narrative, descriptive, and explanatory. Students who have writing difficulties especially in writing in a foreign or second language should undergo a special writing strategy instruction to help them in their writing difficulties. The researcher emphasized that this study becomes a basis for conceptualizing, planning, and implementing a Special Writing Strategy Instruction which involves planning, revising, and editing composition. It can also be considered a preliminary investigation on which a follow-up work could be based.
**Keywords:** writing strategy, writing competence, writing strategy instruction, 2L/FL writing

**INTRODUCTION**

The finest compositions written by simple but skillfully broadminded men and women across ages and geographies are of today the reservoir and fountain of transmitted ideas, concepts, facts, bodies of knowledge from boundless number of disciplines, and history of any event or circumstances of the smallest creature to the grandest circumstances of human lives and achievements. All that has been written and stored which form part of the connecting links of the past, the chronicles, and the general records of knowledge are things of people of today owe from the writers, journalists, columnists and authors of numerous literary genre.

The compositions as masterpieces which are still in the making benchmarked from best practices of composition writing and writing innovative writing styles or format would be responsible at providing the gateways of mutual understanding and consensus of thoughts in all undertakings of mankind.

Common to all agencies of countries is the prevalent communication and circulation of information. The written communications to be quickly attended to and acted upon requires a composite of competence reflective of the realm of the art and science of writing. Thus, competence in writing composition among learners (being considered as amateurs) is a vital focus of educators. Competence is one aspect in the learners’ communicative development whose possibility to mature intellectually may take place within bounds of true knowledge and wisdom as well as essential course of language disciplines. An effective writing process will most probably influence one’s writing achievement. Writing achievement can be defined as expressing one’s ideas in written form in a second or foreign language, and doing so with reasonable accuracy and coherence (Celce-Mercia, 1991). Hence, it is to this context that students necessarily have to have: (a) knowledge of the standards of grammar (be it in the foreign or local cultural language) and vocabulary, and (b) intellectual and conceptual frames (inclusive of the art and science of communication ethics, language use/functions) to set the perspective of understanding and direction of the information.
Writing is a language skill that is essential to academic success. It requires thinking strategies that allows the individual to express oneself competently. A line of research was initiated recently to investigate the significance of writing strategy. For example, Graham (2006) conducted a meta-analysis of 20 group-comparison studies, with both learning disabled and typically-developing students, and concluded that strategy instruction showed great positive effects on writing quality. This was also supported by Al Asmari (2013) that a successful writer uses some strategies for comprehensive writing, such as relating the text to one’s own experience, summarizing the information, concluding and asking questions about the text, and so on.

A number of cognitive-oriented studies have also found that expert writers use more effective planning and revising strategies than inexperienced student writers and confirmed that the learners who use effective writing strategies perform better in the language achievement assignment given to them (e.g. Cumming, 1989; Hayes, Flower, Shriver, Stratman, & Carey, 1987; Sasaki, 2000). Further, writing strategy instruction has been found effective, especially for adolescents who have writing difficulty, and it is also a powerful technique for adolescents in general (Graham & Perin, 2006). Writing strategies instruction involves teaching students strategies for planning, revising, and editing their compositions (Graham & Perin, 2006).

Writing is a skill that anyone can learn. Although we can not all be great, we can all write well enough to handle writing situations we encounter in college or on the job. Our competence in strategizing and systematically inquiring, like scientists, about how they will work, what they are, where they occur, and how more information can be learned from them; moreover, like artists, using what they know to create something new and imaginative, is undeniably effective in coming out with a good writing output.

Most students, low and high achievers alike, find writing difficult and view it as something they just have to persevere through in order to pass certain exams (Yavuz & Genç, 1998).

When a student writes, he plans and writes using a mind map or outline. The cognitive theory explains this. The Cognitive Theory of Composition which traces its roots to psychology and cognitive science is focused on gaining insight into the writing process through the writer’s thought processes where composition theorists attack the problem of
accessing the writer’s thoughts in various ways. In addition, the student, when transforming intended meanings into the form of a message when composing or revising, he applies language rules, this requires his linguistic skill, as explained by Linguistic Theory of Composition, which found its roots in the debate surrounding grammar’s importance in composition pedagogy. This theory has traditionally focused on sentence and paragraph-level composition, with the goal of providing insights into the way students at various proficiency levels produce writing. Applied Linguistics has played a large role in the development of linguistic theories of composition.

This study revealed the writing strategies of students in different types of composition at different stages. In particular, this study generated accurate authentic data and valuable pieces of information standards. The findings of this study will be useful to budding writers, writing enthusiasts, students, teachers, and educators who consider writing not only as a skill to be learned but also as a way of life. This study will serve as their guide in their journey into the writing world by contributing to the way they think as this is basic in every writing activity. It is a significant activity as it will serve as one feedback mechanism to provide them with ideas on how to hone their skills through strategic writing.

Moreover, the findings of this study is expected to contribute to curriculum planners since it will certainly orient them of new best practices and principles and frameworks for curriculum enhancement. Eventually, it will become a basis for a follow-up study. In a future comparative study, it will be interesting to assess whether students writing competence will improve after training on the use of writing strategies.

**Conceptual Framework**

Competence in writing composition of varied genre is remarkably developed with due knowledge of the central focus of articulation – the rules of grammar and language functions – and diligence over the exploration of facts or events and human circumstances, and sound analysis and judgment theories, contemporary mind frames of people from all walks of life. As cognitive and linguistic theories posit, writing is a skill-based on the writer’s cognitive and linguistic capabilities complementing each other to explain how and why the writing process takes place.
This study anchored its course to the attempt of uncovering the level of students’ writing competence through the strategies they apply which could be the product of their academic exposure and/or personal innovation. It is an attempt also meant to establish appreciation of the best composition writing practices among students and/or ventilate proposed instructional interventions. Figure 1 shows the conceptual paradigm of the study.

**Statement of the Problem**

This study attempted to ascertain the level of competence of students in writing narrative, descriptive, and explanatory compositions. As it endeavored to identify the strategies employed by the students in writing their compositions, it also endeavored to find out the extent in the use of their strategies in writing compositions, and eventually identify their best strategic writing practices. Specifically, this study sought answers to the following:

1. What is the profile of the respondents in terms of:
   a. Sex

2. What strategies are adopted by the respondents in writing compositions particularly along:
   a. Prewriting
   b. Drafting
   c. Revising/proofreading

3. What is the extent in the use of strategies of writing compositions among students in the following aspect:
   a. Grammar/mechanics
   b. Content/language
   c. Organization/sequence

4. What is their level of competence in writing compositions along:
   a. Content/language
   b. Organization/Sequence
   c. Grammar/Mechanics
5. Is there significant difference in the extent of use of strategies in writing compositions among students in terms of sex?
6. Is there significant relationship in the extent of use in the strategies of students and their level of writing competence?

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

This study used the descriptive-inferential method and correlation techniques. The use of this method (descriptive) is fitting since it was geared towards describing the students’ writing competence through their strategies. Likewise, it is inferential since this study featured out the rubric-based assessment on the written composition. Finally, this research considered interfacing the aforesaid research designs with correlation method to manifest the quantitative responses of the students and the qualitative assessment of the English faculty member- respondents as a confirmatory necessity.

Respondents and Sampling Procedure

The researcher utilized random sampling in this research. The respondents were 139 sophomore students who come from three departments across all majors in the College of Teacher Education – the Bachelor of Elementary Education Department, the Bachelor of Technology Teacher Education department, and the Bachelor of Secondary Education department during the school year 2016-2017.

Locale of the Study

This research was conducted in Cagayan State University-Andrews Campus, Tuguegarao City certainly to make sure that the respondents are readily available and are legitimate second year students of the College of Teacher Education. The researcher concentrated her attempts to survey the students’ strategies in writing compositions and its impact to their level of competence in writing compositions during the school year.
Research Instrument

The researcher made use of the Survey Questionnaire constructed by the researcher herself to gather the relevant data and information about the students’ strategies in writing. It consisted of two parts – the first part consisted of the survey on the profile of the respondents, and the second part consisted of a questionnaire to elicit information about the different strategies they used in writing. This part of the questionnaire revealed the different methods or activities the students underwent when they prepared to write, when they wrote, and when they evaluated what they wrote – it being a narrative, descriptive or explanatory.

Their writing output certainly served very important purpose to know their competence in writing compositions.

Data Gathering Procedure

The data for this study were gathered by the researcher through the help of some English teachers who handled subjects in Grammar and Composition or actually teaching writing-related subjects. It was useful that the teachers were actual teachers of the students who were chosen at random.

The Dean of the college was formally informed of the conduct of this study through a letter. Another letter was filed to inform the same of the administration of the survey questionnaire and the writing activity that was conducted separately and personally by the researcher. This was necessary particularly because the respondents had to be pulled-out from their classes at different schedules. This required the cooperation of teachers (not necessarily those who are teaching Grammar and Composition subjects) for the efficient administration of the survey.

The students who were chosen at random were requested to proceed to a room to answer the 5-10 minute-survey questionnaire. On another schedule, the students were given the composition writing activity for the three types of composition. This time, they were allowed ample time to write these three different compositions on a day to allow them to freely use their strategies in writing. This gave them the chance, too, to discuss strategies other than those they already knew, what they prove to be effective in developing their
compositions. All three compositions were retrieved at the same time on the day they were given the activity.

The compositions were checked by the English teachers using the rubric prepared by the researcher. They were given back to the students to rewrite integrating any correction or suggestion indicated by the evaluator. The final output which were evaluated by the English teachers themselves were used for the holistic evaluation by the researcher along with the English teachers. Such an evaluation was practical as many of the students’ errors were spotted and corrected during the revision process. Problems that remained in the final copy were indicative of where the students’ real weakness lie.

The evaluation instruments focused on content and language, organization/sequence, and grammar and mechanics.

**Statistical Tool and Analysis**

The study utilized the simple frequency count, percentage and weighted mean to determine the scores of the respondents in the use of the strategies. They were also used to determine the similarities and differences in their competence as far as writing composition is concerned. The ANOVA was utilized to find out the significant difference in their level of competence when grouped according to profile variables. On the other hand, Pearson Product Correlation was used to find out if there was significant relationship in the use of their strategy in writing and level of competence.

Figure 2 shows the frequencies in the utilization of the strategies among students described as Very Often (5), Often (4), Sometimes (3), Seldom (2), and Never (1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Very Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Never</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 3 shows the scale of interpretation for the variables to be measured reflecting strategic competence levels of the respondents’ writing compositions described as Most Competent, Averagely Competent, Fairly Competent, and Not Competent with scores ranging from 16-20, 11-15, 6-10, 0-5, respectively, to wit:

![Table 1. Profile of the respondents](image)

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Analysis and Interpretation of Data**

This part of the paper presents the findings of the researcher from the data gathered and collated. It also gives the analyses to the findings, as well as the interpretations made based on these analyses.

**Table 2. Extent of use of strategy in prewriting**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I generate ideas first prior to writing</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.75</td>
<td>Very Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I provoke discussion with classmates about my thought and opinions on what to write.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I look for some visual arts that could serve to frame my thoughts and ideas.</td>
<td>3.47</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. I enumerate all interesting ideas, concepts and impressions about what I want to write.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I write the title first of my composition.</td>
<td>4.40</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Very Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I write the draft of main concepts and the title later.</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion:

The students generally strategized in prewriting compositions. Generating ideas prior to writing is the strategy they very often used, but they could hardly provoke discussions with their professors about things they want to write. This must be due to the fact that, for students, they would normally find it hard usually to approach a teacher for a discussion sometimes, so they end up doing it by themselves and come up with ideas to write about. Generally, however, as gleaned from the table, the students use prewriting strategies in writing compositions. As Graves (1983) said, “good writers recognize the importance of the prewriting phase, viewing it as rehearsal in which preparation comes in the form of “daydreaming, sketching, doodling, making lists of words, reading, conversing, and writing”. Chai (2006) also stressed that generating a writing plan before writing a composition is beneficial to writers.
3. I write the whole text with due consideration to the composition’s parts/elements/components. | 3.55 | 0.77 | Often

4. I write the title and the whole text of my composition and enhance it with further readings from literature sources. | 3.77 | 0.87 | Often

Overall | 3.72 |  | Often

Discussion:

In writing/drafting their composition, the students similarly often use strategies to complete the task. But the most often used strategy is to write the title first of their composition. Sometimes, they write the draft of the main concepts, then the title later. This result is actually expected based on the observation of the researcher who has handled writing sessions for long years already, and has observed the same and common way of writing compositions, that is, writing the title first. Based on the table, however, it can be gleaned that the students utilize writing strategies to come up with a good writing output and it can probably affect their writing achievement. This is supported by Graham (2006) who conducted a meta-analysis of 20 group-comparison studies, and concluded that strategy instruction showed great positive effects on writing quality.

**Table 2.c. Extent of use of strategies in revising/proofreading compositions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I read loudly as I check on the mistakes of the composition.</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>Sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I focus my reading on the right choice of function words.</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.90</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I focus my attention on grammar rules (subject-verb agreement, tense, etc.).</td>
<td>3.78</td>
<td>0.84</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I focus my attention to the integration of figurative language and symbolism.</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>0.82</td>
<td>Often</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. I focus my attention to parallelism of thoughts and structure of sentence.  
   
   3.63  
   0.80  
   Often

6. I allow others to read my composition and ask them honest to goodness comments for improvement.  
   
   3.88  
   1.02  
   Often

7. I read several times to allow my intellectual consciousness to sink into the conceptual and contextual frame of my composition.  
   
   4.05  
   0.84  
   Often

Overall  

3.70  
   Often

Discussion:

It is very apparent in the table that in terms of proofreading or revising, the students almost often used the strategies as indicated based on common observation. Except that only sometimes did they read aloud as they check on their mistakes in writing their compositions. Vocalizing is not so much of a practice by the students. This is due to the fact that reading aloud may cause disturbance to the other students, or it may cause the writer to listen to himself instead, rather than focus on his writing mistakes.

On the level of competence, the researcher classified the students based on their writing output in narrative, descriptive and explanatory compositions as Skilled, Developing and Beginning along the areas of content/language, sequence/organization, and grammar and mechanics.

Table 3. Level of competence of students in writing narrative composition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Beginning (1)</th>
<th>Developing (3)</th>
<th>Skilled (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content/Language</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 The student developed the narrative using the elements of character, setting and plot.</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>21.58</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2 The student wrote the elements of narrative that were developed with appropriate details.
3 The student wrote the composition using definite introduction, body and conclusion.

### Sequence/Organization
1 The students used clear chronological order for the necessary events in developing the narratives.
2 The student used transitional words and phrases that maintained coherence and established sequence.
3 The students used precise, vivid language to tell the story.

### Grammar/Mechanics
1 The student committed minor errors in grammar.
2 The student used appropriately commas and other punctuation marks.
3 The student observed correct subject-verb agreement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1 – Beginning</th>
<th>3 – Developing</th>
<th>5 - Skilled</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>20.86</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>19.42</td>
<td>86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>27.34</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>39</td>
<td>28.06</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>16.55</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>23.74</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>14.39</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>23.02</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion:
The level of competence of students, as reflected in Table 3, reveals that they are developing especially on the aspects of using the elements of character, setting, and plot, and writing introductions. Although these skills may not be fully developed, 61.87 percent of them manifested this aspect on content/language. On the other hand, a significantly high percentage of 69.06 is reflected for sequence/organization which is indicative that the
students are developing. Similarly, a relatively high percentage of 65.48 is reflected for grammar and mechanics which considers the students as developing.

The figures in the table reveal that the students could write relatively well narrative compositions in terms of the aspects mentioned, but they need to improve on them to make them adequate, with definite introduction, body and conclusion, and appropriate details.

Table 4. Level of competence of students in writing descriptive composition

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Beginning (1)</th>
<th>Developing (3)</th>
<th>Skilled (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content/Language</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 The student developed the descriptive composition using appropriate sensory details to develop the topic.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>29.46</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The student used strong verbs, precise nouns, appropriate modifiers to create a vivid picture about the topic.</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>28.78</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sequence/Organization</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 The student demonstrated very comprehensible organizational pattern.</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>18.71</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The student demonstrated exceptional consistency in mood.</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>18.71</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grammar/Mechanics</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 The student committed minor errors in grammar.</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>21.30</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The student had appropriate word choice.</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>23.74</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The student used punctuation marks correctly.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>16.55</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion:

In writing descriptive composition, the students are quite good. With a high percentage value of 77.70 for sequence/organization, this would mean that the students, aside from they know well their adjectives, they can develop their composition with appropriate modifiers to create a vivid picture about the topic. Although they have major errors in grammar, they, nevertheless, have usual consistency in mood and few improperly used punctuation marks. However, the students need to improve the use of sensory details and grammar.

Table 5. Level of competence of students in writing explanatory composition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Beginning (1)</th>
<th>Developing (3)</th>
<th>Skilled (5)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Content/Language</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 The student developed the</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>39.57</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>explanatory composition that</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>includes the necessary steps of</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the process.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The student wrote all steps in</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>38.85</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sequential order.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The student employed necessary</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>33.81</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>steps that helped explain the</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>details of the content fully.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sequence/Organization</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 The student employed concise</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>26.62</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>steps in clear and specific</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language expression.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The student used transitional</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>31.65</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>words and phrases to establish</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coherence appropriately.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grammar/Mechanics</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 The student committed minor</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25.18</td>
<td>66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>errors in grammar.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion:

Table 5 reveals the level of competence of students in writing explanatory composition. Along content/language, the percentage distribution shows that the students are into beginning to developing level, although a higher percentage of the students are into developing competence. Meanwhile, similar competence level is also displayed by the students along sequence/organization. However, in terms of grammar/mechanics, the distribution shows that the students are into developing to skilled competence, although a relatively high percentage of students are in the developing competence.

Specifically, 47.48% of the students committed minor errors in grammar and 60.40% used punctuation marks correctly. Overall, it can be noted that along the three areas in writing explanatory composition, the students are most competent along grammar and mechanics.

As a general observation, the results reflected on tables 3, 4 and 5 reveal that students are mostly in the developing level of competence in writing narrative, descriptive, and explanatory compositions. This is a good and acceptable indicator since the respondents in this study are only second year college students. This means that the students can express themselves relatively well in a second language.

Table 6. Comparison in the extent of use of strategies in writing between male and female respondents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>t-value</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Decision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prewriting</td>
<td>1.5582</td>
<td>0.1194</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Drafting/Writing</td>
<td>0.7950</td>
<td>0.4303</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Revising/Proofreading</td>
<td>0.3650</td>
<td>0.7168</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significant at =0.05
Discussion:

There is no significant difference in the extent of use of strategies between male and female students. The probability values that are greater than the significant level (0.05) resulted to the rejection of the null hypothesis. This means that in so far as prewriting/drafting, writing, and revising/proofreading strategies are concerned, the extent by which male and female respondents use them is comparable. Many previous studies in this area, however, have reported a greater use of language learning and writing strategies by women (e.g. Oxford & Nyikos, 1989; Green & Oxford, 1995; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002). Interestingly, a more recent study did not find a significant difference between male and female students in using writing strategies for their examination (Punithavalli, 2003).

Table 7. Relationship in the extent of use of strategies and competence in writing compositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies in Writing</th>
<th>Narrative</th>
<th>Descriptive</th>
<th>Explanatory</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>PREWRITING</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I generate ideas prior to writing.</td>
<td>0.1128*</td>
<td>0.1023</td>
<td>0.1211</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I provoke discussion with my classmates with the intension to clarify my thoughts and opinions on what I write.</td>
<td>0.0044</td>
<td>0.0173</td>
<td>-0.0848</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I look for some visual arts that could serve to frame my thoughts and ideas.</td>
<td>0.0341</td>
<td>0.1343*</td>
<td>0.0619</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I enumerate all interesting ideas, concepts and impressions about what I want to write.</td>
<td>0.0588</td>
<td>0.1385*</td>
<td>0.0516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I do extensive reading of articles.</td>
<td>-0.0599</td>
<td>0.0026</td>
<td>0.0516</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I recall captivating dialogues of characters in movies.</td>
<td>-0.0096</td>
<td>-0.0544</td>
<td>0.0634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. I provoke a discussion with my professor about things that I want to write.</td>
<td>-0.0793</td>
<td>-0.0406</td>
<td>-0.0812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>DRAFTING/WRITING</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. I write the title first of my composition</td>
<td>0.0120</td>
<td>-0.1167*</td>
<td>-0.0400</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Step</td>
<td>Activity Description</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>Significance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I write the draft of main concepts and the title later.</td>
<td>-0.0116</td>
<td>0.0500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I write the whole text with due consideration to the composition’s parts/elements/components.</td>
<td>0.1302*</td>
<td>0.1664*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**REVISING/PROOFREADING**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Activity Description</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>I read loudly as I check on the mistakes of the composition.</td>
<td>0.1334*</td>
<td>0.0052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>I focus my reading on the right choice of function words.</td>
<td>0.0516</td>
<td>-0.0704</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>I focus my attention on grammar rules (e.g. subject-verb agreement, tense, etc.)</td>
<td>-0.0064</td>
<td>0.0803</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>I focus my attention to the integration of figurative language and symbolism.</td>
<td>-0.0332</td>
<td>0.0118</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>I focus my attention to parallelism of thoughts and structure of sentences.</td>
<td>-0.0396</td>
<td>0.0013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>I allow others to read my composition and ask them honest to goodness comments for improvement.</td>
<td>-0.1046</td>
<td>0.0249</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>I read several times to allow my intellectual consciousness sink into the conceptual and contextual frame of my composition.</td>
<td>0.0955</td>
<td>0.1318*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*significant at 0.05

Table 7 presents the relationship in the extent of use of strategies and competence of the students in writing compositions. It can be gleaned from the table that there are strategies in writing which are significantly correlated to competence in writing compositions. The computed correlation coefficient based on Pearson-\(r\) is greater than the critical value at 0.05 significance. Hence, the hypothesis is rejected.

Specifically, it can be noted that the positive significant correlation denotes that students who are more competent in writing narrative compositions use different strategies in writing to a greater extent such as generating ideas prior to writing (0.1128), writing the
whole text with due consideration to the composition’s parts/elements/components (0.1302), and checking by reading loudly on the mistakes of the composition (0.1334). These strategies are under the prewriting, drafting, and revising/proofreading parts, respectively.

On the other hand, the more competent the are in descriptive writing, their extent of use of the strategies in writing such as looking for some visual arts that could serve to frame thoughts and ideas (0.1343), enumerating all interesting ideas, concepts, and impressions about what to write (0.1385), writing the whole text with due consideration to the composition’s parts/elements/components (0.1664), and reading several times to allow intellectual consciousness sink into the conceptual and contextual frame of the composition (0.1318) is greater. The significant negative correlation (0.1167), meanwhile, indicates that the less competent the students in descriptive writing use writing the title first of their composition as a strategy in writing to a lesser extent, and vise versa.

Finally, in terms of writing explanatory compositions, the competence level of the students significantly correlate to some strategies in writing. Students who are more skilled in explanatory writing generate ideas prior to writing (0.1211) and read several times to allow their intellectual consciousness sink into the conceptual and contextual frame of the composition (0.1435) as a writing strategy more often. However, the negatively significant correlation (-0.1121) manifests that the lesser skilled is a student in explanatory composition writing, the more often he/she focuses his/her attention to parallelism of thoughts and structures of sentences as a strategy in revising/proofreading, and vise-versa.

A number of cognitive-oriented studies, have found that expert writers use more effective planning and revising strategies than inexperienced student writers and confirmed that the learners, who use effective writing strategies perform better in the language achievement assignment given to them (e.g. Cumming, 1989; Hayes, Flower, Shriver, Stratman, & Carey, 1987; Sasaki, 2000). Further, writing strategy instruction has been found effective, especially for adolescents who have writing difficulty, and it is also a powerful technique for adolescents in general (Graham & Perin, 2006). Writing strategies instruction involves teaching students strategies for planning, revising, and editing their compositions (Graham & Perin, 2006).
CONCLUSION

Based on the results and findings of this study, the researcher concludes that:

1. The students generally strategized in prewriting, writing, and revising.
2. The students prefer to generate their own ideas about what to write rather than to approach a teacher about it whenever they plan to write.
3. The students use similar strategies in drafting their compositions by writing the title first.
4. The students do not read aloud to check on their mistakes in writing as this may cause disturbance to other students.
5. On their level of competence, the students are, in general, “developing” as far as writing the narrative, descriptive, and explanatory compositions are concerned.
6. As to the extent of use of the strategies, sex or gender is not a significant factor.
7. As far as the given strategies in writing are concerned where the extent of use and competence level are being considered, strategies such as generating ideas and reading several times, and other cognitive strategies prove to be effective and related to better competence in writing compositions. Meanwhile, focusing on parallelism and structures of sentence prove to be less contributing to students’ competence.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The current research was intended to explore the students` use of writing strategies and its relation to their level of writing competence. This was attempted through the administration of a writing strategies questionnaire to determine the writing strategies used by the students, and to find out its effect on their competence level in a second language writing task.

The researcher, therefore, recommends that:

1. Teachers need to exert effort to help students understand how their writing strategies that can influence their performance or competence level in writing especially in English. Further, it is recommended that teachers of English should exercise this process at the early stages of their second language education.
2. Since strategizing prove to be effective in writing, teachers of English and school authorities should plan to include a Special Writing Strategy Instruction intended to help adolescents who have writing difficulties. Writing strategies instruction involves teaching students strategies for planning, revising, and editing their compositions (Graham & Perin, 2006).

3. In the present study, the findings stressed that sex is not a significant factor in English writing. It would be interesting for English teachers to recognize the range of factors affecting strategy use among their students.

4. This research could be considered a preliminary investigation on which follow-up work could be based. In a comparative future study, it would be interesting to assess whether student level of competence improves after training on the use of writing strategies.

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Attitude towards and Proficiency in Spelling among Pre-Service Teachers in one State University in the Philippines

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ABSTRACT

Community acclaims correct speller, while misspeller are regarded as individuals lacking diligence and mental effort (Smith, 2015). Learners have to acquire proficiency in spelling, for it speaks of the general intelligence quotient of a person. (Ganske, 2000). Also, Maxwell and Meiser (2000) regards it as the hallmark of an educated person. This study was conducted to determine the attitude towards and proficiency in the spelling among the Pre-service Teachers of Cagayan State University at Sanchez Mira. Their developmental spelling stage was sought. Also, the relationship between the respondents’ spelling proficiency and their attitudes and the difference in the respondents’ spelling proficiency and attitude according to the program enrolled in were established. The study used the descriptive – correlational design with the attitudinnaire and spelling test were used to determine their attitude towards spelling, spelling proficiency and spelling developmental stage. Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used to test the relationship and T-test for the difference. Generally, the attitude of the respondents towards spelling is neither favorable nor unfavorable. The proficiency level is “slightly proficient” while their developmental stage is “transition between within word and syllable juncture stage.” which is typical to children’s ages between 7 and 11. The attitude of the respondents towards spelling is significantly related to their spelling proficiency, and the Secondary pre-service
teachers perform better in spelling than the elementary pre-service teachers, while their attitude towards spelling is comparable.

**Keywords:** pre-service teachers, spelling attitude, spelling development stage, spelling proficiency

**INTRODUCTION**

The intellectual capacity of words is not only a concern among elementary and high school students, but it has also conquered higher education learners for whom they are expected to have already reached the highest spelling developmental level, hence should be proficient spellers.

It has become an alarming concern of many educators today because of the poor spelling ability of students as evidenced by their constant misspelling in their writing or spelling activities. This is asserted by Simmons (2007) who stated that, in spite of a large body of researches that exist on how to teach spelling, educators and researchers agree that there is a declining trend in the area of spelling performance for students with and without disabilities across the United States. Meanwhile, this claim is also supported by Al Jayousi (2011) when he revealed that many learners of English, including Arab learners in UAE public schools, exhibit difficulties with English spelling which he considered as the most common errors along language learning that plague Arab students. He emphasized that this difficulty can cause a significant obstacle for them throughout their educational stages and eventually carried to their workplaces after graduation. Likewise, Johnston (2001) found that most of the general education teachers he observed remained dissatisfied with the results of spelling activities (students continuing to spell poorly) in spite of their instructions.

Researches reveal that misspellings are attributed to many factors such as learner's skill on orthographical system which is in consonance with Al Jayousi (2011) who regarded that the irregularity of the orthographic system of the English language and mother tongue interference had caused the spelling errors and posed a number of problems for many Arab students. Besides, Staden (2010) states phonological and visual skills, awareness of morphology and semantics, and knowledge of spelling rules are also involved in learning
how to spell. Meanwhile, at the outset of the 21st century which is referred to as information age, another factor emerged - the textisms phenomena or commonly termed as the “jejemon” language or texting lingo in the Philippines. Many kinds of research have been conducted such that of Cabras et.at (2013), Bainto (2010), and Joguilon (n.d.) to find out if technological gadgets mainly the mobile phone affects the language learning of students, particularly along spelling. They have a common finding that texting habits affect the declining spelling proficiency of students, that text languages often confuse the students with the correct spelling of the words leading to usually misspelled words; thus diminishing the spelling proficiency of students.

Apart from the above mentioned and in any facet of learning, attitude towards the target activity plays an important role. Without a positive attitude towards anything a person would like to learn, practice or acquire then it can be a futile endeavor. Al-Sobhi, Rashid, and Abdullah (2018) stressed that one of the fundamental elements of motivation is the learner's attitude which is described by Brown (2007) as a group of beliefs that a learner holds toward the target language whether it is necessary, exciting, boring, and so forth. Therefore, the success of any learning endeavor significantly lies on the positive attitude of the learner. Scott et al. (2010) also confirmed that college students with weaker spelling performance have more negative beliefs about foreign-language learning.

Although confronted with these circumstances brought about by different factors, these cannot be made as an excuse for misspelling words because it will handicap students in several ways. It should be noted that proficiency in spelling is vital not only the students but also for other people. Likewise, it has been regarded as a measure of a person's general capacity, so that if you are a poor speller, you will be assumed to be incompetent in other fields. Fernando et al. (1973). The deficiency in it can hamper other academic areas, student’s fluency, proficiency, and self-confidence as a writer, thus affecting the final product. It is also a common belief by teachers and other professionals that spelling mistakes can cause a problem in communication because clarity and accuracy are violated. Furthermore, Mercer and Mercer (1998) discussed the reader's perception of a person's spelling ability as an indicator of his or her level of education or intelligence and spelling difficulties could also be detrimental to the psyche of the speller.
Taylor (1998) explained that spelling is the foundation of a person's ability to read and write and the bedrock of literacy development. Noah Webster, a noted lexicographer, on the other hand, as mentioned by Carreker (2010) once wrote, “Spelling is the foundation of reading and the greatest ornament of writing.” Undeniably, the public often considers spelling to be the hallmark of an educated person (Maxwell & Meiser, 2000) Thus, if a person frequently misspelled words, he/she may be branded as uneducated as what Graham and Sangtangalo (2014) said, “misspelled words can affect not only the quality of the writer’s message but also his or her total personality”. Hence, appropriate scholastic input in teaching the language should be part of the language teacher’s focus Joubert et al. (2013). Since learning how to spell always goes hand in hand in any student’s academic learning regardless of specialization. Al-Bereiki and Al Mekhlafi (2016) believed that English spelling is a difficult and challenging task which should be given attention.

Amidst this problem along language learning, many kinds of research have already been conducted in the hope to address this continuously emerging and even worsening problem. It has now become widespread like an outbreak not only to the educational level but also people in the workplaces. The students of the Cagayan State University of Sanchez Mira, Cagayan are not excused from this problem. Teachers across fields of specialization also noted that students consistently misspelled even the most common terms. This bothers them to a great extent considering the fact that these learners have already been exposed to learning for ten or more years in their primary education and a high spelling proficiency should have been achieved by any college student yet, it seems to be a paradoxical concept that while there is a wide array of access to education, learners seem to decline notably in language along spelling. This prompted the researcher to conduct a research study to determine the attitude towards and proficiency in the spelling among the Pre-service teachers of CSU-Sanchez Mira.

Objectives of the Study

Generally, this study was conducted to determine the attitude towards and proficiency in spelling among the Pre-service teachers of Cagayan State University – Sanchez Mira. Specifically, it looked into the profile of the respondents in terms of Age, Sex, Ethnicity and Program enrolled in. The study identified the general attitude of the
respondents towards spelling. Their spelling proficiency along Homophones, Words with final silent e, Combination of e and i word, words in –ize and –ise endings, commonly mispronounced words was further identified. It also determined the respondent’s spelling developmental stage. The relationship between the respondents’ spelling proficiency and their attitude, as well as the difference in the respondents’ spelling proficiency and attitude according to the program enrolled in were also sought.

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The study adopted the descriptive-correlational research design since the survey tried to describe the respondent’s proficiency and attitude towards spelling, and their spelling developmental stage. The relationship between the respondent’s attitude towards spelling and their performance as well as the difference between the two groups of students on the attitude towards spelling were also described.

Cagayan State University in Sanchez Mira (CSU-SM) is the locale of the study. CSU-SM is one of the eight campuses of CSU, strategically located at Manila North Road, Maharlika Highway, Centro 2, Sanchez Mira, and Cagayan. It is a campus which offers undergraduate and graduate education programs. It has more or less three thousand population. This was conducted during the second semester of SY 2017-2018.

Since the study is about the attitude towards and proficiency in language learning particularly along spelling, the researcher found it appropriate for the Pre-service Teachers because they are the future teachers and molders of the youths in the next generation. Hence, the Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSE) and Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEEEd) Pre-service teachers were the respondents of the study. Quota sampling sampling was used to select the 100 respondents.

The survey consists of three parts. Part I was the background questionnaire to elicit the participant’s name, age, sex, ethnicity, and program enrolled in. Part II was the standardized attitudinnaire which was adopted the study of Bandar Al-Sobhi, Sabariah Md Rashid1, and Ain Nadzimah Abdullah (2018). However, there was a slight modification for localization purposes. Part III was a spelling activity to test respondents’ proficiency. The set of spelling items constructed by the researchers consisted of a 20 – item spelling
test each categorized as homophones, words with final silent e, the combination of e and i words, words in –ize and –is endings, and commonly mispronounced words.

The set of spelling test items were submitted to language teachers for critiquing to achieve face validity. It was pre-tested to other groups of students, and it was submitted to a statistician for the reliability test. The alpha coefficient for the 100-item test prepared is .819, suggesting that the spelling items have relatively high internal consistency. Their spelling developmental stage was determined using the Ganske’s (2000) Spelling Development Model categorized as follows: Letter name stage, Transition between letter name and within word stages, Within Word stage, Transition between within word and syllable juncture stages, Syllable juncture stage, Transition between syllable juncture and derivational constancy stages, and Derivational constancy stage.

In the conduct of the spelling test, the words to be spelled were read twice and they were used in a sentence so that the respondents can draw the meaning of the word to be spelled. An English teacher with a near to American English pronunciation was utilized to record the words to be spelled by the respondents.

After seeking the approval of the Campus Executive Officer and dean of the College of Teacher Education, the researchers personally administered the spelling proficiency test for a more valid result of the study. To eliminate biases most especially in the enunciation of the words, the study was conducted in a speech laboratory to avoid extra noise that might disturb the students during the test. The respondents had their respective cubicle so that no one can interfere once the recorded test was played.

The student’s stage of spelling development was determined from the result of their spelling test using Ganske’s Model of Spelling Development Stage.

The data gathered were coded, encoded, tabulated and interpreted. The personal profile of the respondents was analyzed using simple mean, frequency count, and percentage distribution.
The general attitude of the students towards spelling was also analyzed and interpreted using the Five Point Likert Scale as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Point</th>
<th>Range Interval</th>
<th>Descriptive Value</th>
<th>Transposed Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.21 – 5.00</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>Very Favorable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.41 – 4.20</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Favorable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.61 – 3.40</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>Either Favorable or Unfavorable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.81 – 2.60</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Unfavorable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.00 – 1.80</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Very Unfavorable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the spelling proficiency test, it was analyzed and interpreted with the use of the Seven-Point Likert Scale as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Point</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.17 – 7.0</td>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>Very Much Proficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>5.31 – 6.16</td>
<td>15-17</td>
<td>Very Proficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.45 – 5.30</td>
<td>12-14</td>
<td>Proficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.59 – 4.44</td>
<td>9-11</td>
<td>Slightly Proficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.73 – 3.58</td>
<td>6-8</td>
<td>Slightly Not Proficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.87 – 2.72</td>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>Not proficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.0 – 1.86</td>
<td>0-2</td>
<td>Not at all Proficient</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the students’ spelling developmental stage, it was analyzed based on the following scoring system by (Ganske, 2000)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Spelling Development Stages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-1</td>
<td>Children who achieve a score of 0 or 1 may or may not be letter name spellers.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Developmental Spelling Stages</th>
<th>Characteristics of Each Stage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Letter Name-Alphabetic Stage</strong></td>
<td>➢ Beginning to read &amp; use inventive spelling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Rely on names of letters; Prominent sounds represented, along with beginning &amp; ending consonants and some vowels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Many sight words memorized</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Typical of 5-7 years of age</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Within Word Pattern</strong></td>
<td>➢ Inventive spellings, but short &amp; long vowels honored</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Blends frequently represented</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Most sight words spelled correctly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Approximations represent what &quot;looks right.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Understandings develop in regards to vowel-consonant-e patterns, r-controlled patterns, long &amp; abstract vowels, &amp; more complex consonant patterns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ An awareness of homophones &amp; exploration with meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>➢ Typical of 7-9 years of age</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Syllable Juncture Stage
- Frequent errors in spelling unstressed vowels (the schwa) in multisyllabic words & also in consonant doubling
- Doubling and e-drop with inflectional endings (-s, -es, -ed, -ing)
- Long vowel patterns (ladle, complain) and r-controlled vowels (dreary, inspire) in the stressed syllable
- Consonant assimilation (in + relevant = irrelevant)
- Prefixes & suffixes (known as affixes)
- Typical of 9-11 years of age

### Derivational Constancy
- Relationships between spelling & meaning (morphology)
- Morphemes are preserved even when pronunciations change (condemn-condemnation; discuss-discussion)
- Silent and sounded consonants (haste, hasten)
- Consonant & vowel changes or alternations (express-expression; compose-composition)
- Greek and Latin roots and affixes
- Typical of 11 years of age through adulthood

The relationship between the proficiency and attitude of the students towards spelling was likewise computed and analyzed using the Pearson Product Moment Correlation.

The difference between the two groups on their attitude towards spelling was also computed and interpreted using T-Test.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

**Profile of the Pre-service teacher- participants**

As to age, findings show that 42 percent are 19 years old; 27 percent are 20 years old; 21 percent are 21 years old; nine percent are 18 years old, and only one percent is 17 years old. The mean age, 19.5 means that the pre-service teachers are at the right age for a third year college.
In terms of sex, there are 84 percent females while sixteen percent are males. This means that the respondents are dominated by the female which could mean that teaching is more attractive to female individuals.

For the ethnicity of the respondents, 90 percent are Ilokano, seven percent are Isnag, three percent are Ibanag and only one percent is Tagalog. This shows that the pre-service students enrolled in CSU Sanchez Mira are Ilokano dominated which is attributed to the fact that residents in this town are mostly migrants from the Ilocos Region.

As to the program enrolled in by the respondents, 50 Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSE) enrollees were involved, and another 50 Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEEd) students were taken in. This reveals that there is a balanced number of respondents from the teacher education courses in the BSE and BEEd programs.

**Attitude of the Pre-service Teachers towards Spelling**

Table 1 presents the respondents' responses towards spelling. The results revealed that, generally, they have an “Uncertain” attitude towards spelling as shown by the General Weighted Mean of 3.21. They have a favorable or unfavorable attitude towards spelling.

It is an unexpected result compared to other research results such that of Al-Sobhi (2018) and Porter (2003) when they found out that their respondents have a positive attitude towards spelling.

This negative attitude which is considered to be neutral cognitive behavior of the respondents must be a result of their “strong agreement” that they just “ignore their misspelled words and leave it to anyone concern” with a registered mean of 1.75. Another is their “agreement” that “when they see somebody misspelled words, they never care of it” as proven by the mean of 2.41.

Apart from these negative attitude, the respondents’ “lack of effort in trying to think of a similar sounding word to help them spell a word”, “unconsciousness of their English words”, their “inattentiveness to unfamiliar terms”, their “lack of initiative in counterchecking in the dictionary the spelling of unfamiliar words” which were proven with registered means of 3.09, 3.12, 3.14, and 3.39 respectively. All of these negative attitudes may have contributed to the respondents’ “Uncertain” attitude towards spelling.
However, looking into the respondents’ other responses, this negative attitude can be transformed into positive attitude based from their responses such as: in their “strong disagreement” in the items “I hate spelling activities in class because I am already a college student” with a mean of 4.21, “there is no need to learn how to spell because there are computer programs to correct my spelling” also with a mean of 4.42, and “I do not care about accuracy in spelling anymore because it is no longer important today” with a mean of 4.31. These responses only mean that the respondents are more than willing to be exposed to spelling activities for their training as pre-service teachers. These responses are bolstered by their “agreement” that “spelling is important for their future career” with a mean of 3.81, and “spelling should always be a part of the teacher’s lesson” as evidenced by the mean of 3.42.

Al-Sobhi (2018) believes that the lack of spelling teaching and the absence of spelling skill from the curriculum, especially at secondary level, prompted the students to ignore spelling and take it as an insignificant skill due to its lack from their textbooks. Al Jayousi (2011) also added that the time devoted to spelling instruction is hardly adequate. Thus; this could have negatively affected the students’ ability to spell words correctly as well as their attitude toward spelling. He further stressed that as far as spelling is concerned, the students believe that spelling is an important literacy skill to learn, which can be improved by continuous exposure to writing exercises and tasks. This statement of Al Jayousi is being supported by the respondents’ agreement that “when they have more writing activities, all the more their spelling improves” as evidenced by the mean of 3.44.

This is undoubtedly true because according to Smith (2015), “Student teachers are trained at the college tertiary level and their language preparation to teach the young should, therefore, incorporate a focus on the proper spelling of educators as part of their training.”

Parallel to this, Uys et al. (2007), Reutzel and Cooter (2012) emphasize that quality educator knowledge directly impacts learner achievement, since the more knowledgeable the teacher is, the more equipped he/she can give correct information and spell correctly as part of literacy development.

The above mentioned positive interventions are supported by respondents’ agreement that “knowing the spelling rules helps them spell out many words” as also
proven by the mean of 3.43. Again, as revealed by Al-Sobhi et al. (2018), English spelling rules are worth learning because of their importance to writing and enhance students' spelling accuracy. Spelling instruction teaches learners how to use conventional spellings in their book. It was recommended by Al-Sobhi et al. (2018) that students should also be given a chance to check English pronunciation, phonics, and the different rules of English spelling and their exceptions.

Similarly, Graham et al. (2003) found that supplemental spelling instruction was effective for increasing spelling in two ways: increasing their memory of spelling specific words and their knowledge of the spelling system. However, Al Jayousi (2011) said: "spelling instruction does not often take place in the English teachers’ classrooms."

The “Uncertain” attitude of the students towards spelling could be attributed to the fact that while students and learners are more dependent on modern technologies such as computers and social networking sites for conveniences as Johnson (2013) pointed out that the world has already become so much more technology related, and because of this, students tend to depend on computers with spell check. With this, students consider spelling less of a priority due to all of the technology in the world today.

This may have placed the respondents during this kind of attitude that they see the importance of learning how to spell words correctly, but they still opt for English vocabulary that numbs Standard English. This interception of the internet language underscores the importance of instilling the correct spelling of words. Educators must take extra effort to let their learners be aware that computer-mediated learning tends them to use it more conveniently but at the expense of neglecting even the rudiments of language like correct spelling. Thurairaj, Hoon Roy and Fong (2015). As an example, Homophones are not recognized, and "no" and "know" are both acceptable, and if misused the computer does not check that up. The learners must also understand the relationship between words, as the use of a correct word in an incorrect connection is not always identified by the computer's spell checker.

The findings of the present study negate the results of the survey of Al-Sobhi et al. (2018) that Arab ESL students overall attitude toward English spelling is positive and Porter (2003) who found that teachers judged spelling to be important.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Weighted Mean</th>
<th>Descriptive Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Spelling is essential for my future career.</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I am a good speller.</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I hate spelling activity in class because I am already a college student.</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. When I write, I don’t like other people to see what I have written because of my possible spelling errors.</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Getting 100% correct on spelling on any subject test is luck, not ability.</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. I have always struggled with spelling.</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Words that have silent letters are difficult to spell.</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I am a weak speller because I don’t like to write.</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Spelling should be a part of a teacher's lesson.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The more that I write, the more that my spelling is improved.</td>
<td>3.44</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I always do well on spelling tests.</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. There is no need to learn how to spell because there are computer programs which correct my spelling.</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. To me, the English spelling is complicated.</td>
<td>3.37</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. I always use a spell checker on my computer to check my spelling.</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. When I write, I always can tell if a word does not look right.</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. Knowing the spelling rules will help me to spell out many words.</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I always use a dictionary to check the spelling of unfamiliar words.</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. After writing a sentence, I always correct my spelling errors.</td>
<td>3.27</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. I do not care about accuracy in spelling anymore because it’s no longer critical nowadays.</td>
<td>4.31</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. I ignore my misspelled words and leave it to anyone concern.</td>
<td>1.75</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. If I see somebody misspelled words, I am irritated.</td>
<td>2.41</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. I am always conscious of my English words.</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. I demerit teachers who ask students during a discussion on how to spell a word.</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
24. I try to think of the same sounding word to help me spell a word.  
25. When I read, I always memorize the spelling of unfamiliar terms.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Note</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24. I try to think of the same sounding word to help me spell a word.</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. When I read, I always memorize the spelling of unfamiliar terms.</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>Uncertain</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Total Weighted Mean**  
3.21  
Uncertain

*Note: Negative statements are reversed.*

Pre-service Teachers’ Spelling Proficiency

On Homophones

Based on the table presented showing the spelling proficiency level of the respondents along homophones, it got a mean proficiency level of 10.62 which is “Slightly Proficient.”

The result shows that there are 39 or thirty-nine percent who got a score of 9-11 which is “Slightly Proficient,” whereas 30 or thirty percent got a score of 12-14 or “Proficient.”

Moreover, 20 or twenty percent also got a score of 6-8 which is “Slightly Not Proficient,” and only 7 or seven percent got a score of 15-17 which is "Very Proficient." Only 4 or four percent which is "Not Proficient” having a score of 3-5; No one is “Not at all Proficient” nor “Very Much Proficient” along homophones as the first spelling test type.

This result may indicate that the respondents only have an average spelling performance and not so much of their concern. This may imply that the students may be no longer conscious of their spelling.

On Words with Final Silent E

On the spelling test with final silent e, the respondents showed a general mean performance level of 8.61 or “Slightly Proficient” which means that they somehow do well in this area. It further shows that no one got a score of 18-20 which is “Very Much Proficient.” However, there is one percent who got a score of 0-2 which is “Not at all Proficient”; while 7 or seven percent got a score of 15-17 or “Very Proficient.”

On the other hand, there is 18 or eighteen percent who are “Proficient” and “Slightly Proficient” as shown by their scores of 9-11 and 12-14 respectively. Likewise, 23 or twenty-three percent got a score of 3-5 or “Not Proficient,” and a considerable number of
33 or thirty-three percent of the respondents got a score of 6-8 or “Slightly Not Proficient.” This means that, like on homophones, the respondents also have an average spelling performance in this area.

**On Combination of E and I Words**

The result of this test tells that there is only one percent which is "Not at all Proficient" as evidenced by the score of 0-2. It is good that three percent got 18-20 score with an adjectival value of “Very Much Proficient.” Meanwhile, there are also 6 or six percent who got a score of 3-5 which is “Not Proficient,” and 20 or twenty percent got a score of 12-14 who is “Proficient.” Further, 25 or twenty-five percent got a score of 9-11 or “Slightly Proficient” while 27 or twenty-seven percent got a score of 6-8 or “Slightly Not Proficient.”

The mean performance score of 10.66 which is “Slightly Proficient” means that the respondents are likewise in their average level of spelling performance. This may also imply that the respondents are not so much interested in the correct spelling of words.

**On Words in- ize and- ise Endings**

The table shows the proficiency in spelling along –ize and –ise endings. Results would tell us that no one among the respondents is either “Very Much Proficient” or “Very Proficient”. Further, results show that there is only 12 or twelve percent who got a score of 12-14 which is only “Proficient” and fourteen percent got a score of 9-11 which is also “Slightly Proficient.” On the one hand, there are 15 or fifteen percent who got a score of 0-2 which is “Not at all Proficient” while 27 or twenty-seven percent got a score range of 6-8 which is "Slightly Not Proficient” and finally 32 or thirty-two percent also got a score of 3-5 which is “Not Proficient”. The mean performance score of 9.3 with an adjectival value of “Slightly Proficient” again, means that the respondents are only in their average performance in this area.

**On Commonly Mispronounced Words**

The results show that the proficiency in spelling along confusing words or referred to as spelling demons likewise received results from which no one among the respondents
is either “Very Much Proficient” or “Very Proficient”. On the other hand, there is two percent who got a score of 12-14 or “Proficient,” and there is eight percent who got a score from 9-11 which is "Slightly Proficient” only. A bigger number of respondents are distributed under the scores of 0-2 which is “Not at all Proficient” and has 21 or twenty-one percent; 6-8 which is "Slightly Not Proficient” also has 29 or twenty-nine percent and 3-5 which is also “Not Proficient” with 41 or forty-one percent. The mean performance score of 4.89 tells that the respondents are really "Not Proficient” in spelling along this area. This could mean that the respondents do not care about the correct spelling of words. With this it can be inferred that poor spelling performance of students contributes to the deterioration of the English language as claimed by linguists and other researchers.

The overall proficiency level of the respondents which is “slightly proficient” indicates that the Pre-service teachers of Cagayan State University at Sanchez Mira may not still be proficient and competent enough in the English language particularly in spelling. This is similar to the findings of Magbanua (2016) that college freshmen students are not proficient in English in terms of spelling.

Furthermore, analyzing the result of their proficiency, this may be attributed to their “uncertain” or most likely negative attitude towards spelling. This result now parallels to the concepts, ideas and findings of the following psychologists, and researchers: Gardner and Lambert (1972); Al-Sobhi et. al. (2018); Rankin, Bruning, & Timme, (1994); Rankin, Bruning, Timme, & Katkanant (1993); Scott et.al. (2010); Kundu & Tutoo, (2011); and Kernaghan (2007). All these researchers asserted that any performance could be excellently attained if there is a positive attitude towards it. The result of any work is a reflection of how much love and effort a person has put into it.
Table 2. Proficiency Level of the Pre-service teachers on the Spelling Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Homophones</th>
<th>Words with Final Silent E</th>
<th>Combinations of E and I Words</th>
<th>Words in-ize and -ise Endings</th>
<th>Commonly Mispronounced Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-2</td>
<td>Not at all Proficient</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-5</td>
<td>Not Proficient</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-8</td>
<td>Slightly Not Proficient</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-11</td>
<td>Slightly Proficient</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-14</td>
<td>Proficient</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-17</td>
<td>Very Proficient</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18-20</td>
<td>Very Much Proficient</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean Score=10.62
Mean Score=8.61
Mean Score=10.66
Mean Score = 9.3
Mean Score = 4.89

Overall Mean Spelling Proficiency: 8.81 Slightly Proficient

Spelling Developmental Stage of the Pre-service Teachers

Table 3 presents the pre-service teachers’ spelling developmental stage along in the five test types conducted. Results revealed that from the computed mean in each test category, the tests on combination of e and I words together with the test on homophones received a “transition between within word and syllable juncture stages” as shown in the computed mean score of 10.66 and 10.62 respectively.
This could mean that the respondents are proven to be poor in English spelling. Basing from the characteristic adopted from Henderson (1985); Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton & Johnston (2000); Ganske (2000); Sheets (2013); this stage is merely like the ability of one who is approaching a 9 to 11 years old.

The pre-service teachers have a “within word stage” on the spelling test along words in –ise and ize ending as well as in words with final silent e with computed mean score of 9.3 and 8.61 respectively. This means that they are likened to a 7-9 year old wherein one can approximate what looks right. They are aware of homophones and can explore with meaning. Again, their performance on these test types along spelling are very far from what is expected of them as college students.

They have a “letter name stage” for the test on commonly mispronounced words or what we call spelling demons. Based from computed mean score of 4.89, it means that they are only as good as a 5-7 years old who can just memorized many of the sight words, and a beginner in reading and using inventive spelling. They merely rely on names of letters, prominent sounds represented along with beginning and ending consonants and some vowels. That is how poor they are in spelling along words that are considered spelling demons.

The Overall Mean Score of 8.816 reveals that the Pre-service Teachers of Cagayan State University at Sanchez Mira are still at the “within word stage.” Analyzing the result, it means that the respondents’ level according to Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton,, & Johnston, (2000); Ganske, (2000); Henderson (1985); and Sheets, (2013) in the characteristics of their Developmental Spelling Stages is typical between 7 – 11 years old only. Further, this means that the respondents have a very low stage of spelling development. This implies that they cannot competently teach in the Foundation Phase Education in terms of spelling because they cannot perform at the required level.
Table 3. Spelling Developmental Stage of the Pre-service Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spelling test Type</th>
<th>Mean Score</th>
<th>Spelling Developmental Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homophones</td>
<td>10.62</td>
<td>Transition within word and syllable juncture stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words with Final Silent E</td>
<td>8.61</td>
<td>Within word stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combination of E and I Words</td>
<td>10.66</td>
<td>Transition within word and syllable juncture stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words with Final Silent E</td>
<td>9.3</td>
<td>Within word stage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commonly Mispronounced Words</td>
<td>4.89</td>
<td>Letter name stage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Overall Mean** 8.81  Within word stage

Relationship Between the Students’ Proficiency and Attitude Towards Spelling

Table 4. Relationship Between the Students’ Proficiency and Attitude Towards Spelling

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proficiency</th>
<th>Attitude</th>
<th>Critical Value</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Homophones</td>
<td>0.2681</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words with Final Silent E</td>
<td>0.2201</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Combination of E and I Words</td>
<td>0.1979</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Words with Final Silent E</td>
<td>0.1738</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commonly Mispronounced Words</td>
<td>0.1757</td>
<td>0.195</td>
<td>Not Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Computed Value** 0.2592  0.195  **Significant**

Table 4 reflects the relationship between the respondents’ proficiency and attitude towards spelling. The result shows that the students’ mean attitude of 0.2681 for homophones, 0.2201 for words with final silent e, and 0.1979 for words with a combination of e and I respectively are greater than the critical value of 0.195. This means
that there exists a significant relationship between the respondents’ attitude and spelling proficiency in homophones, *words with final silent e*, and *words with a combination of e and I*. This could also mean that the respondents’ positive attitude towards these categories affected their spelling proficiency probably because these categories are quite easier as compared to the other two categories like the words that end in –ize and –ise and the so-called spelling demons or confusing words which are more difficult and confusing.

In general, the Computed value 0.2592 which is higher than the critical value of 0.195 shows that their proficiency in spelling is affected by their attitude towards it. Further, it means that the more favorable their attitude towards spelling is, the higher is their spelling proficiency and vice versa. This result supports the findings of researches conducted by Gardner and Lambert (1972); Rankin, Bruning, Timme, & Katkanant, (1993); Rankin, Bruning, & Timme, (1994); Kernaghan (2007); Wills Scott et.al. (2010); Kundu & Tutoo, (2011); and Al-Sobhi et al. (2018). In the study of Batang and Temporal (2018), they also concluded that ESL learners’ English proficiency is affected by students’ language attitude.

All these findings support that there is a positive relationship between the attitude and performance of the learner. A positive attitude yields a positive result and vice versa.

**Difference in the Respondents' Spelling Proficiency and Attitude According to Program enrolled in**

Table 5 shows the difference in the respondents' spelling proficiency and attitude according to the program enrolled in. The result indicates that there is a “significant difference” between the respondents’ proficiency in spelling when grouped according to the program. The findings revealed that the Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSE) students show a better performance in spelling compared to the Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEEd) students. This is proven by the T-computed Value of 2.96 which is higher than the T- Critical value of 1.98 that yielded a significant result. This implies that the BSE students may be more conscious with their spelling as compared to the BEED because the BSE students are prepared to teach in the secondary level, and they are being classified according to their field of specialization; whereas the BEED who are prepared to
teach in the elementary level and who are referred to as the generalist students do not have a particular focus or concentration in their field.

Likewise, the difference on the respondents’ attitude towards spelling when grouped according to the program as shown in Table 5 indicates that there is “no significant difference” as proven by their T-computed value of 0.97 for BSE and 0.03 for BEED which are lower than the T-critical value of 1.98. This means that regardless of their program, may it be BSE or BEED, they have a comparable attitude towards spelling.

This finding is somewhat disturbing because the respondents are to become the teachers of young minds who according to Masondo (2013) are considered as embryonic learners and are prone to influence the acquisition of knowledge.

It is an eye opener for Cagayan State University at Sanchez Mira, because with this performance, one day it could be that they are graduating incompetent teachers who are not performing at the required level. Therefore, as what Smith (2015) asserts that student teachers are trained in the college level and their language preparation to teach learners should, therefore, incorporate a focus on the correct spelling of educators as part of their training. Also, Nel (2011) affirms that Pre-service educator training programs play a significant role in the preparation of a highly qualified teaching workforce because the Pre-service educator will handle emergent learners who are at their developmental stage thus; they will be required to spell correctly and use the English language correctly.

Table 5. Difference in the Respondents’ Spelling Proficiency and Attitude According to Program

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PROFICIENCY</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>t-comp</th>
<th>t-crit</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BSE</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>47.96</td>
<td>220.58</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>Sig</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEEd</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>40.35</td>
<td>110.87</td>
<td>1.66</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ATTITUDE</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>t-comp</th>
<th>t-crit</th>
<th>Remarks</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BSE</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>BEEd</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Conclusions

The Pre-service teachers of Cagayan State University at Sanchez Mira neither have a favorable nor unfavorable attitude towards spelling.

They are “Slightly Proficient” in spelling.

Their spelling developmental stage is “Within a word stage or they are as good as 7 – 11 years old only.

Spelling proficiency of pre-service teachers is affected by their attitude.

While the Bachelor of Secondary Education (BSE) students and the Bachelor of Elementary Education (BEEd) students have the same attitude towards spelling, the former perform better in spelling than the latter.

Recommendations

Both the BSE and BEEd pre-service teachers should develop a positive and favorable attitude towards English language learning particularly on spelling because this affects ones performance. Also, as future teachers who nurture young minds, it is good to address this problem in the classroom before it gets worse.

A similar study should be conducted to include pre-service teachers in the other campuses of the university, and the university to develop an intervention program to address this need.

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Investigating ESL Freshmen Students’ Writing Proficiency

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Abstract

Writing is essential in the teaching learning process. Students have the freedom to express their thoughts and bring out their ideas in a unified and coherent composition writing. It is in this way wherein they have all the options and permissions to express freely their minds out. Their experiences in the outside world are translated into words. These students are permitted to create a tone of freedom and independence of writing. The study commenced to determine the freshmen students’ writing proficiency on content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. There were two hundred seventy (270) of them coming from different sections. They were chosen at random and twenty (20) were taken from each class. Only the composition write ups of the students whose numbers are multiples of five (5) listed in the professor’s record were used. The descriptive survey method was used. It also partook the nature of documentary analysis. Students were found, specifically, to be weak in grammar; to have limited vocabulary; and to be poor in the mechanical aspects. They also found difficulty in expressing their ideas/messages clearly. They had limited background on said topic that caused them not to discuss thoroughly. This could be attributed to the fact that English is barely used as a foreign language in limited opportunities.

Keywords: English as a Foreign Language (EFL), Composition Writing, K to 12 Curriculum, MACRO Skills, Documentary Analysis, Philippines
INTRODUCTION

The Nueva Vizcaya State University caters to students who come from different walks of life, rich or poor, good or poor achievers. It has been observed that English teachers find difficulty in addressing students’ difficulties in both oral and written English. The university has a complex program dealing with students diverse in everything. The diversity comes from skills, intelligence, potentials, family background, environment and others that hinder students’ proficiency and competency in written composition. The university has a program for poor achieving students. Remediation of slow learners is a school program; nevertheless, students are still found to be deficient in written composition. This study aims for the immediate arrest of this deficiency. Since quality graduates and education are sacrificed, then a means is employed to solve the problem of poor writing.

The K to 12 Curriculum goal is to produce quality graduates; however, this aim remains a fantasy since graduates could hardly write a good composition. The K to 12 Curriculum is provided with Learning Competencies where every teacher bases his lesson. Writing is a MACRO skill: but students find it difficult. Byrne (1988) pointed out that one very significant factor which affects writing is the amount of language which the learners have at their disposal to write very limited – limited that it seems to make it impossible to introduce any meaningful form of writing practice. He further stressed that when someone writes, he is not going to write only a word nor one sentence or even a number of unrelated sentences but rather, he must produce a sequence of sentences arranged in a particular order linked together in certain ways to form a coherent whole which is called “text”.

Canale and Swain (1990) strongly emphasized that to become an effective writer, ‘one must have the command of English grammar, spelling conventions, punctuations, and rhetoric’. These refer to grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic competence and strategic competence. Scarcella and Oxford (1994) also discussed the factors affecting writing development. To mention some are: needs and objectives, motivation, authenticity, cultural and linguistic expectations, background knowledge, skill integration, reading as input for writing and practice writing. White (1983) believed that writing development is enhanced when instruction is explicitly designed to address student needs and objectives. Students need to write personal genres and institutional genres.
Manglesdorf (1989) agreed that integrating the four language skills – reading, listening, speaking and writing – leads to improved writing ability. He pointed out that there are particular connections between speaking and writing and that these two modes of communication must be integrated in classrooms. He believed that reading serves to give the writer ideas, data model sentence patterns, and structures and definitely this will encourage them to write of length, to make the effort to express what they wanted to say in their own words. Furthermore, learning the writing process is important for the students as it enables students to express their thoughts, knowledge and feelings efficiently. The more the students learn the writing process, the more they will be able to express themselves efficiently (Smith 2000).

**Objectives of the Study**

This study was conducted to determine freshmen students’ writing proficiency on content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics. It also aimed to stir students’ enthusiasm to writing and make them feel that writing is not a difficult skill since it is an activity where every student participates. All students undertake this activity with no exception; hence, this study.

**Materials and Methods**

**Research Design**

The descriptive survey method was used in this research. The method was used to find the differences and/or similarities in the level of their writing proficiency. It also partook the nature of documentary analysis.

**Subjects in the Study**

The study was conducted among freshmen students enrolled in English 1 - First Semester SY 2018-2019 using their daily composition outputs. There were two hundred seventy (270) of them coming from different sections. They were chosen at random and twenty (20) were taken from each class. Ten (10) from the boys and ten (10) from the girls. Only the composition write ups of the students whose numbers are multiples of five (5) listed in the professor’s record were used.
Research Instruments

The instruments used in the study were the composition outputs of the freshmen students enrolled in English 1 during the first semester of 2018-2019. A set of questionnaire was used to get the profile of students including the available mass communication materials and/or appliances at home. There were five (5) aspects that were looked into by the researcher in analysing the outputs of the two hundred seventy (270) students. These were as follows: (1) Content – knowledgeability, substantive, thorough development of thesis, relevance to assigned topic; (2) Organization – fluency of expression, ideas clearly stated/supported, succinctness, well-organized, logically sequenced, cohesiveness; (3) Vocabulary – sophisticated range, effective word/idiom choice and usage, word form master, appropriate register; (4) Language use – effective complex constructions, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, preposition and (5) Mechanics – spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing, and handwriting.

In assessing the students’ composition, the researcher was guided by the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Composition Profile. Content – 30%, Organization – 20%, Vocabulary – 20%, Language Use – 25%, and Mechanics – 5%.

Statistical Tools

To determine the writing proficiency of the NVSU Freshmen Students, the researcher used the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Composition profile on how to rate students’ composition writing based on the computed means with their respective qualitative description.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Table 1

PERFORMANCE LEVEL OF NVSU FRESHMEN STUDENTS IN CONTENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>DI/Level of Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>


The table reveals that the relevance to assigned topic ranks number one with a mean of 79.37 in which the level of performance is average. This shows that the students express their messages clearly to topics familiar to them. They can generate information relevant to the topic, only, they lack details. Next is thorough development of thesis with a mean of 77.3 and its level of performance is average. The students have decreased with a very minimal difference of 2.07 from that of relevance to assigned topic. This is because the thesis is not expanded enough to convey a sense of completeness and there is no specific method of development (such as comparison/contrast, illustration, definition, example, description, fact and personal experiences).

Third is substantive which has a mean of 76.8 and the level of performance is average. This is a little bit lower than that of the second aspect with a difference of 1.5 because students tried to illustrate, define, compare or contrast factual information supporting the thesis, only there are no sufficient details. Moreover, several main points are not discussed thoroughly. Knowledgeability ranks last with a mean of 72.97 and with a low level of performance. This is because students have limited background regarding the topic. It is not within their experiences, that is why there is no thorough discussion on said topic. There is a need therefore that a language teacher gives a topic to students, he/she should see to it that students have enough background on said topic to be able to express or communicate meanings, and messages efficiently and appropriately. All in all, the table shows that the students obtained an average level of performance with and average mean
Cohesiveness ranks first with a mean of 78.95 in which the level of performance is average. This gives a concrete picture that students have a fair knowledge of cohesive devices which are important in any structure for these act as logical bridges and rhetorical sign post which used to hang parts together. This concurs with the idea of Hedge (1988) that writing seems to pose great problems for English language learners especially to students who speak English as a Foreign Language (EFL). This is because effective writing
requires a degree of organization in the development of ideas and information. As English teachers, therefore, it is very important to include in our lesson these linkers for they do the tasks of unifying and aiding the key pointers to lend greater smoothness to the continuity. If this is done, students are expected to produce a unified composition.

Second to cohesiveness is well-organized with a very minimal difference of .10 with that of the first aspect. It has mean of 78.85 and its level of performance falls on average. This also shows that some students’ compositions are not well-organized due to their failure to use transition markers. Discourse that hang together has unity and coherence which can be gained through the use of transitions as logical connections between one main idea and another.

Moreover, transitional markers are important in any structure for they serve a variety of purposes which would include: to enumerate in an informal analysis, to clarify an analysis based on time sequence, to locate places in a spatial analysis, to relate causes to effects, to explain by contrasting and comparing, to emphasize what has already been considered, and to recapitulate or to summarize the main points of the discourse. This harmonizes with Nunan (1999) stating that “the most difficult task to do in language learning is to produce a coherent, fluent, extended piece of writing, which is even more challenging for second language learners.” Written products are often the results of thinking, drafting and revising procedures that require specialized skills, skills that not every speaker develops naturally (Scarcella and Oxford, (1992).

Logically sequenced follows in which it is a needed ingredient if we are to achieve a coherent sentence or paragraph. It has a mean of 78.70 and its level of performance is average. If clarity as well as coherence is to be achieved in any grammatical structure, there is a need to order sentence parts as well as those of a paragraph. To achieve the foregoing essentials, there’s a need to observe the positions of modifiers in the sentence and the correct arrangement of sentences in a paragraph. As for paragraph construction, logical sequencing can be achieved by observing coordination and subordination through the use of sequencers or markers to show not only a clear sequence of ideas but also the logical connection between sentences.

Next is fluency of expression and ideas clearly stated/supported which have the same mean of 75.65 and their levels of performance fall on low. This indicates that students
find difficulty in expressing themselves thoroughly on said topic. There’s no smooth flow of ideas from one paragraph to another. It was found out that topic sentences were not sufficiently discussed by supporting details. There was shifting of subject and so sentences are not related to one another. Language teachers therefore put emphasis on activities that will develop the communicative competencies of the students. This can be done through brainstorming, graphic organizer, and cooperative learning.

And the least is succinctness with a mean of 75.35 and its level of performance is low. This also shows that students fail to go directly to the point. They bit around the bush in which they include irrelevant ideas or insignificant details. They don’t have the elements of conciseness and brevity. Language teachers therefore must provide the right diction or choice of words to the main idea in order that students write briefly and precisely.

Table 3

PERFORMANCE LEVEL OF NVSU FRESHMEN STUDENTS IN VOCABULARY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>DI/Level of Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1. Word form mastery</td>
<td>80.80</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2. Appropriate register</td>
<td>79.20</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.3. Effective word/idiom/choice and usage</td>
<td>75.50</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.4. Sophisticated range</td>
<td>75.45</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Category Mean</td>
<td>77.74</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table reveals that word form mastery has a mean of 80.80 in which it ranks number one and its level of performance is average. This shows that the students have limited knowledge to put together words to form a complete and substantial sentence. They have a hard time to put into a complete thought and effective ideas whatever they wish to state to form sentences. Since a problem arises in word form mastery, the teacher gives more activities by trying to let students distinguish words as to their function (noun, verb, adjective, adverb etc.). As the activities grow in difficulty, the teacher gives exercises on structural analysis in which students form new words by using affixes and suffixes.

Appropriate register ranks number two with an average level of performance and its mean is 79.20. This is another way of vocabulary development. The words are appropriately used for their purpose. The words used in the written composition are appropriately used for a specific purpose. Every word used has its purpose. There are terms used for topics to write about using idioms and low frequency vocabulary. Since the students have ways to learn more new words then he/she picks out words and idioms and let other students know the meaning so they can use them appropriately in the composition they are to write.

Third is effective word/idiom/choice and usage with a mean of 75.50. It has a low level of performance. This proves that students have the inability to use the correct vocabulary because they tend to use words that have no relevance to the words they previously used. The findings show therefore that language teachers put emphasis on the use of the words. They should stress this during the lesson on vocabulary. This is especially needed when words have multiple meanings. The meaning of the word does not fit into the text. Hence, the teacher leads the students through the use of the same word but the meanings are different. To clear the cloud of doubts in the right choice of the word, the teacher considers the part of speech as a clue to get meaning and fit it to the context in which the word is used.

Last is sophisticated range with a low level of performance and has a mean 75.45. Students who have stock knowledge use words that are seldom used in the day-to-day conversation or communication. There are very few students whose vocabulary is broadened so verbosity is used in their written composition. Here, the facility in the use of vocabulary is evident so that the language teacher allows the students to use the words as
much as they need them. There are also some students who know idioms well and use the same in their written composition. These are low frequency words which students encountered in their readings so they make use of these expressions in written compositions [9]. So, the teacher should encourage these students to use them very often in oral and written communication. The teacher makes take note of these idiomatic expressions and should be a part in the vocabulary development of students.

Table 4
PERFORMANCE LEVEL OF NVSU FRESHMEN STUDENTS IN LANGUAGE USE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Use</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>DI/Level of Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.1. Articles</td>
<td>81.84</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.2. Pronouns</td>
<td>81.36</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.3. Prepositions</td>
<td>81.12</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.4. Tense</td>
<td>79.60</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.5. Number</td>
<td>75.65</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6. Word Order/function</td>
<td>78.24</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.7. Agreement</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.8. Effective complex constructions</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in the table, articles ranks the highest with a mean of 81.84 and with an average level of performance. This proves that students have internalized and fairly
mastered the use of their *the, an, and a*. However some students tend to overuse or omit the articles *a, an, and the* which affect the thought of the sentences they construct. This is because the word *the* which is considered a definite article is usually, though not always, referring to a definite of specific thing or person. While the words *a* and *an* are called indefinite articles because they refer to no particular thing or person. *A* is used before words beginning with consonant and *an* is used before words beginning with vowel sounds. The sound, not the spelling, makes the difference.

Next to articles is pronouns with a mean of 81.36 and its level of performance is average. This gives a good representation that students know the use of their pronouns, be they subjects or referents. The noun for which the pronoun stands and to which it refers is its *antecedent*. Moreover, the reference of a pronoun is ambiguous if the pronoun may refer to more than one word. This situation arises whenever a noun or pronoun falls between the pronoun and its antecedent. It is imperative therefore that the teaching of pronouns particularly with reference to its antecedent is of prime importance in grammar usage for it insures sentence clarity. Any vagueness in the meaning of a sentence may be attributed to a variety of reasons, some of which are: faulty reference of pronoun to antecedent, faulty arrangement of modifiers, lack of transitions and shifts in point of view. Thus, making the reference of pronouns clear does not only help achieve clarity and coherence in a sentence or paragraph but most importantly to show the forward movement of ideas and the relationship or connections between related units which indicate signs of continuity. Preposition follows with a mean of 81.12 and its level of performance is average. This shows that students have a fair knowledge on the use of prepositions.

Next is tense with a mean of 79.60 and has an average level of performance. The figure shows that students are confused on the use of the simple tense and the present perfect tense. It is needed therefore that before an English teacher introduce this lesson, he/she should differentiate the use these tenses in order not to confuse them.

On the other hand, number ranks fifth with a mean of 79.24 and its level of performance is average. This shows that students again are confused regarding the plural and singular form of the verb. The verb that ends in *s* according to the findings is plural in form in which they compare them to the plural forms of nouns. Moreover, word order/function and agreement rank sixth and seventh with a weighted mean of 78.24 and
76.00 and their levels of performance fall on average. This indicates that most students if not all commit errors on subject-verb agreement. There is a need therefore to put emphasis on the teaching of subject-verb agreement for it is an indispensable requirement in correct usage because it expresses the idea of conformity or harmony. Besides, when words do not go together to make sense they do not build to a grammatical structure thus violating the essential called sentence unity. With the agreement of the grammatical constituents of a subject and a predicate, the logical ingredient of a complete thought is better achieved.

And the least is effective complex construction with a low level of performance with a mean of 73.00. This indicates that students commit errors in sentence pattern. They think their sentences express complete thoughts even if verbs are lacking. They cannot differentiate a sentence from a clause and a clause from a phrase. Sentences should also be identified by structure. Students are drilled on simple, complex and compound sentences wherein subordinating and coordinating conjunctions are the emphasis since these conjunctions join independent clause to subordinate clause and two or more independent clauses.

Table 5

PERFORMANCE LEVEL OF NVSU FRESHMEN STUDENTS IN MECHANICS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mechanics</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>DI/Level of Performance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1. Handwriting</td>
<td>84.40</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.2. Punctuation</td>
<td>80.40</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.3. Capitalization</td>
<td>80.00</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.4. Paragraphing</td>
<td>78.20</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.5. Spelling</td>
<td>77.00</td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table reveals that handwriting has the highest mean of 84.40 and has a high level of performance. This shows that students have developed already their aesthetic sense. Young as they are, they are very much concerned with their penmanship for their writing outputs show or determine their personality. Not only that, teachers also emphasize on neatness. Since writing is considered a very important communication skill, teachers give students much time to develop their writing skill so they can write legibly and neatly thus, making it easy to read without impeding communication.

On the other hand, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing rank second, third, and fourth, respectively with a mean of 80.40, 80.00 and 78.20. They have the same levels of performance which are average. These components are quite easy to do and follow since they were discussed and explained as they started writing in their lower years. However, there is still a need to discuss and give more exercises to free the students from committing these kinds of errors.

Last is spelling with a mean of 77.00 and has an average level of performance. This also indicates that students are not very careful on how to put together the letters to make a word. The problem of spelling often arises because students write words disregarding how and when they are supposed to be used. They are not very careful about words that sound the same but spelled differently. It is also attributed to the findings that students are not familiar with some of the spelling rules. There is a need to give students therefore spelling exercises to familiarize them with the rules and at least they should be given spelling test as part of their daily lessons. The overall category mean of the students in this particular aspect is 80.00 with an average level of performance.

**CONCLUSION**

The findings in this research work have revealed that English is in a bleak state of affairs. This substantiated not only by other researches and empirical evidences but with the outcomes of this study.

Students were found, specifically, to be weak in grammar; to have limited vocabulary; and to be poor in the mechanical aspects. This could be attributed to the fact that English
is barely used as a foreign language in limited opportunities. Likewise, there is the tendency to organize structures the way they are done in the dialect of the first language.

Hence, there is a need for the use of the language in as many communication situations as possible to simulate and explore the usage of the language. There is also a need for the adoption of more recent techniques and trends to be used in teaching the language.

**RECOMMENDATIONS**

Based from the conclusions, the following recommendations and suggestions are offered to improve the performance of the NVSU Freshmen Students in writing.

1. English teachers should put emphasis the teaching of subject-verb agreement for it is an indispensable requirement in correct usage and it expresses the idea of conformity or harmony.
2. Students should be taught the basic rules on subject-verb agreement. They should be drilled on simple compound and complex sentences wherein subordinating and coordinating conjunctions are the emphasis.
3. Students’ vocabulary should be enriched by giving drills and exercises on word formation using affixes and suffixes, antonyms, synonyms, sentence completion and analogy.
4. Topics for composition writing must be within the students’ experiences. It is noted that students who have adequate background on said topics express or communicate meanings, messages efficiently and appropriately.
5. Teachers of English must update themselves with the new approaches, methods and techniques for teaching writing.

**REFERENCES**


The prominent micro-conversational styles among Chabacano- speaking college students:
An exploratory approach

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Abstract

This exploratory study probed actual verbal interaction among Chabacano speakers in Zamboanga City, Philippines. Its purpose was mainly to analyze authentic conversational styles following Tannen’s (1984) model, Brown and Levisson’s (1987) and Arundale’s (2010) face theory. The assumption was college students who were speakers of Chabacano could manifest authentic conversational styles that were quite unique among select groups from rural and urban areas. After coding the corpus employing Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson’s (1975) turn construction unit (TCU), the transcripts revealed unique linguistic patterns. Most participants in the rural areas verbalized ethnically marked Chabacano expressions while those in the urban community uttered borrowed Tagalog/ Filipino words. Humor was utilized as sarcasm prominent in both rural and urban speech communities. As evidenced by the highest frequency on the participants’ utterance of personal experiences and beliefs, it is safe to state that the interlocutors were all polite in advancing their opinions, always being prudent to save their face and not to risk and compromise a productive conversation.

Keywords: Micro-conversational style, face theory, exploratory approach, qualitative design, Chabacano speakers, speech community

Introduction

Zamboanga City is a haven of rich heritage from the different peoples it had come in contact with in the past. Its historical landscape tells of the Dutch, the Chinese, the Spaniards, the Japanese and the Americans who all came to the city and left its inhabitants richer in culture and experience. Notable of them all were the Spaniards, who gave the local townsfolk the gifts of religion and language. From them, the Zamboangueños learned to speak the Spanish language which, eventually evolved into what came to be known as Chabacano, a regional dialect which is cradle language to many Zamboangueños, and still remains as the city’s lingua franca.

Over the years, the city became a melting pot of diverse Filipino cultures as it witnessed the influx of people from different regions of the country. These people brought with them their own languages and culture as they made Zamboanga City their new home. The emergence of these new languages and dialects caused a change in Chabacano with the adoption of new terms and expressions by its speakers. However, the inclusion of words from other languages like
English and Bisaya to Chabacano was frowned upon by the older generation of Zamboangueños who came to the conclusion that Chabacano had indeed turned into a “bastardized Spanish.” The impression became more pronounced with the trend that started in the 1970s of inserting Tagalog words, such as the second person pronouns *ka* and *ikaw*, into Chabacano utterances. This rather odd way of speaking was tagged by some Zamboangueños as “Chabacano pulpul” (Lipski, 1997, p. 87).

The growing concern over the possible deterioration and eventual demise of this heritage language, led the local government of Zamboanga City to come up with different programs in an effort to preserve the Zamboanga Chabacano and culture. These include encouraging people to compose songs and literary pieces in Chabacano, and the use of the language in public domains. These steps came in consonance with the city’s objective of raising the percentage of Chabacano speakers among its populace. Thus, in 2007, the city adopted the moniker “Asia’s Latin City” because of its unique, near-Spanish language. In spite of these measures, generation change plus the constant migration of people from and into the city continue to influence the evolution of Chabacano and the way people speak the language.

People are drawn together in groups that have common values, norms and practices, and a common language that they use in everyday interactions. Linguists call these groups *Speech Communities*, referring to it as “a community sharing a knowledge of the rules for the conduct and interpretation of speech” (Sridhar 1996, p. 58).

When people talk to each other, they express themselves in different ways. This is because as members of a Speech Community, they have a variety of alternatives at hand for expressing the same idea. They also use certain techniques called Conversational Devices in conveying meaning or in assigning functions in utterances called Macro Speech Acts. The combination of these techniques and their meaning make up a speaker’s *conversational style*, that is, one’s way of saying things in a language. Labov (1996, 2001) in Coupland and Jaworski, (2008) categorizes these styles as *casual speech* and *careful style*. They may also be classified as social or regional. They are reflected in the way people present an image of themselves during social interactions and in the measures they take to maintain face in order to avoid being embarrassed or of embarrassing someone else. The study of what people say and how they say it in the conduct of interaction can lead to an understanding of how these interactions both influence and are influenced by the society in which they occur.
Hence, this research was conducted in order to explore on the conversational styles in Chabacano observed in college students of a certain a state university in the Southernmost part of Mindanao. The participants were residents of either rural or urban areas of Zamboanga City, as they go into their day to day social interactions.

**The present study**

This study sought to describe, analyze and interpret the conversational styles in Chabacano among college students of the Western Mindanao State University who were residents of either urban or rural communities in Zamboanga City.

The specific aim of the study was to describe, analyze, and interpret the frequency of use of micro conversational devices among Chabacano-speaking college students residing in the following areas of Zamboanga City: rural and urban communities.

**Literature review**

This study on the conversational styles in Chabacano of students from either urban or rural areas in Zamboanga City drew its strength mainly from Goffman’s (1967), Brown and Levisnson’s (1987), Arundale’s (2010) face theory and Tanen’s (1984) conversational styles’ model.

**On face-to-face interaction**

Conversations are composed of exchanges of utterances, and more important, of acts. Goffman (1967) in Copland, Creese, Rock, Shaw (2015) believes that individuals are actors performing on the real-life stage of face-to-face interaction. His theoretical prospective is based on Durkheim’s (1984) in Coupland and Jaworski (2008) belief that people’s behavior is mainly influenced by the society he lives in: their thoughts and actions being governed by societal beliefs, values and norms. Such are the college students of a state university. Coming from varied cultural backgrounds, they try to survive the rigorous experiences of academic life. These experiences include mingling with other students while bringing with them their own cultural orientation.

There is definitely a strong link between self (one’s perception of who he is as a person and as a social being) and the individuals’ day-to-day encounters with other people.
Individuals come from different social groups and act differently in different situations. There is a wider context lying beyond the face-to-face symbolic interaction. The individual is responsible for the maintenance of his social world by playing his role. When two persons interact with each other, one would attempt to influence the other by giving out the impression of himself that he would want to project. This could be done by changing or fixing his setting (where he lives and works, what school he attends, etc.) appearance, and manner. At the same time, the other person would be trying to observe and develop his impressions of the former.

Once a person believes that he has given a positive image of himself, he would then feel the need to live up to that image. He has to remain consistently guarded, making sure that he does not show himself in an unfavorable way to others, lest he risks being embarrassed or discredited.

Goffman (1967) in Copland et al. (2015) also expounded on the notion of face to understand self. According to him, interactants risk their face in every interaction. For him, “face” does not refer only to the physical facial expression. Radford (2009) believes that Goffman’s notion of face is nevertheless instructive. One’s physical face is one of the many parts of the human anatomy. However, the impressions it portray are most significant clues to one’s emotions, personality, and state of mind. When, where and how people smile or frown, roll their eyes, or knit or raise their eyebrows provide strong indications on how he feels in any given situation. To Goffman’s notion of face, these facial expressions do not occur randomly or for no reason at all. A smile, for instance, arises in the flow of an on-going conversation, in response to something said or done by another. It can mean different things dependent on when, where, how, or with whom it was given; therefore, the meaning of the smile depends upon the flow of events in which it occurred.

Goffman also believes that all participants in social interactions are engaged in certain norms and practices to avoid being embarrassed or cause embarrassment. In order to maintain positive face and eliminate possible negative impression, individuals use social amenities such as gestures, greetings ceremonies, and inquiring into the other’s health and state of being. This is done in order to link persons to one another and place them in the proper mood to interact with each other. This necessitates the use of interpersonal rituals which are: 1. Presentational rituals or those acts through which the individual specifically expresses how he regards the other person,
and; 2. Avoidance rituals or “forms of deference” which puts the individual at arm’s length from the other person.

Brown and Levinson (1987) in Shiffrin (1990) and in Copland et al. (2015) expanded Goffman’s idea of interpersonal rituals by identifying two (2) types of universal wants: (1) the desire that others want the same thing that self wants (referred to as positive face); (2) the freedom of action and freedom from imposition (referred to as negative face).

Positive face refers to one’s self-esteem, to include the desire that his projected self image be recognized, appreciated, and approved of by the others. It is basically the “want” of both interactors to be liked, admired, accepted and related to positively by one another, with both being aware and careful not to threaten positive face by ignoring the other.

Other norms that are used in social interaction to maintain positive face are: the use of tact; reciprocal self-denial (give and take actions); running oneself down (doing everything you can for the other); negative bargaining (lose-win situation where one person stands to lose while the other stands to gain more in a deal or bargaining); and heaping praises on the other to raise his self-esteem.

Negative face, on the other hand, is the want of both interactors for freedom of action and freedom from impositions, including rights to territories personal domain, and right to non distraction. Negative face is threatened when an individual’s “gut feel” or instinct receives a negative vibe; or when the person does not give way to the other person’s belief, opinion or whims. Asking a person for a favor for example, may threaten his negative face because it may mean that he would have to change his plans, or that the favor may intrude his freedom of action or choice. Schifrin (1990) illustrates this by citing the difference between a direct speech act which would threaten a negative face, and an indirect speech act which could minimize the threat to negative face, if not totally eliminate it. An example of a direct speech act could be the imperative statement “Give out these papers to your classmates!”, uttered in a commanding tone, which elicits a feeling of being imposed upon, as against an indirect speech act of: “Will you please help me pass these papers to your classmates?” in more pleasant requesting tone. The latter is a positive face strategy because it minimizes the weight of the burden of being imposed (Shiffrin 1990 in McKay and Hornberger 1996).
Since Zamboangueños are known to be a conservative people, one cannot help but think how they present themselves in face-to-face interactions. This study intended to find this out among college students.

The comparative study by Li (2007) on refusals in Chinese and American English earlier mentioned also showed that both the Chinese and Americans try to abide by the Cooperative Principle and the Politeness Principle. Politeness is the norm that people of different cultural backgrounds must obey and uphold, because to satisfy others' faces is to save your own face. What is different is that in two languages there are some constraints on politeness strategies employed by people in communication. However, Americans are more direct than Chinese and Chinese sincere refusals are considered as face-threatening acts, which call for politeness strategies to minimize the negative effects on the addressee(s).

Although speech acts in both languages try to abide by the Cooperative Principle and the Politeness Principle, they differ in practical strategies of word use and syntactic structure. The findings drawn from interpersonal communications indicate that the Chinese tend to use the politeness refusal strategy of "marginally touching the point" because they are more economical in their choices of the number of the tokens of the refusal strategies so that they could restore relationship with people. One polite mode of refusing is "address term + apology + reasons". The Americans tend to use a "question attentiveness" strategy. They try to employ different refusal strategies in order that the problems in question could be solved. One polite mode of refusing is "I would like to” + reasons + apology.

**On conversational styles**

Styles are different ways of expressing oneself in a language. It involves the ways in which the same speakers talk in different ways during different situations (van Dijk, 2009) claim that members of a speech community are aware of a member style features because there are a different ways of referring to the same idea in a language categorized styles.

Labov (1972) in Coupland and Jaworski, (2008) categorizes styles as *casual speech* and *careful style*. In his study of speech style in New York, he elicited different styles from participants in a single interview. The study revealed that when the speaker talked to someone else instead of the interviewer, or discussed topics which got them involved, they paid less attention to their speech. This is what Labov called *casual speech*. But when the speaker
answered questions in the usual way they do in interviews, they paid close attention to their speech and talked in a “careful style.”

Styles may also be classified as social or regional. Although differences in styles do not refer to regional and social variations in language, a regional dialect can be used to symbolize the regional identity and alliance of its speaker, and can therefore be considered as a regional style. McKay and Hornberger (1996) as cited by Coupland and Jaworski, (2008) give reasons for the creation of regional dialects. First, there’s geographical influence – a river, a mountain range of an expanse of land which can keep two populations apart. Then, there are the other factors such as political boundaries, settlement patterns, migration and immigration routes, territorial conquest, and language contact. Sometimes an individual may exhibit a unique way of speaking other than what is usual in a community. That is why Tannen (1984) suggests the necessity of knowing what is “unmarked” that is, what is conventionalized in a community, in order to understand the message an individual may be trying to convey by diverging from the convention. Tannen (1984) believes that styles may be social in that “individual styles is a combination of features learned in interaction with others, plus features developed idiosyncratically.” She also believes that an individual’s unique style may also be shared by other members of the community.

Styles also vary according to social class. This was shown in Trudgill’s (1974) as cited by Coupland and Jaworski (2008) study of the ng variable in Norwich English using four contextual styles (word list style, reading passage style, formal speech, and casual speech) among five social classes from the lower working class to the upper middle class. The study revealed that there was a shift in style towards the less – in’ and more –ing in casual speech, and less in careful speech.

Style shift occurs depending on how a speaker wants to address his audience. Bell’s (1984) audience design framework in Coupland and Jaworski, (2008) was developed to explain this phenomenon. Believing that styles are developed by speakers of all languages, whether monolingual or multilingual, he proposed that speakers design their own styles depending on who their particular audience or listeners are. The particular style they use in addressing members of a particular social group consists of linguistic features and their meanings common to that group.
This present research intended to ascertain the conversational styles in Chabacano of the
college students and to find out the possible difference in the way these students, who live in
either rural or urban areas, speak the language.

The participants in this study come to the university and interact with other students,
especially with those who also speak Chabacano, while in the process of acquiring a college
degree. While it is a known fact that Zamboangueños take pride in the Chabacano language,
teenagers appear to be gullible and to easily conform to things that are new and trendy. Curiously,
one may ask the following questions: Do these college students conform to each other’s speech
style? Do speakers from the rural areas converge to the urban speakers’ conversational styles to
gain acceptance from the group and vice-versa, or do speakers from both types of community
diverge from each other’s speech styles to preserve their own identity? This study intended to
find out the answers to these questions.

Conceptual framework

Micro conversational devices

Gumperz and Tannen (1979) and Arundale (2010) in Copland et al. (2015) demonstrate
how individual speakers show their styles in the way they use linguistic devices to signal how an
utterance is meant. This can be seen not only among individuals of one community but among
speakers from different countries. For example, Gumperz’s comparative study between speakers
of Indian and British English showed differences in the way the participants raised their voices
either to get the floor or to express anger. Tannen (1984) explains the following Conversational
Devices which the participants in a thanksgiving dinner employed. Tannen took the role of a
participant - observer in the study.

Machine-gun questions

Tannen’s rapid-fire manner of asking an interactant establishes an atmosphere of rapport.
The questions signaled familiarity and casualness, and were immediately made after a comment
was made. They were asked using a high pitch, rapid rate, fast pace and reduced syntactic form.
Mutual revelation/personal statement

Tannen (1984, p. 67) defines mutual revelation as a device by which a personal statement is intended as a show rapport. When a speaker makes a statement of personal experience, he or she expects a similar statement from the other. Tannen says it sends the metamessage: “We are intimate; we both tell about ourselves; we are interested in hearing about the other’s experience.”

This device is meant to establish interpersonal connection among or between speakers since they have become interested in each other because of their shared experiences. However, this device will only be effective if speakers have similar experiences or if they are familiar with the mutual revelation device.

Use of ethnically marked or otherwise in-group associated expressions.

Speech Communities have sets of expressions that are widely known, used, and understood by all its members. In Tannen’s study, one of her interactors said that he’d been cutting down on his sleep. Tannen responded in a Yiddish language expression of suffering: “Oy!” (p. 67) to show sympathy for the other’s loss of sleep. Her choice of a Yiddish expression was made purposely to show that she empathized with his feelings and to signal their shared ethnic background. Her utterance of “Oy!” with a great sigh was also her way of mocking her own usage, making the utterance humorous. The humor was not lost on the other person who laughed upon hearing her exclamation.

Story rounds

Tannen used the term story rounds to refer to a particular kind of story cluster or sequence in which speakers exchange stories of personal experiences that illustrate similar points. In Tannen’s study, the speakers did not begin their stories with phrases like “Did I tell you what happened…” or “You’ll never guess what happened” (p. 68). but were rather told freely and spontaneously in reaction to a point that was raised.

During the Thanksgiving dinner, 48 stories were told. 21 of them were told in a total of five rounds. The first round consisted of 3 stories about sex differences in language; the second round was made up of 5 stories about people whom the speakers knew to be adopted; in the third round, 5 stories were told about summer camp; the fourth round were 5 stories about freak accidents; and the last round, of 4 stories about children and sex.
Ironic or humorous routines

Not everyone is gifted with the ability to make people laugh. Even members of the entertainment industry admit that it is easier for them to perform dramatic roles than to take the role of a comedian. Only a few of them have the talent for this type of genre.

Tannen considers humor as an aspect of a person’s style. It is executed with intonation, pace, voice quality and nonverbal cues to produce utterances that are “not meant literally.” It can range from sarcasm (which is not intended to be funny and often times hostile), to irony (which might bring a smile or a chuckle), to a joke, which is intended to entertain. Despite the difficulty of coming up with a satisfying definition of irony, Tannen is convinced that statements may be regarded as humorous or ironic if they appear not to be meant literally and seems to be intended to amuse.

In Tannen’s study, the guests at the thanksgiving Dinner exhibited difference in styles that were characterized by the degree to which they used humor and irony. Each person also employed a distinctive brand of humor which characterized their individual style. Noteworthy among them was the form of humor executed by mocking or exaggerating someone else’s speech. Tannen (1984, p. 69) calls this “dramatic irony.” By using this device” the speaker can mean what he says and at the same time disclaim what he says by taking on a role, frequently stereotypical or at least well-defined.” One of the dinner guests exhibited this type of humor. His style was “mock annoyed, mock tough, or mock solicitors and dramatized through exaggerated enunciation.” In contrast to their style, another guest showed a mock serious style of irony. This comes in the serious way he delivers his ironic lines.

Zamboangueños love to engage in pleasant conversations. Whether they speak the Hispanic/purist Chabacano, or the style spoken by those who believe in the laissez faire/simplistic view, they will always find time to while away the moments in mundane talk and daily exchanges. Nevertheless, what this study aimed to find out was what Conversational Styles urban and rural speakers used and whether there was a difference in these styles. There was a need to look into the way these speakers expressed themselves with the use of conversational devices.

This study attempted to describe the conversational styles in Chabacano among college students, who were residents of either urban and rural communities of Zamboanga City. This
process involved an examination of the extent to which the participants in this study used conversational devices in their interaction with friends and classmates.

Methodology

Design

This study made use of the exploratory qualitative research design. Language data were gathered from the naturally occurring conversations of the participants, whose first language was Chabacano. The collected data formed the bases of description, analysis and interpretation of the Conversational Styles in Chabacano of speakers from both urban and rural communities of Zamboanga City.

Sampling

For the purpose of generating representative data, four (4) urban barangays and four (4) rural barangays were chosen to compose the urban and rural clusters. These were urban cluster: Sta. maria, Pasonanca, Tetuan, Putik, and; rural cluster – La Paz, Talisayan, Culianan, and Curuan. This brought to eight (8) the total number of barangays for the study.

The participants were college students of a state university in the Southermost part of Mindanao, and whose first language is Chabacano. Three (3) participants, composing one (1) group, were selected from each barangay using the snowball sampling technique. This brought to twenty-four (24) the total number of participants representing the eight (8) barangays.

The data

During the collection of data, eight (8) groups of students from both urban and rural barangays of Zamboanga City were observed during their natural conversations in school. The groups were observed one after the other on separate occasions during their free time in a designated area in the school campus.

Each group was composed of three (3) participants whose consent to be audio – video recorded was sought. This number allowed the observer to accurately capture their turn-taking occurrences and to closely and keenly observe their reactions on certain topics/issues raised or comments made by the other interlocutors.
First, the researcher went to the Dean of the College of Education, College of Social Sciences and College of Communications and Humanities to seek permission to conduct the research and to obtain the records of the students to determine their qualification for the study. The recommendations of subject teachers were also solicited for the same purpose. Then, a series of interviews were conducted to select the students who would act as the team leader/moderator of each group. The interviews were conducted in Chabacano and included some questions on the students’ use of the language, and an extemporaneous speech in Chabacano on a topic selected by the students. The students who were selected as team leaders also recruited two of their friends who also studied in the same university, lived in the same barangays as they, and whose first language was Chabacano. These students also went through the same interview as the team leaders/moderators. The students chosen for the study were asked to sign a consent form indicating their willingness to participate in the study, as well as the videotaping schedule most convenient to them.

Before the start of each recording session, the participants were briefed on certain guidelines of the activity. These included an assurance that their identity would be concealed in the report to protect their privacy. They were also encouraged to use Chabacano in the way they naturally spoke the language. They were also urged to use monikers during the entire conversation. Lastly, the discussion of the topics included anything the participants could think of spontaneously.

A team leader was assigned to act as moderator to ensure the spontaneous flow of the free – willing discussion. The first ten (10) minutes of their conversation was not recorded. This served as an ice – breaker to allow the participants to feel relaxed and be more at ease during the succeeding minutes of their interaction. The audio–video recording of the conversation started after ten (10) minutes and ended after thirty (30) minutes.

**Data analysis**

Once the data were collected through audio and video recording, the tapes and videos were transcribed, translated and analyzed.

The data consisted of the utterances made by the participants and how these utterances were made. They were transcribed following the transcription guidelines used in Tannen (1984). The utterances were also translated to English for better comprehension, especially by non-
Chabacano readers. After its transcription, the utterances were validated by three (3) professors of a certain state university who were experts in English and who were also native Chabacano speakers, taking into account the speakers’ turn-taking moments. The number of turn-taking units was analyzed following Sacks, Schegloff, and Jefferson (1975) turn construction unit (TCU) of analysis. TCU is a building component of a turn in a conversation. It is a unit of conversation that completes a communicative act. These formed the bases for the interpretation of the data.

The data were classified according to conversational devices: questions, machine gun questions, mutual revelation/personal statements, Use of ethnically marked expressions, story rounds, ironic or humorous routines.

Frequency count and percentage were used in order to determine the conversational styles in Chabacano observed to be prominently employed by Zamboangueño college students. Interpretation of the data was not based on phenomena that occur only once but on recurrent patterns. Data analysis also included interpretation of participant behavior such as reaction to a remark, misunderstandings, and the like.

**Results and Discussion**

**The micro conversational devices among Chabacano-speaking college students**

The overall utterances or turn-takings obtained for micro conversational devices was 5,035 frequency of occurrence. The highest frequency was obtained by the rural cluster on mutual revelation/personal statements or opinions with the frequency of 1,407, specifically, the La Paz group obtains 331 (6.57%), Talisayan 275 (5.46%), Culianan 426 (8.46%) and Curuan 375 (7.45%), while the urban cluster gets only the frequency of 690 (13.70%), the Sta. Maria group with 242 (4.81%), Tetuan 103 (2.05%), Putik 105 (2.09%) and Pasonanca 240 (4.77%).

**Mutual revelation/personal statements** pertain to the sharing of a speaker’s personal experience/s that is/are similar to that of the other speaker’s experience (Tanen, 1984). The sharing of opinions and beliefs can also be included here. Consider the examples below:

**Sample transcripts**

1) S2: *Nah, con si iyo tamen quel, nah, necesita gayot (arms rested on armchair, with hands in high steeple) atracta gayot canila, nah, man cuento gat embuenamente. Ahh,*,
pidi dispensa cay ya puede sobra el alegria por causa ya tiene gane celebracion, pati manada bisita ya lega. Pidi lang dispensa, ansina, cay. cay ansina o, considera era sila, ansina, para comigo lang tamen quel.// [Well, if I were the one, well, there's really a need to approach them. Well, talk to them very well. Ah, ask for their forbearance for having had too much fun because you had a celebration and there were many visitors who came. Just ask for forbearance and for their consideration. That’s as far as I’m concerned.] (Utterance 2, Student 2, Tetuan)

19) S2: Nah, amo yah. Quien man daw tamen hinde rabiya ansina, poreso maskin iyo, rabiya man tamen yoa// [Well, that’s right. Who wouldn’t get mad at that? Even I would get mad.] (Utterance 2, Student 2, Tetuan)

29) S1: Dol second yea yoa quel ele na Talisayan,// [He seems to be in his second year in Talisayan.] (Utterance 29, Student 1, Talisayan)

37) S1: Hinde gane gat kame ta celebra – celebra, ara lang// [We never really celebrate, except this one time.] (Utterance 37, Student 1, Talisayan)

76) S3: Aquel bien ancho gat el track na Bukidnon, cay, queber ba mga alas cua, alas dos pa lang del tarde, talla ya kame na Bukidnon. Cabar man alas ocho ya lang, alas ocho para alas nuebe, talla lang kame siempre Bukidnon, bien ancho gat diila kwan,// [The trucks in Bukidnon are very wide because at around fou, two o’clock in the afternoon, we were already in Bukidnon. And then it was almost eight o’clock, between eight o’clock and nine o’clock, we were still in Bukidnon. Their whatchamacallit is very wide.] (Utterance 76, Student 3, Talisayan)

In Tannen’s (1984) framework of micro-conversational devices, mutual revelation/personal statements would pertain to the sharing of mutual experiences by the interlocutors. The corpus in the present data shows that opinions and assumptions could be part of one’s personal statements or convictions about a certain topic or story. For example, in utterance 2, Student 2 is trying to share his opinion about the issue on the neighbor’s negative reaction to the noise that the birthday party may have caused in that it is better to communicate to the neighbors to solve the problem. In utterance 19, Student 2 agrees and shares mutual idea with the addressees in the conversation about the normal reaction of neighbors to be angry.
Student 1, in utterance 29 above, makes an assumption that the person being referred to is in the second year level at Talisayan. Utterance 37 is basically the sharing of personal experience about having a birthday celebration at home. Likewise in utterance 76, Student 3 shares his experience when he visited Bukidnon.

In any conversation, it is not quite easy to share personal experiences and beliefes even amongst close friends. Brown and Levinson (1987) and Arundale (2010) face theory posit that for an interlocutor to continue with the flow of actual conversation, one has to utter things that would either interest or irritate others on the process. Hence, politeness is the key to save one’s face during the conversation. The participants in this study appear to be staying on the line of pleasant interlocution as evidenced by the highest frequency of sharing one’s personal episodes and opinions.

The second highest frequency was obtained on the use of ethnically marked expressions by the rural cluster with the total frequency of 1,129, the La Paz group with 290 (5.76%), Talisayan 242 (4.81%), Culianan 232 (4.61%) and Curuan 365 (7.25%). However, still on the use of ethnically marked expressions, the urban cluster got only the frequency of 567, the Sta. Maria group with only 156 (3.10%), Tetuan 131 (2.60%), Putik 130 (2.58%) and Pasonanca 150 (2.98%).

The use of ethnically marked or otherwise ingroup-associated expressions refer to the use of certain words or expressions that are typically used by certain speech communities and are understood by its members (Tannen, 1984). Sample transcripts are given below:

**Sample transcripts**

5) S1: *Si, bien alegria gat came, cabar ya alcanza hasta kwan o madrogada diamon celebracion, yan disco- disco/* [Yes, we had so much fun, and the celebration lasted till dawn. We had disco dancing.] (Utterance 5, Student 1, Curuan)
12) S2: *Ay! Tan huyain pa/* [Oh, so you are still shy.] (Utterance 12, Student 2, Curuan)
25) S3: *Nah, mga kwanto bisinos ya anda?* (Hands in high steeple and chin resting on it)/* [Well, how many of your neighbors came?] (Utterance 25, Student 3, Curuan)
32) S1: *Hinde tamen, dol, el otro ba dituyo ano ba, cosa tu ta sinti/* [Not really. It just gives you a different feeling.] (Utterance 32, Student 1, Tetuan)
51) S3: Ya puede ba gat tu mira conele tiene ano, uban? (door opens & closes)// [Did you really see her with a companion?] (Utterance 51, Student 3, Tetuan)

2) S2: Hinde, si alla na situacion de ustedes, (Stares at a distance, with hands pointing) cabar, si tiene ya reclama. Eh, man ano yo, ah. kane man adjust para na bisinos.// [No, in your situation, and then someone complain.. ah. I will, uh.. we will adjust for our neighbors.] (Utterance 2, Student 2, Sta. Maria)

8) S1: Ta reclama sila cay alboroto, cabar, hinde sila ta puede descansa, ta ano sila, quilaya yo.// [They were complaining that it was noisy and that they were unable to rest… they were whatchamacallit, how would I.] (Utterance 8, Student 1, Sta. Maria)

Expressions like ay and nah in Utterance 12 and 25 are marked expressions that frequently occur in both the urban and rural clusters. The Chabacano expression ay would function as alas or oh in the English language to express surprise. The Chabacano expression nah could function as that of oh or well for emphasis in the utterance.

In Utterance 5, the ethnically marked words or expressions are gat and kwan. The Chabacano word gat frequently occurs in both urban and rural clusters. It is a shortened or clipped form of gayot. In sociolinguistics, clipping occurs for ease of utterance (Labov, 1972, 1996, 2001). It can be noted that for these chosen groups of young Chabacano speakers in both urban and rural clusters, gat is definitely understood by the interlocutors. The same is true in utterance 32 above, the word dol which is frequently used by these college students in both urban and rural clusters, is a clipped or contracted form of two Chabacano words daw and el. The shortening phenomenon of words allows interlocutors to understand each other in these Speech Communities.

On the other hand, kwan is a Chabacano word used by these college students generally in rural clusters (i.e. Curuan and Culianan) to allow them to continue their utterance. The word kwan is used for lexical access, a conversational device, which allows an addressee to continue to search for appropriate word in ones mind, negotiating meaning and communicating in general.

It is interesting to note that in urban clusters (i.e. Tetuan & Sta. Maria), the interlocutors used ano more frequently rather than kwan as can be seen in Utterance 51 (Tetuan) and Utterances 2 and 8 (Sta. Maria) above. The word ano is a Tagalog equivalent of kwan. It is safe to say that the student-participants are more influenced by the Tagalog lexical items compared
to students who are from the urban cluster. Since the Tagalog word *ano* is frequently used in this speech community, we can say that the word *ano* can be considered a borrowed term. Importantly, Delos Reyes (2018) and C. Madrazo (2019) assumed that when a Tagalog word is already being spoken in the speech community. This word can already be considered as a Chabacano word. This phenomenon in sociolinguistics is known as “borrowing.”

The third in rank is the question as a micro-conversational device obtained by the rural cluster with the frequency of 764, the La Paz group with 110 (2.18%), the Talisayan 118 (2.34%), Culianan 149 (2.96%) and Curuan 115 (2.28%), while the urban cluster garnered only the total frequency of 272 (5.40%), the Sta. Maria group with 101 (2.01%), Tetuan 36 (0.72%), Putik 35 (0.70%), and Pasonanca 100 (1.99%).

If there were successive questions uttered, as Tannen (1984) termed it Machine-gun Questions, the data in this present study showed a single *Question* uttered by the participants used as a device to continue the conversation going, to negotiate for meaning and communication as a whole. There are also instances of rhetorical questions. Below are sample transcripts:

**Sample transcripts**

10) S2: *Ya canta daw tu?* // [Did you sing?] (Utterance 10, Student 2, Curuan)
2) S2: *Porque man?* (*Shakes both legs*) // [Why?] (Utterance 2, Student 2, Talisayan)
27) S2: *Cabar, cosa tamen Ka Ya Habla?* // [And What Did You Say?] (Utterance 27, Student 2, Talisayan)
28) S3: *Diila el camino?* (*rests cheek on right hand*) // [So they own the road?] (Utterance 28, Student 3, Sta. Maria)
135) S2: *Dol umalin man?* // [That seems inappropriate.] (Utterance 135, Student 2, Sta. Maria)

Utterances 10, 2 and 27 are literal single questions uttered as a conversational device. Single question is a component not included in Tannen’s (1984) framework. Single question is a component that emerged in the present corpus.

Utterances 28 and 135 are examples of rhetorical Question, wherein the intention of Student 3 is not to ask a question, but is actually trying to emphatically point out that jeep drivers do not own the road. The same is true with Student 2 in Utterance 135; he is not asking whether something is inappropriate, but is in effect emphasizing the point that it is not appropriate.
The fourth is the machine gun questions obtained by the rural cluster with the total frequency of 173 (3.46%), the La Paz group with 62 (1.23%), Talisayan 118 (2.34%), Culiinan 149 (2.96%) and Curuan 115 (2.28%). Meanwhile, the urban cluster garners only the total frequency of 65, the Sta. Maria group with 26 (0.52%), Tetuan 10 (0.20%), Putik 9 (0.18%), and Pasonanca 20 (0.40%).

It is said that *Machine-gun Questions* are series of questions asked in succession by a speaker in reaction to a statement made by an interlocutor (Tanen, 1984). Below are sample transcripts:

**Sample transcripts**

132) S2: *Na cabar cosa man ya pasa alla? Nah, quetal man, buenamente daw dituyo lola?* [Well, then what happened there? How’s your grandma? Is she fine?] (Utterance 132, Student 2, Curuan)

160) S3: *Cosa ya habla el driver? Ya regaña con aquel driver? (right hand on right chin, then covers mouth)* [What did the driver say? Did you scold the driver?] (Utterance 160, Student 3, Curuan)

1) S1: *Porque man kamo ara lang? Enantes pa yo caniño ta espera, onde kamo ya anda?* [Why do you shop up just now? I’ve been waiting for you for so long. Where have you been?] (Utterance 1, Student 1, Talisayan)

122) S3: *Cosa? Tiene uban otro?* [What? In the company of another?]

163) S1: *Cabar, yan cuento man kame de ayer, cabar pirmi gat le ta habla comigo, “Bien quiere gat yo contigo, ta ama gat yo contigo,” bien . . nah, bien quiere gat yo man sampal ba! Tiene lang (raises hand) bo siempre dia, cuji lang yo siempre combo, ansina. Cabar, ta habla gat le comigo cay bien quiere le comigo, nuay daw gat le otro, nuay daw gat le, si tiene daw le bacante, comigo daw gat le ta anda. Cabar, nah cosa man gale yo quel ya puede mira? Nah, no quiere man yo ‘te, cosa man yo debe hace? (Laughs)* [And then we talked yesterday and he kept telling me, “I really love you, I love you very much.” Really.. well, I really wanted to slap him! Time will come when I will really catch you, that’s it. Then he really told me that he loves me very much, that he has no one else, that whenever he is free, he comes to see me. And then, what was that I saw? Well, I don’t like this. What should I do?]
The ironic/humorous routines, as a micro conversational device, ranks fifth with the total frequency of 79. It was obtained by the rural cluster; however, the urban cluster gets only the total frequency of 42, the Sta. Maria group with 14 (0.28%), Tetuan 6 (0.12%), Putik 10 (0.20%) and Pasonanca 12 (0.24%).

Ironic/humorous routines are statements that are meant as a joke, with the intention of amusing and entertaining. They are also used to tease and to banter. There some instances of these found in the corpus. Below are some examples:

**Sample transcripts**

257) S2: *Tombona este, na cabar, cosa man?* [You’re a tomboy! Then, what?] (Utterance 257, Student 2, Curuan)

281) S3: *Chonggo!* [Monkey!] (Utterance 281, Student 3, Curuan)

168) S2: *Tiene ya gane quel otro, ama pa le con ikaw?* (All laugh/ S1 bends sideward) [He already has someone else, why should he still love you?] (Utterance 168, Student 2, Talisayan)

281) S1: *Ay hinde yo combo manda conose, manda lang yo combo mira,* (all laugh) [Oh, I won’t introduce him to you. I’ll just point him out to you.] (Utterance 168, Student 2, Talisayan)

100) S1: *Del kwan lang o, del June... joke! Hinde! Del kwan o September!* [Just uh, last June... just joking! No! Last, uh, September.] (Utterance 168, Student 2, Talisayan)

As can be seen on Utterance 257, Student 2 uttered the Chavacano word *tombona* [lesbian or tomboy]. The intention of the addressor here is not to judge but to use the term that is commonly used in the speech communities in both urban and rural areas of Zamboanga to tease. This word connotes humor, especially when the topic is about courting a girl. On the hand, the word *chonggo* [monkey] is a common Chabacano term or expression that is used as a form of a joke, not that a person looks like a monkey, but is a form of exaggeration to bring about humor and laughter in a Speech Community. It is more like *idiot* in the English language. When one is being teased as *chonggo*, perhaps it is more inclined to refer to the behavior of a monkey that is not as intelligent as *Homo sapiens*. 
In the present corpus, humor is expressed by using sarcasm as a conversational device. For example, Student 2 in utterance 168 sarcastically states that it is impossible for her to like him since she already has a partner. In like manner, Student 1 sarcastically remarks that she would not introduce him to her, but she would only show him to her. Utterance 100 is also an example of sarcasm that induces humor during the conversation.

The last in rank is the story rounds obtained by the rural cluster with a very minimal total frequency of 48 (0.95%), the La Paz group with only 9 (0.18%), Talisayan 12 (0.23%), Culianan 6 (0.12%) and Curuan 21 (0.42%).

**Story rounds** are series of stories of personal experiences that interlocutors exchange to express similar points. Given the fact that this study used a stimuli (i.e. Performance of President Noynoy Aquino, disturbing one’s neighbor, reckless driving, having a girlfriend, having a part-time job) that the discussion leader spontaneously presented to the members, it is already expected that the stories could mainly be based on the preconceived stimuli or topic. Nevertheless, there are still few utterances that simply emerge from the environment which is a deviation from the set topic. Consider the following transcripts:

**Sample transcripts**

4) S1: *Salawayun gat se dimio Tata, cay ese tamen (both hands continuously moves, hands pointing from side to side downward) alla, toma’y toma lang, hinde tamen se ta hace caso con mga bisinos./* [My father is very bothersome. He keeps on drinking and does not mind the neighbors.] (Utterance 4, Student 1, Tetuan)

6) S1: *Compleño del dimio nana del ayer, nuay kamo anda./* [You did not show up at my mother’s birthday yesterday.] (Utterance 6, Student 1, Talisayan)

91) S1: *Ahh, ansina, ansina gale se, cay tiene ya ba yo nobiol/* [Oh, is that so? By the way, I already have a boyfriend.] (Utterance 6, Student 1, Talisayan)

370) S1: *Huy! Ano ba, diaton kwan ba o dimio, ta come man kame de aquel noche pati dimio nana-nana ba, conose ka man con dimio nana-nana, cabar na “TV Patrol” ba, rabiao quel sila con Noynoy, cabar cay sigui lang aquel na . . . na kwan o petrollo ba tamen ta subi//* [Hey! What’s with our uh, my… we were eating the other night with my foster mother, you know my foster mother. Then on “TV Patrol”, they were angry with Noynoy. Then because it just went with the … uh, oil price hike.] (Utterance 6, Student 1, Talisayan)
Here, Student 1 in Utterance 4, the topic introduced by the leader is how to deal with his neighbors after offending them with the noise created during the birthday party of his father. So the turn-takings are focused on how to explain and settle the matter with the neighbors. But, observe Utterance 4: there seems to be a shift from the birthday story to the story about his father being a drunkard. This is what I mean by deviations from what has been preconceived. Generally, the observed pattern in the turn-takings is more of a problem-solution frame. Hence, his father being a drunkard is not the intended problem; it is how to deal with his unfriendly neighbors.

Utterance 6 above refers to the topic on birthday celebration which caused the neighbors to react negatively because of the noise it created. Then, utterance 91 is a shift to a boyfriend-girlfriend relationship. Utterance 370 is a shift to the interlocutors’ perception of President Noynoy Aquino’s administration. Utterance 435 is a shift to a topic on part-time job.

**Conclusion**

On the findings that participants were highly expressive of their thoughts about personal matters and beliefs, these could be an indication that interlocutors were at ease during the process of conversation. It is safe to state that generally the college students were polite. Perhaps, given that the research context is pedagogical in nature for their being university students, the notion that they need to stay on the line of saving their “face” rather than risk it would have taken part on the process. On the assumption that there could be existing unique linguistic patterns between the rural and urban speech communities such as the prominent occurrence of ethnically marked Chacacano present in rural areas, while there was dominant use of borrowed Tagalog/Filipino terms in urban areas, were evidenced proving this possibility. Questioning was also indicative of its dominance in rural rather than in urban communities. One reason questioning was more apparent in the former, perhaps, students from rural areas perceived that their Chabacano was more valorized and spoken by old Chabacano natives who were expert and purist in a sense. In
other words, they could be more confident in articulating a difficult expression, such as questioning, because it entails higher level thinking and could also generate various responses that could be favorable or unfavorable.

The corpus in this study could help inform English language teachers of the Chabacano college students’ prominent conversational styles that they can use to engage students to participate during brainstorming activities. By recognizing and allowing them to express themselves in manner befitting their authentic nature, learning through interlocution would be more effective in pedagogical context.

Future studies can investigate further on the variation existing between rural and urban speech communities by employing more appropriate quantititative variables with bigger number of sample to ensure conclusivity on the hypothesized unique patterns between said communities belonging to two distinct geographical locations.
References


Language Utilization and Ethnocultural Identity in Ethnic Intermarriage

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Abstract

Using Pierre Bourdieu and Abram De Swaan’s analytical framework, this study examined the language utilized in an ethnic intermarriage between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes and how does this language influence the identity construction of their children. It fundamentally explored the habitus, cultural, and linguistic capital as well as communicative potential of Ilokanos, Ibanags, and Itawes within the context of their field (i.e., marriage, family and community life) specifically in the three (3) municipalities of Cagayan, Philippines. The paper proffers that Ilokano language is primarily used in a marriage between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes. Other than Ilokano language, the Ibanag, Itawes, and Ilokano spouses prefer Filipino and English in cross-communicating to people with different linguistic background because of their communicative function, advantage, and value. Significantly, children of Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes marriages identify themselves more as Ilokanos than Ibanags and Itawes primarily because of the Ilokano language and Iloko cultural capital. The maintenance of this ethnocultural identity is not threatened, however, with their effort of learning and using the Filipino and English languages as these languages are learned and used purposely in coping with the current globalization and information age.

Keywords: Linguistic Capital, Cultural Capital, Habitus, Ethnic Intermarriage, Ethnocultural Identity

Introduction

To describe ethnicity without language is difficult. Both are inseparable because language knowledge is a cardinal characteristic and an always present attribute of ethnicity.
Fundamentally, language is considered as a form of cultural characteristic to which speakers express their ethnic identity, ethnic origin, ethnic heritage, and ethnic group membership. This conception on language is very much evident in the Philippines where language serves as a vehicle for identifying ethnic distinction among multi-ethnic groups in the country. Distinguishing these ethnic groups through their languages acts as a major attribute of ethnicity and a measure for categorizing them as minority or majority culture.

According to Nunn (2007), “a language is part of the identity of anyone who is able to use it and competence also reflects the degree to which we “possess” a language.” However, Rampton (2017) claims that using a language as an instrument of communication does not mean that a person necessarily sees the language as a symbol of social identification and vice versa. This means that language competence and language use do not always dictate one’s ethnicity. From this argument, differentiating ethnic groups based on their language usage is superficial as there are other dynamics in the relationship between language and ethnocultural identity expressed through one’s competence and use of national and ethnic languages. As a component of ethnocultural identity, ethnic identity, according to Phinney (1990) is a subjective sense of belonging to an ethnic group and the feelings and attitudes that accompany this sense of group membership. This deep sense of identification with an ethnic group creates one to have self-esteem which is essential in the development of his/her self-concept. Moreover, Phinney (1990) asserts that ethnic identity involves the extent to which adolescents have engaged in the developmental process of ethnocultural identity exploration. This is reflected in the process of learning, adopting, and integrating the elements of traditions and cultural values of an ethnic group into one’s life.

Migration brings different ethnic groups into contact with one another. As a process, it plays an important role in creating opportunities for social connection like ethnic intermarriage. The influx of Ilokanos ushered greater contact with the Ibanags and Itawes who are the natives of the province of Cagayan, Philippines. This contact provided the opportunity for intermarriage but as in all intermarriages, this phenomenon means not only entering another family or another set of life-histories but also involves adopting, or at least, adapting to elements of a different culture (Penny and Khoo, 1996).
In uncovering the language utilized and ethnocultural identity in ethnic intermarriage, Pierre Bourdieu’s social hierarchization, that is, the cultural or symbolic capital was used. This is explicated using his conceptual triad on \textit{habitus}, \textit{field} and \textit{capital}. \textit{Habitus} is a person’s character and way of thinking. It is an acquired disposition that an individual has learned from his/her social world. It also refers to the mental or cognitive structures through which people deal with the social world. On the other hand, the \textit{field} can be any structure of social relations or social space. It is a site of struggle for positions and is constituted by the conflict created when individuals or groups endeavor to establish what comprises valuable and legitimate capital within that space (Ritzer, 2013).

Meanwhile, \textit{cultural capital} constitutes knowledge, skills, symbols, belief systems and aptitude that provide some comparative advantage to individuals who possess it because it is highly valued and appreciated. \textit{Habitus} is also important to the concept of cultural capital, inasmuch as cultural capital can be derived from an individual’s habitus. It is formed not only by the habitus of the family but also by the objective chances of the culture to which the individual belongs in their daily interactions and it changes as the individual’s position within a field changes (Ritzer, 2013).

\textit{Linguistic capital} as crafted by Bourdieu (1986) is also a form of cultural capital, which Dijkstra and Peschar (2003) refer to in part, as “the linguistic characteristics of the family. It is a “symbolic capital” that producers use, most often unwittingly, “to maximize the symbolic profit” that can be gained in linguistic practices. This capital and affiliated forms of embodied taste, style and ideology, forms a key marker of one’s social class position and mobility. Linguistic capital is deployed in specific social fields, which constitute “linguistic markets”. Each market, each institutional context, in turn has variable rules and conventions of exchange, whereby linguistic competence and literate proficiency in specific languages is valued or not. The language learning and use – as class marker and tool – has exchange value and power only in relation to other forms of capital, including social capital (e.g., networks, institutional access), economic capital, formal institutional credentials, artifacts and so forth.

Very much akin to linguistic capital is the communicative potential of a language as espoused by De Swaan (2001). He argues that language learning in a global language system is basically dependent on the communicational benefits, advantage, and value that individuals
obtain from a language such as access to information and better chances or opportunities in various social settings. Individuals are more likely to learn a language with higher Q-value and refuse to learn those that are not. The Q-value is the communicative benefits obtained in acquiring a language as a consequence of time and money invested in learning it (De Swaan, 2001). For example, in the four hierarchical distribution of global system of languages namely, peripheral languages, central languages, supercentral languages, and hypercentral languages, Swaan (2001) argues that individuals choose and learn a language with a higher level in the hierarchy or that which has wider function since language learning takes an upward direction. In this case, they choose and learn central, supercentral, and hypercentral languages over peripheral languages for their communicational advantage and value.

Based on the foregoing, this paper examines the language utilized in an ethnic intermarriage between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes. It is the basic assumption of the study that examining the ethnic intermarriage can be a sound basis for a meaningful representation to understand the strengths and vital aspects of Ilokano, Ibanag and Itawes cultures and society. Through this sociolinguistic analysis, it shall also uncover the power of their language, identity, and culture.

**Objectives of the Study**

The primary aim of this study is to determine the language utilized in an ethnic intermarriage between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes and how does this language influence the identity construction of their children.

**Methodology**

**Study Design**

This study utilized a qualitative ethnographic methodology. Field work was conducted in predominantly Ibanag and Itawes municipalities in the third district of Cagayan namely: Tuguegarao City, Solana, Iguig and Penablanca, Cagayan, Philippines. Immersion with the identified communities was carried out for over six (6) months.
Study Informants

Two sub-groups of informants were used in the study namely; Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes couples and their children. Fifty (50) couples and fifty (50) of their children were utilized in the study. The Ilokano and non-Ilokano couples were recruited using the following criteria: (a) they have identified themselves as original Ilokano, Ibanag or Itawes; (b) they have linguistically and culturally identified themselves as genuine Ilokano, Ibanag or Itawes; (c) they have been married for more than twenty (20) years; and (d) they have been living continuously in their predominantly Ibanag or Itawes residence for more than twenty (20) years. On the other hand, children of the Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes couples were adolescents ages 10 and 19 with reference to the World Health Organization (WHO) definition of adolescence. Adolescents were considered in this study because of the issue on identity construction. According to Phinney (1989), ethnocultural identity is developed during adolescence as part of the larger task of ego identity formation and as a way of exploring the meaning of being a member of an ethnic group within a larger society.

Data Collection Procedure

Data were collected from different settings using indigenous strategies as advocated by Sobritchea (2002) such as pagmamasid (observation), pakikiramdam (feeling your way through), pakikilahok (participation), pagtatanong-tanong (informal interview), pakikipagkuwentuhan (informal conversation), and samasamang talakayan (focus group discussion). These processes provided interaction with the informants, drew their lived experiences, and helped unravel their meaning-making practices.

Analysis of Data

Substantive, methodological, and analytic stages were utilized in analyzing the data obtained from field work. In the substantive stage, field notes were sorted, coded, and analyzed based on main observations and recurrent themes from individual interview, focus group discussion, and participant observation. In the methodological stage, the field notes were analyzed based on the processes utilized in observing participants’ behavior, interaction, and reactions as well as the physical environment and materials used in the informants’ homes and
communities. Finally, the analytic stage utilized the analytical framework of Pierre Bourdieu particularly on cultural and linguistic capital and communicative potential of Abram De Swaan.

Results and Discussions
Cultural and Linguistic Capital in an Ethnic Intermarriage Between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes

The study generated that Iloko culture surfaces in a marriage between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes. Although they are migrants and minority in the place where they were married, their culture dominates in the family as the Ibanag and Itawes partners subscribe to them. The Ilokanos have accumulated sufficient cultural capital that proved to be effective catalysts for the maintenance and propagation of their culture which conferred them power and status in Cagayan. This is concretely manifested and transmitted through intermarriage between an Ilokano and a non-Ilokano where the strengths and vital aspects of Iloko culture prevail.

The overriding culture of the Ilokanos is seen in the conscious or unconscious transmission of their language, food culture, music, magazine, drama, poem, and values orientation to the Ibanag or Itawes partners. As regards language, the Ilokano partners continue to speak their native tongue while their spouses easily adapt to their language. Such is transmitted to their children making Ilokano as the main language of the whole family. There are valuable reasons that could possibly explain this fact. First, the Ibanag and Itawes spouses easily adapt to the Ilokano language as they find it easy to pronounce, understand, and learn. The Ilokano language has the linguistic property to be learned with ease, a reason why the Ibanag and Itawes readily adopt to it. On the contrary, the Ilokano spouses have difficulty speaking Ibanag or Itawes as they perceive these languages to be totally different from their native tongue in terms of sentence structure and usage of double consonants. These conditions necessitate that the Ibanag or Itawes spouses must be the ones to adjust in communicating. There are nonetheless isolated cases wherein Ilokano spouses would learn Ibanag and Itawes but this needs longer immersion, time, and open-mindedness for them to appreciate and master these languages. In this study, however, most Ilokano informants know and understand a little of Ibanag and Itawes only. This phenomenon can be explained by the hierarchical distribution
of languages in the global language system of De Swaan (2001) wherein Ibanag and Itawes languages are considered peripheral languages while the Ilokano is considered a central language. As speakers of these minor languages, the Ibanag and Itawes spouses readily learn and use cross-language communication with people not belonging to their linguistic group.

It is interesting to note that the Ilokano, Ibanag, and Itawes spouses do not just use Ilokano in connecting with people speaking different languages within their geographical area. They also use the Filipino and English languages considering that they are the official languages in the country, the former being a national language (supercentral language) and the other as a second language (hypercentral language). From the lens of the Ilokano, Ibanag and Itawes spouses, they are inclined to invest in learning and using the dominant languages (e.g. Filipino and English) because of their communicative potential. They see the communicative advantage and value of learning these languages as they carry and bring social, economic, religious, and political benefits in their lives. Among Ibanags and Itawes spouses, they expressed the need to assimilate more readily to these languages because they are numerically few and in order to achieve more benefits in society.

Second, the Ilokano spouses perceive Ibanag and Itawes languages to be unappealing to learn because the intonation and the manner by which the language is spoken seem to be quarrelsome, rude, fast, and loud. They, too, find no benefit or value learning these languages because their spouses adjust to them and the community folks can speak Ilokano anyway. This gives them a very low interest or language motivation to learn and speak the language. As most informants have noted; “There is no need to go into the rigors of learning the Ibanag and Itawes languages because the native speakers of these languages nevertheless speak Ilokano and understand us. As a matter of fact, when they get to know that you are an Ilokano, they force themselves to speak the language, thus, there is no urgency of learning their language.” This perception affirms the concept of Haviland, et. al. (2010) who noted that language learning is basically caused by social factors like the importance and functionality of learning it to one’s life.

In the family, the Ilokano spouse introduces a relatively different food preparation from the Ibanags or Itawes. Example, most Ilokano foods are in the form of several vegetables cooked with bagoong (fish paste) or with a sagpaw (meat or fish placed in vegetable dish). The
Ilokanos love using bagoong in their food such as *pinakbet*, *dinengdeng* (both are vegetable dish) and vegetable salads which is seldom used by their partners as they usually use salt or at times *patis* (condiment). Contrary to these ways of cooking, the Ibanags and Itawes generally saute their food using lard or cooking oil. They also prefer more soup in their food compared to the Ilokano spouse who chooses the contrary. With constant exposure to this food preparation, the Ibanags and Itawes are then assimilated to prepare or cook their food in the Ilokano way. In case this food preparation creates disagreement between the couple, the Ilokano partner cooks the same menu but prepares his/her food in a manner that fits his/her taste. For instance, adobo is cooked dry among Ilokanos but the Ibanags and Itawes like it with a little soup and with fat. *Pinakbet*, on the other hand, is sauteed among Ibanags and Itawes but it is cooked by mixing all ingredients together among Ilokanos.

Music is another index of Ilokano influence in the family and in the community. The Ilokano spouse brings into the family his or her native music ranging from traditional to modern. With frequent playing and with the contemporary packaging of this music, the Ibanag or Itawes spouses get to listen and appreciate it. In the Ibanag and Itawes community, Ilokano music is played not only during ordinary days but also during weddings, fiestas, (local festival celebrating the feast of a patron saint) and other celebrations. This occurs because Ilokano music recordings in CDs, tapes, and karaoke are readily available in their communities. Few of these music are the old Ilokano songs and contemporary songs like *Abalayan*, *Isem*, *Kiddaw*, *Basol mo Lalaki*, *Nagguapo kan Manong*, which are perceived to be appealing and entertaining. As succinctly narrated by an informant; “*Ilokano music is frequently played in this community even if we are generally Itawes. This is played in ordinary days and community celebrations because we find it fascinating and enjoyable.*”

Ilokano magazines, drama and poem (daniw) aired over AM, FM and community radios are another influencing factors to Ibanag and Itawes assimilation. For families who have the capacity to buy *Bannawag* (Ilokano weekly magazine) and similar Ilokano reading materials, these items are helpful in exposing their family members to read and understand Ilokano language and culture better. Meanwhile, the drama series aired over Bombo Radio like *Mang Bianong*, *Pagsarmingan*, *Dagit i Tugot iti Dana ti Biag*, *Doming Doming Mabalim Amin*, *Once There Was A Love* and poem read in radio programs of DWPE like Ilokanong Cowboy and
Ray-aw ti Sardam are equally influential. Ilokano spouses, particularly women, keep track of these radio programs which consequently entice their partners and children to be listeners of the same.

The slow or difficult adaptation process of the Ilokano spouse to Ibanag and Itawes culture can, in a way, be attributed to the non-congruence of their partner’s values orientation. Cadiz (1990) points out that the stereotype that Ilocanos are thrifty, industrious, patient and adventurous is still pervasive today. These characteristics are partly a product of their unique adaptation to their precarious environment in Ilocos where they trace their origin, heritage, and traditions. According to Tamayao (2009), wherever they are in Cagayan, Ilokanos speak their language and remain committed to their cultural traits making other cultures subordinate to them. The most important source of Ilokanos’ cultural preservation and continuity is their own consciousness and identity. The concept of their being an Ilokano is clear as manifested in their broad knowledge of their own language, culture, and history. In contrast, the Ibanags and Itawes are known to have grand celebrations of family affairs and fiesta which does not jibe with the Ilokano’s value orientation. A fiesta for the Ibanags and Itawes is a time for thanksgiving where they invite visitors or friends and serve them sumptuous food. Fiesta among Ilokanos, on the other hand, is celebrated in a simple manner centered on the conduct of series of communal religious, sports, and sociocultural activities but this is not associated with food lavishly served to visitors as Ibanags and Itawes do. Serving food is the essence of fiesta for the Ibanags and Itawes, a reason why they have to save money or raise pigs, chickens, and the like long before the celebration. The long period of preparation explains, in part, why almost all households in the Ibanag or Itawes community celebrate fiesta. With the marriage of Ibanags and Itawes to Ilokanos, the grand celebration of fiesta and other family occasions is made simple, if not, minimized or avoided entirely. This is further reinforced by the increasing cost of living and that austerity measures must be observed to appropriate money to some important family needs. As one informant narrates; “The concept of foregoing the celebration of fiesta upon the advice of my Ilokano wife did not sound good, initially. The celebration happens only once a year and stopping a tradition practiced in my family for a long time is difficult. However, with constant suggestion and persuasion of my wife to either make the
celebration simpler or to save money for the more essential needs of our children, I subscribed to the idea to stop celebrating fiesta the way we used to.”

The Ilokano spouses also perceive their Ibanag or Itawes partners to be relaxed and playful since they are not conscientious of their time. They have the tendency to be carefree and are fond of social activities and festivities. With a show of industriousness, their Ibanag and Itawes partners are influenced to a great extent. Moreover, the use of Ilokano’s term of respect (panagdayaw) is something the Ilokano spouses would like to transmit to their family members. This is because Ibanags and Itawes do not have an equivalent term for manang (older sister), manong (older brother) and ading (younger brother or sister). They generally call or address their older and younger siblings in their first names. This does not mean, however, that Ibanags and Itawes are not respectful. They, too, make use of terms of respect by addressing the olds as tio (uncle) tia (auntie), not only with their immediate relatives but also with strangers of significant age difference from them. It is just that their language is not rich to provide them different terms of respect to address people across ages. However, when they get to know that they are speaking to an Ilokano, they are influenced to make use of the same terms of respect and adopt them as a basic norm in the family and community relations. The use of these terms of respect clearly articulates that the Ibanag and Itawes partners have great appreciation of these valuable and endearing characters of the Ilokanos.

Languages Utilized in Ethnic Intermarriage Between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes

Language has a symbolic function. According to Edwards (2009), language acts “as an emblem of groupness, a symbol, a psychosocial rallying point.” Premised on this symbolic role of language, Bourdieu (1986) claims that language is the key factor in reproducing and maintaining the conventions and traditions of cultures and societies since social reproduction is driven by interpersonal communication. This suggests that language is regarded as an important form of cultural capital to learn and appreciate the dominant culture and thus capable of reproducing itself.

The ethnic intermarriage between the Ilokanos and Ibanags or Itawes creates a symbolic struggle for social distinction, which for Bourdieu is a fundamental dimension of all social life (Bourdieu, 1998). This symbolic struggle is revealed in critical questions such as; whose
language counts? whose language and culture should prevail?, with what material and social consequences and benefits?, and whose values should be imbibed by the children?

The preferred languages in the intermarriage between Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes are Ilokano, Filipino, and English. Mastering these languages capacitates them to understand and broaden their interest about their social, economic, political, and cultural concerns making them a linguistic capital to adapt and survive in their society. In short, language competence in Ilokano, Filipino, and English equips the Ilokano and non-Ilokano spouses as well as their children to socialize and eventually learn, appreciate, and deepen their immersion in the mainstream culture and globalizing world.

FGD results reveal that investing to know how to speak not just Ilokano language but also Filipino and English languages bestows numerous advantages among Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes spouses and children, which in Edwards’ (2009) terms correspond to the communicative value of a language. First, learning and exhibiting competence in Ilokano, Filipino, and English means greater acceptance because of their predominance at the provincial, national and global levels. It is then of great benefit and advantage to learn them because of their interactive functions specifically in ensuring a more extensive contact in school, market, community, and other social space. Even non-Ilokano parents realize the need for their children to be socialized in these three languages as they give them greater advantage over children who are not. For them, learning these languages are considered inevitable as they are the lingua franca of school, television, social media, and the like.

Discourse competence not just in Ilokano, but also in Filipino and English, give the children the confidence to express themselves, confront people, and extend wider social network and opportunities for growth and development. They become the principal languages that parents want their children to know and use in day-to-day transaction. In contrast, teaching Ibanag and Itawes languages which belong to the minority groups may somewhat isolate their children and prevent them from participation in broader social networks. As De Swaan (2001) puts it, peripheral languages (e.g. Ibanag and Itawes) have the lowest Q-value in the hierarchical distribution of languages in the global language system thus, native speakers abandon and do not transmit these languages in favor of a higher level language because of its communicative value. Another possible explanation for this concept is given by May (2008)
who asserted that, progress and modernity are the key concepts related to dominant languages while minority languages are linked to obsolescence and lack of social mobility. In cultural terms, the ability to speak the Ilokano, Filipino, and English languages produce greater benefits as they aid them to participate in the provincial, regional, national and global activities leading to their easy and effective integration into the mainstream.

Second, learning and speaking languages which are widely spoken nationally and internationally is a remarkable feat as well as a social incentive among the Ilokanos, Ibanags and Itawes. The pride is seen in one’s ability to speak a new language and the social incentive is experienced in the remote possibility of being “sold” or “fooled” in a discussion or social grouping composed of Ilokano, Filipino and English-speaking people. In addition, a lack of competence in these languages may result in miscommunication and bring about misunderstanding and thus restrict one’s ability to fully engage in any social, economic, cultural, religious, and political activities. As Wee, (2011) propounds, people adopt another language purposely to function effectively in a group, improve social standing and prestige, and other social gains. This corroborates the assertion of De Swaan (2001) that the “communicative potential” or the Q-value of a language is the primary basis of an individual in learning and using a language.

On a larger scale, knowledge of the Ilokano, Filipino, and English languages (instead of Ibanags and Itawes) is positively associated with better understanding of pertinent social issues and concerns discussed in the radio, television, school, church, and market. It is a fact that Ilokano, Ibanag and Itawes spouses and their children generally receive information in television, radio, magazines, and the like through Ilokano, Filipino, and English languages. The use of these languages by these type of media does not only facilitate wider and proper understanding of the information conveyed but it also legitimizes them as the predominant and prominent languages at the national and global levels.

Clearly, the Ilokano, Ibanag and Itawes spouses perceive the Ilokano, Filipino, and English languages as vehicles for power to adopt and maintain a sense of equilibrium in their community. Collectively acknowledging and adopting to these languages is their “connection” to the bigger milieu and a vehicle to their “survival” in their field. This justifies Bourdieu’s claim that language is not only a means of communication but also a medium of power. It is
important to stress, though, that the adoption of Ilokano, Filipino, and English languages is not done with force, threat, or intimidation but because of their own power to generate worth or value in life. De Swaan (2001), aptly puts this as “blind process” of compliance with unintended consequences because speakers of minority languages are directed by “invisible hands” to assimilate the dominant and powerful languages for their own advantage and benefit. This brings to light that Ilokano, Filipino, and English languages have instrumental and integrative purpose in the marriage and family of Ilokano and Ibanag or Ilokano and Itawes. These languages are instrumental in making Ilokano and non-Ilokano spouses and their children to learn them for their practical purpose, i.e., for adoption and connection. To adapt to the prevailing life situation and to connect themselves with the mainstream, they are necessitated to use them as languages of everyday life – ushering a more extensive social contact and increase participation in various activities in school, church, community, and other social space. Meanwhile, Ilokano, Filipino, and English languages have integrative purpose as they are the entry points of the Ilokano and non-Ilokano spouses to be accepted into the wider social circle (in the provincial, regional, national and international levels). In return, their acceptance eventually helps them to adopt and establish a better family and community relations.

**Role of Linguistic Capital in Ethnocultural Identity Construction**

It is a fundamental finding of the study that children of Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes marriage generally identify themselves as Ilokanos, which is a majority language and culture. With the instrumental and integrative value of Ilokano language in the family, non-Ilokano partners as well as their children are able to identify themselves as Ilokanos due to the advantages attached to it. This phenomenon is consistent with the finding of Ibrahim, et al. (2013) who uncovered that native Arabic speakers (a minority group) show group identification and favorable attitudes toward Hebrew which is a majority culture and language in Israel. Identification to the native Arabic culture and language is diminished since the cultural elements and fluency in this language does not offer better career opportunities or career advancement. It goes with the assumption that language is the site where the speaker creates his/her identity in relation to the social world. Adopting the “social constructionist framework”
espoused by Holmes (1997) and Ochs (1993), the Ilokano language may be considered as the
site of creating, negotiating, and redefining one’s identity, and speakers as “agents in the
production of their own and others’ social selves” (Ochs, 1993). It must be stressed that while
non-Ilokano spouses acquired competence in a new language (Ilokano), they nonetheless
remained proficient in Ibanag or Itawes languages and retained their own identity. In the terms
of Bourdieu, they maintained their own habitus as Ibanags or Itawes even if they use Ilokano
as their language. The same holds true when they learn and use Filipino and English languages
because their ethnocultural identity as Ibanag or Itawes is not eliminated in the process.

However, the need to identify themselves as Ilokanos for their advantage is another
issue. Using their discourse competence in Ilokano language, they identify themselves as
Ilokanos especially when they see the compelling need or practical value of doing so. This is
done, for example, in a gathering where Ilokano dominates and the feeling of isolation is
experienced, or when there is a relative disadvantage in social, cultural, and educational
transactions or involvement where Ilokanos “call the shots”, or where they would like to
participate in activities of the Ilokanos or those that give them more benefits or advantages.

With constant identification to Ilokano due to its functionality, usefulness, and social
returns, Ibanag or Itawes spouses have developed greater appreciation of the Ilokano language
and culture causing their partial assimilation to the Ilokano. Such partial assimilation has
caused them to readily give up a part of their identity for their benefit and advantage. This case
is a sheer example of the “social constructionist framework” positing that language learners are
not simply gaining their skills in the target language but also are constantly positioning,
negotiating, and redefining themselves using the language in the social world.

On the other hand, a different case happens with the identity construction of the children
born out of the marriage of Ilokanos and Ibanag or Ilokanos and Itawes. With the great
influence of Ilokano spouse in their family, children do not only learn the Ilokano language but
the traditions and cultural values of the Ilokanos as well, thus positively identifying themselves
as Ilokanos. Children do not claim identity as half Ilokano-Ibanag or half Ilokano-Itawes
descent the fact that either their mother or father is an Ibanag or Itawes. They relate to and
master best the Ilokano language as they frequently use it for interacting and participating in
Ilokano cultural leisure activities such as listening to Ilokano music in cd’s, tapes and radio
stations, listening to Ilokano drama over the radio, reading Ilokano magazines, and singing Ilokano songs in karaoke. These are proofs that the Ilokano spouses have not only linguistically but also culturally influenced the life and the social identity of their children. In this influence, the role of Ilokano language is truly indispensable. This finding affirms what Edwards (2009) claim that “the language we use forms an important part of our sense of who we are – of our identity.”

Like their Ilokano, Ibanag and Itawes parents, children also perceive the advantages of identifying themselves as Ilokanos. They recognize that competence in Ilokano language gives worth in terms of connection with the wider social space and participation in activities led by Ilokanos. With these gains, claiming an identity as Ilokanos, which is a majority ethnic group, confers them higher status in Cagayan and in the Philippines. Thus, this finding confirms the assertion of Phinney, Romero, Nava, and Huang (2001) who wrote that language is a strong contributor to ethnocultural identity.

On the other hand, FGD results show that the children’s ethnocultural identity is not threatened with their effort of learning and using the Filipino and English languages. Once established, children constantly identify and remain to be Ilokanos in the process of learning and proficiently using Filipino as a national language (supercentral language) and English as a global language (hypercentral language). In essence, learning and using Filipino and English do not compete with their ethnocultural identity as Ilokanos. To them, they simply use these languages as an indispensable and unavoidable means to function effectively in an era of multiculturalism and multilingualism. This is short to saying that this is their way of healthily coping with the current globalization and information age of our society. In the words of Chi-kyu Chang (2005), “it is not cultural homogenization, which proves unacceptable because of undermining the present globalization that exists and serves as a pillar of globalization, but competitive co-existence among cultures with an approach to human friendliness that facilitates the process of globalization.”

**Conclusions and Recommendations**

The paper proffers that Ilokano language is primarily used in a marriage between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes. In addition to Ilokano language, the Ibanag, Itawes, and Ilokano
spouses prefer Filipino and English in cross-communicating to people with different linguistic background because of their communicative function, advantage, and value. Significantly, children of Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes marriages identify themselves more as Ilokanos than Ibanags and Itawes primarily because of Ilokano language and Iloko cultural capital. The maintenance of this ethnocultural identity is not threatened, however, with their effort of learning and using the Filipino and English languages as these languages are learned and used purposely in coping with the current globalization and information age. Thus, Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE) instruction must be strengthened in elementary schools where beginning readers are taught how to read using their L1 and proceeds to reading Filipino and English at higher grades. In this way, the concepts of glocalization and inclusivity are developed where youngsters are taught to maintain their ethnocultural identity while side by side embracing globalization and information age.

Given the foregoing conclusions, it is recommended that further studies may be conducted focusing on the issues of intersectionality, that is, how self-construction and identity of children intersect with their parents’ educational attainment and economic status which was beyond the scope of the research. Also, a multiple case study approach may be done on the adolescents born in a marriage between an Ilokano and Ibanag or Itawes to continue building and deepen an understanding of the complex and diverse influence of linguistic capital in ethnic intermarriage and ethnocultural identity construction.

References


Pluralizing Intelligence: Its Influence to Assessing Students’ Linguistic and Logical-Mathematical Proficiencies

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Abstract

Anchored on Vokovic and Lesaux (2013) theory on the positive correspondence between linguistic skills and arithmetic knowledge and the self-perceived intelligence theory of Gardner (1999), the present study hypothesized that college students’ communicative linguistic ability can influence their mathematical skills. The participants were grouped into three MIs group: musically, kinaesthetically and visually inclined learners based on the strict organizational selection criteria. The study employed Richards (2006) communicative test components: information transfer, information gap, jigsaw principle and problem solving.
through an essay test evaluated using Heaton’s (1989) and Madrazo and Bernardo’s (2012, 2018) modified rating scales: content, vocabulary, organization, language use and mechanics. The mathematical proficiency test was based on three components: real number system, algebraic expression, and geometric figure. Consistent with the hypothesis, the college students’ communicative linguistic ability significantly associates with their mathematical skills among the three MIs groups: musical, kinaesthetic and visual learners. In sum, the results of the present study raised relevant implications for the construction of reliable tests that can measure the two prominent linguistic and mathematical intelligences among musically, kinaesthetically inclined learners. Given the participants’ average to proficient levels of competence in some of the components of both tests, it is safe to state that the communicative linguistic test approach is effective in eliciting students’ authentic knowledge in the English language. This linguistic ability is statistically linked with how they process mathematical concepts and word problems.

1. Introduction

Gardner (1983; 1999) first published his theory of multiple intelligences, henceforth MIs theory. The concept MIs, originally consisted of seven components: logical-mathematical, linguistic, spatial-visual, musical, bodily-kinaesthetic, intrapersonal, and interpersonal intelligences was greatly accepted in the field of education for its learner-based philosophical view, attributing human intelligence as composed of multi-dimensional frames that have to be harnessed in pedagogy. A considerable number of educators found MIs meaningful and relevant to be part of the curriculum for its modern interactive approach that goes beyond the limitations of traditional teaching and learning in the classroom. The notion of pluralizing intelligence through self-perceived intelligence revolutionized a liberal view of learning that values individual differences. Hence, harnessing these differences, individuals deserve freedom to be called intelligent in his own right (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

To avoid possible publication bias, this study deviated from utilizing a self-perceived survey of the pluralistic framework of intelligence. The main argument of MIs theorists is based on the supposition that singularizing intelligence as a concept, traditionally measured through an IQ test, was too simplistic to address the immense potential of human beings
The current study determined the participants’ MIs not on the basis of online survey but with the use of criteria that are in congruence with the college students’ membership in university creative organizations: musical chorale group, dance troupe and visual artist club. Given the organizations’ rigorous selection process, it is ascertained that the participants were legitimate musical, kinaesthetic and visual learners of the English language and mathematics. While the impact of MIs theory in the Philippine’s pedagogical system has been significant as seen for example in the K-12 curriculum’s greater weight on creative performance assessment compared to a traditional paper-pencil-evaluation, there has been a growing scepticism on the veracity of this pluralistic framework of intelligence since its publication in 1983.

Bruyckere (2018) noted Gardner’s sweeping statement that it is a myth when researchers attempt to associate MIs with learning styles. Gardner according to Bruyckere argued against the learning styles theory for its general scope of categorizing students’ preferences. One example is planning. When one selects being good at planning, a high expectation is consequently demanded by others on the individual who perceives to be satisfactory in planning. Gardner views MIs as a distinct construct compared to learning styles. MIs theory is rather self-perceived than being forcibly dictated upon by traditional standards. This assumption contradicts the findings of current studies that there is a high correspondence between the two constructs: MIs and learning styles (Ahanbor & Sadighi, 2014; Luengo-Cervera, 2015; Panahandeh, Khoshkhoonejad, Mansourzadeh, & Heidari, 2015; Sener & Cokcaliskan, 2018).

Additionally, Furnham and Buchanan (2005, p. 545) took a more in-depth psychological theorizing on the plurality of intelligence linking this self-rated MIs to a standard personality measures used in psychology. Involving 379 participants ages 15 to 80 years old, Gardner’s 10 MIs can be factored into two general categories: “academic intelligence” (linguistic, mathematical, spatial) and “social/emotional intelligence” (musical, kinaesthetic, interpersonal and intrapersonal). Personality variables: extraversion, agreeableness, consciousness, neuroticism and openness, age and education highly predicted academic intelligence while openness and extraversion predicted the social/emotional/artistic intelligence. Male participants found to be open, stable, disagreeable, and introverted.
possessing an IQ test episode and subscribed to IQ test validity opted for higher scores. It means that beyond a mere perception about IQ test, the experience in taking an intelligence test significantly predicts self-estimated scores. The argument to self-rated MIs is that without measuring an intelligence reliably, how can we be certain of one’s reported intelligence, if one has not experienced taking for example a musical test (i.e. reading of notes, playing instruments)? Categorizing one to possess a musical intelligence without undergoing a thorough examination, findings would not be that conclusive.

Further, a considerable number of research put the validity of the MIs survey instruments to question as being eligible to empirically account for the separation of the concept intelligence by distinct components. Most of these components are highly interrelated. There has been no standard validated psychological instrument that can account for the distinction among these hypothesized cognitive domains (Bowles, 2008; Locke, 2005; McGreal, 2013; Visser, Ashton, & Vernon, 2006a; Waterhouse, 2006a, 2006b). In short, it is difficult to assess these 8 domains of intelligence: linguistic, logical, musical, kinaesthetic, visual, interpersonal, intrapersonal and natural, to test that these are separate constructs. A case in point: how is being musical measured? What standard test is administered to prove that one is musical? Is it playing an instrument while correctly reading notes or just merely self-reporting that one prefers to sing while studying? Apparently, Gardner failed to address this question on assessment, more so provide a standard cognitive experimental measures to prove that these hypothesized frames are really cognitively segregated in one’s mind. Perhaps, rather than viewing MIs as composed of separate distinct domains in a cognitive mechanism, it would be logical to theorize that MIs are more inclined to be considered as learning styles or learning preferences that can amplify the development of social and academic skills from childhood to adulthood.

Learning styles are highly correlated with MIs. A substantial research in the literature found that there was significant positive association between MIs and their learning styles (Ahanbor & Sadighi, 2014; Sarıcaoğlu & Arıkan, 2009; Panahandeh, Khoshkhoonejad, Mansourzadeh, & Heidari, 2015; Şener & Çokçalışkan, 2018). In similar vein, Luengo-Carvara (2015) investigated MIs and learning styles as constructs in the process of teaching and learning of Spanish. Both constructs: linguistic intelligence-reflexive style; linguistic
intelligence-theoretical style; and musical intelligence-active style have positively corresponded. Thus, participants in this study manifested strong practice of reflective and theoretical styles which led them to achieve better overall academic performance.

The connection between learning styles and MIs has significant implications to the left and right brain theory first postulated by Sperry (1969) that the brain has two conscious compartments: the left hemisphere that activates speech, reason and intelligence and the right hemisphere processing creativity and spatial competencies. Sperry’s split half theory of the brain appears to be quite simplistic as some researchers argue (e.g. Ornstein, 1997). Sperry’s theory was situating language as primarily located in the left segment of the brain but proven not necessarily exclusive. There were clinical instances where patients manifested a singular compartment but process quite normally. Kelly et al. (1998) provided evidence that memorization of images is processed in the right brain part while language in the left segment. Marshall and Fink’s (1997) notion that right brain activates perception that contextualizes the environment measured through imaging stimuli. However, when the picture was mixed with letters on the process, the activation was shifted to the left hemisphere. Relating left-brain hemispheric theory to MIs, we could deduce that linguistic, logical, visual, musical, kinaesthetic components are indeed distinct cognitive processes in the brain, the linguistic and logical are activated in the left and visual, musical, kinaesthetic are processes held in the right brain segment. But the other self-perceived MIs such as interpersonal, intrapersonal or naturalistic domains are constructs that might not be delineated substantially in relation to cognitive neurophysiological variables. To date there has been a dearth of empirical studies providing standard psychological assessment tools that measure MIs.

Furthermore, the relationship between linguistic and mathematical processing was reported in the literature with in-depth findings and discussion. Limitations in word processing are considered to impede enhancement of trials which depend on decoding and retention of verbal stimuli, for example processing number computations and providing basic quantitative solutions to word problems (Vukovi & Lesaux, 2013). Findings revealed that processing phonology is significant to the pupils’ enhancement of mathematical skills (Fuchs et al., 2005; Hecht, Torgesen, Wagner, & Rashotte, 2001; Simmons & Singleton, 2008). This claim also can justify why several pupils with deficiencies in reading also struggle in
mathematics (Dirks, Spyer, van Lieshout, & de Sonneville, 2008; Rubinsten, 2009; Simmons & Singleton, 2008). But, this phonological hypothesis yielded arguments since its publication. For example, some pupils who were observed struggling to process number computations were also satisfactory in reading (Fuchs, Fuchs, & Prentice, 2004; Landerl, Fussenegger, Moll, & Willburger, 2009). In other words, word processing skills were not absolute in accounting for their strengths or weaknesses in mathematics. Nevertheless, Jordan & Hanich (2003) have found that advanced readers manifesting inadequacy in mathematics utilized their sufficiency in verbal processing to accomplish mathematical problems. Hence, the language employed in quantitative processing determines the pupils’ understanding and computation of word problems (Abedi & Lord, 2001; Brissaud & Sander, 2010; Vukovi & Lesaux, 2013).

2. The present study

2.1 Aims, research questions and hypothesis

The current study determined the participants’ MIs through rigorous criteria set forth by the creative organizations’ standard of being musical, kinaesthetic and visual learners. It also assessed the participants’ knowledge in the English language and mathematics. Additionally, it sought to associate their communicative linguistic competence to their logical-mathematical proficiency. Specifically, the study addressed the following research questions: (1) what is the college students’ level of performance in linguistic and logical-mathematical tests?; (2) does their communicative linguistic competence correlate with their logical-mathematical proficiency?

It was hypothesized in this study that the participants’ linguistic skills may influence their logical-mathematical abilities among the musically, kinaesthetically inclined learners.

3. Method

3.1 Participants

The target participants were the college students at a certain university in the Southernmost part of the Philippines. Total enumeration was utilized as the sampling technique. All members of the three university-creative organizations were invited. There were 49 members who responded to this study: musical group comprises 17 (34.69%) of the
participants; 18 (36.73%) were kinaesthetic dance troupe; and the visual artists’ club is composed of 14 (28.57). In terms of gender, 57% were females and 43% were males. The age group ranges from 18 to 20 (65%) of the participants and 21 to 24 (35%). The students belong mostly to low –income bracket PhP 7,000-8,999 and below (44.90%); middle income: PhP 9,000-16,999 (34.70%); and moderately high income group: 21,000 and above (20.41%).

3.2 Instruments

The teaching of English language is affected by assessment which directs all activities provided in the classroom (Tahereen, 2014). The linguistic proficiency test is based on the communicative or implicit knowledge that refers to the knowledge of the language and ability to spontaneously use the language in communicating ideas (Aquino, 2004; Richards, 2006). It was composed of essay questions in four parts: Test I: information transfer; Test II: information gap; Test 3: jigsaw principle; Test II: problem solving. All segments were composed of 25 points each.

The logical-mathematical test refers to the students’ knowledge of mathematical operations in solving word problems. It consisted of three parts: Test I: real number system; Test II: algebraic expression; and Test III: geometric figures. All segments were assigned 10 points.

Both tests were validated by three expert English language and mathematics professors of the university using the validation criteria to ensure that items definitely measured the target skills. The evaluators provided comments for the improvement of the tests. Their suggestions were the basis for the revision of the test drafts prior to pilot testing.

The two assessment tools have undergone pilot testing, item analysis and revision for higher reliability. The respondents selected were 31 members of a chorale group of a certain college in this university. The retention, revision and discarding of items followed Nedelsky’s (1964) standard as cited by Yap-Aizon (2000). Items whose difficulty index is beyond the range of 0.50 (± 0.20) and whose discrimination index is below .30 were discarded and revised. The computed reliability coefficient of linguistic proficiency test employing Cronbach alpha was only 0.52 that is considered low reliability. There were items that were revised, retained and discarded. The pilot testing was administered and the computed reliability coefficient
reached an acceptable level of 0.814. On the other hand, logical-mathematical proficiency test was subjected to Kuder-Richardson (KR 20) test. The computed KR 20 reliability coefficient was only 0.54 which was low. Thus, there were items that were discarded, revised and retained. The data came from the item analysis, difficulty and discrimination indices. The computed reliability coefficient for the second pilot testing reached an acceptable level of 0.802.

3.3 Data collection and analysis

Both tests were administered to the intended group of participants. For the linguistic proficiency test, warm-up activities for 5-10 minutes were given to students prior to the test proper. Warm-up activities like brainstorming is not graded. However, it is used as a formative assessment to prepare for the actual language test. Formative assessment is used to assist students in taking the next step in their learning process (Chen & Zhang, 2017; Gardner, 2011). This process was conducted to align with the communicative approach in testing the students’ implicit knowledge which is a prerequisite to the MIs theory. After the test proper on the linguistic proficiency test which covered 1 hour to 30 minutes, a 15 minute break was given to the test takers. The logical-mathematical test which required 1 hour and 45 minutes was administered immediately after the break. No warm up activity was administered for this test because mathematical assessment was supposed to focus more on content. Nevertheless, the items were composed of situational worded problems highly relevant to the students’ Filipino culture.

The linguistic proficiency test was rated using Heaton (1989) and Madrazo and Bernardo (2012; 2018) rating scales in scoring writing competence. See Appendix A for the detailed scoring of components: content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics.

4. Results

4.1 The participants’ level of linguistic and logical-mathematical proficiencies

As regards linguistic assessment, the musically inclined learners performed at the average level, the kinaesthetic learners at average to proficient levels, the visual learners at average to proficient levels. In terms of logical-mathematical assessment, the musical group
was poor, average to proficient, kinaesthetic group was poor, average to proficient and the visual group was average to proficient. The exact mean and standard deviation values are explicitly stated in Table 1 below.

Table 1
*Descriptive Statistics: Mean and Standard Deviation of Musical, Kinaesthetic, and Visual Learners of Linguistic and Logical-Mathematical Tests*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Musical</th>
<th>Kinaesthetic</th>
<th>Visual</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Descriptor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Linguistic Assessment</td>
<td>Information Transfer</td>
<td>44.0</td>
<td>23.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>55.5</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jigsaw Principle</td>
<td>47.0</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem-Solving</td>
<td>32.7</td>
<td>24.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linguistic Overall</td>
<td>44.7</td>
<td>26.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinaesthetic</td>
<td>Information Transfer</td>
<td>64.7</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>69.6</td>
<td>25.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jigsaw Principle</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem-Solving</td>
<td>41.0</td>
<td>25.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linguistic Overall</td>
<td>58.9</td>
<td>21.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>Information Transfer</td>
<td>61.2</td>
<td>25.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information Gap</td>
<td>55.7</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Jigsaw Principle</td>
<td>62.3</td>
<td>24.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem-Solving</td>
<td>45.2</td>
<td>26.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linguistic Overall</td>
<td>56.0</td>
<td>27.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Mathematical Assessment

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Musical Assessment</th>
<th>Musically Inclined</th>
<th>Proficient</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Poor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real Number System</td>
<td>68.2</td>
<td>19.1</td>
<td></td>
<td>Proficient</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algebraic Expression</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geometric Figure</td>
<td>37.6</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical-Mathematical</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>70.6</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td></td>
<td>Proficient</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kinaesthetic</th>
<th>Musically Inclined</th>
<th>Proficient</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Poor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real Number System</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algebraic Expression</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Poor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geometric Figure</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>24.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical-Mathematical</td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>Proficient</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Visual</th>
<th>Musically Inclined</th>
<th>Proficient</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Poor</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Real Number System</td>
<td>51.4</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Algebraic Expression</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>24.5</td>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geometric Figure</td>
<td>52.1</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td></td>
<td>Average</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical-Mathematical</td>
<td>Overall</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>21.7</td>
<td>Proficient</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2 The correspondence between linguistic and logical-mathematical proficiencies

The performance of musically inclined students showed that there was moderate positive correlation between information transfer and real number system, \( r(47) = 0.58, p = .014 \). Their proficiency in information transfer and overall mathematics was also moderately correlated, \( r(47) = 0.50, p = .039 \). But, there was no correspondence found between their ability in information transfer and real number system, \( r(47) = 0.23, p = 0.38 \). Students’ linguistic and logical-mathematical abilities were not correlated in the following compared components: information gap and real number system, \( r(47) = 0.24, p = .349 \); information gap and algebraic expression, \( r(47) = 0.13, p = .608 \); information gap and geometric figure, \( r(47) = 0.04, p = .89 \); information gap and logical-mathematical overall, \( r(47) = 0.19, p = .457 \).
In addition, the musically inclined participants’ competencies in linguistic and logical-mathematical assessments did not correspond on the following components: jigsaw principle and real number system, $r(47)= 0.09, p = .746$; jigsaw principle and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.14, p = .583$; jigsaw principle and geometric figure, $r(47) = -0.11, p = .688$; jigsaw principle and logical-mathematical overall, $r(47) = 0.10, p = .826$; problem solving and real number system, $r(47) = 0.18, p = .496$; problem solving and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.18, p = .496$; problem solving and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.11, p = .669$; problem solving and logical-mathematical overall, $r(47) = 0.16, p = .539$; linguistic overall and real number system, $r(47) = 0.27, p = .290$; linguistic overall and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.252, p = .035$. However, their performance on the succeeding compared variables were not correlated: information transfer and real number system, $r(47) = 0.38, p = .245$; information transfer and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.21, p = .413$; information gap and real number system, $r(47) = 0.35, p = .153$; information gap and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.40, p = .100$; information gap and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.36, p = .141$; jigsaw principle and real number system, $r(47) = 0.18, p = .476$; jigsaw principle and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.33, p = .187$; problem solving and real number system, $r(47) = 0.09, p = .737$; problem solving and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.41, p = .088$; problem solving and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.08, p = .754$; problem solving and logical-mathematical overall, $r(47) = 0.25, p = .328$; linguistic overall and real number system, $r(47) = 0.29, p = .246$; linguistic overall and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.28, p = .265$.

Moreover, the linguistic and logical-mathematical proficiencies of the visually inclined students did not all correlate as evidenced by the linked components: information transfer and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.09, p = .737$; information transfer and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.57, p = .014$; information transfer and logical-mathematical overall, $r(47) = 0.50, p = .034$; information gap and logical-mathematical overall, $r(47) = 0.50, p = .034$; jigsaw principle and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.14, p = .583$; jigsaw principle and geometric figure, $r(47) = -0.11, p = .688$; linguistic overall and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.12, p = .652$; linguistic overall and logical-mathematical overall, $r(47) = 0.30, p = .245$.

Further, the kinaesthetic learners’ linguistic and logical-mathematical abilities did associate on the following linked components: information transfer and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.57, p = .014$; information transfer and logical-mathematical overall, $r(47) = 0.50, p = .034$; information gap and logical-mathematical overall, $r(47) = 0.50, p = .034$; jigsaw principle and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.60, p = .009$; jigsaw principle and logical-mathematical overall, $r(47) = 0.49, p = .039$; linguistic overall and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.57, p = .035$. However, their performance on the succeeding compared variables were not correlated: information transfer and real number system, $r(47) = 0.38, p = .245$; information transfer and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.21, p = .413$; information gap and real number system, $r(47) = 0.35, p = .153$; information gap and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.40, p = .100$; information gap and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.36, p = .141$; jigsaw principle and real number system, $r(47) = 0.18, p = .476$; jigsaw principle and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.33, p = .187$; problem solving and real number system, $r(47) = 0.09, p = .737$; problem solving and algebraic expression, $r(47) = 0.41, p = .088$; problem solving and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.08, p = .754$; problem solving and logical-mathematical overall, $r(47) = 0.25, p = .328$; linguistic overall and real number system, $r(47) = 0.29, p = .246$; linguistic overall and geometric figure, $r(47) = 0.28, p = .265$. Moreover, the linguistic and logical-mathematical proficiencies of the visually inclined students did not all correlate as evidenced by the linked components: information transfer and
real number system, \( r(47) = 0.45, p = .110 \); information transfer and algebraic expression, \( r(47) = 0.35, p = .225 \); information transfer and geometric figure, \( r(47) = -0.33, p = .252 \); information transfer and logical-mathematical overall, \( r(47) = 0.18, p = .534 \); information gap and real number system, \( r(47) = 0.51, p = .062 \); information gap and algebraic expression, \( r(47) = 0.04, p = .881 \); information gap and geometric figure, \( r(47) = -0.36, p = .207 \); information gap and logical-mathematical overall, \( r(47) = 0.37, p = .191 \); jigsaw principle and real number system, \( r(47) = 0.47, p = .090 \); jigsaw principle and algebraic expression, \( r(47) = 0.263, p = .364 \); jigsaw principle and geometric figure, \( r(47) = 0.31, p = .280 \); jigsaw principle and logical-mathematical overall, \( r(47) = 0.48, p = .082 \); problem solving and real number system, \( r(47) = 0.43, p = .129 \); problem solving and algebraic expression, \( r(47) = 0.31, p = .29 \); problem solving and geometric figure, \( r(47) = 0.24, p = .41 \); problem solving and logical-mathematical overall, \( r(47) = 0.44, p = .109 \); linguistic overall and real number system, \( r(47) = 0.61, p = .021 \); linguistic overall and algebraic expression, \( r(47) = 0.09, p = .769 \); linguistic overall and geometric figure, \( r(47) = 0.37, p = .194 \); linguistic overall and logical-mathematical overall, \( r(47) = 0.48, p = .081 \).

5. Discussion

There was a slight indication that musically inclined learners’ linguistic skills determined their logical-mathematical abilities. In general, evidence suggest non-correspondence between their English language proficiency and their mathematics competency. The kinaesthetic learners appeared to be quite flexible as data would show their knowledge in the English language correspond to their ability in mathematics. Students whose inclination were into spatio-visual domain elicited non association between their linguistic and mathematical abilities.

Relating left and right hemispheric dominance to the results of this study, we may regard the musical, kinaesthetic and visual leaners as right brain dominant individuals. The assumption that a gifted dancer would process satisfactorily creative tasks such as bodily movements with precision but would struggle to debate political issues in class stems from this split-half brain theory. However, this assumption may not be all that true. Kinaesthetic learners were flexible in their performance in both linguistic and logical-mathematical tests.
Similarly, musical and visual learners showed average to proficient performance in some of the components in both tests.

In essence, the data on the kinaesthetic students’ positive correlation between their linguistic competence and mathematical ability are substantiated by Abedi & Lord (2001), Brissiaud & Sander (2010), Fuchs et al., (2005), Hecht et al., (2001), Simmons & Singleton (2008), Vukovi & Lesaux (2013). This means that the students’ knowledge of the English language in terms of writing components: content, language use, organization, vocabulary and mechanics significantly influence their mathematical competence. Though the kinaesthetic students by nature are right brain dominant who would prefer to process creative information than linguistic and logical stimuli, their senses were awakened and amplified by a warm-up activity through brainstorming in the communicative linguistic assessment prior to the test proper. This process may have helped them relax more and generate adequate ideas during the examination. The logical-mathematical assessment prompted them words that are highly connected with their Filipino culture. Their interests may have captured by the cultural aspect in learning necessary to activate MIs (Armstrong, 2018; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In conclusion, the results of the present study raised relevant implications on the construction of reliable tests that can measure the two prominent linguistic and mathematical intelligences among musically, kinaesthetically inclined learners. The basis for categorizing MIs was not through a self-perceived intelligence but based on the criteria set by expert coaches or trainers of these creative or socially-intelligence-inclined organizations. Given the participants’ average to proficient levels of competence in some of the components of both tests, it is safe to state that the communicative linguistic test approach is effective in eliciting students’ authentic knowledge in the English language. This linguistic ability is statistically linked with how they process mathematical concepts and problems.

Findings in this present study have implications to future research along this line of inquiry. Given that the hypothesized frames of MIs is the unresolved noting its proponent’s inability to provide standard cognitive psychological assessment to measure these domains, it is logical to proceed to theorizing MIs, perhaps by linking these self-perceived intelligence to the proven and acceptable cognitive psychological variables such as Baddeley’s (1986) model of working memory where the two domains: phonological loop (linguistic processes)
and the visuo-spatial sketchpad (non-linguistic processes) are directed by a central executive domain. These three components are measured by standard experimental tasks that clearly delineate the verbal and non-verbal processes in cognitive psychology. These standard measures are supported by neuroplasticity research on working memory and executive control activity in the prefrontal cortex of the brain. Current research on working memory, executive functioning, bilingualism and multilingualism—that the knowledge of more than one language, can enhance an individuals’ executive functioning skills such as working memory (Bialystok, 2017). So, if the self-perceived intelligence of an individual—who is a Chabacano-Filipino-English trilingual, is high on visual domain, one should elicit high performance in Simon arrow task that measures visuo-spatial component of the working memory, with reference of course, to the number of languages the participant can speak. The relevance of bilingualism or trilingualism on executive functioning (i.e. the ability to suppress irrelevant stimulus to focus on the target stimulus) is seen on evidence that the knowledge of additional language representation in one’s brain can boost executing control (Bialystok, Craik & Luk, 2008; Madrazo and Bernard, 2012; Madrazo & Bernardo, 2018). Hence, corresponding MI theory with established cognitive psychology variables such as working memory and executive functioning can provide MI empirical data that could prove its hypothesized separate compartments in the brain.

References


## Appendix A

Modified Rating Scale for Essay Writing Test
(Based on Heaton, 1989; Madrazo & Bernardo, 2012, 2018)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Very Good: Very knowledgeable of subject; substantive content</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good to Average: Some knowledge of subject; substance of content is of adequate range</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fair to Poor: Very limited knowledge of the subject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Very Poor: Does not show knowledge of the subject</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Vocabulary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Very Good: Sophisticated range-effective word/idiom choice and usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good to Average: Adequate range; occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice and usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fair to Poor: limited range-frequent errors of word/idiom form/choice, usage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Very Poor: Essentially translated-limited knowledge of English vocabulary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Very Good: Well-organized ideas that are clearly stated and connected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good to Average: Somewhat choppy-loosely organized but main ideas stand out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fair to Poor: Non-fluent-ideas confused or discounted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Very Poor: Seems not able to communicate-no organization</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Language Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Excellent to Very Good: Effective complex constructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good to Average: Major problems in simple/complex constructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fair to poor: major problems in simple/complex constructions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Score</td>
<td>Description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Excellent to Very Good: Demonstrate mastery of conventions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Good to Average: Occasional errors of spelling, punctuation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Fair to Poor: Frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Very Poor: No mastery of conventions- dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paraphrasing</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Each participant’s total score was divided by 25 to get a percentage score. The percentage scores were interpreted as follows: 81% and higher was Very Proficient, 61%-80% was Proficient, 41%-60% was Average, 21%-40% was Poor, and 20% or less was Very Poor.
English Language Proficiency Level and Mathematics Performance among Marine Engineering Students of Zamboanga State College of Marine Sciences and Technology (ZSCMST)

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Zamboanga City

Biodata:

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Abstract

This study explored the relationship between English language proficiency and Mathematics performance for two consecutive school years, 2016-2017 and 2017-2018. Secondary data such as grades in Mathematics and English for first and second semesters were used. Seventy-six (76) 1st year Marine Engineering students’ grades were analyzed for both school years. Findings revealed that majority of the respondents obtained English grades between 2.00-2.50 while they got 2.00-3.00 for Mathematics. Pearson r was utilized for analysis, and the result indicated that English proficiency predicted Marine Engineering students Mathematics grades. Grades in both subjects, English and Math, from SY 2016-17 to 2017-2018 moderately influence each other. There was a correlation between the two subjects, English and Mathematics; an increase in English language proficiency level signifies an increase in Mathematics performance.
Keywords: Mathematics, English, scores, moderate, correlate, performance

Introduction

Schools around the world are using English as a medium of instruction (MOI) in all subjects particularly those in the basic education, college preparatory and university levels. It means that students are learning Mathematics in English. Learning a language such as English which is a second language (L2) for Filipino students and at the same time, the concepts in Mathematics can be tremendous for them.

English is considered to be the official secondary language of the Filipinos. From pre-school, English is taught to students until they graduate college. The medium of instruction on examinations and classroom discussions is in the English language. Learning materials in schools like textbooks and other supplementary resources are in English for tertiary students where the exception is only for Filipino subject. However, another exception is for subjects from kinder to Grades 3 which are taught in the mother tongue or first language (L1) (Lear, 2019). In this scenario, Mathematics is taught in the mother tongue of the pupils.

Multiple foreign studies propose that English proficiency dictates English language learners' performances in mathematics assessments. However, in the local context, not much is known about how students are coping with the language switch. Besides, the impact of the language switch on the teaching and learning of mathematics is equally unclear. It was only recently that the language issue as it relates to mathematics became an issue for students, and potential area of conflict highlighted.

This study investigated the relationship between English language proficiency and mathematics performance of 1st year Marine Engineering students of Zamboanga State College of Marine Sciences and Technology (ZSCMST).

Objectives

a) To determine the English language proficiency level of 1st year Marine Engineering students of Zamboanga State College of Marine Sciences and Technology (ZSCMST) from SY 2016-2018.

b) To determine the Mathematics performance of the 1st year Marine Engineering
students of the Zamboanga State College of Marine Sciences and Technology (ZSCMST) from SY 2016-2018.

c) To establish the relationship between English language proficiency level and Mathematics performance among 1st year Marine Engineering students of Zamboanga State College of Marine Sciences and Technology (ZSCMST) from SY 2016-2018.

Related Literature

The association between language proficiency and Mathematics achievement has been discussed mainly concerning the communicative tasks of language where some students encounter significant difficulties in solving and answering the test items which may affect their mathematical competencies. A study was done in the United Kingdom by Philips and Birrell (1990) which compared the performance of students in the English medium who are native English speakers with Asians whose second language (L2) is English. The performance of the Asian students in mathematics was far below their native English-speaking peers and also below the national mean. Further analysis of the examination items indicated that language factors were responsible for the low performance of the students.

Dowker and Lloyd (2005) conducted a study in Wales where the students have different linguistic backgrounds. Some attended Welsh medium schools while others were taught in English. Results show that students in Welsh medium schools performed better in mathematics than those in English-medium schools. Language factors were reported to contribute to these differences.

Roardria (2011) did an intensive study in Ireland on students whose local language is Gaelic. Findings revealed that students in the transition from a Gaelic medium primary level education to an English medium second-level mathematics education experienced a disadvantage of 8.7% in performance on mathematical word problems. A significant relationship exists between the students’ performance on mathematical word problems through the medium of English and their Gaelic language proficiency. Furthermore, data revealed that students with a high level of proficiency in both languages, and those who were predominantly proficient in Gaelic performed mathematically better than their monolingual peers.
In French immersion programs in Canada, Bournot-Trites and Reeder (2005) found that the group with high-intensity French instruction outperformed the monolingual groups in mathematics and science. It was noted that by the time the students got into Grade 6, they outperformed their monolingual counterparts in all skill areas. Therefore, Canadian students have experienced positive benefits from participating in French immersion programs. Some other studies have found that the immersion students performed at a comparable level with English program students (Turnbull, Lapkin, & Hart, 2001).

Moreover, in New Zealand, Barton et al. (2005) conducted a series of studies under a sociolinguistics framework to investigate students who were learning mathematics using English as a second language. The research which outlined the interplay between the language proficiency level and the students' performance at the university level found that, due to language difficulty, this class of students experienced a disadvantage of about 10 and 15% in Mathematics. These researchers also found that students are learning mathematics through English medium as a second language encountered greater difficulties with text than anticipated, and as such, they wrongly relied more on symbolic modes of working. Surprisingly, it was found that these second language Mathematics learners were unaware of their disadvantage (Barton et al., 2005).

A longitudinal study on the epistemic function of language was done by Heinze et al. (2009) focusing on the performance from Grades 1 to 2. This study reveals that socio-economic status and multilingualism have the strongest correlation with mathematics performance in Grade 1. In contrast, the longitudinal development is closely connected to cognitive abilities and to language proficiency which influences conceptual understanding. This result is an indicator that language deficits can negatively impact the learning gains in subject matters like Mathematics in a cumulative way.

The language policy shift from English to Mother tongue (MT), in the context of the Philippines, as an MOI in the teaching of Mathematics in early grades such as Kinder to Grades 3, their study examined how language proficiency in the MT relates to mathematics achievement. Perez and Alieto (2018) conducted a similar study but the focus was not on English language but Mother Tongue and Mathematics among 71 Grade 2 pupils aged 6-8 years old.
The results show that the respondents’ mean achievement in mathematics and their mean proficiency in the MT are both described as advanced. Moreover, it revealed that there is a very strong positive correlation between the respondents’ achievement in mathematics and proficiency in the MT.

**Methodology**

This correlational study utilized secondary data in analyzing the Marine Engineering students’ grades from SY 2016-2018 for English and Mathematics (first and second semesters) based on the records from the ZSCMST Registrar’s Office.

Thirty-eight (38) Marine Engineering student grades in English 1 with a description of “Study and Thinking Skills in English” and Math 1 with the descriptive title of “College Algebra” were analyzed which represented the first semester for SY 2016-2017.

Moreover, for the 2nd semester, grades in English 2 “Writing in the Discipline” and Math 2 “Plane Trigonometry and Solid Mensuration” were used for data computation.

**Results**

To determine the English language proficiency level of 1st year Marine Engineering students of Zamboanga State College of Marine Sciences and Technology (ZSCMST) for SY 2016-2018, frequencies and percentages were used.

The school’s grading system was likewise utilized such as 1.0-1.25-Excellent, 1.5-1.75-Very Good, 2.0-2.25-Good, 2.5-2.75-Fair, 3.0-Passing; and 5.0-Failure.

Table 1 English Language Proficiency Level of 1st Year Marine Engineering Students for SY 2016-2017 and 2017-2018

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Data show that for SY 2016-2018 in terms of English language proficiency level using their English grades, most of the 76 1st year Marine Engineering students obtained grades of 2.50 (31 or 40.8%) which indicates “good” descriptive rating based on the school’s grading system. It is followed by 30 or 39.5% with grades of 2.00 and 9 or 11.8% with grades of 1.50.

It implies that majority of the respondents got grades between 2.00 to 2.50 which indicates good to fair descriptive ratings.

To determine the Mathematics performance of 1st Year Marine Engineering students of the Zamboanga State College of Marine Sciences and Technology (ZSCMST) from SY 2016-2018, frequencies and percentages were used. The same grading system of the school was used: 1.0-1.25-Excellent, 1.5-1.75-Very Good, 2.0-2.25-Good, 2.5-2.75-Fair, 3.0-Passing; and 5.0-Failure.

Table 2 Mathematics Performance of 1st Year Marine Engineering Students for SY 2016-17 and 2017-2018

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades</th>
<th>Mathematics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>76</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that for SY 2016-2018, the majority of the 76 1st year Marine Engineering students obtained grades of 2.50 (40 or 52.6%) while 18 or 23.7% each of them obtained grades of 2.00 and 3.00 respectively.

To establish the relationship between English language proficiency level and Mathematics performance among 1st Year Marine Engineering students of Zamboanga State
College of Marine Sciences and Technology (ZSCMST) from SY 2016-2018, Pearson r was utilized.

Table 3 discerns the relationship between English language proficiency level and their Mathematics performance for SY 2016-2018.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mathematics</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>r value</th>
<th>p value</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mean 2.5000</td>
<td>SD .34641</td>
<td>Mean 2.2237</td>
<td>SD .40328</td>
<td>.477* .000 Significant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between the Marine Engineering students’ grades in Mathematics and English for SY 2016-2018. Data reveal that there was a correlation between the two variables r = .477, p = .000.

Using Pearson-r correlation at 0.05 level of significance, it was found out that there is a moderate significant relationship between the two variables (Math and English) as depicted by their r-coefficient value, 0.477, and a p-value of 0.00.

Overall, there was a moderate, positive correlation between English language proficiency level and Mathematics performance. Increases in English language proficiency level were correlated with increases in Mathematics performance.

**Discussions**

Language demands should be part of any revised Mathematics syllabus. Language permits Mathematics learners to ask and answer questions, to convey their understanding and to discuss their answers with others. It plays an essential role in the processing of mathematical text and the interpretation of questions. However, students with low language proficiency
levels and particularly those students whose first language is not English struggle with the comprehension and wordy nature of some of the mathematics questions.

Issues in the learning mathematics and other subjects using English as a medium of instruction covers the problem of the use of vocabulary in problem-solving problem, especially the process of transforming English language into mathematical expressions (Moschkovich, 2004), and discussions of mathematics in the classroom (Setati, & Adler, 2001; Barton et al., 2004).

Students with low English proficiency will experience problems from lower to a higher level, while students who are good in the language may have a problem only in the discussion of mathematics in the classroom. Usually, the fundamental mathematical problem involves only the first year students during their first and second semesters at the college, while the discussion of high-level mathematics courses occurs in the third and fourth years. It is the reason why the researcher only requested the grades of the 1st year marine Engineering students in Math 1 and 2 and English 1 and 2.

The study found that there is a moderate significant relationship between Math and English as depicted by their r-coefficient value. It means that they moderately complement each other and therefore predicts their success together. Complementing each other requires a balance and connection between knowing English and using Mathematics skills.

Kieffer et al. (2009) in their study revealed that all Mathematics assessments in the United States (US) required English proficiency for all test takers. It implies that students with weak English proficiency skills experienced more difficulties in mathematics assessments than students who were English proficient (Abedi & Lord, 2004; Beal et al., 2010). Students who could read English very well achieved higher mathematics scores than those students who did not (Han, 2011; Jordan, Kaplan, & Hanich, 2002).

This finding is similar with Abedi and Lord’s (2004) assertion that students who read English very well achieved higher mathematics scores or that students who excel in literacy skills achieve higher mathematics scores than students who do not (Beal et al., 2010). Additional studies (Jordan et al., 2002; Zakaria & Aziz, 2011) affirmed that English proficiency precedes mathematics proficiency, especially when the language of instruction is English.
Learning the language of instruction simultaneously with mathematics content complicates students’ academic learning experiences locally and nationwide.

As a summary, the findings show that higher English proficiency also shows a direct proportion to the development of cognitive skills. Good mastery in English provides excellent performance while less competence in English makes learning mathematics difficult thus student performs poorly in a Mathematics subject. Although Mathematics is considered to be a subject that does not require as much use of language because mathematics often uses symbols, the skills to understand, build conceptual and blending information requires thinking in a language that is well understood.

Conclusions

This study examined the relationship between English proficiency and mathematics grades. Using Pearson r analyses, this study indicated that English proficiency predicted Marine Engineering students Mathematics grades. Grades in both subjects, English and Math, from 1st to 2nd semester moderately influence each other. The increase in English language proficiency level is correlated with an increase in Mathematics performance.

The study supports the notion that students who read well perform better on mathematics assessments than those students who do not. Teachers must recognize how these two subjects affect each other. Targeting areas of deficiencies with positive instruction could subsequently improve student comprehensible input that is so critical to students acquiring the necessary English proficiency for academic success.

Students’ procedural fluency in English influenced their mathematical knowledge and abilities, both algebraic and trigonometric knowledge. Their rudimentary mathematical knowledge (constrained skill) and elaborated tasks (flexible fluency) affect their conceptual understanding of the decontextualized problem. On the other hand, their written-mathematical explanation, which involves the verbal mode of problem-solving, is controlled by their English ability. Hence, abstraction complements the procedural fluency and written mathematical explanations of students in problem-solving tasks which uses their ability to use cognitive knowledge and skills in decontextualizing a problem into a functional knowledge and schema.
The content and pedagogic classroom activities and cognition must be complementary to each other in reshaping the students’ performance on procedural fluency and mathematical explanation towards problem-solving. Theoretical perspectives in mathematics instruction (College Algebra and Trigonometry) and English instruction are translated into an alternative epistemology of problem-solving skills in order to recuperate the attainment of critical aspects of problem-solving among students.

Implications

Showing the relationship between Mathematics and English language proficiency through the utilization of the students’ grades can be a learning paradigm for people particularly those who are conscious why their grades in Mathematics are higher than English or English grades are higher compared to Mathematics.

This study will bring awareness to students and teachers as well as help them know their level in both English and Math subjects and at the same time will be aware of the relationship between their Math and English skills.

The findings of this study will encourage teachers to test the students’ Math and English skills and to promote awareness to the students. It would serve as a guide for future researchers of the same research topic. It would help them enhance their study with a solid basis.

In order to improve the Mathematics performance of students, English language proficiency level should be enhanced first and foremost since all mathematical questions are in English. The math test is likewise in English too except for those in Grades 1-3 where the mother tongue is utilized.

Recommendations

In order to meet out the educational demands of 21st-century students, it is important to use innovative approaches in the teaching-learning process. An English Boot Camp should be established since the result shows that mathematics performance is affected by their English language proficiency. This boot camp should include: learning of new vocabularies, expressions, and grammar features, writing tasks, spoken and written English. The English
Boot Camp can be an extensive three week or a two month long English language course. An Intensive Math Program will follow the English Boot Camp.

Since the number of researches regarding flipped classroom approach is increasing day by day throughout the world, this study can attract the attention of educators about the possibility of using innovative approaches and can form a point of view on how to plan, organize and use it in their courses. Undoubtedly, the positive development in desire, interest, and motivation of educators using technological equipment will increase the effective use of this approach. No longer does a teacher need to provide a synchronous lesson to his or her students. Technology can liberate the teacher to move towards an asynchronous student-centered learning environment where each student receives a personalized education program and the same can be disseminated through ubiquitous technological features; in order that any global audience (maybe teachers or learners) can be benefited from the flipped classroom approach with a view to enhance their knowledge and skills.

Similarly, this research calls for more researches to be conducted globally with a larger sample, in different courses, and at different levels of education, so that it will be possible to generalize the findings. Moreover, using different data collection tools in addition to the pre-test, post-test, and focus group interview may yield a more in-depth and multi-faceted analysis of the students’ opinions and academic achievements as far as this promising 21st-century pedagogy is concerned.

References


