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Special Issue on ESL Acquisition and Learning

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Foreword

On behalf of my co-editors, Dr. Carlo Magno and Dr. Danilo Dayag, we are grateful to the founders of this journal, Dr. Paul Robertson and Dr. John Adamson for the opportunity they have opened to our teachers and students in the Philippines who are doing research in the field of second language acquisition and learning.

We are also honored to feature some of the studies done by our esteemed colleagues from De La Salle University-Manila; College of St. Benilde and the University of Santo Tomas.

The first article on metalinguistic awareness of pre-school children was a study done by Shirley Dita. Her paper focuses on how the degree of bilingualism affects metalinguistic awareness of preschool Filipino children. It contrasts partial and full bilinguals' performance in three tests: language arbitrariness test, phonological awareness. In general, she found that full bilinguals outscored the partial bilinguals in the three metalinguistic awareness tests.

The second article was done by Johnny Amora and Alejandro Bernardo. The study aims to test and refine the L2 vocabulary learning strategies inventory using the Rasch model.

Ariane Borlongan's article examines the language use, attitudes, and identity in relation to Philippine English among young generation Filipinos. The findings reveal that most domains of use and verbal activities are dominated by English as the language of current usage and prestige.

Leah Gustilo's study investigates how writing should be viewed as multiprocesses. She analyzed sentence-level errors and

suggests ways for pedagogical enhancement within the classroom context and experiences of writers.

And finally, Carlo Magno presents a very interesting study on how Filipino college students first learned to speak their second language, English. The study presented how several theories may help account how a second language is acquired and how several factors may aid in the learning of English at the early stage of linguistic development.

Rochelle Irene G. Lucas

Editor

Philippine ESL Journal

The Metalinguistic Awareness of Filipino Bilingual Children

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Abstract

This paper examines how the degree of bilingualism affects metalinguistic awareness of preschool children. It contrasts partial and full bilinguals' performance in three tests: language arbitrariness test, phonological awareness test, and vocabulary test. Fifty-two kindergartners aged 5;5 to 6;7 underwent two versions of the three tests: English and Filipino. In general, full bilinguals outscored the partial bilinguals in the three metalinguistic awareness tests.

Introduction

Over the last three decades or so, bilingual education has been the subject of contentious debate as to its possible harm or potential gains. Early research on bilingualism did claim that monolinguals scored higher verbal IQ difference over bilinguals. But the studies were so laden with methodological weaknesses that they were eventually shelved and replaced by more intricate and conscientious studies on the cognitive effects of bilingualism.

Among the concerns in the study of bilingualism are the level of proficiency in both languages and the social status of the languages in contact. In order to profit from the bilingual situation, Cummins (1991) explains in his Threshold Theory that the level acquired in both

languages should not just be very high, but the languages should also be considered prestigious in the speech community.

Grosjean's standpoint of 'the bilingual as a competent but specific speaker-hearer' (1998) has out-shadowed the early research describing bilingualism as a kind of double monolingualism. He emphasizes that the bilingual speaker is not a double monolingual speaker because their speech shows characteristics (e.g. code-switching) that a monolingual speaker lacks.

Research over the past twenty years has demonstrated the association of positive cognitive gains with learning a second language in childhood (Bialystok, 1991). The proposition of most studies carried out on the effects of bilingualism is that in contrast to monolingual children, bilingual children develop cognitive advantage such as communicative sensibility, creativity and metalinguistic awareness (Baker, 1996; Jessner, 1996).

Metalinguistic awareness is "the ability to deliberately reflect on and manipulate the structural features of spoken language, treating the language system itself as an object of thought, as opposed to using the language system to comprehend and produce sentences" (Tunmer & Cole, 1985). That is, metalinguistic awareness refers to the individual's ability to understand the nature of language rather than the ability to use language to communicate meaning.

Metalinguistic awareness is considered "a key factor in the development of reading in young children" (Donaldson, 1978) and "a crucial component of cognitive development because of its documented relation to language ability, symbolic development, and

literacy skills" (Bialystok, 1991). Bilingualism enhances many metalinguistic abilities, including sensitivity to the details and structure of language, early word-referent distinction, recognition of ambiguities, control of language processing, and correction of ungrammatical sentences.

In a 1982 study by Smith and Tager-Flusberg, 36 preschoolers were given a battery of six metalinguistic tasks and two measures of language development: the Peabody Picture Vocabulary test and a sentence comprehension test. The children have been found to perform some metalinguistic judgment and the authors contend that metalinguistic awareness improves with age.

Similarly, results of the study of Flood and Menyuk (1983) indicated that reading achievement and age were positively related to metalinguistic ability. Subjects were tested on nongrammatical, anomalous and ambiguous stimulus items in sentences and passages. It was found out that they are better able to judge than produce correct forms. While ambiguity was the most difficult task, nongrammaticality was the most discriminating task. Good readers' performance on oral tasks equalled their performance on written tasks by adulthood.

Bialystok (1988) related the degree of bilingualism, that is partial and full bilingualism, to aspects of linguistic awareness in terms of their demands for analysis of knowledge or control of processing. Two studies are reported in which children differing in their level of bilingualism were given metalinguistic problems to solve that made demands on either analysis or control. The

hypotheses were that all bilingual children would perform better than monolingual children on all metalinguistic tasks requiring high levels of control of processing and that fully bilingual children would perform better than partially bilingual children on tasks requiring high levels of analysis of knowledge. The results were largely consistent with these predictions.

Eviatar and Ibrahim (2000) explored the effects of the relationships between exposure to two languages in childhood and metalinguistic awareness. Subjects were kindergartners and first graders who were Russian-Hebrew bilinguals and Hebrew monolinguals. Results show that Russian-Hebrew bilinguals had higher performance in language arbitrariness and phonological awareness tests but had lower performance in vocabulary measure as opposed to Hebrew monolinguals.

In a recent study, Bajaj, Hodson, and Schommer-Aikins (2004) tested three metalinguistic tasks to children who are not classified as partial or full bilinguals but those who and who do not stutter. Results show that children who do not stutter outperformed their less fluent peers in syntactically and semantically anomalous sentences.

In the Philippines today, majority of the children are exposed to many other languages aside from their most dominant language. Besides the influence of the immediate speech community, media play an important role in the biliungualism, if not multilingualism of children. Although Philippine television is usually aired in Tagalog, cable televisions, especially children-oriented shows, are in English. Hence, the language preference of children is dependent on the

language of the environment they are brought up to and is largely enhanced by other means, either English story books and television. For the purpose of the study, partial bilinguals are those who have better grasp in Filipino than English while full bilinguals are those who have better grasp of English than Filipino. In a nutshell, partial and full bilinguals here speak, and write to a certain extent, Filipino and English.

Thus, the study at hand aims at investigating how the degree of bilingualism, that is partial and full bilingualism, affects metalinguistic awareness of preschool children. Specifically, I would like to find out how partial and full bilinguals perform in tests of metalinguistic abilities and whether there are differences between partial and full bilinguals in these metalinguistic tasks.

Language Tests

I tested the children on two central metalinguistic abilities – the arbitrary nature of language and phonemic awareness – and on a vocabulary measure. The degree of bilingualism was determined by the teachers who have been with the children for almost six months. The bases were largely on the oral skills and reading abilities of the children before they came to school.

Language Arbitrariness

Eviatar and Ibrahim (2000) explain that language arbitrariness test imposes high demands on the control of attention and the capacity to detect and correct syntactic and semantic violations. Since

the child is expected to suppress the expected answer and stick to the rule of the game, he would eventually see the point that language is arbitrary and subject to change. The current task resembles that of Piaget (1929) which demonstrates semantic violations. Edwards and Christophersen, 1988 (in Eviatar ad Ibrahim, 2000) report better performance by bilinguals than matched monolinguals.

Phonological Awareness

Phonological awareness is measured by children's ability to identify the sounds of phonemes and to isolate or manipulate phonological segments. There are three versions of this task. The first two involve identification of first and last sounds, respectively. The third consists of deleting a phoneme or a syllable and identifying the sound of the left phonemes or syllables after the deletion. Eviatar and Ibrahim (2000) report extensive body of literature on the relationship of phonological awareness to levels of language facility, reading experience, and literacy.

Vocabulary Measure

The vocabulary test in the study is measured by the child's ability to explain a word on his own, drawing either on the function of the word or its general appearance. There are two levels in this version: easy and difficult.

The pattern of the effects of bilingualism is that bilinguals perform better in language arbitrariness and phonological awareness but lower in vocabulary measures. Since the subjects in the current

study consist of two groups: partial and full bilinguals, the hypothesis is that partial bilinguals perform better in Filipino tasks while full bilinguals perform better in English tasks.

Method

Participants

The participants were 52 children from a middle-class subdivision in the Philippines. All the participants are currently enrolled in pre-school. Most of the participants come from a pre-school inside the same subdivision. Only two of the participants attend a private school which is also near the vicinity. The age range of the children is from 5;5 to 6;7.

The participants' degree of bilingualism was determined largely from the personal and academic evaluation of the teachers in the pre-school. As kindergartners, there are only three subjects that are formally taught: English, Science and Mathematics. Although the medium of instruction used in school is English, the teachers do not strictly prescribe an English-speaking environment during class hours. Teachers usually speak with the children in English, but the kids may speak with the teachers and with each other in any language they are most comfortable at. The degree of bilingualism of the participants did not commence in the school but in the households of the kids.

Instruments

Three instruments were used in the study: the Arbitrariness test, the Phonological Awareness test, and the Vocabulary test. All

materials were patterned after Eviatar and Ibrahim's (2000) study. In addition, there are two versions of the materials: English and Filipino. The three set of tests were originally written in English and then they were translated to Filipino and were retranslated to English again for consistency and accuracy. Half of the items of all the tests were pilot tested to two children: one is younger than the age range of the participants, 5;2; and the other is older, 6;11. They were asked to mark items they think are vague and items that are relatively easy or difficult for their age. Also, the materials underwent at least three revisions as some items are either confusing, too easy, or too difficult. Both versions of the materials are included in the Appendix.

Arbitrariness test. This test was used to measure the children's knowledge of the meaning of the words or objects used in the test. It also measured their judgment of the 'soundness' of the statements.

The children were given the following instructions. "Now we are going to play a game where we switch one word for another. I will ask you questions, and you will answer after you have switched the words. For example, now we will call the sun the moon and the moon the sun. And now I ask: when you go to sleep at night, what do you see in the sky? The answer is sun since we switched it to moon.

Phonological awareness tests. This test measured the participants' consciousness of the sounds of the words which may or may not correspond with the sound of the first letter of the words. There are three sets of this test: the Initial Phoneme Detection test

and the Final Phoneme Detection test, and the Deletion Tasks. All of the words in both languages were familiar to the participants.

Initial phoneme detection. The children were asked to identify the first sound in a word spoken by the experimenter: "What is the first sound in the word _____? The test included 15 words: for example, if I say knee, what is the first sound of the word? Syllables were not accepted as correct: for example, the answer ni would be counted as incorrect; the answer n would be scored as correct.

Final phoneme detection. The children were asked to identify the last sound in a word spoken by the experimenter. "What is the last sound in the word _____?" The test included 15 words: for example, elepante (elephant). Syllables were not accepted as correct. If they answered te, it would be counted as incorrect; if they answered e, it would be counted as correct.

Deletion tasks. The experimenter said a word then repeated it and deleted either a phoneme or a syllable from either the beginning, middle, or end. The children were asked to generate the sound of the phonemes or syllables that were left. The answers may or may not be real words. There were 10 items in each test. For example: If we say the word cabinet and take off et, what is left? The answer cabin is counted as correct but cabine or cabi is incorrect.

Vocabulary test. This test was used to measure the participants' familiarity with the given words. The children were presented with words and were asked to explain what these words meant using their own words. They can describe the function, the

appearance, the taste, etc. There were two levels of the test, easy and difficult. For the easy items, the scores were either 0 for incorrect answer or 1 for correct answer. The difficult items received scores either 0 or 2. There were 10 items for each level or 20 items for the whole test. Perfect score for both levels was 30.

Procedure

The three sets of tasks were administered in four separate visits of approximately 45 minutes each. On the first visit, the children took the Language Arbitrariness test in Filipino and the Vocabulary test in English. On the second visit, the children took the Filipino three tasks of Morphological Awareness: the initial phoneme detection, final phoneme detection, and phoneme/syllable deletion. The English version of the Language Arbitrariness and the Filipino version of the Vocabulary test were undertaken on the third day. Finally, the English version of the Morphological Awareness tasks was taken. The rationale behind the partition was to avoid familiarity of the task, especially in the case of language arbitrariness since one version is the complete translation of the other. The children were also alternately tested on English and Filipino tasks.

The children were given instructions altogether in the classroom and were asked one by one in a nearby small room for the test proper. At least three examples were given for each task to ensure full understanding of the task at hand. In the testing proper, each child is again told of what to do and would be given another example if necessary. Of all the tasks, only the Vocabulary test was

tape-recorded. All participants performed the two versions of the test: English and Filipino.

Results

The results showed a comparison between partial and full bilinguals on measures of language arbitrariness, phonological awareness, and vocabulary using the Cohen *d* effect size estimate. This approach was used so that sample size ($n=52$) will not influence the comparisons. In interpreting effect size, a Cohen's *d* value of 0.0 to 0.2 is a small effect size, 0.21 to 0.5 is medium effect size, and 0.51 and above is large effect size.

Language Arbitrariness

Table 1 shows that partial bilinguals scored lower than the full bilinguals in both versions of the task. Of the ten items, the partial bilinguals ($n=26$) got a mean of 9.73 for both while the full bilinguals ($n=26$) got 9.85 and 9.88, respectively, in both versions. The trend of responses indicates that subjects usually commit error on the initial part of the task. As they progress into the task, they become more familiar with the rule of the test and thus commit lesser errors. Also noticeable of the scores is that although the two versions of the tests differed only in the language being used, whereby the English version was administered first, the scores in the Filipino test did not obtain perfect scores. However, the full bilinguals improved a bit from the English to the Filipino version of the test.

Table 1

Between Languages and between Groups Means on Language Arbitrariness Test

	Partial	Full	Total	Effect Size
Filipino	9.73	9.92	19.65	0.21
English	9.73	9.85	19.58	0.17
Total	19.46	19.77		0.17

Phonological Awareness

The three measures of phonological awareness were analyzed separately.

Initial phoneme detection. Comparison of scores between the partial and full bilinguals reveals that only a minimal discrepancy gives the full bilinguals an advantage over their counterparts. As can be seen in Table 2., the full bilinguals got a perfect mean (15) partial bilinguals got 14.7. It has been discovered that initial phoneme detection is the current lesson of the participants in their English subject.

Table 2

Between Languages and between Groups Means on Initial Phoneme Detection

	Partial	Full	Total	Effect Size
Filipino	14.8	15	29.8	0.22
English	14.8	15	29.8	0.22
Total	29.6	30		0.22

Final phoneme detection. In consistency with the previous claim that part of the success of the subjects in their performance could be attributed to the recency of the lesson undertaken in their regular English classes, participants performed quite well in the final phoneme task. A matter of .01 point was the lead of the full bilinguals over the partial bilinguals, that is, 14.7 vs. 14.8, respectively. Unlike in the initial phoneme detection, the full bilinguals did not achieve a perfect score here, as Table 3 suggests.

Table 3

Between Languages and between Groups Means on Final Phoneme Detection

	Partial	Full	Total	Effect Size
Filipino	14.7	14.8	29.5	0.11
English	14.7	14.8	29.5	0.11
Total	29.4	29.6	25.3	0.11

Deletion task. The process of deleting a phoneme or a syllable from the word has not been taken up by the participants. Of all the tasks, this one required the most number of practice. I have further discovered that a manipulation of the left phonemes or syllables of the word was rather difficult or confusing if the word is non-existent (e.g., I say classroom then take away lass, what is left?) Most of the errors of the participants fell under this item. Hence, the scores were not as high as in the initial and final phoneme detection. Also noticeable is the big difference of the scores of the groups, where the full bilinguals got a mean of 9.88 for the English version while the

partial bilinguals got 9.38 only, out of ten items. Table 4 presents the comparison for the two languages.

Table 4

Between languages and between groups means on deletion task

	Partial	Full	Total	Effect Size
Filipino	9.27	9.85	19.12	0.64
English	9.38	9.88	19.26	0.56
Total	18.65	19.73		1.2

Vocabulary test

Table 5 shows a comparison of mean scores between the partial and full bilinguals in two levels of the vocabulary task. Of the two levels and two languages, the full bilinguals outscored the partial bilinguals. In the Filipino version, the partial bilinguals got a mean of 9.69 for the easy level while the full bilinguals got 9.96. Similarly, full bilinguals got 19.65 mean and partial bilinguals got 19.3 in the difficult level. In the English version, the full bilinguals outsmarted the partial bilinguals in levels.

It was interesting to note that the explanations of the subjects in the vocabulary measure revolved around the functions of the word over general appearance. For instance, they explained the car as something they use in going to school, church, malls or any other far place, as opposed to it having wheels or being driven by their daddy. Even the damo (grass) was explained as for covering the soil so that the soil will not be seen. The expected description would have been its color which is green.

Table 5

Between Languages and between Groups Means on Vocabulary Measure

	Partial			Full			Total		
	Easy	Difficult	<i>d</i>	Easy	Difficult	<i>d</i>	Easy	Difficult	<i>d</i>
Filipino	9.69	19.3	10.68	9.96	19.8	10.93	19.65	39.1	10.8
English	9.62	18.9	10.31	9.85	19.8	11.05	19.47	38.7	10.6
Total	19.31	38.2	10.49	19.81	39.6	10.9			

Table 6 illustrates the summary of mean scores in all the three different tasks including the sub-components. Of the 10-item tasks, language arbitrariness, deletion tasks, and easy level of vocabulary measures, the deletion task was the category where the subject performed the lowest. And between the two 15-item tasks, initial phoneme and final phoneme detection, initial phoneme detection appears to be the category where the subjects performed higher.

All in all, the full bilinguals (n=26) performed better than the partial bilinguals (n=26) in all the three tasks: language arbitrariness test, phonological awareness test, and vocabulary measure.

Table 6

Summary of Results

	Partial		Full	
	Filipino	English	Filipino	English
Language Arbitrariness	9.73	9.73	9.92	9.85
Phonological Awareness				
Initial Phoneme Detection	14.8	14.8	15	15
Final Phoneme Detection	14.7	14.7	14.8	14.8
Detection task	9.27	9.38	9.85	9.88
Vocabulary Measure				
Easy Level	9.69	9.62	9.96	9.85
Difficult Level	19.3	18.9	9.85	19.8

Discussion

The results of the metalinguistic skills and vocabulary measures suggest that full bilinguals performed better than partial bilinguals. The results therefore did not support the hypothesis posed by the study where the partial bilinguals are expected to score higher than the full bilinguals in Filipino tasks, and likewise, full bilinguals to score higher in English tasks. Based on the results, full bilinguals scored higher in both Filipino and English versions of the task.

While the grouping of the participants was largely influenced by the teachers' assessment of the oral skills of the children in either language, results seem to suggest that the degree of bilingualism of the children is associated with their cognitive skills. These results are

consistent with earlier findings that bilinguals outperform their matched monolinguals in metalinguistic abilities (e.g., Bialistok, 1988; Baker, 1996). Also, the findings here concur that of Galambos and Goldin-Meadow (1990) that experience of two languages hastens the development of certain metalinguistic skills in young children. And since the judgment of the teachers of the degree of bilingualism of the participants is based largely from the fluency of the children in speaking English, the results of the current study are also in consonance with Bajaj and Schommer-Aikins (2004) findings on the metalinguistic awareness of children who and who do not stutter.

However, the findings of the study at hand do not converge with the existing literature on the size of vocabulary between bilinguals and monolinguals, that is monolinguals have larger vocabulary than bilinguals. Results of the study suggest that full bilinguals have larger vocabulary than the partial bilinguals.

In summary, the experiment reported here was designed to explore the effects of bilingualism, that is partial and full bilingualism, in the metalinguistic skills and vocabulary measures of preschool children. Given the findings of the study, it is highly recommended there be a more systematic way of determining the degree of bilingualism of children. Other means such as reading comprehension tests, self-reports, and parents' reports be utilized in the process of grouping the participants. Other factors should also be considered such as the amount of exposure to English, the language ability or preference of the community where the participants belong to, and others.

As for the potential researchers on this area, it is recommended that other language tests be designed to really determine the metalinguistic awareness of Filipino bilingual children.

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APPENDIX 1A**TEST OF LANGUAGE ARBITRARINESS***Filipino Version*

Panuto: Ngayon maglalaro tayo kung saan pagpapalitin natin ang mga salita. Tatanungin ko kayo at sasagutin niyo pagkatapos niyong pagpalitin ang mga salita. Halimbawa, tatawagin natin ang araw na buwan at ang buwan na araw. Ngayon, tatanungin ko kayo: Pagtulog niyo mamayang gabi, ano ang makikita niyo sa langit?

1. Ngayon tatawagin natin ang barko na eroplano at ang eroplano na barko. Alin ang nakikita natin sa dagat? _____
2. Ngayon tatawagin natin ang malinis na madumi at ang madumi na malinis. Pagkatapos kong mahulog sa putikan, ang aking damit ay naging _____.
3. Ngayon tatawagin natin ang bulaklak na eskwelahan at ang eskwelahan na bulaklak. Saan kayo pumupunta tuwing umaga?

4. Ngayon tatawagin natin ang silya na kotse at ang kotse na silya.
Kapag kumakain kami, ang aking bunsong kapatid ay pinauupo sa maliit na _____

5. Ngayon tatawagin natin ang pusa na daga at ang daga na pusa.

Alin ang gumagawa ng ingay na meow? _____

6. Ngayon tatawagin natin ang babae na lalaki at ang lalaki na babae.

Ang mga magulang ay bumili ng bestida para sa anak na _____

7. Ngayon tatawagin natin ang punongkahoy na libro at ang libro na punongkahoy. Ano ang itinanim ni Daddy sa likod-bahay?

8. Ngayon tatawagin natin ang bisikleta na unan at ang unan na bisikleta. Ano ang ginagamit natin sa pagtulog?

9. Ngayon tatawagin natin ang tuwalya na sumbrero at ang sumbrero na tuwalya. Pagkatapos nating maligo, ano ang kailangan natin? _____

10. Ngayon tatawagin natin ang itim na puti at ang puti na itim. Ang kulay ng ating buhok ay _____.

APPENDIX 1B**TEST OF LANGUAGE ARBITRARINESS**

English Version

Instructions: Now we are going to play a game where we switch one word for another. I will ask you questions, and you will answer after you have switched the words. For example, now we will call the sun

the moon and the moon the sun. And now I ask: when you go to sleep at night, what do you see in the sky? The answer is _____.

1. Now we will call a ship a plane and a plane a ship.

What floats on the sea? _____

2. Now we call clean dirty and dirty clean.

After I fell in the mud my clothes became _____.

3. Now we call the flower school and the school flower.

Where do you go every morning? _____

4. Now we call a chair a car and a car a chair.

When we eat, my little sister usually sits on a small _____

5. Now we will call a cat a mouse and a mouse a cat.

Who meows? _____

6. Now we will call a girl a boy and a boy a girl.

The parents bought a birthday dress for the little _____

7. Now we will call a tree a book and a book a tree.

What did Daddy plant in the backyard? _____

8. Now we will call a bicycle a pillow and a pillow a bicycle.

What do we use when we sleep? _____

9. Now we call a hat a towel and a towel a hat.

After taking a bath, what do we need? _____

10. Now we will call white black and black white.

The color of our hair is _____.

APPENDIX 2A***PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS TESTS***

Filipino Version

Initial phoneme detection

Panuto: Babasahin ko ang ilang salita at sabihin kung ano ang tunog ng unang letra. Halimbawa: butiki – nagsisimula ito sa anong tunog?

Filipino	English counterpart
1. panyo	handkerchief
2. salamin	mirror
3. walis	broom
4. malakas	strong
5. apoy	fire
6. tinapay	bread
7. babae	girl
8. gutom	hungry
9. hangin	wind
10. kanta	song
11. limos	alms
12. ipis	cockroach
13. relo	watch
14. damo	grass
15. uod	worm

APPENDIX 2B***PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS TESTS***

Filipino Version

Final Phoneme Detection

Panuto: Babasahin ko ang ilang salita at sabihin kung ano ang tunog ng huling letra. Halimbawa: butiki – nagtatapos ito sa anong tunog?

	Filipino	English Counterpart
1.	ubas	grapes
2.	usok	smoke
3.	alitaptap	firefly
4.	ilong	nose
5.	apoy	fire
6.	papel	paper
7.	elepante	elephant
8.	gutom	hungry
9.	dahon	leaf
10.	mapait	bitter
11.	tubig	water
12.	lugaw	porridge
13.	regalo	gift
14.	uod	worm
15.	ugat	root

APPENDIX 3A***PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS TESTS***

Filipino Version

Deletion tasks

Instructions: I will say a word then I will take away part of it, and you will tell me what is left. For example: if I say MARKET and take away ARK, what is left?

Say	Take away
pantalon	pan
bakod	bak
kabayo	yo
nunal	nu
talong	tal
tinapay	pa
kambing	kam
tulog	log
kahon	ka
halaman	ha

APPENDIX 3B***PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS TESTS***

English Version

Initial phoneme detection

Instructions: I will read out some words and determine the initial (phoneme) sound. Example: I will say, giraffe, what is the initial sound?

1. ghost
2. bottle
3. camera
4. knee
5. window
6. lamp
7. table
8. octopus
9. kangaroo
10. ice cream
11. hamburger
12. envelop
13. father
14. mother
15. video

APPENDIX 4A***PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS TESTS***

English Version

Final Phoneme Detection

Instructions: I will read out some words and determine the final (phoneme) sound. Example: I will say, 'graph', what is the final sound?

1. telephone
2. apple
3. monitor
4. book
5. child
6. carabao
7. horse
8. swing
9. white
10. cloud
11. bag
12. picture
13. juice
14. alphabet
15. play

APPENDIX 4B***PHONOLOGICAL AWARENESS TESTS***

English Version

Deletion Tasks

Instructions: I will say a word then I will take away part of it, and you will tell me what is left. For example: if I say MARKET and take away ARK, what is left?

Say	Take away
table	t
animal	al
folder	er
carrot	car
classroom	lass
cabinet	et
garden	de
slippers	pers
powder	der
banana	ban

APPENDIX 5A***VOCABULARY TEST***

Filipino Version

Panuto: Magsasabi ako ng ilang salita at sasabihin niyo sa akin kung ano ang ibig sabihin o ipaliliwanag niyo kung ano ito. Halimbawa: sasabihin ko, medias, sasabihin niyo, isisusuot ito sa paa.

Madali:

1. bola
2. mesa
3. tubig
4. ulap
5. sabon
6. susi
7. papel
8. damo
9. putik
10. dahon

Mahirap:

1. kumot
2. bundok
3. kalsada
4. usok
5. unggoy
6. buntot
7. dingding
8. kutsilyo
9. baha
10. likod

APPENDIX 5B***VOCABULARY TEST***

English Version

Instruction: I will tell some words then give me the meaning or explain what they mean. Example: I will say, socks, you will say, they are worn on the feet.

Easy:

1. pencil
2. house
3. bicycle
4. car
5. plate
6. chocolates
7. clouds
8. ant
9. butterfly
10. box

Difficult:

1. bracelet
2. sink
3. wheels
4. train
5. mouse
6. stairs
7. icing
8. sharpener
9. sandals
10. flag

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Testing and Reducing L2 Vocabulary Learning Strategies Inventory Using Rasch Model

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Abstract

The Second Language Vocabulary Learning Strategies Inventory (L2VLSI) instrument developed based on the framework of Schmitt (1997) has been intensively studied using the Classical Test Theory. This study was conducted to further test and refine the L2VLSI using the Rasch model. The refined instrument, called L2VLSI-R, was subjected to Rasch recalibration using the testing and validation samples. In addition, using the validation sample, the refined instrument was subjected to validation study through the latent structure methodology. Results of the Rasch analysis revealed that: the full form of L2VLSI fitted significantly the Rasch rating scale model; the 6-point scoring system of the instrument demonstrated logical order; the full form was successfully refined by removing the five misfit items; both the full form and L2VLSI-R have high reliability; the L2VLSI-R fitted significantly the hierarchical factor model; and the Rasch calibrations showed consistency between the two samples.

Introduction

For decades, there has been a paradigm shift in the realm of second language (L2) acquisition and instruction. At present, researchers put more premium on the learners and how they learn

not so much on the teachers and how they teach. Researchers that deal with foreign language learning are more interested in how learners process latest information and what strategies they use in comprehending texts and restoring information (Arani, 2005). They are prompted by the notion that understanding the way people learn is so significant and is the key to educational reform (Riazi, 2007).

Oxford (1990) for example, endeavored to present a very comprehensive taxonomy or classifications of language learning strategies. He developed the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), a self-reporting questionnaire specifically designed for students of English as a second or foreign language (Ok, 2002). It assesses frequency with which the respondents use an array of techniques for foreign language learning using a five-point Likert scale ranging from “never” to “almost never true” to “always” or “almost always true”. Because of its internal consistency tested worldwide, the SILL has been adopted by many researchers and has been translated into other languages e.g. Chinese (Yang, 1992) and Korean (Oh, 1992).

The six categories namely memory strategies (for restoring and retrieving new information); cognitive strategies (for manipulating and transforming materials); compensation strategies (for overcoming deficiencies of knowledge in language); metacognitive strategies (for directing the learning process); affective strategies (for regulating emotions) and social strategies (for increasing learning experience with other people), are all represented in the 50-item SILL questions that Oxford devised. Researchers who utilize the SILL as their

primary tool in gathering baseline data also incorporate items that aim to describe the respondents' robotfoto or demographic profile and sometimes propose a modified taxonomy. For instance, Schmitt (1997) introduced another category which he termed as determination strategies and excluded affective and compensation strategies as categories and shifted some of the strategies to other groups. His taxonomy, however, can be standardized as a test and utilized to easily elicit answers from students and with learners of diverse educational backgrounds and target languages. Further, Schmitt's classification is anchored on the theory of learning strategies and theories of memory, technologically simple, rich and sensitive to a variety of learning strategies and allows comparison with other studies (Jurkovic, 2006). Schmitt's framework has been accepted and adopted by those whose interest centers on L2 learning and has provided a different perspective for language acquisition.

Trail blazed by Schmitt's model, Bernardo (2008) developed a 53-item instrument called "L2 Vocabulary Learning Strategies Inventory (L2VLSI)" used in his research "Vocabulary Learning Strategies across Five Disciplines". The instrument consisted of five correlative parts encompassing the categorizations purported by Schmitt namely determination strategies, social strategies, memory strategies, cognitive strategies and metacognitive strategies. As a requirement, the psychometric properties of the instrument were studied including validity and reliability using the classical test theory (CTT) approach. However, the researcher believed that the use of CTT may result in two major conceptual limitations. Prieto et al,

(2003) described these as (1) the lack of an explicit ordered continuum of items and persons that represent a unidimensional construct, and (2) the lack of additivity of rating scale data. Thus, it is difficult to judge whether a person with a certain score will have a problem on a particular item because the items and persons are calibrated in different scales. Caveziel (2004) also pointed out that the assumption that the response category used by instrument developers is the most appropriate is also often unrealistic. Because of this, CTT cannot solve some measurement issues such as response order (logical ordering of the response categories), additivity which requires unidimensionality of the measurement, and differential item functioning (DIF) (assessing the effect of external factors) (Mc Horney, 1997; Michell, 2003; Tesio, 2003; as cited in Nijsten et al., 2006).

Interestingly, the problems that may arise due to the limitations of CTT can be solved using the Rasch approach (Rasch, 1980). While the items and persons are calibrated in different scales in the context of CTT, both items and persons are calibrated on a common continuum based on the amount of traits possessed by each other (Bond & Fox, 2007; Caveziel, 2004). Rasch models are probabilistic mathematical models and under these model expectations, a person with higher ability always has a higher probability of endorsement or success on any item than a person with lower ability. Likewise, a more difficult item always has a lower probability of endorsement or success than a less difficult item, regardless of person ability (Bond & Fox, 2007).

The use of Rasch model also allows predictions of how persons

at each level of ability are expected to do on each item. This capability of having estimates for the item difficulty and person ability levels enables one to detect anomalies, such as someone failing to endorse the five easiest items while endorsing the five most difficult items. Taking into account the strength of Rasch model and its advantages over the traditional CTT approach and the necessity of statistically improving the L2VLSI, this research was conducted to ascertain that the instrument is valid and reliable not only in the judgment of traditional CTT approach but also in the ruling of an unconventional mode.

Objectives

As described by Waugh (2003), Rasch analysis is a set of techniques and models for measuring a latent variable on an interval scale and to place on the same axe the person's ability and the item's difficulty. Considering the weaknesses of CTT, the proponents deemed the revalidation the L2VLSI using the Rasch modeling approach imperative.

The objective of the present study was fourth-fold: First, to find a Rasch model that best explains the L2VLSI instrument i.e. to obtain a meaningful valuation of the student and item measures through Rasch analysis since in this context, it is important that the data fit the chosen model.

Second, to obtain a reduced version of the L2VLSI that fits the chosen Rasch model. Rasch analysis is one among the most commonly used item response theory models to create new or test or

reduce existing instruments (Nijsten et al., 2006). A number of researches (Nijsten et al., 2006; Smith, 2007; Wong, 2007) showed that Rasch analysis could successfully reduce the number of items of existing instruments developed using CTT approach. Shorter instruments as stressed by Prieto et al. (2003) have been proven advantageous, both in practice and research since questionnaires may require excessive interviewer time, or may be inappropriate if the target respondent is unable to participate in a lengthy procedure. In order to reduce the burden of response, shorter instruments might also prove beneficial when administered as part of a multipurpose battery of different questionnaire, or when repeat assessments are required.

Third, to investigate whether the reduced form (called L2VLSI-R) behave psychometrically well in terms of validity and reliability according to the criteria of CTT approach and fourth, to test if the Rasch calibrations are consistent between the testing sample and validation sample.

Method

Participants

Two samples ($n_1=370$ and $n_2 =390$) were used in the study. The testing sample (n_1) was used for testing and reducing the L2VLSI while the validation sample (n_2), was used for validation. The respondents from five colleges namely College of Liberal Arts, College of Education, College of Nursing, College of Hotel and Restaurant Management, and College of Business Education were

first to fourth year students of the University of Regina Carmeli who took English subjects during the second semester of SY 2007-2008 (for the testing sample) and first semester of SY 2008-2009 (for the validation sample). The respondents were 16 to 21 years of age. There was also a preponderance of female respondents in both samples ($n_1 = 74\%$ and $n_2 = 83\%$). About 79% of the development sample and 83% of the validation sample assessed themselves as good to very good in speaking and/or writing English.

Procedure

Permission to administer the L2VLSI instrument was sought from the deans of the five colleges. The respondents were asked to go to the designated testing place by courses or majors. Four English teachers were requested to assist the researcher in administering the L2VLSI questionnaire.

Instrument

The 53-item L2VLSI instrument developed by Bernardo (2008) is a self-administered instrument used to measure the strategies employed by students in learning English vocabulary. The 53 items were written utilizing the 6-point Likert scale scoring system interpreted as never (1), seldom (2), occasionally (3), often (4), usually (5) and always (6). The 53 items were classified according to Schmitt's taxonomy of learning strategies subcategorized as metacognitive (5 items), cognitive (9 items), determination (7 items), social (8 items), and memory (24 items).

As mentioned, metacognitive strategies are techniques which involve thinking about the learning process, planning for learning, monitoring of comprehension or production while it is taking place and self-evaluation after the learning activities have been completed; cognitive strategies are strategies which are more directly related to individual learning tasks and entail direct manipulation or transformation of the learning materials (Brown & Palincsar, 1982, in: Gallo-Crail and Zarwekh, 2002); determination strategies are techniques employed to discover new word's meaning by guessing and using reference materials; social strategies are cooperative learning activities used to discover new word's meaning by asking someone who knows it (Arani, 2005); and memory strategies are those that involve associating new language information with familiar concepts deemed to help strengthen comprehension as well as make new words easier to remember (Gallo-Crail & Zerwekh, 2002).

The data revealed that the Cronbach's alpha was .86 for the entire L2VLSI instrument and .81 to .85 for the five learning strategies. The L2VLSI items were found to statistically fit the hierarchical factor model with a unidimensional learning strategies factor on the second order and five factors on the first order.

Data Analysis

Basic Rasch model is a dichotomous response model (Wright & Stone, 1979), which represents the conditional probability of a binary outcome as functions of a person's trait level (B) and an item's

difficulty level (D):

$$P(x = 1) = \frac{e^{B_n - D_i}}{1 + e^{B_n - D_i}},$$

where $P(x = 1)$ is the probability of an endorsed response (“yes” response to an item), B_n is the trait parameter of person n , and D_i is the difficulty of endorsing item i . When $B_n > D_i$, $B_n = D_i$, and $B_n < D_i$, the chance of a “correct” response is greater than 50%, equal to 50%, and less than 50%, respectively.

A major advantage of the Rasch model is that the trait levels and item difficulty levels are placed on a common metric (logit); thus, a direct comparison of these two parameters can be done. In the Rasch model, all items are assumed to have equal discriminating power. It has been found to be robust to departures from the equal discrimination assumption (Dinero & Haertel, 1977). Another important theoretical merit of the Rasch model is its “specific objectivity” (Rasch, 1977), which means that the comparison of the difficulty of two items should not depend on the ability levels of the persons used to measure the difficulty on the items and, also, that the comparison of the ability of two persons should not depend on the difficulties of the items used to measure the ability of the persons.

The Rasch model can be generalized to polytomous items with ordered categories. The formulation of an extended Rasch model includes the rating scale model (RSM) (Andrich, 1978) and partial credit model (PCM) (Masters, 1982). The PCM was originally developed for analyzing achievement test items that include multiple solving steps, in which partial credit can be assigned for completing

several steps in the solution process (Embretson & Reise, 2000). The PCM is also useful for analyzing attitude or personality scale responses. Assuming that item i is scored $x = 1, 2, \dots, m$ for $x = j$, the PCM can be expressed mathematically as

$$P_{Xni} = \frac{\exp[\sum_{j=1}^X (B_n - D_{ij})]}{\sum_{k=1}^{mj} [\exp \sum_{j=1}^X (B_n - D_{ij})]},$$

where the D_{ij} term is called the item step difficulty associated with category j . In the PCM, the D_{ij} parameter represents the relative difficulty of each step. Thus, the higher the value of a particular D_{ij} , the greater the difficulty level of a particular step relative to other steps within an item (Bond & Fox, 2007). On the other hand, the RSM is a subset of the PCM because it restricts the step structure to being the same for all items (Wright & Masters, 1982). In the RSM, a common set of D_{ij} parameters is estimated. The parameter D_{ij} , step calibration, is also known as the threshold (Andrich, 1978). The RSM is useful when psychological distances between categories are the same for all items. Since Likert scales can be modeled according to either PCM or RSM, it is necessary to determine which polytomous Rasch model and respective set of estimated parameters best explains the data. To choose an appropriate model, several estimates obtained from the PCM and the RSM are also compared.

Unidimensionality Analysis. Before the selection of the Rasch model that best explains the L2VLSI items, the dimensionality was

first evaluated. Dimensionality is considered the most critical and basic assumption of Rasch model. The evaluation of the unidimensionality was performed using exploratory factor analysis for ordered polytomous data through the unweighted least squares method available in SPSS Inc. (2008). The items are roughly unidimensional if the first eigenvalue is relatively large in comparison to the second eigenvalue and if the second eigenvalue is not much larger than any of the other eigenvalues (Hambleton & Traub, 1973; Lord, 1980).

To support the findings of the exploratory factor analysis, the Rasch unidimensionality coefficient was computed. The coefficient was formulated by Wright (1994) expressed as: $R(\text{unidimensionality}) = R(\text{real})/R(\text{model})$, where $R(\text{real})$ is the person separation reliability using real (misfit-inflated) standard errors and $R(\text{model})$ is the person separation reliability using model (asymptotic) standard errors. This reliability coefficient can be interpreted in the same way as a conventional reliability coefficient. Values above 0.9 indicate a clearly unidimensional variable and values below 0.5 might be a cause for alarm (Wright, 1994).

The Rasch Principal Component Analysis (RPCA) was also performed to further uncover possible multidimensionality in the data. In this analysis, the percentage of explained variance of the first residual factor and the percentage of unexplained variance explained by the first contrast were reported. Unidimensionality of the L2VLSI items can be considered enough for Rasch analysis requirement if the variance explained of the first residual factor exceeds 60% and the

unexplained variance explained by the first contrast is below 5% (Linacre, 2008). Whether the foregoing rule of thumb is met or not, the latent correlation was computed to determine if the 53 items need to be split into two subtests. The items that belong to each subtest were determined based on the positive and negative eigenvalue loadings on the first residual contrast. The latent correlation is defined as (Linacre, 2008): $Latent\ correlation = C/\sqrt{R1 \cdot R2}$, where C is the Pearson correlation of the person measures of the two subtests and R1 and R2 are person reliabilities of the two subtests. The unidimensionality of the L2VLSI items is enough for the Rasch analysis requirement if the latent correlation is close to 1.00.

Response Category Analysis. The common Rasch response category diagnostics were utilized to examine how the students used the 6-point response categories of the L2VLSI. The most common diagnostics focus on the category thresholds, that is, the estimated difficulties in choosing one response over the other (e.g., the difficulty in choosing *strongly agree* over *agree*; Wright and Master, 1982). Thresholds should increase monotonically (i.e., should be ordered in the same manner as intended by the item developers) and should be appropriately distanced from one another if the items are to measure distinct and meaningful progression along the variable. To determine if the response categories are appropriately distanced from one another, the thresholds of the two adjacent categories were then tested for significant difference using t-test.

Another response scale diagnostic used the average measures. Like the category thresholds, average measures should increase monotonically.

Reliability and Separation Analyses. To determine the level of distinction possible among persons and items along the measured variable, the Rasch person and item separation (G) for the entire L2VLSI instrument were examined. Separation is the estimate of the spread or separation of items (or persons) on the measured variable. It is expressed in standard error units, that is, the adjusted item (or person) standard deviation divided by the average measurement error (Bond & Fox, 2007). The Rasch separation statistics were transformed into strata index, which determines the number of statistically different levels of person ability that are distinguished by the items ($\text{strata} = (4G + 1)/3$; Wright and Masters, 1982). A separation of 2.0 (equivalent to 3 strata) is considered to be the minimum acceptable value (Wright & Masters, 1982). Person-item maps were also examined to help with the interpretation of the person and item separation statistics as well as to understand item ordering, sampling, and measurement gaps.

Rasch reliability statistics were also examined to determine the reproducibility of relative item and person measure location. The person reliability is equivalent to the traditional "test" reliability, while item reliability has no traditional equivalent. Low item reliability means that the sample size is too small for stable item estimates based on the current data. The L2VLSI instrument as a whole is considered reliable and can discriminate the sample into

enough levels if the person reliability is equal to .80 or higher; and the sample is big enough to precisely locate the items on the Rasch dimension if the item reliability is .80 or higher.

Item fit analysis. The fit of the 53 items of the L2VLSI to the Rasch model was examined. Items with a mean square fit between 0.6 and 1.4 were considered to have acceptable fit per criteria for rating scale (Likert/survey) type of instrument (Bond & Fox, 2007). For clarity, the mean square fit is an index of fit of an item to the Rasch model, determined by averaging the squared residual for each person-item combination (averaging across all participants for a given item). Mean square fit is determined for both infit and outfit: Outfit which is based on the conventional chi-square statistics, is more sensitive to unexpected observations by persons on items that are relatively very easy or very hard for them (and *vice-versa*), whereas infit, which is based on the chi-square statistics with each observation weighted by its statistical information (model variance), is more sensitive to unexpected patterns of observations by persons on items that are roughly targeted on them (and *vice-versa*) (Linacre, 2008). Items with insufficient fit with the Rasch model were removed from the L2VLSI instrument. The retained items were recalibrated using the testing sample. The retained items were considered items in the reduced form of the L2VLSI, called L2VLSI-R.

Reliability and Validation Analysis. The reduced form and the full form were subjected to reliability and validation analyses using the validation sample. To test reliability, Cronbach alpha was

computed for each of the five subscales (learning strategies) and the entire reduced instrument.

Two validation analyses were conducted. First, the appropriateness and comparative fit of the various latent structure models were tested for the full form and the reduced form. That is, both forms were fitted to the three structural models (hierarchical factor model, oblique 5-factor model, and orthogonal 5-factor model); then, the best model for each form was chosen. The fit statistics used were root mean square error approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), chi-square, and Akaike's Information criterion (AIC). The criteria used in the selection of the best structural model were (Muller, 2003): RMSEA <.08; CFI > .90; chi-square; and AIC.

Second, using the validation sample, the correlation between the best structural models for the L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R were computed to test for the concurrent validity. Third, the consistency of Rasch calibrations was tested between the testing and validation samples. Following the suggestions of Wright and Masters (1982), the items in the L2VLSI-R were calibrated using the validation sample. Afterwards, the correlation (r) of the item measures between the samples was compared with the maximum possible correlation (R_{\max}) between samples via Fisher's transformation. The maximum possible correlation is expressed as:

$$R_{\max} = 1 - [(L - 1) / L] \left[\sum_{i=1}^L (S_1^2 + S_2^2) / \sum_{i=1}^L (d_1^2 + d_2^2) \right],$$

where L is the total number of items on the instrument, S is the standard error for an item, and d is the item measure for an item.

Results

As discussed in the previous section, the data were fitted to two Rasch competing models: Rating Scale Model (RSM) and Partial Credit Model (PCM). Results revealed that the data significantly fitted the RSM ($\chi^2 = 55007.01, p < 0.05$) and PCM ($\chi^2 = 54304.24, p < 0.05$). However, the RSM was the best choice because it was significantly better than the PCM ($\chi^2 = 702.77, p < .05$) and because all items shared the same rating scale structure which conform the basic assumption of the RSM (Linacre, 2008).

On unidimensionality.. The exploratory factor analysis of the raw data using the unweighted least squares method yielded the following eigenvalues for the first, second, third and fourth factors respectively: 17.85, 3.72, 1.65, and 2.61. The first eigenvalue is relatively larger in comparison to the other eigenvalues while the second eigenvalue is not much larger than the other two eigenvalues. Following the recommendation of Hambleton & Traub (1973) and Lord (1980), such results suggest that deviation from multidimensionality of the data is tolerable and acceptable enough for the Rasch analysis requirement of unidimensionality. On the other hand, the computed unidimensionality coefficient was 0.92, suggesting that the Rasch dimension being investigated is unidimensional enough for the Rasch analysis requirement. In addition, the Rasch PCA revealed that the Rasch dimension explained about 61% of the variance and the unexplained variance explained by the first contrast was 4.9%, suggesting that multidimensionality is

tolerable and thus unidimensionality can be assumed. Moreover, the latent coefficient of .96 suggests that the 53 items need not be split into subtests and thus unidimensionality of the L2VLSI items can be assumed. It is important to note that although the L2VLSI instrument consisted of five dimensions, Bernardo (2008) found that the L2VLSI items were best represented by a hierarchical structure with a unidimensional learning strategies factor on the second order followed by five factors on the first order.

On response category. It is often the case that respondents fail to react to a rating scale in the manner in which the test constructor intended (Roberts, 1994). Because it is always uncertain how a rating scale was used by individuals in a sample, an investigation of the functioning of the rating scale is always necessary (Linacre, 2002) and can be done with the Rasch analysis. In the Rasch analysis, a useful diagnostic in evaluating category usage is to examine the average measure and threshold of each category. The average measures across categories represent the empirical averages of the measure (Rasch trait or ability score) that are modeled to produce the responses observed in each category (Linacre & Wright, 1998). Because observations in higher categories must be produced by higher measures, the average measures across categories must increase monotonically. The thresholds indicate the measures at which adjacent categories are equally probable and thus define the boundaries between the categories. Therefore, the thresholds, too, should increase monotonically.

For the 6-point scale of the 53-item L2VLSI, the average

measure increased with the category label (Table 1.0), suggesting that the rating scale categorization is satisfactory. As indicated in the same table, the thresholds increase monotonically and the t-statistics are highly significant ($|t| > 2$ or $p < 0.05$), indicating that the thresholds of the adjacent categories are significantly different.

On separation and reliability. Overall, Rasch person and item separation statistics ($G=4.34$ and 9.00 , respectively) showed a high level of distinction among persons and items along the measured variable. The person separation of 4.34 translates into six statistically distinct strata, whereas the item separation of 9.0 translates into 12 distinct strata. Person and item reliabilities were also high as expected corresponding respectively to alpha values of $.99$ and $.95$, undoubtedly because of the length of the instrument.

On item fit. After estimating Rasch calibrations for each item and each person, the items were examined for their fit to the Rasch model. As shown in Table 2, 48 of the 53 items of L2VLSI fitted the Rasch model as gauged by their infit and outfit indices that fall within the $.60$ - 1.4 range. The three items (items 14, 44, and 48) misfitted the Rasch model because their fit indices were greater than 1.40 . Items 8 and 11 were also categorized as misfit items because their fit indices of 1.39 are marginal. Hence, these four items were removed from the full L2VLSI instrument. This means that the Rasch-derived L2VLSI (called L2VLSI-R) consisted of the 48 retained items which are distributed to the five vocabulary learning strategies; seven items for determination strategies; five for social strategies; 24 for memory strategies; seven for cognitive strategies; and five for metacognitive

strategies. Calibration of the L2VLSI-R items using the testing sample revealed that all the 48 items were well fitted to the Rasch model. This finding however, is not surprising because in Rasch model, the item characteristics are independent of those of other items in the instrument.

Two important improvements occurred with the calibration of the L2VLSI-R items using the testing sample. First, the unidimensionality level was more favorable for the L2VLSI-R instrument because the variance explained in the Rasch dimension increased by almost 3% from 61 to 63.76% , while the unexplained variance explained by the first contrast decreased by 2% from 4.9 to 4.7%. The improved unidimensionality level suggests that the L2VLSI-R is more appropriate for Rasch calibration than the full version. Second, the chi-square statistics (global goodness-of-fit index) reduced significantly by 5728.93 square logits from 55007.01 for the full version to 49278.08 for the L2VLSI-R. The significant reduction in the chi-square statistics suggests that the L2VLSI-R fits better to the Rasch model than the full version.

Table 1

Average measures, thresholds and t-statistic for each two adjacent thresholds

Categories	Average Measure	Threshold	t-value		
1	-3.05	none			
2	-1.38	-1.77			
3	-0.36	-.52	-13.36*	-5.53*	
4	0.44	-.01			
5	1.39	.78		-8.47*	-7.78*
6	2.88	1.51			

* t-test is significant at 0.001 level.

Table 2.0

Item fit statistics, item measures, and standard deviation for the L2VLSI (Full form)
(Testing sample, $n=370$)

Item no. and item ^a	Item Level		Infit		Outfit		r_{pb}
	δ	SE	M	Z	M	Z	
1(1) Analyzing Parts of speech	-0.23	0.05	0.93	-1.04	0.98	-0.21	0.40
2(2) Use Structural Analysis	-0.26	0.05	1.09	1.25	1.10	1.42	0.40
3(3) Looking for Similar English and Tagalog words	-0.32	0.05	1.03	0.51	1.06	0.88	0.41
4(4) Use of Pictorials and Gestures	-0.36	0.05	0.89	-1.71	0.89	-1.39	0.48
5(5) Use of Contextual Clues	-0.54	0.05	0.94	-0.87	0.93	-0.98	0.46
6(6) Use of Dictionary	-0.97	0.05	1.25	3.33	1.25	3.28	0.36
7(7) Use of Word Lists and Flashcards	0.41	0.05	1.04	0.56	1.03	0.50	0.46
9(8) Asking for Paraphrases or Synonyms	0.24	0.05	0.96	-0.57	0.97	-0.45	0.45
10(9) Asking for Sentence with the New Word	0.09	0.05	1.00	-0.02	1.02	0.34	0.47
12(10) Engaging in Group Activities	-0.61	0.05	1.01	0.18	1.03	0.48	0.44
13(11) Practicing Meaning in a Group	-0.03	0.05	1.00	0.09	1.00	-0.03	0.50
15(12) Talking to People Who Speak English	-0.20	0.05	0.93	-0.97	0.94	-0.93	0.52
16(13) Use of Pictorial Representations	0.07	0.05	0.80	-3.11	0.79	-3.34	0.62
17(14) Imagining Word Meanings	-0.09	0.05	0.78	-3.56	0.78	-3.40	0.65
18(15) Connecting Words to Personal Experience	-0.39	0.05	0.80	-3.10	0.79	-3.31	0.56
19(16) Word Associations	-0.38	0.05	0.73	-4.32	0.73	-4.34	0.59
20(17) Connecting Words with Synonyms and Antonyms	-0.19	0.05	0.83	-2.58	0.83	-2.57	0.59
21(18) Using Semantic Maps	0.95	0.06	1.02	0.30	1.00	0.01	0.55
22(19) Grouping Words Together	0.05	0.05	0.78	-3.47	0.78	-3.37	0.65
23(20) Grouping Words Spatially	0.44	0.05	0.66	-5.50	0.66	-5.52	0.65
24(21) Using Words in Sentences	-0.07	0.05	0.71	-4.81	0.70	-4.86	0.60
25(22) Grouping Words within Storylines	0.29	0.05	0.62	-6.32	0.63	-6.12	0.70
26(23) Studying Word Spelling	-0.78	0.05	0.91	-1.34	0.90	-1.46	0.51
27(24) Studying Word Sound	-0.68	0.05	0.92	-1.18	0.90	-1.48	0.52
28(25) Saying New Words Aloud	-0.09	0.05	0.97	-0.43	0.98	-0.33	0.60
29(26) Making Images of Word Form	0.25	0.05	0.87	-1.93	0.86	-2.03	0.65
30(27) Underlining Initial Letters of Words	0.39	0.05	1.10	1.47	1.09	1.27	0.62
31(28) Using Configuration Clues	0.33	0.05	0.89	-1.60	0.87	-1.94	0.62
32(29) Word Clining	0.67	0.05	0.77	-3.46	0.74	-3.83	0.68
33(30) Using Keywords	-0.18	0.05	1.16	2.33	1.15	2.15	0.49
34(31) Remembering Affixes and Roots	-0.16	0.05	1.02	0.25	1.00	-0.04	0.54
35(32) Remembering Part of Speech	-0.35	0.05	0.98	-0.33	0.97	-0.48	0.51
36(33) Paraphrasing	-0.05	0.05	0.69	-5.08	0.68	-5.32	0.67
37(34) Learning Words of an Idiom Together	-0.01	0.05	0.70	-5.00	0.70	-4.98	0.65
38(35) Using Physical Actions	0.15	0.05	0.88	-1.76	0.87	-2.00	0.66
39(36) Using semantic Feature Grids	0.66	0.05	0.94	-0.90	0.92	-1.14	0.63
40(37) Oral Repetition	-0.07	0.05	1.07	1.01	1.07	1.03	0.53
41(38) Rewriting Words	0.06	0.05	0.85	-2.22	0.89	-1.61	0.63
42(39) Word List Making	0.37	0.05	1.05	0.79	1.03	0.44	0.63
43(40) Using Flashcards	1.10	0.06	1.29	3.48	1.25	3.08	0.43
45(41) Using Vocabulary Section of Books	-0.27	0.05	1.16	2.26	1.13	2.13	0.51
46(42) Listening to Tape of Word Lists	0.75	0.05	1.23	3.01	1.18	2.35	0.59
47(43) Labeling Physical Objects	0.43	0.05	1.11	1.53	1.10	1.39	0.63
49(44) Use of Language Media	-0.91	0.05	1.28	3.71	1.29	3.81	0.46
50(45) Answering Word Tests	-0.19	0.05	1.12	1.67	1.10	1.39	0.57
51(46) Using Speed Word Practice	0.15	0.05	1.02	0.27	0.99	-0.05	0.64
52(47) Skimming	0.50	0.05	1.29	3.71	1.25	3.29	0.55
53(48) Studying Words Over Time	-0.19	0.05	1.02	0.38	1.04	0.53	0.56
<i>Items not used in the reduced version of L2VLSI</i>							
8 Asking for Filipino translation	0.51	0.05	1.39	4.45	1.33	4.26	0.35
11 Asking for meaning	-0.19	0.05	1.34	4.61	1.39	5.18	0.28
14 Asking to check flashcards/word list	0.77	0.05	1.43	5.25	1.43	5.15	0.43
44 Taking notes	-1.17	0.05	1.55	6.59	1.46	5.46	0.41
48 Keeping vocabulary notebook	0.26	0.05	1.44	5.80	1.40	5.11	0.56

Note: Person reliability and separation were 0.95 and 4.94, respectively, and item reliability and separation were 0.99 and 9.00, respectively. δ = item measure, M = mean-squared fit statistic, Z = standardized mean-squared fit statistic, r_{pb} = person-item correlation between item and total measured learning averages level based on the Rasch calibrated item scores and total scores. The global ω -sqr was 0.9701.

^a Numbers in parentheses are the item form numbers. For skip/ignore/notions, items are abbreviated and paraphrased from the original L2VLSI instrument. Full copy is available upon request from the authors.

Table 3.0
Item fit statistics, item measures, and standard deviation for the L2VLSI-R
(Testing sample, $n_1=370$)

	Item no. and item*	Item Level		Infit		Outfit		r_{pb}
		δ	SE	M	Z	M	Z	
1	Analyzing Parts of speech	-0.23	0.05	0.97	-0.44	1.03	0.53	0.41
2	Use Structural Analysis	-0.26	0.05	1.12	1.75	1.14	1.94	0.41
3	Looking for Similar English and Tagalog words	-0.33	0.05	1.08	1.16	1.10	1.48	0.41
4	Use of Pictorials and Gestures	-0.38	0.05	0.94	-0.88	0.95	-0.75	0.47
5	Use of Contextual Clues	-0.56	0.05	0.98	-0.28	0.97	-0.36	0.46
6	Use of Dictionary	-1.02	0.05	1.33	4.30	1.34	4.24	0.35
7	Use of Word Lists and Flashcards	0.44	0.05	1.10	1.39	1.10	1.33	0.45
8	Asking for Paraphrases or Synonyms	0.26	0.05	1.04	0.53	1.05	0.73	0.43
9	Asking for Sentence with the New Word	0.10	0.05	1.07	1.03	1.10	1.43	0.48
10	Engaging in Group Activities	-0.63	0.05	1.09	1.28	1.12	1.64	0.42
11	Practicing Meaning in a Group	-0.03	0.05	1.09	1.27	1.09	1.23	0.45
12	Talking to People Who Speak English	-0.20	0.05	0.98	-0.31	0.98	-0.27	0.52
13	Use of Pictorial Representations	0.08	0.05	0.85	-2.28	0.83	-2.53	0.55
14	Imagining Word Meanings	-0.09	0.05	0.79	-3.22	0.81	-3.02	0.63
15	Connecting Words to Personal Experience	-0.41	0.05	0.83	-2.68	0.81	-2.90	0.63
16	Word Associations	-0.39	0.05	0.75	-4.06	0.74	-4.10	0.61
17	Connecting Words with Synonyms and Antonyms	-0.19	0.05	0.85	-2.29	0.85	-2.50	0.60
18	Using Semantic Maps	1.00	0.06	1.04	0.61	1.02	0.34	0.56
19	Grouping Words Together	0.06	0.05	0.82	-2.72	0.83	-2.61	0.64
20	Grouping Words Spatially	0.46	0.05	0.69	-4.98	0.69	-4.99	0.65
21	Using Words in Sentences	-0.07	0.05	0.73	-4.44	0.72	-4.47	0.60
22	Grouping Words within Storylines	0.31	0.05	0.63	-6.07	0.64	-5.96	0.70
23	Studying Word Spelling	-0.82	0.05	0.94	-0.81	0.93	-0.96	0.51
24	Studying Word Sound	-0.71	0.05	0.95	-0.67	0.93	-0.99	0.53
25	Saying New Words Aloud	-0.09	0.05	1.00	-0.01	1.00	0.04	0.61
26	Making Images of Word Form	0.26	0.05	0.89	-1.60	0.88	-1.73	0.66
27	Underlining Initial Letters of Words	0.41	0.05	1.15	2.10	1.13	1.85	0.61
28	Using Configuration Clues	0.35	0.05	0.92	-1.18	0.90	-1.31	0.62
29	Word Clining	0.71	0.05	0.79	-3.06	0.77	-3.49	0.68
30	Using Keywords	-0.19	0.05	1.19	2.70	1.18	2.54	0.52
31	Remembering Affixes and Roots	-0.16	0.05	1.04	0.61	1.02	0.33	0.55
32	Remembering Part of Speech	-0.37	0.05	1.02	0.30	1.01	0.20	0.51
33	Paraphrasing	-0.03	0.05	0.70	-4.35	0.69	-5.09	0.69
34	Learning Words of an Idiom Together	0.00	0.05	0.72	-4.59	0.72	-4.52	0.66
35	Using Physical Actions	0.17	0.05	0.91	-1.34	0.89	-1.56	0.66
36	Using semantic Feature Grids	0.69	0.05	0.96	-0.57	0.94	-0.94	0.63
37	Oral Repetition	-0.07	0.05	1.12	1.68	1.12	1.74	0.52
38	Rewriting Words	0.07	0.05	0.89	-1.60	0.93	-0.98	0.63
39	Word List Making	0.39	0.05	1.12	1.67	1.09	1.51	0.62
40	Using Flashcards	1.15	0.06	1.34	4.08	1.31	3.70	0.54
41	Using Vocabulary Section of Books	-0.28	0.05	1.22	3.01	1.22	2.98	0.48
42	Listening to Tape of Word Lists	0.79	0.05	1.28	3.58	1.23	2.99	0.58
43	Labeling Physical Objects	0.46	0.05	1.15	2.08	1.14	1.89	0.62
44	Use of Language Media	-0.93	0.05	1.32	4.17	1.34	4.34	0.47
45	Answering Word Tests	-0.19	0.05	1.15	2.14	1.13	1.85	0.58
46	Using Spaced Word Practice	0.16	0.05	1.05	0.79	1.03	0.44	0.64
47	Skimming	0.53	0.05	1.36	4.61	1.33	4.23	0.41
48	Studying Words Over Time	-0.19	0.05	1.06	0.91	1.07	1.06	0.55

Note: Person reliability and separation were 0.95 and 4.30, respectively, and item reliability and separation were 0.99 and 8.74, respectively; δ = item measure, M = mean-square fit statistic, Z = standardized mean-square fit statistic, r_{pb} = point-biserial correlation between item and total measured learning strategies level based on the Rasch calibrated item scores and total scores. The global chi-square is 49178.08.

* For copyright reasons, items are abbreviated and paraphrase from the original L2VLSI instrument. Full copy is available upon request from the authors.

On Reliability and Validation. The Cronbach's alpha of the full form (L2VLSI) and short form(L2VLSI-R) were computed using the validation sample ($n_2=390$). As shown in Table 4, the alpha coefficients of both forms are high ($>.80$) across the five learning strategies. Comparatively, the alpha coefficients between the forms across the five learning strategies are almost equal, suggesting that both L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R are reliable. Findings in the current study are the same with Bernado's (2008) study which revealed that L2VLSI was reliable. Bernardo's study obtained an alpha of .86 while the present validation was .95.

Table 4

*Cronbach's alpha for the L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R
(Validation sample, $n_2=390$)*

Learning Strategies	<u>L2VLSI</u>		<u>L2VLSI-R</u>	
	No. of Items	Alpha	No. of Items	Alpha
Metacognitive	5	.812	5	.811
Cognitive	9	.820	7	.819
Determination	7	.819	7	.817
Social	8	.836	5	.835
Memory	24	.931	24	.934
Overall		.95		.94

The fit statistics of the three structured models such as hierarchical factor model, oblique 5-factor model and orthogonal 5-factor model for the full form and short form are shown in Table 5. Among the three models, only orthogonal 5-factor model did not meet any model fit criteria for either form ($RMSEA>.08$; $CFI<.90$;

relatively chi-square and AIC are large). The oblique 5-factor model and hierarchical factor model for either form met the criteria of RMSEA(<.08) and AIC(>.9) criteria. For each form, the hierarchical factor model was significantly better fitted than the other models, since all chi-square differences were highly significant ($p < .01$). This means that both L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R are best explained by the hierarchical factor model; and thus both are structurally valid. However, further examination of the data at the bottom of Table 5 revealed that the chi-square difference between L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R was highly significant ($\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 626.03$, $p < 0.01$), indicating that the hierarchical factor model fits better the L2VLSI-R than the L2VLSI. This means that the removal of the misfit items in the Rasch model as discussed in the previous section helped improved the structural validity of the L2VLSI instrument.

Figure 1 shows the path diagram of the hierarchical factor model of L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R. The L2VLSI is represented by the entire path diagram, while the L2VLSI-R is represented by the entire path diagram, excluding the unshaded boxes and circles.

Table 5
Fit Statistics for All Structured Models
(Validation sample, $n_2=390$)

Model	Chi-square	df	CFI	RMSEA	AIC
L2VLSI					
Hierarchical	4009.62	1321	.73	.07*	4335.62
Oblique 5-Factor	3951.56	1315	.73	.07*	4289.56
Orthogonal 5-Factor	4907.51	1325	.637	.083	5225.51
L2VLSI-R					
Hierarchical	3383.59	1076	.74	.07*	3679.59
Oblique 5-Factor	3330.78	1070	.74	.07*	3638.78
Orthogonal 5-Factor	4291.66	1080	.64	.09	4579.66

Chi-square difference tests:

For the Full form of L2VLSI: orthogonal vs oblique, $\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 955.95$, $p < 0.01$;

hierarchical vs orthogonal, $\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 897.89$, $p < 0.01$; hierarchical vs oblique, $\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 58.06$, $p < 0.01$.

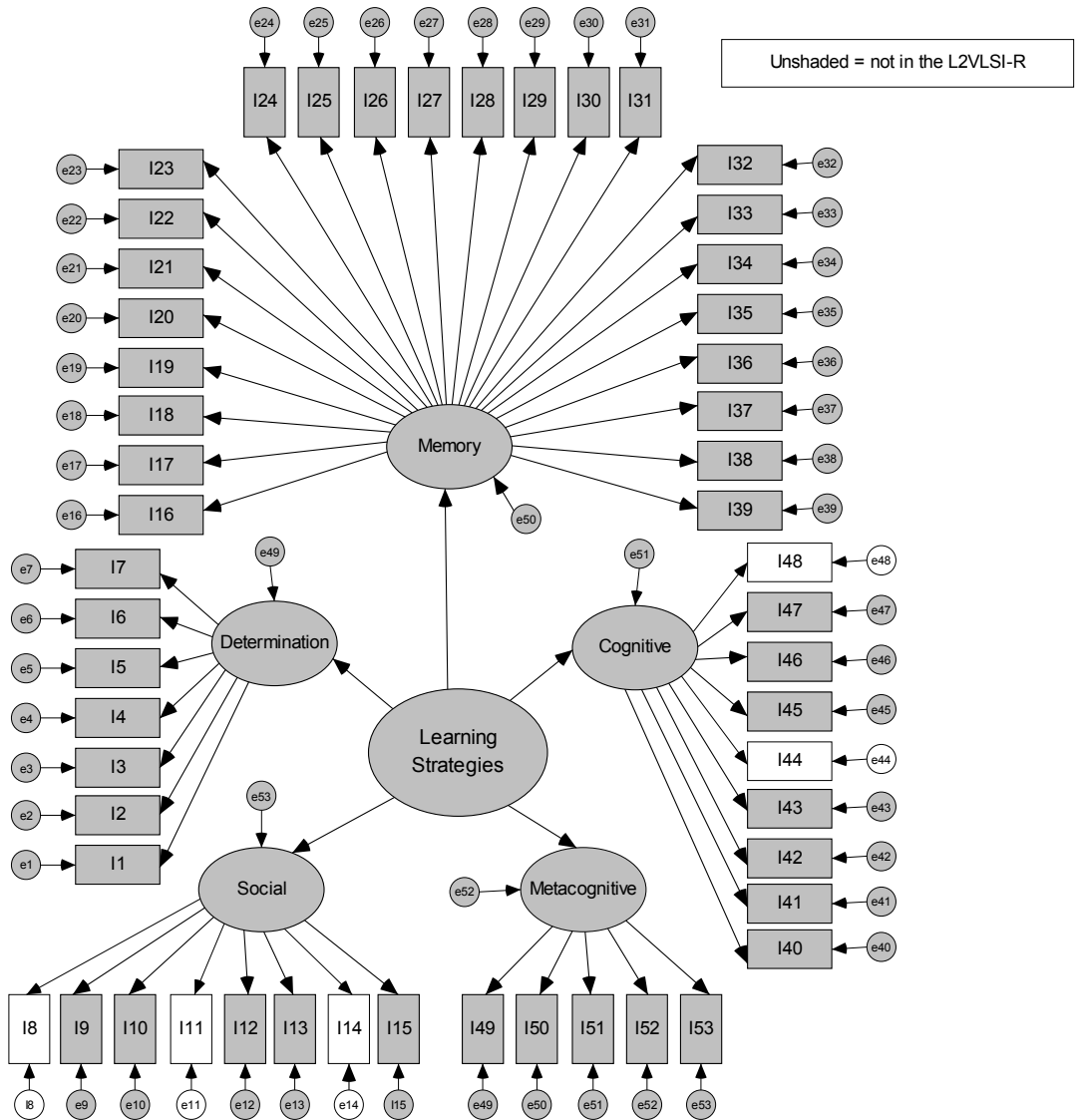
For the Short form (L2VLSI-R): orthogonal vs oblique, $\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 960.88$, $p < 0.01$;

hierarchical vs orthogonal, $\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 908.07$, $p < 0.01$; hierarchical vs oblique, $\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 52.81$, $p < 0.01$.

Hierarchical of L2VLSI vs hierarchical of L2VLSI-48: $\chi^2_{\text{diff}} = 6226.03$, $p < 0.01$

*Met study criteria

Figure 1
Hierarchical Factor Model of L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R



The correlation between the hierarchical 5-factor model for L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R was statistically significant (correlation = .96, $p < .01$), suggesting the concurrent validity for the L2VLSI-R scores.

Rasch calibration of the L2VLSI-R was conducted to compare the calibration results between the testing sample and the validation sample. During calibration, examination of the unidimensionality assumption indicated no violations were present; and analysis of the thresholds revealed that the 6-point categories of the instrument were functioning well. The results of the calibration are presented in Table 6. A scatter plot of the item measures from the testing sample and validation samples provided evidence of a strong correlation between the two samples via a positive slope of approximately 45 degrees. The maximum possible correlation (R_{\max}) between the item measures of the two samples was .95. The obtained correlation between the samples ($r = .99$) was compared with R_{\max} via a Fisher's z transformation. The results revealed that the R_{\max} and r were not significantly different, indicating that the L2VLSI-R performed consistently across samples.

Table 6.0

Item fit statistics, item measures, and standard deviation for the L2VLSI-R (Validation Sample, n₂=390)

	Item no. and item*	Item Level		Infit		Outfit		r_{pb}
		δ	SE	M	Z	M	Z	
1	Analyzing Parts of speech	-0.23	0.05	0.96	-0.62	1.02	0.33	0.41
2	Use Structural Analysis	-0.27	0.05	1.11	1.60	1.12	1.77	0.41
3	Looking for Similar English and Tagalog words	-0.32	0.05	1.05	0.80	1.07	1.11	0.41
4	Use of Pictorials and Gestures	-0.37	0.05	0.94	-0.88	0.95	-0.72	0.46
5	Use of Contextual Clues	-0.56	0.05	0.95	-0.81	0.94	-0.89	0.47
6	Use of Dictionary	-1.01	0.05	1.32	4.32	1.32	4.19	0.35
7	Use of Word Lists and Flashcards	0.41	0.05	1.10	1.48	1.09	1.36	0.45
8	Asking for Paraphrases or Synonyms	0.27	0.05	1.06	0.91	1.07	1.04	0.41
9	Asking for Sentences with the New Word	0.12	0.05	1.08	1.17	1.11	1.53	0.47
10	Engaging in Group Activities	-0.64	0.05	1.06	0.85	1.08	1.22	0.43
11	Practicing Meaning in a Group	-0.03	0.05	1.08	1.17	1.08	1.13	0.46
12	Talking to People Who Speak English	-0.19	0.05	0.98	-0.24	0.98	-0.21	0.52
13	Use of Pictorial Representations	0.08	0.05	0.83	-2.71	0.81	-2.95	0.56
14	Imagining Word Meanings	-0.08	0.05	0.79	-3.33	0.80	-3.18	0.63
15	Connecting Words to Personal Experience	-0.38	0.05	0.87	-1.95	0.87	-2.07	0.60
16	Word Associations	-0.37	0.05	0.77	-3.71	0.77	-3.64	0.59
17	Connecting Words with Synonyms and Antonyms	-0.19	0.05	0.83	-2.71	0.83	-2.71	0.61
18	Using Semantic Maps	1.00	0.06	1.05	0.69	1.02	0.32	0.55
19	Grouping Words Together	0.06	0.05	0.84	-2.53	0.84	-2.46	0.63
20	Grouping Words Spatially	0.46	0.05	0.71	-4.66	0.71	-4.76	0.63
21	Using Words in Sentences	-0.08	0.05	0.72	-4.57	0.72	-4.61	0.61
22	Grouping Words within Storylines	0.31	0.05	0.66	-5.71	0.66	-5.70	0.69
23	Studying Word Spelling	-0.80	0.05	0.93	-1.06	0.92	-1.23	0.52
24	Studying Word Sound	-0.70	0.05	0.93	-1.03	0.91	-1.35	0.54
25	Saying New Words Aloud	-0.08	0.05	1.02	0.25	1.02	0.32	0.60
26	Making Images of Word Form	0.27	0.05	0.88	-1.76	0.88	-1.88	0.66
27	Underlining Initial Letters of Words	0.40	0.05	1.14	1.99	1.12	1.73	0.62
28	Using Configuration Clues	0.33	0.05	0.96	-0.65	0.93	-1.04	0.61
29	Word Clining	0.70	0.05	0.80	-3.07	0.77	-3.56	0.67
30	Using Keywords	-0.18	0.05	1.22	3.12	1.21	3.00	0.50
31	Remembering Affixes and Roots	-0.16	0.05	1.04	0.61	1.02	0.38	0.54
32	Remembering Part of Speech	-0.37	0.05	1.00	0.04	0.99	-0.06	0.52
33	Paraphrasing	-0.02	0.05	0.72	-4.62	0.71	-4.84	0.68
34	Learning Words of an Idiom Together	-0.02	0.05	0.71	-4.81	0.71	-4.75	0.66
35	Using Physical Actions	0.15	0.05	0.91	-1.40	0.89	-1.62	0.66
36	Using semantic Feature Grids	0.67	0.05	0.97	-0.45	0.94	-0.78	0.62
37	Oral Repetition	-0.05	0.05	1.12	1.76	1.13	1.85	0.52
38	Rewriting Words	0.08	0.05	0.94	-0.87	0.97	-0.36	0.61
39	Word List Making	0.37	0.05	1.13	1.91	1.11	1.52	0.61
40	Using Flashcards	1.13	0.06	1.32	3.97	1.28	3.52	0.53
41	Using Vocabulary Section of Books	-0.27	0.05	1.19	2.73	1.19	2.70	0.49
42	Listening to Tapes of Word Lists	0.79	0.05	1.29	3.81	1.24	3.15	0.57
43	Labeling Physical Objects	0.46	0.05	1.18	2.48	1.16	2.20	0.61
44	Use of Language Media	-0.95	0.05	1.29	3.91	1.31	4.07	0.47
45	Answering Word Tests	-0.20	0.05	1.13	1.87	1.11	1.61	0.58
46	Using Special Word Practice	0.14	0.05	1.04	0.57	1.02	0.25	0.65
47	Signposting	0.52	0.05	1.35	4.53	1.31	4.11	0.42
48	Studying Words Over Time	-0.20	0.05	1.06	0.87	1.07	1.01	0.55

Note. Person reliability and separation were 0.95 and 4.23, respectively, and item reliability and separation were 0.99 and 8.87,

respectively. δ = item measure, M = mean-square-fit statistic, Z = standardized mean-square-fit statistic, r_{pb} = point-biserial correlation between item and total measured learning strategies level based on the Rasch calibrated item scores and total scores.

The global chi-square is 52013.53.

* For copyright reasons, items are abbreviated and paraphrased from the original L2VLSI instrument. Full copy is available upon request from the authors.

Discussion

The L2VLSI was designed to assess the strategies used by students in learning English vocabulary. On the basis of classical test theory, Bernardo (2008) reported evidence of the validity and reliability of L2VLSI scores. In the present study, Rasch model was used to test and refine the L2VLSI with an attempt to improve the measurement quality of the scale. As a result, the L2VLSI-R, with a 6-point Likert scale was established.

The first step was to test the unidimensionality of the L2VLSI items using the four methods as follows: the exploratory factor analysis using unweighted least squares using varimax rotation; the Rasch unidimensionality index; the Rasch principal component analysis, and the latent correlation. Consistently, the results of the four methods supported that the L2VLSI items are unidimensional enough for the Rasch analysis requirement. It is important to note that although the L2VLSI instrument consisted of five dimensions, Bernardo (2008) found that the L2VLSI items were best represented by a hierarchical structure with a unidimensional learning strategies factor on the second order followed by five factors on the first order.

The second step was to fit the L2VLSI items to two competing Rasch models: rating scale model (RSM) and partial credit model (PCM). The purpose of fitting was to choose the Rasch model that best explains the L2VLSI items. The results showed that RSM best explained the L2VLSI items. Hence, it is was found to be a reasonable model since all items of L2VLSI shared the same rating scale structure which is also the RSM's basic assumption (Linacre, 2008).

The third step was the analysis of the response categories of the L2VLSI instrument. In this analysis, the functioning of the 6-point response categories of the L2VLSI items was diagnosed by examining the category thresholds. The results revealed that the thresholds of the 6-point response categories increased monotonically with appropriate distance from one to another. Thus, the 6-point response categories designed by Bernardo (2008) for the L2VLSI functioned well.

The fourth step was to determine the level of distinction possible among persons and items along the Rasch dimension by examining the Rasch person and item separation and reliability for the entire L2VLSI instrument. Results showed that the instrument has a high level of distinction among persons and items along the Rasch dimension.

The fifth step involved identifying misfit items on the basis of infit and outfit statistics. Five items showed insufficient fit with the RSM indicating lack of construct homogeneity; thus, these were removed from the scale. Of the five misfit items, three came from the social strategies (asking for Filipino translation [item 8]; asking for meaning [item 11]; and asking to check flashcards/word list [item 14]) and two came from the cognitive strategies (taking notes [item 44] and keeping vocabulary notebook [item48]). Although these items were written by Bernardo (2008) on the basis of the framework of Smith (1997), the results suggest that the items represent different constructs in comparison to the construct assessed by the 48 items of the shorter form (called L2VLSI-R).

The sixth and the last step was the validation of the L2VLSI-R. It is interesting to note that the elimination of the five items made the L2VLSI-R more appropriate than the L2VLSI. By using the testing sample and the validation sample, it was found that: the Rasch calibrations of the L2VLSI-R indicated that the unidimensionality level showed improvement in favor of the L2VLSI-R; the L2VLSI-R retained adequately highly reliable and fitted better to the rating scale model than the L2VLSI; and all the items of the L2VLSI-R showed sufficient fit with the RSM on the basis of the infit and outfit statistics. Using the validation sample, although both L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R were best explained by the hierarchical factor model, the L2VLSI-R fitted better the hierarchical factor model than the L2VLSI and both L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R items yielded high internal consistency coefficients across the five learning strategies. In the present study, the overall internal consistency coefficients for the L2VLSI and L2VLSI-R were .95 and .94, respectively. Bernardo (2008) reported an overall internal consistency coefficient of .86 for the L2VLSI items. The Rasch calibrations of the L2VLSI-R items were also consistent between the two samples. The forgoing findings further support the conclusion that the deleted items do not contribute to assessing a homogeneous construct and do not add related information to the scale. In sum, the L2VLSI-R represents a streamlined version of the L2VLSI without sacrificing the validity and reliability both in the contexts of Rasch and CTT.

As with any study, the present investigation has limitations. The generalizability of the findings is limited to one university college

student population. Because the L2VLSI-R was developed through the use of data from this population, the adequacy of the L2VLSI-R with other university student populations should be examined before it is used with them.

The results of the present study also have implications for future research. First, this study should be replicated with other sample of college students from other universities. Although a relatively adequate sample was used in this study, it would be useful if the psychometric properties of the L2VLSI-R will be further studied in another sample to ensure that the Rasch model results in this study can be replicated. Second, researchers might consider further studying the L2VLSI-R by applying other polytomous item response theory models. Third, the L2VLSI-R should be administered with other similar instruments to study the construct validity of L2VLSI-R scores within the paradigm of classical test theory. Although the L2VLSI-R is based on the L2VLSI, the number of modifications that were made to establish the L2VLSI-R warrants additional study of the validity of L2VLSI-R scores. For the present validation sample, the correlation coefficient of .96 ($p < .01$) between the L2VLSI-R and the L2VLSI suggests concurrent validity for the L2VLSI-R scores. In addition, researchers might examine possible gender and/or course differences on the L2VLSI-R score as a way to study the criterion-related validity of the score.

In conclusion, the 48-item L2VLSI-R represents a psychometric advancement of the original 53-item L2VLSI. The successful application of the Rasch model led to a more streamlined instrument

with increased quality. It is hoped that the L2VLSI-R represents an improved instrumentation in the assessment of strategies in learning vocabulary in English as a second language.

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A Survey on Language Use, Attitudes, and Identity in Relation to Philippine English among Young Generation Filipinos: An Initial Sample from a Private University

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Abstract

This study looks at the language use, attitudes, and identity in relation to Philippine English among young generation Filipinos through a questionnaire survey of a selected group of students from a Philippine private university. The survey findings would reveal that most domains of use and verbal activities are dominated by English as the language of current usage, and even more domains and activities are dominated by English as the language of preferred usage. It is safe to say that English indeed continues to penetrate the Filipino society, as evidence by the dominance of its use in various domains and activities and even more intimate contexts such as the home, prayers, and expressions of intimate emotions. And though the respondents of this survey still prefer Tagalog/Filipino to be the national language of the Philippines, they nonetheless have signified that (Philippine) English could be a symbol of their being a Filipino.

Language Planning and Resulting Sociolinguistic Patterns in the Philippines

Linguistic, economic, cultural, and behavioral patterns have emerged out of the language planning that has been done in the Philippines. Sibayan (2000) plots the resulting patterns in more than four centuries of language planning in the Philippines while Bernabe (1986) discusses more specifically language planning in Philippine education: Of course, parallelism will always be observed as regards language planning in general and language planning in education in

particular as education has always been the primary hand that is used to implement language policies not only in the Philippines but in almost all – if not all – countries. The Spanish Period, which spanned more than three hundred years (1565-1898), used Spanish in the controlling domains of language except in the semi-controlling domain of religion. The Spanish who came to the Philippines – who were primarily priests, if not officials of the colonial government – found that it was easier for priests to learn the local languages of the Philippines rather than teaching the natives Spanish in the evangelization of the country. Spanish then became the source of the Christianization of the local languages and, expectedly, “hispanismos” (Sibayan, 2000, p. 48) eventually emerged out of the priests’ learning of the local languages. On the other hand, the controlling domains such as the government and higher education had used Spanish since there was no choice because exported resources in these domains were all in Spanish. This situation created a distinction between the majority who are poor and could only speak the local languages and the very few elites who are able to acquire Spanish through education in universities run by the Spanish or even education in Spain. Obviously, Spanish was the aspired-for language then.

When the Americans arrived in the Philippines in 1898 – after the exit of the Spanish, an altogether different language – and language policy, for that matter – was introduced in the Philippines (Bernabe, 1986; Sibayan, 2000). They established a system for public education of the natives and, through this system, taught the Filipinos

English. While an implementing policy stipulates the use the local languages in primary education, this never took effect and Sibayan assumes that this is due to the unavailability of resources in these languages, and these resources include both teachers and materials. English, on the other hand, “was pursued with vigor and enthusiasm” (Sibayan, 2000, p. 250). Filipino students were required to use English at all times when in school and were punished for not doing so. And not long after, English was used in all the controlling domains (government, education, mass media, commerce, the professions, science and technology, and international relations) that “the hope that the Filipino language will eventually replace English in most, if not all, of these domains is practically impossible” (Sibayan, 2000, p. 250). English eventually became functionally-native (Bautista, 2000; Kachru, 1997) to the Philippines. Gonzalez (2000) believes that the learning of English in the Philippines was perhaps one of the most successful linguistic events in the history of the world, and perhaps only rivaled by the revival of Hebrew. This great success he attributed to the use of the language in the controlling domains, but particularly in education. English then became the language of power and prestige (Sibayan, 2000). However, it should be noted here that a Commonwealth Government espoused by the American colonizers and aptly referred as Transition Government proposed through the 1935 Constitution to develop a common national language based on one of the Philippine languages. The Institute of the National Language was established and the national language based on Tagalog was taught in the senior year of high

school starting June 19, 1940. English then was used less in school with the move to being bilingual in the national language and English. Amidst all these efforts, English remained to be the language of the controlling domains.

The occupation of the Japanese of the Philippines also stopped the progression of the spread of English by propagating the use of the national language (Bernabe, 1986; Sibayan, 2000). However, after the liberation from the short-lived Japanese imperial rule and the independence of the Philippines from external forces, the main language of instruction was shifted back to English again although the teaching of the national language was still continued. During what Sibayan calls as the "Period of Community School" (p. 252), many schools were freed from the rigid supervision of higher authorities and were given liberty to experiment on using the vernacular as the language of instruction. Also, during this period, positions such as supervisors of Filipino were opened and departments for the national language were put up in colleges and universities.

Today, the implementing 1987 Constitution, Article IV, Sections 6-9, has this to say:

Section 6. The national language of the Philippines is Filipino. As it evolves, it shall be further developed and enriched on the basis of existing Philippine and other languages. Subject to the provisions of law and as the Congress may deem appropriate, the Government shall take steps to

initiate and sustain the use of Filipino as a medium of official communication and as language of instruction in the educational system.

Section 7.

for purposes of communication and instruction, the official languages of the Philippines are Filipino and, unless otherwise provided by law, English. The regional languages are the auxiliary official languages and shall serve as auxiliary media of instruction therein. Spanish and Arabic shall be promoted on a voluntary and optional basis.

Section 8. This constitution shall be promulgated in Filipino and English and shall be translated into major regional languages, Arabic, and Spanish.

Section 9. The Congress shall establish a national language commission composed of representatives of various regions and disciplines which shall undertake the, coordinate, and promote researches for the development, propagation, and preservation of Filipino and other languages.

And the Bilingual Education Policy of 1987 - originally promulgated in 1974 - in particular aims for an enhanced learning through English and Filipino and the development a bilingual nation competent in the use of both English and Filipino. A clear separation of the use of English and Filipino in schools was made: English is to be used as the

language in teaching English, mathematics, and science while Filipino is for other subjects. The only difference of the 1987 promulgation from that of 1974 is that the latter allows for the use of major vernaculars in Grades I and II.

Current president Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo has once again highlighted the importance of English in the issue of Executive Order 210, an order establishing the policy to strengthen the use of English as the language of instruction as she deemed it necessary “to develop the aptitude, competence and proficiency of our students in the English language to maintain and improve their competitive edge in emerging and fast-growing local and international industries, particularly in the area of Information and Communications Technology”.

The Purpose of This Study

This study looks at the language use, attitudes, and identity in relation to Philippine English among young generation Filipinos. A selected group of students from a Philippine private university were used as an initial sample in a questionnaire survey designed to:

- (1) identify their selection of languages currently used in various domains and verbal activities;
- (2) determine their preferred languages in the same domains and verbal activities; and
- (3) ascertain their attitudes towards languages and language(s) of identity with reference to Philippine English.

In doing so, the survey conducted may serve as an initial evaluation and determination of the sociolinguistic patterns resulting in the implementation of the current language policies in the Philippines in general and the current bilingual education policy in particular to a specific sample. However, it should be noted here that this is not in any way similar to the evaluations of the 1974 Bilingual Education Policy compiled by Gonzalez and Sibayan (1993) since most of those evaluations have mainly focused on school achievement and language proficiency vis-à-vis the policy but not on the sociolinguistic patterns emerging from the implementation of the policy. Doing another evaluation in terms of school achievement and language proficiency, perhaps for comparison with those that Gonzalez and Sibayan compiled, is beyond the scope of the present survey.

Surveys on Language Use, Attitudes, and Identity among University Students in Singapore

This study replicates the surveys conducted by Mann and Pirbhai-Illich (2007) and Mann (2007) both sometime between the years 1999 and 2000 in the city-state of Singapore. It appears that their surveys also attempted to determine the patterns emerging from the sociolinguistic engineering the Singapore government has devised and made concrete through the launch and implementation of a policy that positions English as the language of education, thereby having English as the language of instruction at all levels.

The survey of Mann and Pirbhai-Illich (2007) found that English is the primary language of current and preferred usage among young generation Singaporeans in the more formal domains and verbal activities as well as in the community and three intimate contexts. English is also the primary language of communication for the university students involved in the survey. It is only in the market that a language other than English was more preferred over English and that language is Mandarin. Standard Englishⁱ was actually chosen as the city-state's official language and the language that best conveys their identity as Singaporeans, with Singlish as the third choice as language of identity. Parallel to this finding, British English is the preferred variety of English to be taught, acquired, and learned in schools.

Mann's (2007) study consisted of two surveys; the first is actually similar with that of his collaboration with Pirbhai-Illich (2007) - most specially the first part - but he looked more closely at Singlish and Standard English. In his first survey, he has basically identified English also as the primary language in all of the domains and verbal activities supplied in his survey, except in Mandarin. In addition to that, he also found that 95% of the university students sampled in the survey believed that there exists a Singapore variety of English. They appreciated the instrumentality of the local variety which made Mann believe that the sociolinguistic and sociopsychological reality of Singlish is alive and well in their psyche. However, the young generation Singaporeans were divided in as to whether or not the variety should gain more status. His second

survey distinguished language usage and preferences between Singlish and Standard English. And while most of the students did not indicate Singlish as belonging to the languages (and varieties thereof) that they use, they indicated their use of the variety in various domains and verbal activities. Singlish is used primarily in more intimate and relaxed contexts while Standard English is used in the more formal contexts. Obviously, the younger generation Singaporeans are able to distinguish when to use Singlish and/or Standard English and when not to. Half of these students came across English when they were 12 years old and peers were mostly their source of contact with Singlish. Though almost all of them did not feel that Singlish as a source of shame and in fact considered it as a symbol of Singaporean identity, three in every four of them would not like to see Singlish promoted at home because of its possible adverse effects in the acquisition and/or learning of Standard English of children later in school. Three out of five of them believe that it is best to promote Standard English for everyday communication and only two favored Singlish. Seven out of ten students also would not want to see Singlish being promoted in the mass media. However, nine out of ten of them would like to see Singlish promoted in school - or perhaps simply introduced - because the Singapore curriculum gives primacy to Standard English.

The surveys of Mann and Pirbhai-Illich (2007) and Mann (2007) invite a replication as well as a comparison in the Philippines for several reasons. On the two countries' similarities, they both have English as their functionally-native language. They have also

implemented a bilingual education policy in the 1980s, though the Philippines had an older version of this policy in as early as 1974. Their similarities are also points of their differences: The English localized in the Philippines was transplanted by the Americans while in Singapore by the British. In addition to this, English is slowly moving towards becoming a genetically-native language in Singapore and this is primarily because of the sociolinguistic trends that have just been discussed. The policies under implementation in the two countries are also somewhat different; while the Philippines seems to be more inclined with the propagation (and eventual intellectualization) of Filipino primarily through education, Singapore amalgamates the multicultural identities in the city-state through English. Lastly, the geographic probability of absolute, thorough implementation of the policies in the two countries significantly differs – it is relatively easy to implement policies in a city-state country like Singapore but of course more difficult in an archipelagic country like the Philippines, notwithstanding the fact that human, financial, and material resources are scarce in the Philippines. These reasons, among others, make this study on Filipino students both significant and interesting.

Method

This study surveys language use, attitudes, and identity in relation to Philippine English among selected students of a Philippine private university through a questionnaire that was adapted from the surveys of Mann and Pirbhai-Illich (2007) and Mann (2007) and

responded selected students from a private university in Manila, the Philippines. The respondents and the questionnaire they responded to are discussed below.

The Respondents

The survey questionnaire was responded by 50 students registered and enrolled in a distinguished private university in Manila, the capital of the Philippines. The university is among the top universities of the country and would usually belong to the lists of top universities in Asia (and the Pacific) and the world. This has both positive and negative implications for the representational quality of the respondents of the questionnaire. While the market for such a university would most definitely be more ethnically – and ethnolinguistically – diverse since most high school students from across the country aspire for admission in the university, the high cost of education in the university might have also limited the entry of underrepresented and socio-economically underprivileged ethnic (and ethnolinguistic) groups of the country. Of course, geography also affects the representativeness of the students in the university – and the survey respondents, for that matter – and this is evidenced by the significant number of Tagalog-using students in the sample as well as students who use any of the Chinese languages since the university is in close proximity to communities where most of the Chinese in the Philippines reside. Also, Chinese in the Philippines are usually among the more financially-able in the society and therefore could easily afford their children education from universities of such

kind. Table 1 presents in detail the distribution of ethnic origins of the respondents:

Table 1
Ethnic Origins of the Respondents

Ethnic Origin	<i>f</i>	%
Filipino	30	60
Chinese Filipino	15	30
Chinese	4	8
Taiwanese	1	2

As can be seen in Table 1, a significant percentage of the sample was Chinese Filipino, and there were even pure Chinese in the sample. The Filipino respondents are still more than half of the sample though, and their ethnolinguistic origin is mostly Tagalog, though some are Bicolano, Cebuano, and Ilocano. There is one pure Taiwanese in the sample but she practically lived in Manila all her life.

The respondents were significantly female; almost 75% of all the respondents were female. This is expected since the sample was taken from an arts and humanities college, which is dominated by female. Their age vary from 16 to 19 though almost forty of them are ages 17-18. Needless to say, all the education that these students have gotten were all under the implementing bilingual education policy, which makes them a good sample for an evaluation of the said policy. The sampling technique employed however was convenient sampling and, as made obvious by the description of the respondents, no claims could be made as to the representativeness of the sample -

national representativeness, to be more specific – but they do still make an interesting sample for a sociolinguistic study such as this.

The Questionnaire

A questionnaire survey was deemed enough, and no further participant observation was thought to be necessary, as Gonzalez and Bautista (1986), based on their synthesis of several language surveys conducted in the Philippines, concur that Filipinos give accurate reports of their language use when asked through a survey. The questionnaires used in the surveys of Mann and Pirbhai-Illich (2007) and Mann (2007) were adapted in this study, primarily in the section that asked of the respondents' languages used and languages preferred and in the section on language attitudes and identity in relation to Philippine English. In the section that asked of the respondents' languages used and languages preferred, instead of following the original domains of use and verbal activities supplied in the Singapore survey, what was used was the domains and verbal activities explored in previous language surveys in the Philippines as summarized by Gonzalez and Bautista (1986). Of course, the questions in the section that asked of the respondents' language attitudes and identity were rephrased to fit the Philippine context.

The questionnaire was divided into three major sections: (1) Personal information and background, (2) language domain usages, and (3) language preferences and attitudes. The first section of the questionnaire elicited the respondents' sex, age, ethnic origin, and

language contact and repertoire. The second section asked the respondents to identify the languages that they used in a variety of domains and verbal activities. The third section is further subdivided into two subsections. The first subsection is somehow similar to the second section; however, it determined the language preferences in the same domains and verbal activities supplied in the second section. The second subsection is a series of questions relating to their attitudes on language and language(s) of identity in relation to Philippine English.

In answering the questionnaire, the respondents were given the specific instruction to distinguish among English, Tagalog/Filipino, and Taglish whenever necessary.

Results

Reported below are the findings resulting from the questionnaire survey tabulation. A profile of the selection of languages used in various domains and verbal activities vis-à-vis the preferences in the same domains of use and verbal activities will be given. Findings of the survey with regard to attitudes on and identity in relation to (Philippine) English and other languages follows.

In the presentation of figures, percentages are computed against the total number of respondents; therefore, it is always possible to have more than 100% for the total of all the percentages. For example, the total of the percentages of the languages used and languages preferred for each domain of use and verbal activity may be more than 100% since the respondents may have indicated more

than one language in many domains and activities. On the other hand, there are some percentages that would not total to 100% because some respondents did not indicate any option for the item in question.

Language Use (at Present) and Language Preferences

Table 2 presents a summary of the questionnaire findings relating to the languages used at present by the students in various domains and verbal activities as well their language preferences for the same domains and verbal activities. Tagalog here refers to Tagalog and Filipino as responses. Also, since the sociolinguistics of the Chinese languages in the Philippines is beyond the scope of this study, responses that indicated Cantonese, Fookien, and Mandarin were all subsumed under Chinese languages.

Table 2

Languages Used (at Present) and Language Preferences in Various Domains and Verbal Activities of the Respondents

Domain of Use/Verbal Activity	Language(s) Used	<i>f</i>	%	Language(s) Preferred	<i>f</i>	%
Home	Tagalog	32	64	Tagalog	23	46
	Taglish	16	32	English	22	44
	English	14	28	Chinese languages	14	28
	Chinese languages	12	24	Taglish	10	20
	Bicolano	1	2	Bicolano	1	2
	Cebuano	1	2			
	Japanese	1	2			
<u>Intimate/Confidential</u>	Tagalog	24	48	Tagalog	22	44

Table 2. (Continued)		Chinese languages		Chinese languages	
		17	34	15	30
Family Matters	Taglish	16	32	English	12 24
	English	14	28	Taglish	12 24
	Bicolano	1	2	Bicolano	1 2
	Japanese	1	2		
	Tagalog	24	48	Tagalog	26 52
Contacting Absent Family Members	English	17	34	English	16 32
	Chinese languages	11	22	Chinese languages	10 20
	Taglish	10	20	Taglish	7 14
	Bicolano	1	2	Bicolano	1 2
	Tagalog	35	70	Tagalog	34 78
Neighborhood	Taglish	14	28	English	12 24
	English	12	24	Taglish	9 18
	Chinese languages	5	10	Chinese languages	3 6
	Bicolano	1	2	Bicolano	1 2
	Tagalog	28	56	English	23 46
In the Wider Community	English	18	36	Tagalog	22 44
	Taglish	16	32	Taglish	11 22
	Chinese languages	4	8	Chinese languages	3 6
	Bicolano	1	2	Cebuano	1 2
	Cebuano	1	2		
With Friends	Japanese	1	2		
	Taglish	31	62	Taglish	26 52
	Tagalog	21	42	Tagalog	24 48
	English	17	34	English	18 36
	Chinese languages	4	8	Chinese languages	3 6
School	Cebuano	2	4		
	Japanese	2	4		
	Taglish	35	70	English	31 62
	Tagalog	20	40	Taglish	19 38
	English	16	32	Tagalog	14 28
	Chinese languages	2	4	Chinese languages	3 6

Table 2. (Continued)	Cebuano	1	2			
	Japanese	1	2			
Radio	English	33	66	English	38	76
	Taglish	16	32	Taglish	11	22
	Tagalog	13	26	Tagalog	8	16
	Chinese languages	1	2	Chinese languages	2	4
	English	31	62	English	36	72
Television	Taglish	19	38	Taglish	12	24
	Tagalog	11	22	Tagalog	8	16
	Chinese languages	2	4	Chinese languages	1	2
	English	33	66	English	40	80
Newspaper	Taglish	14	28	Taglish	10	20
	Tagalog	10	20	Tagalog	8	16
	Chinese languages	2	4	Chinese languages	2	4
	English	47	94	English	49	98
Books	Taglish	4	8	Chinese languages	3	6
	Chinese	1	2	Taglish	3	6
Comics	Japanese	1	2	Tagalog	2	4
	Tagalog	1	2			
	English	46	92	English	41	82
	Tagalog	4	8	Tagalog	7	14
	Taglish	4	8	Chinese languages	3	6
	Chinese languages	1	1	Taglish	3	6
Magazines				Japanese	1	2
	English	48	96	English	47	94
	Taglish	3	6	Chinese languages	3	6
	Japanese	1	2	Tagalog	3	6
Work	Tagalog	1	2	Taglish	2	4
	English	24	48	English	29	58
	Taglish	13	26	Taglish	9	18
	Tagalog	12	24	Tagalog	7	14

Table 2. (Continued)		Chinese languages		Chinese languages	
With Co-Workers		1	2	3	6
		18	36	21	42
		16	32	16	32
		13	26	12	24
		2	4	3	6
With Head		1	2		
		1	2		
		24	48	36	72
		11	22	5	10
		10	20	4	8
Shopping		1	2	2	4
		21	42	26	52
		18	36	22	44
		11	22	14	28
		2	4	3	6
Marketing Transactions		1	2		
		22	44	32	64
		18	36	12	24
		12	24	7	14
		1	2	2	4
Praying		1	2	2	4
		29	58	29	58
		17	34	19	38
		14	28	12	24
		2	4	2	4
Telling Time		1	2		
		35	70	39	78
		17	34	9	18
		14	28	7	14
		2	4	5	10
	1	2	1	2	

Table 2. (Continued)		English	32	64	English	29	58
Apologizing	Taglish	16	32	Tagalog	17	34	
	Tagalog	14	28	Taglish	13	26	
	Cebuano	1	2	Cebuano	1	2	
	Chinese languages	1	2	Chinese languages	1	2	
	Japanese	1	2				
Arguing	Taglish	25	50	Tagalog	21	42	
	Tagalog	21	42	English	19	38	
	English	16	32	Taglish	19	38	
	Chinese languages	5	10	Chinese languages	2	4	
	Bicolano	1	2	Bicolano	1	2	
	Cebuano	1	2	Cebuano	1	2	
	English	27	54	English	25	50	
Complimenting	Taglish	21	42	Tagalog	20	40	
	Tagalog	18	36	Taglish	18	36	
	Chinese languages	4	8	Chinese languages	3	6	
	Cebuano	1	2	Cebuano	1	2	
	Bicolano	1	2				
	Japanese	1	2				
	Tagalog	27	54	English	24	48	
Giving Commands	Taglish	19	38	Tagalog	23	46	
	English	17	34	Taglish	11	22	
	Chinese languages	4	8	Chinese languages	2	4	
	Bicolano	1	2				
	Cebuano	1	2				
	English	26	52	Tagalog	25	50	
	Tagalog	25	50	English	18	36	
Expressing Fear	Bicolano	1	2	Taglish	15	30	
	Cebuano	1	2	Chinese languages	3	6	
	Chinese languages	1	2	Cebuano	1	1	
	Japanese	1	2				
	Taglish	1	2				

Table 2. (Continued)	English	30	60	English	22	44
	Tagalog	24	48	Tagalog	17	34
Expressing Surprise	Taglish	12	24	Taglish	15	30
	Chinese languages	2	4	Chinese languages	11	22
	Bicolano	1	2			
	Cebuano	1	2			
	Japanese	1	2			
Expressing Anger	Tagalog	27	54	Tagalog	23	46
	English	22	44	Taglish	16	32
	Taglish	14	28	English	14	28
	Chinese languages	6	12	Chinese languages	5	10
	Bicolano	1	2	Cebuano	1	2
	Cebuano	1	2			
Expressing Intimacy	Japanese	1	2			
	English	30	60	English	23	46
	Tagalog	19	38	Tagalog	17	34
	Taglish	16	32	Taglish	15	30
	Chinese languages	4	8	Chinese languages	2	4
	Cebuano	1	2	Cebuano	1	2
Expressing Nostalgic Moments	Japanese	1	2	Japanese	1	2
	Tagalog	26	52	English	18	36
	English	23	46	Taglish	17	34
	Taglish	21	42	Tagalog	16	32
	Chinese languages	2	4	Chinese languages	3	6
	Bicolano	1	2	Cebuano	3	6
	Cebuano	1	2			
	Japanese	1	2			
Swearing	English	28	56	English	27	54
	Tagalog	23	46	Tagalog	18	36
	Taglish	16	32	Taglish	11	22
	Chinese languages	5	10	Chinese languages	2	4
	Cebuano	1	2	Cebuano	1	2
Dreaming	Japanese	1	2			
	English	25	50	English	24	48

		Tagalog	English	Tagalog	English
Table 2. (Continued)	Counting	Tagalog	25	50	22
		Taglish	15	30	11
	Chinese languages	Chinese languages	1	1	5
		English	42	84	45
	Chinese languages	Chinese languages	8	16	5
		Tagalog	8	16	3
	Taglish	Taglish	6	12	2
		Japanese	1	2	
	Giving Interest Rates (if applicable)	English	12	24	12
		Tagalog	Tagalog	4	8
Taglish			3	6	3
Chinese languages		1	2	2	
Technical Reports	English	40	80	44	
	Taglish	7	14	4	
	Tagalog	3	6	1	

The general belief is that the home language, Tagalog, and/or the vernacular is used more in less formal contexts while English is used more in formal ones but, as Table 2 has evidenced, English is now gaining ground in more intimate contexts both in current and preferred usage among the respondents. From 21 domains of use and verbal activities where English is currently in use, the language is now more preferred in 26 domains and activities out of the 34 that were supplied in the questionnaire. Therefore, there is a net gain of five domains and activities. Though Tagalog remains the language preferred at home, English follows so closely; in fact, there is only a difference of one respondent between Tagalog and English as regards the preference over the language to be used at home – this is one clear

sign that English is now penetrating more personal, intimate contexts. Expressions of surprise and intimacy and about nostalgic moments are wanted to be in English but are currently in Tagalog. The language preferred in the wider community is also English, moving from Tagalog. The students were not hesitant to admit that Taglish dominates the school – amidst the implementing policies – but they would like to adhere to the policy still and use English. A shift to English is also wanted when communicating with co-workers, when it is also currently done in Taglish.

English remains to be the most common language used and also as the language preferred in the media (radio, television, and newspaper), popular literature (magazines and comics), and books; while praying, in telling time; and when giving interest rates and writing technical reports. The retainment of English is also preferred at work, at work when speaking with one's superior, and during marketing transactions.

Tagalog is the most common language used at present and also the language preferred at home, when talking about confidential family matters and contacting absent family members, and in the neighborhood and the wider community. Taglish is the language currently used and also the preferred language when conversing among peers. There is preference for Tagalog when shopping, though Taglish is currently in use and still follows Tagalog in the same verbal activity.

Language Attitudes and Identity in Relation to Philippine English

While English has dominated almost all of the domains of use and verbal activities where the respondents were asked to identify their languages of current and preferred usage, it is surprising that Tagalog is the language through which the respondents feel most relaxed in communicating. Table 3 presents all the languages the students identified as the language(s) that they feel most relaxed in communicating:

Table 3

Languages the Respondents Feel Most Relaxed in Communicating

Language	<i>f</i>	%
Tagalog	27	54
Taglish	22	44
English	18	36
Chinese languages	6	12
Bicolano	1	2
Cebuano	1	2

Taglish follows Tagalog as the language the students feel most relaxed in communicating, but not too closely. More than a third of the respondents identified English as the language they feel most relaxed in communicating while more than ten percent identified either Mandarin, Cantonese, or Fookien. One student said that he is more relaxed in Bicolano and another said in Cebuano.

The survey provides for a basis that these young generation Filipinos now have a belief that there is now a variety of English called *Philippine English*; 80% of the respondents believed so. When

asked to describe what they consider to be Philippine English, here is the summary of their responses:

Table 4
Respondents' Assumptions on What Philippine English Is

Assumption	<i>f</i>	%
Modifications of Standard English, most especially in terms of grammar	22	44
Taglish	9	18
A variety reflective of the personality typical of a Filipino	6	12
Others	6	12
Unknown or no answer	3	6

Significantly, the students believe that Philippine English is a kind of English that slightly differs from Standard English, most especially in terms of grammar. Some students even cited very specific examples that they believe are peculiar of Philippine English, like the use of the perfective aspect as well as English terms that have undergone some semantic expansion like *traffic* and *xerox*. Almost a fifth of the students considered Philippine English to be simply Taglish. More than a tenth of the respondents believed that Philippine English is the kind of English that very well reflects the typical personality of a Filipino, perhaps in terms of pragmatic and sociolinguistic structuring that follows the non-English local languages of the Philippines. Around ten students have fragmented views about Philippine English and some admitted that they do not even know anything about it.

Though they know that Philippine English has some differences (or deviations) from Standard English, almost 80% of the

students did not find Philippine English as a source of shame for them as a Filipino as almost half of the students who participated in the survey believe that Philippine English reflects their identity as Filipinos. Almost ten students found Philippine English shameful for them though. Note that there were only 47 students who responded to this question.

Table 5 now shows the languages that the respondents believe best convey their identity:

Table 5

Languages that the Respondents Believe Best Convey Their Identity

Language	<i>f</i>	%
Tagalog/Filipino	31	62
English	19	38
Taglish	8	16
Chinese languages	6	12
Cebuano	1	2

Tagalog was selected by almost 65% of the respondents as the language that best conveys their identity and they believe that this language is a carrier of their cultural heritage as Filipinos. English was also chosen as a language that conveys their identity and almost 40% of the respondents believe so. Taglish was also chosen as a language that conveys the identity of ten of them. Some six individuals who are ethnically Chinese still hold on to Chinese languages as the language that would convey their identity and the same is true for one Cebuano. This seems to be expected as the Chinese and Cebuanos are usually among the most ethnically-loyal in the Philippines when it comes to language. The respondents were

also asked if they consider Philippine English as a symbol of their identity as a Filipino. Except for nine of them, all the students would agree that Philippine English do symbolize their Filipino identity. One student did not give any response. Most of the respondents feel that the variety distinguishes them from other speakers of English; thus, the variety makes them “unique” in speaking English. They also reasoned out that, since most of the Filipinos use Philippine English, it is then without doubt truly Filipino.

The favorability and unfavorability of the promotion of Philippine English and Taglish in various domains were also asked of the respondents. Around 60-70% of the respondents signified their being in favor of the promotion of Philippine English at home, in school, in everyday communication, and in the mass media. They were also in favor of promoting Taglish at home and in everyday communication but were hesitant with the promotion of Taglish in school and the mass media. Table 6 displays in detail the figures on the promotional favorability of Philippine English and Taglish:

Table 6

Respondents' Views on the Promotion of Philippine English and Taglish in Various Domains of Use

Domain of Use	Philippine English				Taglish			
	In Favor		Not in Favor		In Favor		Not in Favor	
	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Home	31	62	18	36	23	56	26	42
School	31	62	19	38	14	28	36	72
Everyday Communication	31	62	17	34	28	56	21	42
Mass Media	33	66	17	34	11	22	38	76

Discussion

What can be gleaned of these trends that are being revealed by the questionnaire survey conducted? On current and preferred language usage, English appears to dominate numerous domains of use and verbal activities (supplied in the questionnaire). It is also interesting to note that English is now penetrating more intimate contexts, the home in particular. Though most of the respondents identified Tagalog as the language that they are more relaxed in communicating with, there seems to be expressed willingness to own the language, so to speak, because, among the reasons supplied as regards this interest in the preferential use of English at least at home is to be able to “practice and master” the language not only by the respondents themselves but also by their family members who are with them at home. But they also reasoned out that English is among the more easily comprehensible languages to them and this finding seems to be consistent with Taglish (22 or 44%) and English (18 or 36%) not being too far away from Tagalog (27 or 54%) in terms of being the language the respondents are most relaxed in communicating with.

It is interesting to note that this want to move to English (and Tagalog) as the language(s) of home is even expressed by the Chinese Filipino respondents. Though there are still sentiments that the Chinese languages would express their distinct Chinese identity. Though six respondents believed that Chinese (are among the languages that) best convey(s) their identity, this is not significant knowing that there are 19 Chinese Filipino and Chinese students in

the sample. This trend may imply that Chinese Filipinos in the Philippines are little by little acceding to a Filipino identity in terms of language (if English is to be considered Filipino too, as was also found out by this survey).

There is still stigma as regards code-switching between English and Tagalog, as seen by the preference for this language sub-variety and also the willingness to uphold formality in several domains like school and work where the current usage is Taglish (Taglish is currently used when communicating with co-workers but English with superiors).

However, most students who participated in the survey still believed that Tagalog/Filipino is still the language that best conveys their identity as a Filipino and it is still the language that they believe should be the national language of the country. Philippine English is seen as symbolizing the Filipino identity too, though. The respondents believed that the localized variety distinguishes them as Filipinos even when they use English when communicating and they never found it shameful to be using the said variety. Perhaps, this positive view towards English is reflective of their appropriate definitions of the variety: Philippine English is not seen as deficient or erroneous English but simply an English variety that is distinctly Filipino and structurally different, in particular in terms of phonology, lexicon and semantics, grammar, and pragmatics. They even agreed to the variety's promotion at home, in school, in everyday communication and in the mass media.

Comparing now this survey's findings with that of Mann and Pirbhai-Illich (2007) and Mann (2007): It appears that, while the Singapore surveys found the almost complete domination of English in all the domains of use and verbal activities surveyed (and thereby proving that English is indeed becoming the first language among many of the Singaporeans and that Singaporeans are becoming monolingual in English), the findings of this survey would tell that both Tagalog/Filipino and English is retained and that Filipinos are still at least bilingual in Tagalog/Filipino and English. And as Mann and Pirbhai-Illich and Mann have considered Singapore's unification-through-English sociolinguistic engineering a success, it seems that the current bilingual education policy of the Philippines is also success in producing bilinguals who are able to successfully carry out their daily communicative acts in the society and express most of their life experiences in English, if the findings of this survey are to be used as yardstick for evaluating the said policy. Though English is just functionally-native to the country, there is an expressed identity affiliation with the language among these students.

Conclusion

The survey findings would reveal that most domains of use and verbal activities supplied in the questionnaire are dominated by English as the language of current usage, and even more domains and activities are dominated by English as the language of preferred usage. It is safe to say that English indeed continues to penetrate the Filipino society, as evidenced by the dominance of its use in various

domains and activities and even more intimate contexts such as the home, prayers, and expressions of intimate emotions. This only proves that English remains to be a functionally-native language to the Philippines. And though the respondents of this survey still prefer Tagalog/Filipino to be the national language of the Philippines, they nonetheless have signified that (Philippine) English could be a symbol of their being a Filipino.

While it is difficult to draw conclusions based on the survey conducted among a relatively small sample of 50, it may be possible to make some future predictions based on its findings: English will stay in the Philippines, at least in some of the next few generations. These young generation Filipinos still continue to see the utility of the language not only in socio-economic terms but also familial, personal, identificational, and cultural terms.

Implications and Recommendations

While the survey yielded interesting findings, it could still be improved methodologically to be more insightful. Of course, in terms of sample size, the survey is definitely small. Perhaps a larger sample, at least comparable to the Singapore surveys (Mann and Pirbhai-Illich, 2007; Mann, 2007), should at least be tried to be attained, in one way or another. It might be very difficult to collect a sample that is representative of the Filipino population due to the vast land area of the country as well as its geographic contours.

The findings of the survey must also be referred back to the respondents, perhaps through focus group discussions, to be able to verify the reasoning behind what they have as responses.

And while this survey was able to flesh out the emerging patterns of use among selected students from a university in Manila, the Philippines (and that this emerging patterns are indicators of sociolinguistic success of the bilingual education policy), it is still important to still look at the effects of such a policy on the school achievement and language proficiency of Filipino students, as exemplified by the evaluations compiled by Gonzalez and Sibayan (1993).

As regards language planning and policy-making in the country, the “success” that seem to be demonstrated by the findings of this survey should be still be strengthened. Information should be widely disseminated as regards the sociolinguistics of languages in the Philippines, their contact, and the emerging patterns of use (and most especially bilingualism and multilingualism). It is important that this success be supported and maintained by the educational system, which definitely has a hand in language planning. Of course, such systems should be designed and structured very well to be able to reflect the sociolinguistic reality of the country.

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Notes

ⁱIn this paper, “Standard English”, for lack of an alternative term, loosely refers to the exonormative standard English of the nativized Englishes mentioned in the paper. Of course, these nativized Englishes may have also reached a point of stabilization and standardization.

Sentence-level Errors in ESL Writers' Diagnostic Essays: What students have achieved and what we can do

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Abstract

This study is part of the larger project which aims at identifying the linguistic features found in the diagnostic essays of freshmen college students from five private schools in Metro Manila, Philippines, in their first week of classes. The intention is to find out what structures students have acquired in their developing linguistic competence prior to their English Communication One instruction in college in order to identify their needs. This report focuses on the analysis of sentence-level errors and suggests ways for pedagogical enhancement. Findings show that the most frequently occurring errors are related to punctuation usage (comma), vocabulary (word form and word choice), verb usage, prepositions, run-on and fragments, noun endings (plural/singular and articles), and even as basic as capitalization usage. All errors equally occur in all proficiency levels except word choice, capitalization, and missing or unnecessary comma, which have the lowest occurrence in level three proficiency. The findings will prove beneficial for curricular enhancement.

Introduction

ESL writing instructors often problematize the dichotomy between students' knowledge of grammar rules and their ability to translate grammar knowledge into writing performance. It has long been established that students who can ace on grammar exercises and drills may fail to translate their knowledge of grammar rules into composition writing activities.

This study is part of the larger project which aims at identifying the linguistic features found in the diagnostic essays of freshmen college students in their first week of classes. The intention is to find out what structures students have achieved in their interlanguage development prior to their English Communication One instruction in college in order to identify their needs. Almost inevitable in the analysis of linguistic structures produced by students is error analysis, which describes the problematic structures that 'irritate' teachers and impede successful transmission of ideas. The purpose of this study is to analyze the sentence-level errors and suggest ways for pedagogical enhancement.

Previous studies have attested to the usefulness of error analysis in that it identifies learners' errors which are helpful in the selection of appropriate instructional materials and teaching methodologies (Sattayatham & Honsa, 2007; Kitao & Kitao, 2000). In the perspective of language learning and acquisition studies, results of error analysis may provide insights regarding language learning and learner's achievement (Dulay, H., Burt, M. & Krashen, S.D.; Khalil, 1985). Researchers and teachers have accepted that errors are an inevitable part of second language acquisition, causing them to take various paths to investigate the matter and plan ways to redress them.

Researchers focusing on errors in writing have different focal areas in research. Richards (1971) and Burt and Kiparsky (1975) had examined the types and frequencies of errors. Johanson (1978), Vann, Meyer, and Lorenz (1983) and Khalil (1985) investigated the judgement of native speakers and evaluators to the text produced by

the learners. Some studies focused on the treatment of errors (Truscott, 1999; Ferris, 1999, Yates & Kenkel, 2002). This trend of research has generated issues and debates regarding which frameworks may best explain the nature and existence of errors in student writing and how to respond to them. Some researchers situate errors in a vacuum without incorporating the principles of text construction; others argue that errors are a result of the learner's developing linguistic competence (Yates & Kenkel, 2002). More wide-ranging results on error correction was described by Ferris (2004) in her paper, *The Grammar Correction Debate in L2 Writing: Where are we, and where do we go from here? (and what do we do in the meantime...?)*.

Method

Corpus

The corpus is made up of 150 diagnostic essays written by freshmen college students in five private schools (30 essays from each school) in Metro Manila, Philippines. A controlled writing prompt written below was administered by the participating teachers on their first or second day of classes:

In not less than 1-page, single-spaced essay, write your ideas on the topic, "The Importance of the English Language in the Different Areas of My life: personal life, academic pursuit, and professional life." Provide a separate explanation for each area using examples and illustrations.

The teachers announced to the students that their essays will be used to diagnose their weaknesses in writing. The whole class period (1 to 1.5 hours) was devoted to the activity.

The data for the study consist of essay scores used to classify the texts in three levels of proficiency, coded errors, and the MANOVA and ANOVA results.

Procedures

Word-processed files were made to facilitate clear reproduction of the essays for scoring and coding purposes. The typists were instructed to retain the errors found on the essays of the participants. After word-processing, I reviewed the files to remove all typographical errors made by the typists to ensure that the errors in the essays were performance errors on the part of the writers. All essays were holistically rated by me and two other raters (my colleagues who have taught English Communication one for a long time) using a six-point scale in the modified scoring guide adapted from TOEFL writing section and SAT scoring guides. An average score is assigned to each essay. Drawing on Karasawa (2003), the assigned scores were the basis for classifying the essays into different levels of proficiency. Essays rated 1-2 were placed in level 1 proficiency, 3-4 in level 2, and 5-6 in level 3. Table 1 shows the number of essays in different levels:

Table 1

Number of Essays per Proficiency Level

Proficiency Level	Number of essays
Level 1	35
Level 2	91
Level 3	24
TOTAL	150

In comparing the essays in three proficiency levels, means were used instead of actual frequencies.

We had a trial rating session, during which the scoring guide was discussed and sample essays were rated. The two other raters also acted as validators of the modified scoring guide. We rated the 150 essays independently in one month. The interrater reliability was established among the three raters using the Kendall's Tau coefficient of concordance. The computed coefficient of concordance was .71, $p < .05$, which indicates that the raters highly agree on the ratings provided for the essays.

The next part was the most difficult – identifying and counting the errors in the essays. A preliminary list of errors was prepared using the error categories identified in previous studies (Vann, Meyer, & Lorenz, 1983; Kobayashi & Rinnert, 1996; Sattayatham & Honsa, 2007; Kitao & Kitao, 2000). The list expanded as more errors were identified. I had to validate my coding of some of the tricky structures by discussing their grammaticality or ungrammaticality with my colleagues before they were labelled as errors.

The word-processed file of the essays was subjected to a computer-aided text analysis using two computer programs that identify errors in writing. Sadly, the coders identified more errors than the software did. Some errors involving word order, word choice, pronoun shifts, and many more were not detected by the programs. It did help though in confirming many of the errors identified by the coders.

Data generated from frequency counting were run in a statistical software to generate means, sums, standard deviations, and percentages. Tests of significance using MANOVA and ANOVA were also made to compare the differences in three proficiency levels.

Results and Discussion

Types and Number of errors

The results of the manual coding and counting of errors in college freshmen diagnostic essays are shown in order from the most frequent to the least frequent errors in Table 2. Related subcategories were classified under one category.

Table 2

Type and Number of Errors in Freshmen College Students' Essays

Error Type	% of sub-category	total % for each category
Comma		16.6
Comma (unnecessary or missing)	2.2	
Missing comma after an intro clause/phrase	9.9	
Missing comma after a nonrestrictive clause	4.5	
Word form/choice		13.5
Word form	3.4	
Word choice	10.1	
Verbs		11.8
S-V Agreement	3.3	
Verb Tense	5.1	
Verb Shift	0.8	
Verb Form	2.6	
Capitalization		11.3
Punctuation and Sentence Structure		9.4
Fragment	3.5	
Run-on	5.9	
Nouns		9.3
Noun endings	3.6	
articles	5.7	
Prepositions		7.1
Pronouns		4.3
Pronoun-Antecedent Agreement	0.8	
Pronoun Shift inter-sentential	2.5	
Pronoun Shift intra-sentential	0.7	
Wrong Pronoun	0.1	
Missing word/unnecessary word/word order		3.9
Unnecessary word	.15	
Missing word	.29	
Word order	.77	
Spelling		2.9
Parallelism		1.1
Other punctuation errors		.15
Wrong Punctuation	0.8	
Hyphen	0.7	
Redundancy		0.3

Results show that the most frequent error found in the essays is that of comma usage, a punctuation error. The analysis identified three types of comma errors: unnecessary and missing comma as in [1] *I understand the people there, because they speak in English* and [2] *English is important in my academic, professional and personal life;* missing comma after an introductory clause/phrase as in [3] *For many years, English has been given high importance in schools;* and missing comma with a nonrestrictive element as in [4] *My English teacher emphasized to us the need to master English, which is our tool in achieving our academic dreams.* Although the design and scope of this study left us with no way to find out the perceptions of the students, we can hypothesize two reasons for this error: (1) The students may have not fully grasped the rules on comma usage, or (2) They may have been careless in writing, treating comma as very minor that will not cause major breakdown in the transmission of meaning.

Wrong choice of words follows next as the most frequent error and accounts for a little over 10% of the total errors. This category can be said to be the most troubling of all grammatical/syntactic error types because the students could not find appropriate words to match their intended ideas, which may be attributed to their limited vocabulary resources. The findings here corroborated Sattayatham and Honsa's (2007) finding who also found extensive errors in word choice in the written output of 237 first year medical students in Thailand. They posited that errors in word choice are a product of mother-tongue interference in the form of translating L1 into English

word by word. The examples below illustrate students' errors in word choice:

5] *We need English so that we can unite and expand ourselves to other people.*

6] *Speaking the English language plays a vital role in our society, it tells you the jobs or the career you can pursue.*

7] *English makes movies very interesting due to the usage of deep english words.*

The examples show the students difficulty in finding the appropriate verb, as shown in items [5] and [6], and adjectives as represented in item [7]. *Expand* was used instead of *communicate* and *tells* to express the idea of something that dictates or determines. *Deep* was used to convey the idea of rich English vocabulary. A related error is word form. Errors of this type are committed when learners fail to put a word in its appropriate category. For example, in example [8] the writer chose a noun category instead of an adjective (difficult); and in [9] the writer selected a verb instead of a noun (success).

[8] *Writing and speaking in English is very difficulty.*

[9] *My parents told me that succeed is possible if you exert effort in what you do.*

Another category with high frequencies of errors is that of verb usage. Four subcategories under this usage were identified:

[10]. Subject-verb agreement: *My classmates speaks [speak] in Tagalog all the time; My teacher teach [teaches] us the basics of the language.*

[11] Verb tense. *Last year, I enroll [enrolled] in this school because I want to be successful in my career.*

[12] Unnecessary shift. *My high school teacher told us to keep our goals in mind, and she emphasizes [emphasized] that we become proficient in English.*

[13] Verb Form. *I have overcame [overcome] the stress that goes along with learning it.*

It is puzzling that one of the biggest percentages of errors is that of capitalization usage—another punctuation error. This unexpected result caused me to go back to the handwritten essays to check whether these were typographical errors on the part of the typists or real performance errors made by the writers. It was found that they were performance errors. Many participants used the lower case in writing the words *I* and the first letter of the word *English* (i.e. *i* and *english*, respectively) as in items [14] and [15]:

[14] *For what i saw from my experience, english is just part of our lives ;*

[15] *So i conclude that english is just like our water and food because we need every single part of our life.*

Another most frequent error is that of preposition usage, which has three types of errors: wrong preposition, unnecessary preposition, and missing prepositions. Cases of wrong prepositions were more frequent than the last two subcategories. Students used *on* instead of *in* as in item [16] *This is because not using the English*

language on the subjects stated may cause difficulty; to instead of *in* as in item [17] *English is mostly used to the different areas of my life: academic, professional, and personal*; or *of* in the place of *in* as illustrated in item [18] *The English language is the language spoken of all countries; and into instead of *in* as in item [19] *It established into me the honor that really counts for everybody*.*

Philippine languages have no elaborate system of prepositions that correspond to each preposition in the English language, part of the reason, perhaps, why the participants had trouble using the prepositions in their essays. For instance, the generic *sa* can mean at, in, on, to, into, and towards. Even in the corpus written by adult educated Filipinos analyzed by Bautista (2000), prepositions figured in as problematic.

Run-ons and fragments are another troublesome categories. Learners have to be familiar with comma and period rules in addition to having a good grasp of what constitutes appropriate sentence structures. The participants in this study produced stringy sentences as a result of run-ons [20], and choppy ungrammatical strings of words as a result of fragment errors [21], as seen below.

[20] *And also, some things are better said in English, it sounds formal. Speaking in the said language begins as early as childhood and it is just a practice for professional, for example, if you were taught how to speak in English fluently, you'll end up in a very good school and it will make you educated enough to land a good job.*

[21] *Speaking in English is important. First in my personal life... I have to speak to my parents in English. Because they wanted me to be fluent in it.*

Noun endings (i.e. errors in the number of nouns as in *I speak three language_*) and Articles, classified under errors in noun usage, constitute almost 10% of the total errors. Articles *a*, *an*, *the*, and \emptyset (zero article) are the most difficult to master in English grammar (Bautista, 2000) . Even the advanced learners find the rules of article usage very tricky and difficult. Aside from the rules for definite and indefinite reference which go with the kind of nouns , students had to also become familiar with other rules such as familiarity versus unfamiliarity and first and second mention. The students' lack of mastery of article usage is illustrated in the following examples:

[22] *We need to use [the] English language all the time for many reasons.*

[23] *The lessons in our class serves as [a] guide in practicing/harnessing our English skills.*

[24] *I have a [an] interesting realization last summer when I listened to a TV news.*

[25] *It would be a challenge for us to gain the [\emptyset] full mastery of the language.*

Other error categories that account for less than 5% of the total errors are those of pronoun usage (mostly unnecessary pronoun

shift between sentences), word order, missing and unnecessary word, spelling and abbreviation, parallelism, and other punctuation errors involving hyphen and wrong punctuation (e.g. abused ellipsis or use of a question mark instead of a period).

Differences in Error Categories in Three Proficiency Levels

The study went beyond identifying the types and frequency counting of errors. It examined how these errors were distributed in three proficiency levels based on essay scores and whether there were significant differences in the errors.

Table 3

Multivariate Tests of Significance for Error Categories in Three Proficiency Levels

	<i>Wilks Lambda</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>df Effect</i>	<i>df Error</i>	<i>p</i>
Intercept	0.11	26.75	30	103	.00
Proficiency level	0.55	1.15	60	206	0.22

The MANOVA was used to test the differences in essays with proficiency levels 1, 2 and 3 on the error categories as a whole and ANOVA to test the differences for each error category. It was found in the overall MANOVA that the three proficiency levels do not significantly differ on error categories as a whole. The univariate analysis revealed that proficiency levels significantly differ only in

word choice, capitalization, and missing or unnecessary comma. This means that all error categories equally occurred among three proficiency levels, except for capitalization usage, word choice, and missing or unnecessary comma. These three errors had the lowest means in level 3 essays. Put in another way, essays in higher levels of proficiency (2 and 3) seem to have shared almost the same errors with essays in proficiency level 1. The three raters seem to have given high scores to essays which met the other criteria despite the errors they found in the essays, reflecting the premium they put on other aspects of writing over errors in writing.

Conclusions and Implications

The findings of the present study lead to tentative conclusions and suggest implications for curricular enhancement and research.

The analysis of the diagnostic essays of freshmen college students from five private schools in Manila revealed a wide range of grammatical and punctuation errors. The most frequently occurring errors, whose percentages range from almost 17% to almost 10% of the total errors are related to punctuation usage (comma), vocabulary (word form and word choice), verb usage, prepositions, run-on and fragments, noun endings (plural/singular and articles), and even as basic as capitalization usage. All the errors equally occur in all proficiency levels except *word choice, capitalization, and missing or unnecessary comma, which have the lowest occurrence in level three proficiency.*

These troubling errors are seen as a product of the developing linguistic competence of the learners (Yates & Kenkel, 2002). The errors may be due to deficient learning of the vocabulary and complex structures in English that are not found in the learners' L1. Additionally, some of the errors, especially errors in capitalization may be partly caused by a limited awareness of the nature of academic writing.

The findings of the present study should be fed back to classroom instruction so that curricular adjustments can be made. *The data on errors can be used to develop a program that can help students address problem areas.* But before teachers would create grammar activities to be administered to the students who have problem areas, teachers and curriculum designers need to evaluate their teaching paradigms regarding language instruction. It is not the intention of the present study to call for a return to the prescriptive paradigm of teaching and learning grammar wherein knowledge is measured using drills and memorization or embrace the descriptive approach to teaching grammar which engages students by using authentic texts and encourages actual usage of the language without much ado about rules of correctness. The prescriptive and descriptive approach to teaching grammar cannot provide optimal results when each is set within demarcation lines. Both have strengths and weaknesses. Hence, what teachers could do is to combine the strengths of the two approaches and avoid the ineffective practices associated with each approach? For example, we can teach grammar items concomitantly with reading and writing by utilizing our students' written output as

a jump-start for grammar remediation. In doing this, however, students must be taught how to set priorities. Their concern for content precedes correctness, an approach which Chenoweth and Hayes (2001 cited in Becker, 2004) call as “the strategy of write it down, even if flawed, and revise it later” (36). By doing this, the teacher signals to the students that the creation of meaning should not be impeded by surface-level concerns, and, at the same time, directs the students to attend to form at the latter part of the writing task.

Likewise, *enlarging the students' store of vocabulary must be given a priority in English classrooms*. Recall that one of the most troubling errors students commit in this study relates to their limited vocabulary resources. In order to redress this problem, students must be taught vocabulary learning strategies and must be given ample opportunities for learning new words. One of the best ways to increase one's vocabulary is to read and read some more. As students come across unfamiliar words, they can either use context clues or pick up the dictionary. They need to develop a habit of unlocking the meaning of new words they come across in reading. Teachers can build an impact in their students if they go beyond teaching vocabulary learning strategies, instilling in them the love for reading and emphasizing the importance of having a strong vocabulary.

Finally, *Teachers should take stock of how they respond to errors*. The teachers' response to the learners' errors is very important because it plays a role in either motivating or destroying students'

confidence in writing. In their review of studies focusing on how teachers respond to errors, Yates and Kenkel (2002) cited Leki's (1992) suggestions for treating errors in student writing:

Teachers who would like to help students correct sentence-level errors might begin to get a picture of the students' interlanguage by asking them to explain their reason for constructing a phrase or sentence as they did. Sometimes students have internalized an incorrect version of a grammar rule. (p. 33)

They also agreed with Zamel's (1985) conclusion on teachers' corrections on student texts:

...we [ESL teachers] need to establish a collaborative relationship with our students, drawing attention to problems, offering alternatives, and suggesting possibilities. In this sort of relationship, student and teacher can exchange information... and can "negotiate ways to bring actual effect as closely in line with desired intention as possible" (Brannon and Knoblauch, 1982:162). (p. 40)

Yates and Kenkel (2002) claimed that teachers cannot separate L2 writing instruction from L2 language instruction "because it is the L2 students' lack of knowledge about the language to achieve their writing purposes which makes responding to actual L2 writing so difficult, yet so important" (p. 46).

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How I Learned to Speak English: Factors Involved in ESL Acquisition among Filipinos

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Abstract

The present study identifies certain factors reported by college students on how they first learned to speak English. There are several theories that explain how a second language is acquired and the present study looked at specific contextual and psychological factors how on English is produced in the early stage of development. A sample of 42 students were given an open ended survey and were asked to report (1) how old they were when they had the ability to utter English words; (2) how they acquired the English language; and (3) other techniques they employed to learn how to speak English fluently. The results showed the average age that participants acquired the English language is 1.5 years old. English is acquired through the socialization process that occurs with the parents, other family members, media, and school. English is also acquired through self-regulated processes. Other techniques in learning how to speak English fluently are also clustered in the socialization and self-regulation with the addition of language acquisition strategies.

Introduction

Individuals have a built-in ability and potential to learn a language. This potential was explained by Chomsky (1972) that humans possess a language acquisition device (LAD) indicating that they are preconfigured to be ready to acquire language. It can be observed that a child develops language by first producing phonemes

(vowel and consonant sounds), then forming lexicons (vocabulary), and eventually engaging into discourses. Language acquisition becomes more complex when a second language is introduced while a learner is developing the first language. The simultaneous development of two languages results in bilingualism or the ability to speak two languages (Hakuta, 1986). There are several factors that need to be studied specifically in the area of second language acquisition. In the Philippine setting, children grow up exposed to their first language which is Filipino and a second language which is English. English is commonly used as a medium of instruction in all educational settings and majority of references studied by a learner is written in English. There are several studies that explain the characteristics and patterns of learning English as a Second Language (ESL) (ex. Bahrick, Hall, Goggin, Bahrick, & Berger, 1994; Birdsong, 1999; Johnson & Newport, 1991; Flege, 1991; Newport, 1990) but a rather important question to ask is: What are the specific ways on how English as a second language is acquired while in a process of mastering a first language such as the language in the Philippines.

Studies in acquiring a second language can be described in two ways. The first is through the group of studies concerned with describing how English as a second language is developed using cognitive and metacognitive systems of strategy. The second is through the group of studies concerned at how English as a second language is better facilitated to reach proficiency through different interventions (August & Hakuta, 1997). These two descriptions are

explained by three major theories in learning: Cognitive, social, and social-cognitive.

Acquiring English as a second language is explained by numerous learning theories. These learning theories assume that learning in general (domain-general) can be explained in the same way as how a second language is learned (domain-specific). For example, the development theory of Piaget explains that language is acquired by the age of two during the preoperational stage when the child can verbalize symbols to represent ideas. In a cognitive perspective, ESL is acquired through a child's ability on phonological processing, syntactic awareness, and working memory (Siegel, 1993). Bilingual children were found to have accelerated phonological awareness ability that is exposed to a second language during the preschool years (Campbel & Sais, 1995). A study by Cheung (1996) also found that phonological awareness measured by a nonword span increased with long term-knowledge in a second language among Hong Kong students. In a cognitive perspective, there are also findings indicating that structures in one's first language (L1) help on becoming proficient in ESL. For example, the study by August (2006) showed that Spanish grammar (L1), Spanish reading (L1), and English grammar significantly predicted scores in the Michigan ESL placement test. It was explained that the transfer of the L1 to learning ESL would need a curriculum that is intensive on ESL training. In the same way, Guglielmi (2008) found that cross-language transfer is effective if L1 and L2 have a shared alphabetical structure.

In another perspective, language is acquired as influenced by the kind of language that is spoken in one's social environment. Lev Vygotsky explained that language is acquired through social mediation and is further enriched in a socialization process. Several studies were conducted in this perspective. One is the study by Magno, deCarvalho, Lajom, Bunagan, and Regodon (2009) where it was found that English learners within an English-speaking context are more exposed to the language, which enables them to imbibe and internalize the English language through communication. The questionnaire they used identified that exposure to a second language can be observed in the home, with friends, in school, and in the media. Also, Carliner (2000) found in her data that immigrants coming to the United States had acquired English proficiency. Espenshade and Fu (1989) found in their population survey that an additional year of schooling in the United States had a larger effect on the improvement of English skills.

Part of the social environment in explaining the acquisition of English as a second language is the orientation of one's culture rooted down in history. Among the Filipinos, English as a second language is used in schools from preschool to higher education and at the same time used at homes. The English language being accustomed to Filipino learners is rooted when the Philippines was colonized by the Americans. In April 1900, several public schools were established in Manila and the American soldiers served as the teachers. All the subjects were taught in the English language (Agoncillo, 1981). In the same year, the public school system was established in different parts

of the Philippines and the official language used in the country was English. The use of the English language in education was reinforced in January 1901 when the Commission of Education (or Public Instruction) was established. In April 21, 1901, the colonial government allowed to transport American teachers in the Philippines to teach the English language among the Filipinos. These American teachers were called Thomasites (they were aboard the ship called Thomas in coming to the Philippines). The Thomasites were sent to different provinces around the Philippines. There was a significant increase of public schools in the Philippines for ten years and the use of the English language in different settings. Until the present time, English is continued to be used as the medium of instruction in schools.

There are social-cognitive and motivational factors aside from the cognitive and social theories in explaining how English as a second language is acquired. For example, the study by Frijters, Barron, and Brunello (2000) regards the role of the motivational and environmental factors in explaining early language acquisition. Their study included interest in literacy and parent-initiated home literacy that is used to predict kindergarten students' letter-name and letter-sound knowledge. They found that the subsequent addition of phonological awareness, oral receptive vocabulary, home literacy, and literacy interest significantly increases letter-name and letter-sound knowledge. When oral receptive vocabulary was used as a criterion using the same predictors with the addition of letter-name and letter-sound as a predictor, they subsequently predicted

vocabulary with home literacy having the largest contribution. The findings emphasize the importance of parents in the home in developing children's early language acquisition. In another study, Clement, Gardner, and Smythe (1980), used attitude, anxiety, motivation, and personal contact to predict anglopones, fear of assimilation, intelligence and achievement in English as a second language. The correlations indicate that fear of assimilation was negatively related with the motive factor. The factor analysis showed that self-confidence with English develops though the opportunity to contact with others who speak second language.

Research focusing on different educational interventions on English as a second language offers different interventions. For example, Avalos (2003) found that among bilingual learners, oral language proficiency is inadequate in measuring text comprehension in English. She recommended in her study that in order to improve oral proficiency in a second language, the transition of instruction should be individual moving to generic instructional models. The movement to generic instructional models is brought about by familiarity with the bilingual learners' linguistic and cultural backgrounds, and their previous experience. In another study, Waterman (2007) used parental involvement as part of ESL instruction. The ESL instruction is described as

the treatment-group ESL teachers were guided to intentionally integrated parent-involvement skills and behaviors into the ESL instruction. When deciding what to focus on in the class, the ESL teachers emphasized the parent-involvement interests

and goals that emerged from initial student interviews as well as discussions about student goals that took place during class. The teachers taught English vocabulary, pronunciation, and grammar related to talking to a teacher or helping children with homework, for example. The students practiced through role-play or using authentic texts, such as samples of homework sent home (p. 230).

The results showed significant increase in the students' ESL skills and indicated that common barriers in learning ESL include (1) insufficient means for learning a second language; (2) lack of familiarity with different cultures and life experiences; (3) lack of familiarity with a different school system, and ineffective or insufficient ways of communicating about an unfamiliar school system and its resources; and (4) immigrant-parent isolation.

Part of a social-cognitive perspective in acquiring a second language is the use of language learning strategies. Strategies of learning a second language consist of techniques that learners use to help them retain and retrieve newly acquired information (Shmais, 2003). Oxford (as cited in Hsiao & Oxford, 2002; Lee, 2003) defines second language learning strategies as specific actions, behaviors, steps or techniques used intentionally for improvement in utilizing a new language. These learning strategies reflect students' cognitive, metacognitive, and socio-affective styles of learning (O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985).

The previous studies framed specific variables that increase with, and improve language acquisition specifically in English. The

present study identified whether the specific factors such as cognitive, social, social-cognitive, and instructional factors would be reported using a self-report survey from college students as participants.

Method

Participants

The participants in the study were 36 college students coming from two universities in the National Capital Region in the Philippines. These 36 students grew up where English was part of their daily communication. The participants' average age when they first spoke English words was 1.5. The participants underwent the same curriculum in grade school and high school and, and English was used as a medium of instruction in their schools.

Instruments

A survey questionnaire was constructed that sought information on the ways on how the participants learned to speak English. The survey questionnaire was in an open-ended format that asked two critical questions: (1) How did you learn to speak English? (2) What are other ways to become proficient in English? The survey questionnaire also asked information about the age when they started to utter English words.

Procedure

The participants were first asked to answer a checklist to screen their English background. The participants indicated (1) if they can speak English; (2) if English was used as a medium of instruction

since preschool to grade school; and (3) their age when they first uttered English words. After accomplishing the checklist, they were requested to answer two open ended questions in the survey. They were instructed to write down their age, as well as how old they were when they first started to speak in English. After accomplishing the questionnaires, the participants were debriefed about the purpose of the study.

Data Analysis

The responses in the survey questionnaire were analyzed using a qualitative approach. Cluster analysis was used to form sources of variation for each question. In the analysis, the data was first encoded and specific labels were provided for each response. The responses with similar labels were then clustered to a common cluster. The clusters formed were reviewed by two external researchers.

Results

There were a total of 183 responses that were included in the cluster analysis. Clusters were formed under each of the major foci of the study: Factors on how English was learned and other factors to become proficient in English. For the first focus "how English was learned," the largest occurring similar response was about watching English programs on televisions (20.65%). For the second focus "factors to become proficient in English," the largest similar response was on reading English materials and books (23.91%). The responses

were similar between the first and second foci, although the emphasis and frequency of responses differed.

There were 9 factors formed that explain how English is first acquired and 12 factors formed for other ways to become proficient in English. The factors that explain how English was first acquired are through family socialization (29%), media (22%), school enhancing activities (22%), developing language-related skills (9%), role of others in language formation (3%), environmental cues (2%), seeking assistance (1%), aid of materials (1%), and through practice (1%). Similar factors were also formed for other factors to become proficient in English that include reading strategy (22%), enhancement through training (13%), English conversations (12%), media (12%), listening activities (11%), aid of materials (6%), translation (4%), practice (4%), environmental cues (3%), role of others in language formation (3%), family socialization (2%), and writing activities (1%). The common clusters that were formed for the two foci are family socialization, media, role of other in language formation, environmental cues, aid of materials, and practice.

The factors of the first focus were further categorized into broader latent constructs that include the social factors and self-regulation. The social factors include family socialization, media, school enhancing activities, role of others in language formation, environmental cues, and seeking assistance. The self-regulation factor includes developing language-related skills, aid of materials, and practice.

For the second focus on other factors to become proficient in English, latent factors formed were also social factors, self-regulation, and the addition of language strategies. The social factors include engaging in English conversations, media, environmental cues, and the role of other in language formation. Self-regulation includes enhancement through training, aid of materials, and practice. The language acquisition strategies include reading strategy, listening activities, writing activities, and translation.

Discussion

The factors formed in the study were all supported by studies explaining how English as a second language is formed. Despite similarities on how English is primarily acquired and other suggested ways to become proficient in English, there are marked differences. English as a second language is acquired through a socialization process that occurs between the learner and other external events. It is also acquired when individuals engage in self-regulation activities such as looking for ways in which English can be further enhanced. On the ways to become proficient in English, social and self-regulation factors are also formed with the addition of language strategies.

The emergence of social and self-regulation processes in acquiring English as a second language is supported by the variables used in previous studies in predicting different English language measures. The social strategies were supported by previous studies explaining that language is formed by the kind of socialization

process that happens in the environment (Avalos, 2003; Carliner, 2000; Espenshade & Fu, 1989; Frijters, Barron, & Brunello, 2000; Magno, deCarvalho, Lajom, Bunagan, & Regodon, 2009; Waterman, 2002). This socialization process is characterized by the combined role of the family (specifically the parents), media, role of others in language formation (friends and teachers), environmental cues, and seeking assistance.

The largest number of responses on the first focus is the influence of parents in teaching the child in speaking English. The parent plays a crucial role in the acquisition of the English language of the child because the early years are spent with them. Language is formed by about 1.5 years of age (as reported by the respondents in the study) and these years are spent in engaging different modes of communication with the parents.

The media also plays a large role in the development of the English language. When the child starts spending time with the television (majority of responses), they acquire the English language heard and seen. English comprehension is also facilitated because the English words are enacted. The television is responded by majority because it is readily available in the homes and majority of the channels makes use of English as their primary language.

The schools also facilitate the acquisition of the English language. Schools in the Philippines make use of the English language as a medium of instruction. All subjects are taught in English except for Filipino and, in some schools, social studies as well. This means that majority of the training and studying are in

English and this indicates that learning is also facilitated and dominated by the English language.

The school and the home provide a socialization process where the child interacts with others such as friends, siblings, and parents making use of the English language. Some of the responses on the socialization factor include engaging in conversations with others in English, going to another country where English is spoken, and the teachers in school where English is being spoken. Exposure of the child to these various mediums allows them to acquire and become proficient in the English language.

Aside from the socialization process that occurs, the individual also makes use of self-initiated processes which enables him to acquire and become proficient in the English language. Such are labeled as self-regulation. Self-regulation refers to thought processes that enable individuals to initiate and engage in tasks to enhance their skills and abilities in speaking English. This can be true for English acquisition because the individual use different means to acquire and eventually become proficient in that language. The clusters formed under self-regulation include developing language-related skills, aid of materials, practice, and self-enhancement through training. The responses under language-related skills involve activities that would engage the child in reading, writing, and listening that would eventually help them to speak in English. Other responses include learning the lexicons by vocabulary building and then word meanings followed by mastery of syntactic structures by studying grammar. Individuals regulate their learning with the use of learning

aids such as audio-visual materials and audio books in English. Majority also becomes proficient through practice by reciting in English, speaking in English with classmates, conversing with others using the English language, etc. Training was also mentioned where English is learned in schools, special classes, programs that they engage in for the purpose of developing better the English language.

English is better enhanced using language strategies. These language acquisition strategies are also supported by previous studies where it was revealed that the use of these strategies leads to proficiency in English (Hsia & Oxford, 2002; Lee, 2003; O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Kupper, & Russo, 1985; Shmais, 2003). These language strategies formed were composed of reading strategy, listening activities, writing activities, and translation. By engaging in these activities and strategies, the individual acquires proficiency in the English language. For example, reading English texts, listening to English words, and writing in English are means to enhance individuals' language and communication skills. Reading, writing, and listening strategies include exposure to the English language and in turn, individuals acquire the skills necessary to read and write better. Another strategy identified is translation. It involves Filipino words translated into English words. Some reported using Filipino-English dictionaries, asking parents the English words for some Filipino terms, etc.

The findings of the present study did not only arrive with clusters that explain how English is acquired as a second language, but it also served to verify specific variables used in previous studies

to be useful in second language acquisition and ways to become proficient in English.

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