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Editorial Commentary: Exemplifying Multidisciplinary Research in Philippine Applied Linguistics

Leah E. Gustilo  
_De La Salle University_  
_Managing Editor, Philippine ESL Journal_

The Philippine ESL Journal has received many submissions last year, which is why we have nine articles divided in two sections for this issue. We thank Dr. Maria Cequena and Mr. Jessie Barrot from De la Salle University, Manila; and Dr. Teresita Tajoloso from Palawan State University for their willingness and time to review the articles extensively.

The previous issues of PESL have one or two submissions representing countries from Asia other than the Philippines. In this issue, only the works of Filipino scholars and researchers were included. This may not be a coincidence but a circumstantial indication to highlight some of the areas of research that are of importance to the language learning/teaching in the Philippines, the Mecca for English language learning (Robertson, 2008; Magno, 2009), as more Asian students coming from Iran, China, Korea, and other neighbouring Asian countries come to the Philippines to learn English and get their undergraduate and graduate courses in language education.

The first section presents four sociolinguistic-discourse analytic researches touching different sectors in the Philippines. Applying Goffman’s (1999) framework on the concept of Face, Pamela Skouhus’s study provides an ingenious analysis of business workplace interaction and face management on employer-employee discourse that involved face threatening speech acts: avoidance process and corrective process. Using Gumperz’s (1982) framework for conversational functions of code-switching, Gocheco’s paper appropriately addressed a gap in Philippine research. The study analyzed a unique corpus of political discourse: television-mediated political campaign advertisement (TPCA) during the campaign period for Philippine senatorial elections. My ethnographic study with Mikhail Go utilized triangulation techniques to analyze the preferred medium of communication and patterns of code
alternations of Filipino factory labor workers. Morales’ study represents a discourse of the educated sector of the Philippine society: adults who were 18 years old and above and who were educated in the Philippines through English as a medium of instruction. The study analyzed the meaning and function of actually and in fact in Philippine English from ICE-Phi corpus.

These studies remind us of the thriving area in Philippine research which was strengthened by the voluminous works of Danilo Dayag, an intelligent scholar who gave Discourse Analysis a significant role in the tradition of Philippine research, and his students (e.g. on classroom discourse, Dayag, 2012; on media discourse, Dayag, 2008a, 2008b; Dayag, 2010; on metadiscourse and argumentation, Dayag, 2009; on political discourse, Gocheco, 2010; on academic discourse, Gustilo, 2010; on media discourse, Pullido, (2010), to name a few). May all those who come behind us (our students and young researchers) find these works inspiring as we too have been inspired by the legendary works of Bro. Andrew Gonzales and Dr. Ma. Lourdes (Tish) Bautista—two prominent pillars in Philippine Linguistics.

The second part of the issue includes research touching psycholinguistics, bilingualism, and ESL research. It reports on researches delving on variables that play important role in language learning in a bilingual and ESL context. First, Cequena’s study involving 66 freshman college students investigated how weblogging can facilitate the development of writing skills. Students did their writing tasks using a web facility where they could read and post comments on their written outputs. Cequena found that weblogging indeed helped students develop their writing performance. Second, Gomari and Lucas focused their research lenses on the language learning motivation and language anxiety of Iranian EFL students in the Philippines. Their top finding indicated that these students were not amotivated. But further study needs to be done to confirm their findings as their study did not find strong evidence to the claim that the students are extrinsically motivated rather than intrinsically motivated to learn the English language. Third, using Mokhtari and Reichard’s (2002) Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategies Inventory (MARS), Mante-Estacio examined the metacognitive awareness and perceived use of reading strategies of 30 ESL students. She found that her participants used the three major types of
metacognitive reading strategies. However, her findings need confirmation as her study did not specify which strategy affects reading comprehension because the regression analysis indicated that there was no significant predictor of the reading tests scores. Fourth, Alice Mae A. Mamhot, Maria Hannah V. Martin and Elaine M. Masangya contributed to the literature of language anxiety by comparing two groups of respondents: 20 ESL and 20 EFL learners in two Philippine-based learning institutions using the 33-item Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) survey developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) and the 2-item questionnaire adapted from Williams and Andrade (2008). Again, I sound a trumpet call to replicate their study to confirm their findings especially the finding that the EFL group have “no level of language anxiety,” while the ESL students have a slight anxiety on the Fear of Negative Evaluation and General Feeling of Anxiety. Lastly, Parina and De Leon’s paper focused on three interesting variables: writing apprehension, writing self-efficacy, and language exposure. Utilizing a language exposure questionnaire, Daly-Miller’s writing apprehension test or WAT (Erkan and Saban, 2011), and YaVuz-Erkan’s (2004, cited in Erkan & Saban, 2011) self-efficacy in writing scale questionnaire (SWS), they found an inverse relationship between writing apprehension and writing efficacy, no correlation between writing apprehension and language exposure, but significant relationship between language exposure and efficacy.

One common denominator of the studies introduced here, which is a limitation that can be improved on in future research, is the small size of the sample, making the conclusions and generalizations tentative. Nevertheless, the studies have made significant contributions in the field of linguistics, as these studies have identified and occupied important gaps in research and have contributed in the validation of theories and findings that underpin and inform successful language learning and teaching. More importantly, these studies are informed by methodologies and perspectives from multiple disciplines, which are integrated into an innovative research. I am specifically amazed at how language teachers now have employed quantitative methods (In the past, many of our studies have been largely qualitative in nature) and concepts from other related disciplines in doing research.
References

Dayag, D. T. (2012). Exploring the use of questions as a rhetorical strategy in classroom discourse in multilingual contexts. Issues in English Linguistics (Proceedings of the 1st World Congress of Scholars of English Linguistics (WCSEL-1)), Hanyang University, Seoul, South Korea, 26-30 June 2012.


Face-work at work: 
Avoidance and Corrective Practices in Performing 
Two Face-threatening Speech Acts in the Workplace 

Pamela Skouhus 
*De La Salle University, Manila, Philippines* 

**Abstract** 

Applying Goffman’s (1999) framework on the two kinds of face-work, this article investigates how the *avoidance process* and the *corrective process* are used by Filipino employees when fulfilling two face-threatening speech acts, namely, breaking bad news to their manager and pointing out their manager’s mistake. Seven Filipino employees of a Danish-managed IT (information technology) company engaged in web development outsourcing participated in this study. Analysis of the participants’ responses showed that although their discourse was made up mainly of corrective measures, the participants likewise practiced the avoidance process; significantly, its protective measure which accounts for almost half of the face-saving utterances made by the employees in the speech acts. Through the use of the protective measure, the employees can be said to have exerted effort to protect the negative face of their superior as a form of politeness with due regard to their power relations. Overall, the study provides an understanding of workplace interaction and face management between superior and subordinates in the Asian setting, and provides interesting insights in the study of organizational behavior. 

*Keywords:* face-work; face management; speech acts; organizational behavior; avoidance process; corrective process
Introduction

In this age when cross-cultural communication has become commonplace in many corporate and business settings, the importance of understanding the various mechanisms that govern the construction of language and interaction has motivated many empirical studies to uncover the complex underpinnings of social interaction. Not only do the knowledge that these investigations yield make people of different cultures better understand each other, but at the end of the day, such understanding facilitates work productivity—and productivity always translates to progress.

Researchers on the dynamics of organizational behavior in Asia propose *face* as a key variable that can explain much of the complexity of social interactions in Asian organizations (Kim & Nam, 1998). Indeed, Goffman’s (1999) sociological notion of *face* is distinctively useful in explaining interactional behavior. *Face* is defined as the public self-image that every individual wants to claim for himself (Brown and Levinson, 1987). In simpler language, *face* means an individual’s self-esteem (Huang, 2006). Linguists have proven that when individuals perform acts that threaten *face*, they will construct and adjust their utterances to encode *face* concerns—thus, the more threatening the act, the greater the extent to which *face* concerns will be encoded (Holtgraves, 1992). Thus, in social interaction it is necessary for speakers to engage in preventive or remedial linguistic work to avoid, mitigate, and deflect consequent social friction (Morand, 2000) that may result from performing face-threatening acts.

In the Philippine culture, *face* carries a heavy weight due to the prevalent values *hiya* (shame) and *amor propio* (sensitivity to personal affront), which are major norms of socialization (Hunt, Espiritu, Quisumbing, & Green, 1998). To understand how *amor propio* and *hiya* operate in Filipino psychology is to understand the value of *face* management to Filipinos. The extreme care taken to avoid offense is necessary among Filipinos because the individual’s *amor propio* or self esteem is fragile and may be shattered by an open disagreement and may yield to *hiya* or shame (Hunt, Espiritu, Quisumbing, & Green, 1998). *Hiya* is deeply seated in Filipino consciousness and functions as a protective device to shield an individual from losing *face* (Jocano, 1999). Since *hiya* and *amor propio* define their public and private behavior, Filipinos’ orientation
towards preserving one’s *face* is strong and governs many aspects of their behavior when interacting with other people.

Filipinos place great importance not only on maintaining one’s *face* but also that of others. In his discussion of Filipino psychology, Enriquez (1977) asserts that *pakikipagkapwa* (general regard for others) is an important level and mode of interpersonal relations among Filipinos. Filipinos highly value smooth interpersonal relationships, causing them to be reluctant to take action or say things which will impact unpleasantly on others (Hunt, Espiritu, Quisumbing, & Green, 1998) or will cause others to lose *face*.

Though sociologists have generally characterized *face* management among Filipinos in day-to-day interactional settings, not much research has been done on this interesting subject in the context of the workplace. According to Schegloff (1998), in studies concerning social structures, it matters that the participants in the data being examined are working at tasks which are constrained by organizational contingency. Indeed, linguists have established that the way most people communicate with their manager, colleagues, or clients greatly differ from the way they communicate with family and friends (Koester, 2004). Moreover, the workplace is a venue where power-relations strongly affect language and interaction. Power is a variable in superior-subordinate interactions in organizations, which follows that subordinates are careful not to offend or infringe on those upon whom they are dependent (Morand, 2000). Consequently, performing face-threatening speech acts in the workplace can be extremely challenging, especially for workers whose culture is highly oriented toward face-preservation. This and other workplace-related variables may affect the way *face* management is fulfilled by Filipinos at work. This area is what this research aims to explore.

The present study investigates how face-work is linguistically realized by a group of Filipinos in the context of work, using their second language, English. Specifically, this paper aims to answer the following questions:

How do employees of an IT company manifest the two kinds of face-work when fulfilling two face-threatening speech acts, namely, breaking bad news to their manager and pointing out their manager’s mistake?
a. Using their L2, English, how do they manifest avoidance process?

b. Using their L2, English, how do they manifest corrective process?

The findings of this study are significant in the Philippine workplace. Jocano’s (1999) study of multinational companies operating in the Philippines, which focused on Filipino and expatriate relations in the workplace, reveal that not all problems encountered in the workplace are technical. Instead, strained relations in the workplace are the main sources of conflict arising from “a clash of cultural values, norms and practices, which may either be verbal or nonverbal” (p. v). Jocano points out that due to these reasons, foreign managers and Filipino workers often do not understand each other even if they communicate. Thus, knowledge on face management among Filipino workers in their second language will help facilitate better understanding between foreign managers and Filipino employees. This may prevent strained relations in the workplace and indirectly contribute to productivity.

Framework

To answer the research questions, the study employs Goffman’s (1999) framework on face where he describes two basic kinds of face-work: the avoidance process and the corrective process. According to Goffman, these two kinds of face-saving practices are observed in certain delicate transactions. The speech acts of breaking bad news to one’s superior and pointing out a superior’s mistake are undeniably delicate because such acts are highly face-threatening, both to one’s positive face and negative face. The positive face represents an individual’s desire to be accepted and liked by others, while the negative face pertains to one’s right to freedom of action where one need not be imposed on by others (Huang, 2006).

Goffman (1999) differentiates the two kinds of face-work. In the avoidance process, individuals avoid contact or voluntarily withdraw even before an expected threat to face is likely to occur. This process includes two measures: (a) the defensive measures and (b) the protective measures. On the other hand, in the corrective process, the face-threatening event has occurred or was not overlooked, and thus calls for corrective steps. This
process entail interchange or a sequence of acts done after a threat to face had been acknowledged. Interchange is made up of the following phases: (a) challenge where the threat is acknowledged; (b) offering where the offender corrects the offense; (c) acceptance where the offering is accepted by the offended person; and (d) gratitude or thanks where the forgiven person conveys a sign of gratitude to those who accepted his or her offering.

Holtgraves (1992) theorizes that Goffman’s face-management framework has the potential to explain comprehensively how speakers will phrase all remarks that have interpersonal implications. Moreover, what easily lends Goffman’s framework as a tool in linguistic analysis is the fact that, in his framework, he enumerates specific linguistic measures by which the above categories may be realized. For instance, one is considered to employ the protective measure of the avoidance process when one says things that show respect and politeness, extending to others ceremonial treatment that might be their due; when one does not say or instead leaves unstated facts that might implicitly or explicitly contradict and embarrass the positive claims made by others; when one employs circumlocutions or roundabout expression, a form of indirectness for evasion; and the like. In other words, the two types of face-work, including their categories and phases of interchange, are measurable through language and discourse.

In the method and procedure section that follows, I presented a detailed list of these linguistic measures which I used as basis in the analysis of the participants’ discourse. I deemed to place the linguistic measure in the method and procedure rather than in the framework section because these criteria are used in the analysis of data.

**Method and Procedure**

This research is a case study of seven employees of an IT company engaged in web development outsourcing, with clients mostly from Europe and North America. It is owned and managed by a Danish national who will be referred to as “John” (not his real name). Despite having stayed in the Philippines for thirteen years, John does not speak Filipino and understands very little of the language. At work, he communicates with his employees in English, which is why the employees are perfect participants for this study, since they use their L2 at work most of the time, especially when communicating with their superior. At the time this
research was conducted, the company had seven employees, six of whom are programmers and one an accountant. All employees speak Filipino and use English as their second language.

Data were gathered through one-on-one interviews using a questionnaire, which comprises two parts: the first are questions on approaching a foreign manager to break bad news, while the second are questions on pointing out a foreign manager’s mistake. A role-play was included in each part of the questionnaire. Two scenarios were given to the participants, which required them to construct a talk directed to their foreign manager: (1) to break bad news to him; and (2) to point out his mistake.

(1) Scenario to break bad news to the foreign manager:

You discovered a programming error by looking at the development specifications of a program. You realized that you made a major mistake: you forgot to add the newsletter module; and now you don’t have time to get it in because you’re currently working on another project. You need to tell John* about this bad news.

* The foreign manager’s fictitious name; employees address him through his first name.

(2) Scenario to point out the foreign manager’s mistake:

John assigned you to do a website and he strictly instructed you to use Design Layout # 1. After a week, you finished the website. But upon finishing it, you became certain that the correct design layout that should have been used was Design Layout # 2. How will you tell John that he made a mistake?

These scenarios were printed on flash cards and the participants were given sufficient time to plan their talk. During the role-play, this researcher acted as the manager. The employees were interviewed
individually in their office’s conference room where they were not heard by the rest of their colleagues. The interviews were tape-recorded and later transcribed. This study used interview to gather data instead of recording actual dialogues between manager and employees because, according to the company’s manager, occurrences of employees approaching him to break bad news do not happen frequently (John, personal communication, May 27, 2007).

The data was first gathered for another empirical investigation, i.e., to determine the strategies of the employees in fulfilling the two speech acts. This time, the set of data are used to achieve a different set of research objectives under a totally different framework, which was discussed in the preceding section.

The transcribed data are segmented using *utterance* as basic unit of analysis. Utterance unit is used because the data emanated from oral discourse. To determine and categorize the face-work expressed in the participants’ utterances, I used the linguistic measures specified by Goffman (1999) in the framework. The table on the following page shows these linguistic measures which were posited by Goffman (1999) himself. Thus, the participant’s utterances were examined for these linguistic measures which were used as basis in the analysis of the discourse.

Notice that in the corrective process, I only included two phases of interchange: *challenge* and *offering*. The *acceptance* phase (when the person to whom the offering is made accepts it) and *gratitude* or *thanks*, which is the terminal move (when the forgiven person conveys a sign of gratitude to those who have given him forgiveness) are not included. I glossed over these last two phases of the *corrective process* because the focus of the investigation is on the employee’s discourse, excluding that of the manager. Since *acceptance* is the discourse of the addressee or the manager, and the *gratitude* or *thanks* follows it, these two phases were deliberately excluded from the analysis.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Avoidance Process</th>
<th>Corrective Process</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Defensive Measures</strong></td>
<td><strong>1. Challenge</strong> – Participant calls attention to the misconduct or acknowledges the incident</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Keeps off topics</td>
<td>▪ <strong>Offering</strong> – The offender attempts to correct the offense and re-establish the expressive order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Keeps off activities that would lead to information that will ruin the line that one is maintaining</td>
<td>▪ An attempt can also be made to show that what took place is a meaningless event, unintentional act, a joke not to be taken seriously, or an unavoidable, understandable product of circumstances</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Changes the topic of conversation</td>
<td>▪ Meaning of the event may be granted and effort concentrated on the creator of it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Changes the direction of activity</td>
<td>a. Information may be provided to show the creator was under the influence of something and not himself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Presents initially a front of diffidence and composure, suppresses any show of feelings until he has found out what kind of line others have</td>
<td>b. Or that he was under the command of somebody else and not acting for himself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Makes claims regarding self with belittling modesty, with strong qualifications or with a note of unseriousness</td>
<td>▪ When one claims the act in jest, he may claim the self that seemed to lie behind the act was also protected as a joke</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Hedges to prepare a self that won’t be discredited by exposure, personal failure, or the unanticipated acts of others</td>
<td>▪ When one finds that he has failed in capacities that others assumed him to have, he may quickly add, in a serious or unserious way, that these capacities are part of himself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ If one doesn’t hedge, one attempts to be realistic about one’s claim knowing that otherwise, events may discredit him/her and make him lose face</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Protective Measures</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Shows respect and politeness, extending to others any ceremonial treatment that is due them</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Employs discretion; leaves unstated facts that might implicitly or explicitly contradict and embarrass the positive claims made by others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Employs circumlocutions or roundabout expression as a means of indirectness for evasion</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Employs deception, phrasing ones replies with careful ambiguity so that the other’s face is preserved even if their welfare is not</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Employs courtesies, making slight modifications of his demands on or appraisals of others so that others will see the situation as one where their self-respect is not threatened</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Makes a belittling demand upon others</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Findings

A. Face-Work when Breaking Bad News to a Foreign Manager

Let me first establish that breaking bad news to a manager, especially when the source of the bad news is an employee’s mistake, is a face-threatening act. This speech act threatens to disrupt what Goffman (1999) terms as ritual equilibrium or interaction order, and intrinsically threatens face. A bad news caused by an employee’s mistake—which was the scenario the participants were given—threatens to ruin the line (Goffman, 1999) that an employee maintains, i.e., that one is competent to do the tasks that one is assigned with, and that one is attuned to the details of one’s job in order to avoid mistake, thereby not causing any complications at work. Breaking bad news threatens the positive face or the speaker’s face because it endangers the employee’s desire to be liked or accepted by his or her superior, or the employee’s desire to be professionally viewed as a skilled and efficient worker.

In fulfilling this face-threatening speech act, one would commonly be expected to use the face-saving corrective process, since the event that threatens one’s face (i.e., committing the mistake that led to the bad news) was not prevented and has occurred, and hence, needs to be corrected. However, this was not the case with the participants. Although their discourse was made up mainly of corrective measures, which accounts for 63% of the utterances, the participants likewise practiced the avoidance process, making up 37% of the total utterances for this specific speech act. Table 1 shows the details.
Table 1
Kinds of Face-Work Expressed in the Employees’ Utterances when Breaking Bad News to the Foreign Manager

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employee</th>
<th>Corrective Practices</th>
<th>Avoidance Practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mary*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Bob*</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Scott*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Rick*</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ted*</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Ann*</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Kay*</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total (Percent)</td>
<td>19 (66%)</td>
<td>10 (34%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*These are not the participants’ real names. Their names were changed in order to protect their identities.

Except for Scott and Kay, all the other employees combined the two kinds of face-work in their discourse and had at least two moves. Let us take one example:

Rick : Uh John, we have a problem (laughing tone). Uh regarding the previous project, I forgot to add the newsletter module (.) uh well I have no other excuses since I forgot it, so (laughs a bit), yeah that’s it. I have to face the music right (laughs a bit) so.

John : What should we do about it Rick?

Rick : Well the, the best thing to do about it is to delegate this task to another person who is free, who has the time or the spare time to finish this one.

John : That’s it?

Rick : Yes, that’s the only solution that I can think of because I’m busy with the other project.

Rick begins by taking on the responsibility of calling attention to the misconduct. His opening utterance Uh John, we have a problem is an introductory to the interchange phase challenge. In the succeeding utterance, John acknowledges the incident—Uh regarding the previous project, I forgot to add the newsletter module. This corrective step is then followed by
an avoidance move, specifically a *defensive measure*, when he says *I have no other excuses since I forgot it, so …I have to face the music*. This utterance shows Rick making a realistic claim about what had happened, i.e., he forgot to include the module and he had no excuse for it. This may be understood as Rick’s defensive way of preventing his manager from further probing for the possible causes of the bad news, which can aggravate the threat to one’s face. The manager’s question on what should be done about the matter is a cue for Rick to proceed to the next phase of the interchange, *the offering*, where he is given the chance to correct the situation and, in Goffman’s term (1999), re-establish the ritual equilibrium. Rick takes the opportunity to do a *corrective* step by offering a possible solution to the bad news by saying *…the best thing to do about it is to delegate this task to another person who is free, who has the time or the spare time to finish this one.*

The face-saving pattern reflected in Rick’s discourse appears in most of the employees’ talk, where they intersperse corrective steps with avoidance steps, shifting from one repertoire of face-saving practice to another.

Only two out of the seven employees, Scott and Kay, manifest one kind of face-work in their discourse, i.e., *corrective process*. Scott’s message was direct, concise, and does not contain any defensive or avoidance measure:

Scott : John, I ah, have not added the newsletter module for this program ah, and it is a requirement. Um (.) I need time to (.) include the module into the program.

John : So, what do you plan to do Scott?

Scott : Um (.) I have to stop what I’m doing right now and add (.) the module.

Scott begins breaking bad news to the manager by directly acknowledging his mistake, thus fulfilling the *challenge* phase in the interchange—*John I ah, have not added the newsletter module for this program ah, and it is a requirement*. He then proceeds to the offering phase by informing the manager what he should do to correct the mistake—*I need time to (.) include the module into the program*. The same may be said of Kay’s talk. She starts with a challenge or the acknowledgment of the misconduct,
providing a detailed explanation, and towards the end of the talk makes an offering to re-establish equilibrium:

Kay: John I have um I made a mistake when I prepared the income tax return and there were some revenues that (. ) I (. ) declared in this quarter’s income tax return that were supposed to be declared in the, in the succeeding quarter. Um (. ) so as a result, the current, current quarter’s income tax return is overstated. But the, the revenue that was declared in the, at the, sorry, the revenue that will be declared in the next quarter’s income tax (. ) will be reduced because they were already declared in the (. ) current quarter’s income tax.

It is interesting to note that all employees begin their discourse with the interchange phase challenge in accordance with the corrective process that Goffman (1999) outlines in his framework. All of them admit their mistake and, therefore, acknowledge the misconduct that led to the face-threatening event. This is understandable because, as mentioned, the situation is a face-threatening event that took place which naturally calls for rectification. Here are examples of employees’ introduction expressing a challenge:

Mary: John I would like to tell you something, which I did wrong.

Bob: Um (..) uh (..) John, as I (. ) went through the specification sheet of the (. ) uh project that I had last week, I (. ) forgot (. ) to include the newsletter module that was clearly stated in the specification sheet.

Ted: Uh we have a problem, I know, we have a problem. I didn’t, I didn’t, we’re missing a newsletter module for the project I was working on before and (. ) uh we need it, we need it.

Ann: Uh, hi John. Um (. ) I’m sorry but I forgot to add something on our previous project

Kay: John I have um I made a mistake when I prepared the income tax return and there were some revenues that (. ) I
declared in this quarter’s income tax return that were supposed to be declared in the, in the succeeding quarter.

The findings show that the employees’ discourse in fulfilling the speech act of breaking bad news to their foreign manager manifest the two kinds of face-work. Table 2 shows the frequency of the phases of the corrective process and of the measures comprising the avoidance process as expressed in their talk.

Table 2
Specific Corrective and Avoidance Practices Expressed in the Employees’ Utterances when Breaking Bad News to the Foreign Manager

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Face-Work</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrective Process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering</td>
<td>(10)</td>
<td>(33)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(9)</td>
<td>(30)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance Process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective measures</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(6)</td>
<td>(20)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defensive measures</td>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>(17)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I have discussed above how the employees manifest the corrective process in their discourse. Let me now discuss how their talk reveals the two measures of the avoidance process. The participants employ both defensive and protective orientations, as can be gleaned in Table 2. These are the ways by which they expressed protective measures:

Mary:  Um if it is okay with you, I’m going to stop the project I’m doing right now...

Bob:  Um since you are the manager here, you can decide on things that I should do.
      Um right now I cannot decide.
      So if you want me to (. ) go out of the project that I have right now and fix the missing portion
Ann: Um (.) I’m sorry but I forgot to add something on our previous project.
: And then so um if ever you will give me time to do it, I can um do it later

The underlined utterances show protective orientation. Mary, Bob, and Ann adjust their language to show respect and politeness. Respect is manifested in the way they emphasize on the manager’s power, i.e., his decision-making function which determines what they can or cannot do—*if you want me to…, if it’s okay with you*. In Goffman’s (1999) language, the employees extend their superior a ceremonial treatment that is due him. Such orientation to the manager’s power show respect and politeness among the employees. In fact, Ann, directly apologizes to display politeness. In Goffman’s (1999) concept of face-work, these are manifestations of protective measure.

On the other hand, these are the ways by which the participants manifested defensive measures in their talk:

**Bob**

: So (.) I know you don’t accept sorry, uh (.) so, eh, it was my mistake.
: So (.) I uh accept that it was my mistake so (.) I’m (.) ready to (.) take any (.) ah punishment or (.) that that you will give.
: Um right now I cannot decide.

**Rick**

: Uh well I have no other excuses since I forgot it, so …I have to face the music.

**Ted**

: *It was my mistake,* so I can (.) I can you know spend a few hours on working on the newsletter.

According to Goffman (1999), one of the ways by which a defensive measure is manifested is when an individual attempts to be realistic about his claims for himself, “knowing that otherwise events may discredit him and make him lose face” (p. 310). The examples above show this. The underlined utterances are an admission of one’s mistake, thus a realistic claim made for oneself. By admitting their mistake, the employees have prepared “a self for himself that will not be discredited by exposure, personal failure, or the unanticipated act” of their superior (p. 310). By
professing their own mistake, the employees defensively anticipated what their superior may have said, e.g., blame them, and prevented their manager from further probing, which can be another face-threatening encounter. The underlined utterances are also a form of hedging where the employees express compensatory measures so as to counterbalance a possible negative reaction of the manager. Hedging is also a defensive measure to save one’s face (Goffman, 1999).

B. Pointing Out the Manager’s Mistake

Just like breaking bad news to a manager, pointing out a superior’s mistake is a face-threatening act. It generally threatens to disrupt the ritual equilibrium and specifically threatens the negative face of the addressee, i.e., the manager. Telling a manager that he or she committed a mistake threatens that superior’s negative face because it endangers to ruin the line that he or she maintains. It poses a doubt on his or her competence as a leader, as someone who can make decisions that will yield productivity—it questions his or her skill or knowledge about tasks that he or she orders subordinates to accomplish. On the part of the employee, fulfilling the speech act can make him or her appear confrontational, challenging his or her superior’s capability or leadership, or can make him or her appear as though he or she is deliberately causing the superior to lose face. This can be an extremely awkward and uncomfortable situation for the employee, since in the normal course of work, one would want to maintain a positive and harmonious relationship with the manager. A good relationship with a manager puts an employee in better professional standing as regards evaluation, promotion, trust, or career path in general. Fulfilling this speech act may threaten this professional relationship.

The mistake has been committed by the manager and cannot be overlooked by the employees. It has occurred and, thus, needs to be corrected. Consistent with the previous analysis, the employees manifest both corrective and avoidance steps when they pointed out their superior’s mistake. Their discourse was made up mainly of corrective measures, which comprise 55% of the utterances, and the avoidance steps, which account for 45% of the total utterances for this specific speech act. Table 3 shows the details.
Table 3  
*Kinds of Face-Work Expressed in the Employees’ Utterances when Pointing Out the Foreign Manager’s Mistake*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employee</th>
<th>Corrective Practices</th>
<th>Avoidance Practices</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mary</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Bob</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Scott</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Rick</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Ted</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Ann</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Kay</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total (Percent)</strong></td>
<td><strong>16 (55%)</strong></td>
<td><strong>13 (45%)</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Except for Scott, the rest of the employees practiced and combined the two kinds of face-work when pointing out their manager’s mistake. Let us analyze one talk:

*Ann*: Hi John um (. ) I just saw a mistake on my work but it was because you instruct, instructed me to do that, the layout number (. ) one. It should be the layout number two. So, (. ) um how am I gonna (. ) deal with that, begin again, start doing that again all over again, or shall I continue with my other task, or what do you (. ) what do you suggest?

Ann begins with a corrective step of calling attention to the misconduct—I just saw a mistake on my work but it was because you instruct, instructed me to do that, the layout number (. ) one. Notice, however, that Ann said mistake on my work first, which psychologically cushioned the addressee for the next face-threatening clause—*but it was because you instruct, instructed me to do that*. Despite the fact that Ann acknowledges the incident, i.e., her manager making a mistake, she deflects the weight of the burden from him, and instead designs her talk in such a way as to make herself share in the accountability. This is clearly a face-saving practice, orienting to negative politeness (Huang, 2006) for the purpose of saving the negative face of her superior.

After making the short *challenge*, Ann immediately proceeds to the *offering* phase of the *interchange*, volunteering a way to correct the incident by giving information to correct the mistake, which the manager must simply approve. This quick shift from one *interchange* to another, with
specific focus on offering seems to be a pattern among the talk of the participants. To put in perspective, this is also a face-saving practice. The employees do not want to dwell on, elaborate or emphasize the foreign manager’s mistake so as not to put him in a compromising situation. Instead, the employees highlight offering in their talk in order to remedy the incident, that way, saving the face of their superior.

Toward the end of Ann’s talk, she employs a protective measure by asking her manager what should be done or what he suggests. In Goffman’s (1999) explanation of protective measures, this is when one employs courtesies, making slight modifications of one’s demands on others so that others will view the situation where their self-respect is not threatened. In Ann’s talk, she clearly knows what to do in order to correct the mistake. However, she employs courtesy on her manager by asking him what he thought, in this way, the manager maintains the line that he takes and feels that his face is not threatened.

In my succeeding discussion of the avoidance practices manifested by the employees, I will present more examples of this kind.

Meanwhile, Scott consistently displays his directness and brevity in his talk. Again, he does not employ any avoidance measure, instead sticks to informing the manager what was wrong and what should be done about it. Scott fulfills the speech act with one short utterance. He acknowledges the event, thus, begins with the challenge phase of the interchange and immediately proceeds to the next phase offering:

Scott : Ah John you mentioned last week that the, we should use this design but we should have used this design from the beginning, this other design.

What was profoundly interesting in the result was the specific measure that the employees used in the avoidance process. Notice in Table 4 that the most frequently used face-saving practice is the protective measure, accounting for almost half of the face-saving utterances made by the employees in this specific speech act.
Table 4
Specific Corrective and Avoidance Practices Expressed in the Employees’ Utterances when Pointing Out the Foreign Manager’s Mistake

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Kind of Face-Work</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrective Process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenge</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offering</td>
<td>(8)</td>
<td>(27.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(8)</td>
<td>(27.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance Process</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protective measures</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Defensive measures</td>
<td>(12)</td>
<td>(41)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>(4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The noticeably high frequency of use of the *protective measure* among the employees when pointing out their foreign manager’s mistake may be safely interpreted as an obvious step to save the face of the manager. Their talk was designed to protect his self-image. Goffman (1999) enumerates the ways by which an individual can achieve this—and almost all of these ways are manifested in the employees’ language—their utterances express protective orientation. I will enumerate the particular *protective measures* mapped by Goffman (which I also presented in the method section) and show evidences of such measures in the employees’ talk:

- *Shows respect and politeness, extending to others any ceremonial treatment that might be due them.* Bob’s expression of apology before pointing out the manager’s mistake is a clear expression of politeness. Meanwhile, Ted’s verbalizing what the manager is particular with and the manager knowing “the best way possible” are, to an extent, forms of flatteries and shows him extending to the manager ceremonial treatment which he thinks the manager is due:

  *Bob*: So ah (..) ah I’m sorry to tell you this, but (.) it was your mistake. It was really your instruction, so what are we going to do now.

  *Ted*: Um so since I’m, since I know that you’re very particular on time and you want things done, you know the best way possible, uh if it so happens that we do something like this, you know in the future, it would be better if…
Employs discretion—leaves unstated facts that might implicitly or explicitly contradict and embarrass the positive claims made by others. Mary’s opening statement is an immediate suggestion on how to correct the mistake, instead of stating what the mistake was. Mary clearly employs discretion in her talk. She leaves the unstated fact that the manager made a mistake, for which she is making a suggestion. The same approach characterizes Rick’s talk. He speaks of a problem about the design layout, but does not say what the problem is or what caused it (which was the wrong instruction given by the manager). In their discourse, Mary and Rick deliberately exclude information that may embarrass the positive claim of the manager, thus saving his face:

Mary: John, we, we should have (.) uh used the design layout number 2 for the project I’m doing right now.

Rick: John we have another problem regarding the design layout of, design layout number one. Ah as you can see here I created a uh (.) design layout number two and uh these are the reasons why design layout number one does not work.

Employs circumlocutions or roundabout expression as a means of indirectness for evasion. Kay’s talk lends itself to an interesting analysis. She begins with offering information to correct an implied mistake, without explicitly specifying the error. The first set of utterances immediately following her introductory sentence is a roundabout explanation of the details of the situation. She then tells the manager his mistake, albeit indirectly—the tax law does not recognize the (.) the revenue distribution that you have prepared. Thus, the manager prepared a wrong revenue distribution. After implicitly stating what the problem is, she continues with more explanations and details. In her talk, it may be safe to say that Kay employs circumlocution or wordy and indirect language:

Kay: John (..) the (..) the computation for income tax (..) um the (..) revenue that will be declared for the quarter’s income tax return should be based on (..) the billing. The invoices that you issued this quarter should be declared as income this quarter. Um (..) it’s the method of declaring the revenue using the revenue distribution (..) cannot be applied (..) um (..) during (..) cannot be applied in, in preparing the income
tax return. Um (.), so, the tax law does not recognize the (.) the revenue distribution that you have prepared and um if the cash, if the (.) if the customer pays (.) um makes a pre-payment, if the customer makes a pre-payment (.) that (.) pre-payment will still be considered as an income already even if you have not rendered the service because the money is already with you. You may (.) um you may do anything you would like to do with it.

• **Phrases one’s replies with careful ambiguity so that the other’s face is preserved.** Ann clearly knows what should be done in order to correct the wrong decision made by her superior, as expressed by her utterance *It should be the layout number two*. But toward the end, Ann phrases her talk with careful ambiguity, asking the manager a series of questions that seem to contradict the certainty that she displays at the beginning of her discourse. It may be safe to say that Ann does not intend to create ambiguous message or to contradict herself, but instead aims to preserve the face of her manager:

  Ann: Hi John um (.) I just saw a mistake on my work but it was because you instruct, instructed me to do that, the layout number (.) one. It should be the layout number two. So, (.) um how am I gonna (.) deal with that, begin again, start doing that again all over again, or shall I continue with my other task, or what do you (.) what do you suggest?

• **Employs courtesies, making slight modifications of his demands on or appraisals of others so that others will see the situation as one where their self-respect is not threatened.** Kay’s way of ending her talk is courteous, overly-courteous if I may note, since her suggestion on what the manager should do was quite loose — you may do anything you would like to do with it. But with the preceding detailed explanation in her talk, it can be deduced that the “loose suggestion” she makes is a modification of her demand on her manager so as for the latter not to think that the situation threatens his face or his self-esteem:

  Kay: You may (.) um you may do anything you would like to do with it.
Before engaging in a potentially offensive act, provides explanations as to why the others are not to be affronted by it. In the example below, Bob explains the circumstances that led him to the discovery of the manager’s mistake. Bob’s introductory explanation before saying his main message was an indirect way to cushion his manager of the potentially offensive act that he was about to engage in, i.e., pointing out his superior’s error:

Bob: Um [clears throat] John, I’m already conducting the pre-QA [quality assurance] of the, of this website project. After going on with the specification sheet and the design layout that they’ve sent us, I found out that the design layout that you told me to do [clears throat] wasn’t correct or wasn’t right. The layout was supposed to be design layout number 2. so, uh with your instruction…

Insights

In performing the two face-threatening speech acts—breaking bad news and pointing out the manager’s mistake—the employees are not restricted to practicing corrective process alone. They also employ measures of the avoidance process, thus displaying both defensive and protective orientations. Therefore, the employees’ face-management strategies as expressed in their discourse incorporate the two kinds of face-work, where they shift from one repertoire of face-saving practice to another.

The fact that a few employees manifest only one kind of face-work in their discourse is not surprising. Holtgraves (1992) explains that individuals may differ in their assessment of a face-threatening act, which results in differences in the extent to which their speech is oriented toward preserving the face.

When breaking bad news, all employees begin their discourse with the interchange phase challenge with all of them admitting their mistake, acknowledging the misconduct that led to the face-threatening event. This face-saving practice appears to have a dual function: one, as a corrective measure, and two, as a protective measure. As a corrective measure, acknowledging the misconduct leads to the next phase, i.e., rectifying it,
thus ensuing the re-establishment of the ritual equilibrium. As a protective measure, the acknowledgment of the incident prevents the addressee or the manager from further probing, which is another face-threatening act.

A noticeable difference in the way the participants use the two kinds of face-saving practice surfaces when they point out their manager’s mistake. In fulfilling this speech act, the employees’ utterances display protective measure of the avoidance process. This measure accounts for almost half of the face-saving utterances made by the employees in this specific speech act. The employees displayed an overwhelmingly protective orientation, exerting much effort to protect the negative face of their superior. They also displayed a wide array of face-saving linguistic repertoire in keeping with what Goffman (1999) enumerates under protective measure, namely: (a) shows respect and politeness; (b) extends to the manager ceremonial treatment; (c) employs discretion and left unstated facts that might contradict the positive claims made by the manager; (d) employs circumlocutions or roundabout expression as a means of indirectness for evasion; (e) phrases one’s replies with careful ambiguity so that the other’s face is preserved; (f) employs courtesies, making slight modifications of his demands on or appraisals of others so that others will see the situation as one where their self-respect is not threatened; and (g) before engaging in a potentially offensive act, provides explanations as to why the others not to be affronted by it.

It is obvious in this context that power relation is a key variable in face management. Kim and Nam (1998) posit that in Asian culture, loss of face is greater when a superior is criticized by the subordinates than the other way around. Thus, subordinates are careful not to offend or infringe on those upon whom they are dependent, in this case their manager (Morand, 2000), thus the effort to orient towards negative politeness. Generally, politeness enables subordinates to show regard and discretion when faced with possible intrusion into the psychological territories of superiors (Morand, 2000). Thus, when interacting with higher-power addressee, such as one’s manager, an individual uses “higher-ranked super-strategies” and adds more politeness and euphemisms (Makin, 2003). In simpler terms, low power actors such as employees are most likely to use linguistic politeness behaviors in order to minimize the possibility of conflict with superiors (Morand, 1996).

If we view the context using a cultural microscope, it may be safe to conclude that the Filipino value of respect to authority plays a part in the
employees’ face-work for the specific speech act. Filipinos tend to be very sensitive to hierarchy or authority, and within formal organizations, authority is associated with the organizational status, and the age of the ranking official—managers and supervisors—are given due respect because they are in a position of authority (Jocano, 1999, p. 54). The act of pointing out their superior’s mistake may be perceived by the Filipino workers as impolite and rude—which is why they aggressively employ protective face-work.

The findings of this study on this small group of Filipino employees show great potentials in explaining workplace interaction and face management between superior and subordinates in an Asian setting. I agree with Kim and Nam’s (1998) proposition that face should be recognized as an important concept in studying organizational behavior in Asia. A misunderstanding of the complex dynamics of face in Asia is equivalent to the mismanagement of cross-cultural interactions (Kim & Nam, 1998) which can have counterproductive results in the workplace.

I am recommending future studies of much larger scale and of an expanded framework on face management not only to affirm the findings presented in this paper, but to come up with a more comprehensive set of data that can describe the many facets of face-work in the workplace. Indeed, to further investigate face-work at work.

References


About the Author

Pamela Skouhus is the Human Resource Director of 1902 Software Development. She is currently pursuing her Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University. In 2005, she graduated from the Asian Institute of Journalism and Communication with her Master in Journalism. Her research interests include sociolinguistics, pragmatics, and discourse analysis.
Code-switching in Television-mediated Political Campaign Ads in the Philippines

Paulina M. Gocheco
De La Salle University

Abstract
The present study examines code-switching in a political type of discourse, particularly the television-mediated political campaign advertisement (TPCA) in a multilingual society such as the Philippines. In a well-planned and carefully scripted TPCA, the mixing of two or more languages such as English and Tagalog is not accidental. Culture may sometimes dictate what is appropriate to use in varied situations. There may be different reasons for choosing or mixing one language with another in a multilingual society. In this study, the functions, occurrences, and patterns of code-switching in a TPCA are examined and analysed. The corpus is composed of TPCAs in the Philippine senatorial elections. Some TPCAs were recorded during ‘real time’ or the actual time they were shown on television during the campaign period while the rest are acquired from the Internet. The occurrences of code-switching (CS) are traced and drawn from the three types of TPCA texts: the spoken, written, and sung. The structure of CS is generally described in terms of its location in a discourse, whether intersentential or intrasentential. The analysis of functions is based on Gumperz’s (1982) framework for conversational functions of code-switching namely: quotation, addressee specification, interjection, reiteration, message qualification, and personalization versus objectivization. Despite the predominance of Tagalog, code-switching from Tagalog to English is manifested in the TPCA. Code-switching may have many functions in a discourse; some of them are ‘involvement in the message’, reducing social distance, or providing objective information – functions that are vital in persuasion, the overall function of a TPCA. Aside from eliciting the uniqueness of a TPCA as a type of political discourse, the present study uncovers a political genre that is reflective of its socio-cultural context through an examination of code-switching and the purpose it serves in discourse.

Keywords: Philippines, Television, Code, Switching
Introduction

Code-switching is a natural phenomenon in bilingual and multilingual communities such as the Philippines.

As listed in the 16th edition of Ethnologue: Languages of the world, there are 175 languages spoken in the country; 171 are living languages and four have no known speakers (Lewis: 2009). Reid (2000) lists 150 languages spoken in the Philippines and classifies Tagalog as a major language among eight other major languages, namely Sebuano, Ilokano, Hiligaynon, Bikol, Samar-Leyte, Kapampanga, Pangasinan, Maguindanao and Maranao. As the national language of the Philippines, Tagalog is taught in elementary and high school as a required subject in the curriculum, under the course code name Filipino. Tagalog is spoken in Manila, most of Luzon (except in the north), and Mindoro.

Of the numerous Philippine languages in the country, English is considered as a second language since it is the medium of instruction in the country and it is generally used in trade and formal functions in society. In the Philippine House of Congress, for example, politicians may often conduct their formal hearings and debates in English. Similarly, English is the prevailing language in business meetings or conferences. CS may exist not only in naturally-occurring conversations but also in media such as print and television ads. The present study examines its form and function in a pervasive and interdisciplinary discourse – the television-mediated political campaign ads of the senatorial candidates in the Philippines.

There have been numerous attempts to identify and define CS, but as Romaine (1995, p. 180) claims, the problems in defining CS “continue to plague the study of language contact phenomena with terms such as code-switching, mixing, and borrowing”. Gumperz (1982, p. 59) defines CS as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical system or subsystems”. As Bautista notes (1998), “passages of speech” is vague because it may refer to a word or phrase. Bonvillain (2003, p. 355) defines it as a process that uses linguistic material from two (or more) languages within a conversational segment and retains its own phonological and grammatical patterns and constraints unlike borrowing which occurs
“when host languages adapt sounds and intonation patterns to suit their native rules”. There may be other definitions of code-switching, but as Eastman (1992 in Romaine 1995, p. 180) claims, “efforts to distinguish code-switching, code mixing and borrowing are doomed”. Romaine (1995) concurs in saying that what is important is to understand the cognitive, social and cultural processes involved in language contact. Considering all these definitions of CS, the present study adapts its own definition from Gumperz (1982), whereby any juxtaposition of two patterns of speech belonging to two different languages within a speech passage is considered code switching; thus, code mixing and borrowing are similar terms that are considered as code switching.

Amidst a rich background of research on definition alone, the present study adopts the view of Gumperz and Hernandez-Chavez (1975 in Romaine 1995, p. 124) that CS is a “type of borrowing” that can be “thought of as constituting a continuum ranging from whole sentences, clauses, and other chunks of discourse to single words, which could be inserted into a grammatical sentence”. Furthermore, this perspective maintains that loans start off as code switches, and achieve the status of loanwords by recurring over time.

The structure of CS is generally described in terms of its location in a discourse, whether intersentential or intrasentential. Bautista (1998: 130) defines intersentential as a “Tagalog sentence (with or without English elements) followed by an English sentence (with or without Tagalog elements), and vice-versa”, whereas intrasentential refers to switches to English within a sentence (and vice-versa), whether in the form of embedded clauses, phrases, or words. In the present study, since the unit of analysis is the utterance, parallel categories for the intersentential and intrasentential classification of CS are adapted. Thus the parallel category of intersentential is referred to as inter-utterance, while the intrasentential category is referred to as intra-utterance. CS in a TPCA occurs within an utterance (intra) or independently (inter) in different syntactic forms such as independent clauses, embedded clauses, phrases, and words. As discussed earlier, an utterance is defined in the present study as a sentence or a sentence fragment that is distinguished through its falling intonation for the spoken text or through the use of a period in the case of written text.
Aside from its structure, the function of code-switching is worthy of study as may be gleaned from the research outlined below.

Bautista (1999), in her analysis of code switching using email messages, found that CS was inevitable because the interlocutors had dual languages at their disposal. It was also noted that communicative efficiency or the fastest, easiest, most effective way of saying something was an essential factor in code switching. In conclusion, the study pointed out that competence of educated Filipino bilinguals and communicative efficiency were two important factors in Filipino code switching.

In a pioneering study on the pragmatics of code switching in the Philippine business domain, Pascasio (1996) investigated the socio-cultural factors affecting code switching and the dynamics of code switching among Filipino bilinguals. The study concluded that individuals who engaged in business negotiations used communicative strategies that not only relied on a good command of English but also on code switching based on an awareness of socio-cultural factors such as role-relationships, speech functions, and topics.

In the mass media, Chanco, Francisco, and Talamisan (1999 in Bautista 1999) investigated the code-switching patterns of some television hosts in Metro Manila. Their findings include the following: 1) despite the proficiency of the television hosts, CS was used in their talk shows; 2) some hosts used English as the base language for their shows, while others used Filipino; 3) the predominant use of intra-sentential CS of the fluent bilingual hosts displayed an advanced degree of language competence in both English and Filipino, based on the assumption of Poplack (1980 as cited in Bautista & Tan, 1999); 4) the noun was the most common code-switched syntactic category used, followed by the adjective; and 5) the authors claimed, without giving any figures, that CS was employed when the discussants “felt compelled to express strong emotions” (Chanco, et al., p. 34).

In another study, Thompson (2003) analysed 292 Philippine television commercials taped in 1997 and found that English was the predominant language in TV commercials. The study also noted the cultural dynamics of CS to English in promoting social messages such as the promotion of good character and fortune, and even in the promotion of luxuries like smoking, drinking, and gambling. Dayag (2004), in a survey of Philippine media, observed that the Philippine
print media were still dominated by English, although in the broadcast media there seemed to be a rapid expansion of Filipino, which may have been caused by the popularity of soap operas and the shift of news programs from English to Filipino. In a recent study on television advertisements, Gaerlan (2008) found that code-switched advertisements were predominant over advertisements in English or Filipino.

In politics, Gocheco (2006) conducted a case study of the State of the Nation Address of President Gloria Macapagal Arroyo on July 24, 2006. This study found that English was the predominant language used, with code-switched insertions of Visayan and Kapampangan languages for the purpose of solidarity.

Research studies have examined language choice and code-switching in various domains in society, but code-switching in Philippine political discourse remains under-explored. In particular, a significant type of political discourse such as television-mediated political campaign advertisements (TPCAs) merits a serious study concerning choice of language use and code-switching. The multidisciplinary nature of TPCAs renders an added complexity that entails a thorough examination of its code-switching features that are reflective of the disciplines of linguistics, politics, advertising, and media.

The present study aims to fill this gap by looking into the language choice and code-switching patterns in TPCAs by answering the following research questions:

(1) What is the predominant language used in TPCAs?
(2) What types of code-switching patterns may be observed in TPCAs, in terms of their syntactic units and location in the discourse?
(3) What are the functions of code-switching in TPCAs?

Methodology

Corpus

The corpus consists of 60 TPCAs that were recorded during the campaign period of the May 14, 2007 senatorial elections in the Philippines. These campaign ads were shown on television during primetime viewing. The TPCAs were categorized into spoken texts, written texts, and songs. Only the spoken text (ST) and written text
(WT) were analysed since the structure of these texts, being constitutive of real or simulated interactions in the discourse, may be considered close to the adopted framework of Gumperz 1982), which was originally used for conversations. Thus the song mode, having a distinct structure of its own, was excluded from analysis in this study.

Data Analysis

First, the predominant language used was identified. Then the pattern of CS insertions were analyzed according to their form (syntactic units and location) and functions (speech acts) in the discourse.

To analyse the form of CS, the data were investigated in terms of their syntactic units, whether they are words, phrases, or clauses. The CS insertions are further described in terms of their location in the TPCAs: intra-utterance (inside the utterance) or inter-utterance (stands by itself), as exemplified in the following excerpts.

(1) Oo naman, but it’s cool bukol, dahil palipat-lipat na lang tayo ng iba-ibang stasyon eh.
[Of course, but it’s cool ([lump] - word play), because we just transfer from one station to another, eh.]

(2) Pinangangalagaan niya ang kalikasan. He’s my idol!
[He takes care of the environment]

Excerpt (1) is an example of an intra-utterance CS, while Excerpt (2) shows an inter-utterance CS. The rules in categorization lie in the location of CS: in (1) the utterance but it’s cool is embedded inside the utterance; on the other hand, the CS insertion He’s my idol is an independent clause and thus classified as an inter-utterance.

An important feature in the analysis of the CS is the examination of the functions of this linguistic phenomenon. Code switching may have many functions in a discourse; one of them is ‘involvement in the message’ or reducing social distance (Gumperz 1982, in Bonvillain 2003). The present study draws from Gumperz’s (1982: 75-84) framework of code switching which is based on the functions that they serve in conversation, as follows:

1. Quotation. CS is identifiable as direct quotations or reported speech.
2. Addressee specification. CS serves to direct the message to one of several possible addressees.
3. Interjection. CS serves to mark interjection or sentence filler.
4. Repetition. CS repeats a message in the other code, whether literally or in a somewhat modified form.
5. Message qualification. CS qualifies a statement through the use of a sentence and verb complements or predicates following a copula.
6. Personalization versus objectivization. CS relates to the distinction between talk about action and talk as action, the degree of speaker involvement in, or distance from, a message, whether it refers to specific instances or has the authority of generally known fact.

Results and Discussion

Language Choice

As may be gleaned from Table 1, Tagalog is the base language while the CS insertions are in English. Considering the contrived nature of pre-conceived messages in the TPCA, the choice of language may be considered intentional rather than accidental.

Table 1
Profile of language use: Tagalog and CS utterances in ST and WT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Utterances with CS</th>
<th>Tagalog</th>
<th>Total Utterances</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>99</td>
<td>441</td>
<td>540</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(18.3%)</td>
<td>(81.7%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The predominance of Tagalog may be contrary to the notion that the English language is generally used in politics, media, and other formal disciplines in the country today. Both the State of the Nation Address (SONA) and the TPCA are political types of discourse that are scripted, but statistics in Table 1 show that there is a difference in their language choice. Whereas English was the popular language choice in SONAs, on the other hand the data gathered in Table 1 shows that Tagalog was the dominant language used in TPCAs. It must be noted that the corpus used in this study consists of TPCAs during the campaign period of the senatorial
elections held on May 14, 2007. A plausible explanation may lie in the peculiarities of the genres in terms of audience and the communicative purposes that each may have. The differences in medium, audience and purpose may have contributed to the divergent choices of languages and CS insertions.

First, the TPCA is not delivered in a political arena such as the House of Congress; rather, it is primarily disseminated through the medium of television and received in the home domain and other places that may be considered less formal than the political domain of Congress where the SONA is held. Although the SONA is aired nationwide, the immediate audience are the people inside Congress, which consists of the Vice President of the Philippines and Cabinet members, the Chief Justice and Chief Justices of the Supreme Court, members of the upper and lower chambers of Congress, representatives from the diplomatic corps, and other guests inside the Congress. Thus, the immediate audience of the SONA belong to the elite in society, while the audience for the TPCA is varied and widely scattered throughout the nation due to its medium, television.

Second, the SONA and the TPCA differ in their objectives. The aim of the SONA is to inform the nation about the nation’s progress and state of affairs; at the same time, there is an implicit attempt to persuade the nation of the credibility of the contents of the SONA. On the other hand, the TPCA has a more urgent goal of stirring the target audience to act and vote for the political candidate. Biocca (1991) aptly describes political advertising as having an undisguised persuasive intent. Thus, with no pretense of having any other purpose, the TPCA mimics the speech style of its target audience, a language accommodation style which, according to Bell (1997), is a way to win the approval of the audience. Unlike the ‘live’ political audience of the SONA in Congress, the TPCA does not have to consider any other audience but the Filipino electorate whose L1 is Tagalog. Being the mother tongue of Filipinos in general, one does not need to go to school to learn it. Therefore, it makes sense that a persuasive discourse such as a TPCA, with a target audience who speaks Tagalog as their first language employs Tagalog as its base.

It must be noted here that English was generally used as the base language in SONAs in 2008 and the previous years in the Philippines, although in the recent SONAs of the incumbent President in 2010 and 2011 Tagalog was used.
Syntactic units and location of CS in TPCAs

The choice of Tagalog as the base language does not preclude instances of CS in the TPCA. There are a total of 21 code switches that are excluded from the counting of CS in the present study. Specifically, these are insertions of English phrases that are the proper names of laws, which do not have any other translation in the Tagalog language. These phrases include the following: Republic Act 9178, Barangay Micro-Business Enterprises Law, Republic Act 9399 Tax Amnesty and Republic Act 9400 Tax Regime. In the study these are regarded as names or parts of names, which have no other terms or referrents in the Tagalog language thus making their usage inevitable. Due to this nominal nature of these code switches, they were excluded from the counting of CS in the study as they do not contribute to the function of CS in interaction.

Further investigation reveals that there are multiple instances of CS within the 99 utterances; thus the total number of instances of CS in ST and WT is 127 total utterances, as illustrated in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>ST</th>
<th>WT</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>89</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>127</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>70.1%</td>
<td>29.9%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The spoken texts account for 70.1% frequency of occurrence, while the written texts account for 29.9% frequency of total occurrences. This may be due to the degree of interaction in the modes of texts. The spoken text may be considered as more interactional than the written texts because of the immediate response that is entailed in dialogues. It may be true that the target audience or the electorate is not in a position to immediately interact; however, the dialogues between the social actors serve as simulated conversations between the speakers and the hearers. Therefore, the ST mode of texts entails an interactional scenario wherein CS, being an interactional linguistic feature, may abound.

The TPCA transcripts exhibit CS insertions at word, phrase, or clause level. They may also occur as a stand-alone grammatical
constituent (inter-utterance) or they may be embedded within an utterance (intra-utterance). Table 3 shows a profile of the syntactic forms of CS employed and the corresponding interactional functions in the corpus.

Table 3
Frequency distribution of syntactic units and interactional functions of CS in the corpus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Q</th>
<th>AS</th>
<th>I</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>MQ</th>
<th>P/</th>
<th>O</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Word</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>41.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phrase</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>39.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>19.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Legend:
- Q - Qualification
- AS - Addressee Specification
- I - Interjection
- R - Repetition
- MQ - Message Qualification
- P - Personalization
- O - Objectivization

As may be seen in Table 3, the largest incidence of CS insertions is constituted by words, which account for 41.3% of total frequency of occurrences, followed closely by phrases at 39.1%. Most of the code switches are intra-utterance, accounting for 62.6% of total occurrences.

In terms of functions, a large number of the switchings serves the function of objectivization, which accounts for 38.4% of total occurrences, and message qualification, which accounts for 37.7%.
The syntactic units and functions of CS are further discussed in the following sections.

**Word level.** The CS insertion at the word level is the most predominant type of switching in the corpus. A significant finding is that 100% of the code-switched words are content words. Further examination of the CS noun insertions reveals that the code-switched words are referential units that are used to qualify either persons (or participants in the TPCA) or aspirations of individuals or society as a whole. The persons referred to may be the political candidate, an addressee, or a third party. The interactional function of a CS insertion may be exemplified by the following excerpt.

(1) *Amigo ng Bayan!*

[Friend of the People]

The code-switched word in (1), *amigo*, is a Spanish word that has become an integral part of most Visayan languages in the Philippines. In English, the word means *friend* while in Tagalog its equivalent is *kaibigan*. It is important to note that before English became a second language in the Philippines, Spanish was the language used in schools and formal functions in the country. Thus it is natural for Tagalog to have many borrowed words from Spanish. *Amigo* is one of these words which has become an integral part of other Philippine languages, especially those spoken in the Visayas, one of the three regions in the Philippines. In this case, linguistic necessity or a lack of lexical equivalence may be ruled out as a reason for CS for two reasons: first, the word has an accessible equivalent in Tagalog; second, the TPCA is a scripted discourse, which makes the CS a deliberate manner of expression.

A plausible explanation, therefore, is the interactional function that CS may provide in a discourse. Language, as Fishman (1972 in Mahootian 2002: 1497) notes, serves “to identify and unite speakers of the same language as part of a community or nation”. The CS in (1) seems to account for the function of expressing identity and friendship with the Visayan group in the target audience, of which the candidate is a member himself. At the same time, the word *amigo* is generally known to the rest of the electorate to mean ‘friend’, which suggests a positive quality that may be attributed to the candidate.
Using Gumperz’s (1982) framework, this particular use of CS may be categorized as personalization, a CS function that qualifies the degree of speaker involvement in an utterance. The expression of identity with a certain sector of the audience creates a personal and an emotional appeal that is essential in wooing or persuading an audience.

Another function of the CS that may be attributed to (1) is the exploitation of the sound pattern of words. The play on words works well in coining the candidate’s slogan “Amigo ng Bayan”, i.e. Friend of the People. The second syllable of the switched word amigo repeats the first three letters of the candidate’s name Migz. Word play is discussed in more detail in the following section.

The next utterances show the use of CS in attributing positive qualities to the candidate through words that put the candidate in a positive light.

(2) Champion ka talaga!
(3) Idol

Utterances (2) and (3) consist of code-switched words, idol and champion, that are identical with the Tagalog words idolo and kampeon which originated from the Spanish words idolo and campeon. The code-switched words may be considered as borrowed words that are commonly used these days. The CS, in these cases, may be considered as words that appeal to both young and adults alike since the Tagalog equivalent words may be considered as more formal or uncontemporary. Due to common usage, idol and champion have become a part of the linguistic repertoire of the Filipinos, although they still retain their original phonology.

The CS in (2) and (3) may be considered as attempts on the part of the sender of the message to simulate authentic conversations of the audience in attributing personal referential qualities of being a champion and an idol. The function of utterances (2) and (3) may be considered as message qualification (complement following a copula) since the terms attribute referential qualities to the candidate.

Aside from positive qualities, CS may also emphasize negative elements that need to be addressed, as illustrated in (4).

(4) Pimentel, Palaban, Gamit ang pagkabar topnotcher para labanan ang corrupt at abusado.

[Pimentel. Fighter. Armed with his being a bar topnotcher to fight against the corrupt and the abusive].
The whole utterance in (4) expresses society’s desire to fight the ills in society, with an emphasis on the corrupt. Initially, utterance (4) qualifies the kind of a fighter the candidate is: qualified and efficient owing to his being a bar topnotcher. Next, the term corrupt qualifies the kind of fight that the candidate will engage in: a fight against the corrupt government officials, as the term has generally been used as a political term to refer to corrupt politicians or government officials.

In a similar vein, the following excerpt illustrates another negative term that is emphasized through CS:

(5) Celebrity endorser:

Mahigit isang-libong NGO na ang natutulungan ni Kiko (1) sa housing, mga scholarship at classroom, sa hustisya, at sa youth development. 1
[Kiko has helped more than a thousand NGOs in housing, in scholarships and classrooms, in justice and in youth development.]

Trabahong totoo 2
[Real work]
Hindi gimmick. 3
[Not a gimmick]
Kaya kasama mo ako dito! 4
[That’s why I am with you in this!]

The term gimmick refers to a dubious strategy that may be employed in promoting jobs, and is negated in utterance 3.

The next utterances show CS words that refer to other participants in a TPCA, except for (10).

(6) Mom, K na!
(7) Ay naku ma’am madumi eh, malalansa po ang mga kamay ko.
(8) Mother ni Sen. Manny Villar
(9) Boarder po ako sito sa Manila.
(10) May malaking bahay diyan, kotse may driver pa!

In utterances (6) and (7), the CS is used for addressee specification. Again, these words have become integral to Tagalog such that most children in the Philippines today use mom or mommy
to address their mothers; on the other hand, *ma’am* is generally used by persons of lower rank in society to address their boss or simply to show respect in addressing another person who may be older. In (6), the speaker is a small child addressing her celebrity mother, Sharon Cuneta, who is often pictured as a wholesome actress in roles that depict the common person, such as that of a mother, step-mother, sister, care-giver, and so forth. In short, the image of this celebrity may be considered as family-oriented and decent. Utterance (6) may be considered as one of those typical situations of a small child conversing with her mother. In (7), the fish vendor obviously feels the superior rank of the candidate as a former senator of the country, hence the use of *ma’am* to address her. In sum, the CS in these two utterances similarly lends authenticity to the situations being depicted in the TPCAs.

The code-switched word *Mother* in (8) may be considered as a formal way of introducing the mother of the candidate, an incumbent senator who is over the age of fifty. Using the framework of Gumperz (1982), this may be categorized under objectivization. It would be odd to use a more personal referential noun such as *mommy* to the mother of the candidate with such a stature. The CS, therefore, follows the formality and objectivity that the word *Mother* connotes.

In (9), the word *boarder* is a common CS in Tagalog because of the lack of a concise term to use. The term *boarder* may be translated in Tagalog as ‘*nangungupahan ng kwarto*’ [*renter of a room*], which is obviously a lengthy translation.

Utterance (10) shows the use of similar cases of borrowing exhibited in (2) to (6), wherein the borrowed words have become integral parts of the recipient language.

The following set of utterances illustrates the referential function of nouns that indicate the aspirations of individuals or society as a whole.

(11) *Gusto ko maging teacher*  
[I want to be a teacher]  (T11, 71)

(12) *Ang bawat pamilya ay magkakaroon ng graduate*  (T45, 268)  
[Each family will have a graduate]

(13) *Sana kaya namin ang tution ko...*  (T13, WT 1.68)  
[I hope we can afford my tuition]
(14) Sa kasalukuyan, one percent lamang ang budget para sa kalusugan. (T7, 29)
[At present, only one percent is (allotted) for the health budget]

(15) Dapat may hope. (T7, 29) May pagasa (T17, 102)
[There should be hope]

(16) Order (T17, 1.79)

(17) Progress (T17, 1.80)

(18) Education (T17, 1.81)

(19) Sa libreng pre-school, may laban ang anak mo. (T22, 121)
[Through free pre-school, your child has a fighting chance]

(20) Mahigit isa-ang-libong NGO na ang natutulungan ni Kiko, sa housing. (T31, 168)
[Kiko has helped more than a thousand NGOs in housing,...]

(21) mga scholarship at classroom, sa hustisy, (T31, 168)
[in scholarships and classrooms, in justice...]

(22) at sa youth development. (T31, 168)
[and in youth development.]

(23) Ito ang pinakamahal na highway sa buong mundo. (T52, 318)
[This is the most expensive highway in the whole world]

The code-switched nouns in (11) to (23) refer to individual and collective aspirations of the electorate. For example, some personal aspirations are expressed by the CS insertions such as graduate and teacher, while the other words refer to societal aspirations or concerns such as scholarship at classrooms and education, which refer to a national need for better education. The electorate’s aspirations, whether individual or societal, are essential in a political campaign since they express the electorate’s needs that the political candidate
attempts to overtly address during the campaign. Through code-switching, these needs are highlighted. In addition, switching to English, which is a language that is generally used for formal communication in the Philippines, lends a certain formality and seriousness in the expression of the goals. Overall, the CS insertions in (11) to (23) primarily serve the function of objectivization as the code-switched words lend objectivity to the personal statements of the speaker of the messages.

Phrase level. As may be gleaned from Table 33, the second largest CS insertions that closely follow the CS word insertions are the phrasal CS insertions, which account for 39.1%. Furthermore, the table illustrates that a significant number of these phrases serve the function of objectivization, which accounts for 32 occurrences (i.e. 59.3%), while the second largest function is message qualification, which accounts for 17 occurrences (i.e. 31.5%). The following WT utterances (with their corresponding reference numbers) exemplify the utterances that serve the objectivization function.

(24) Political ad paid for Panfilo Lacson (WT: 1.84)
(25) Political Advertisement paid by the Educators for Tessie Aquino Oreta (WT:1.154)
(26) Political Advertisement paid for Alan Peter Cayetano. (WT: 1.145)
(27) Political Advertisement paid for Mike Defensor (WT:1.61)
(28) Political Advertisement paid for by Pimentel for Senator Movement (WT:1.231)
(29) Paid for by friends of Vic Magsaysay (WT:1.150)
(30) Political ad paid for by Friends of Sonia Roco (WT:1.245; 1.248)
(31) Political Advertisement Paid for Chavit Singson by Chavit Singson for Senator Movement (WT:1.254)
(32) Political Advertisement paid for Antonio F. Trillanes IV (WT:1.258; 1.259; 1.261; 1.265)

(24) to (32) are phrasal CS that are generally located in the last frames of the TPCAs. These utterances express the candidate’s acknowledgement and gratitude for the payment of their ads with more formality and a certain distance brought about by switching to a
language that is considered more formal as it is the language of business. In addition, distance may have been achieved through the passive construction of the utterances. The phrase ‘Political Advertisement/Ad’ (the Receiver of the verb ‘paid’) is foregrounded in all utterances except in utterance (29) where the Verb ‘paid’ is foregrounded. On the other hand, the Agent or whoever was responsible for the payment is not reflected in utterances 24, 26, 27, and 32 while the Agents in 25, 28, 30, and 31 are backgrounded. In summary, all the above utterances indicate the object of payment (political ad), while the Agent was either backgrounded or ellipted.

In politics, monetary and other logistic support may be crucial to a campaign, especially with the high cost of campaign materials and television advertising; a senatorial election is a national election that entails a sizeable amount for a campaign budget. Thus, it may be common practice for political candidates to have donors as may be observed in the above utterances. However, campaign funds may be the source of scandals in politics, as there have been numerous incidents in the past wherein the accusations against some political candidates concern money, more specifically, the source of their campaign funding. Therefore, it would seem that the CS insertions in these utterances serve to dispel any suspicions as far as monetary support is concerned and to preserve a good image for him/herself. The CS insertions serve as formal acknowledgements of funds although the source of funds may either be unreflected in some utterances or backgrounded in some.

Compare (25) to (32) with the following utterance:

(33) Male Adult:
Thanks to Senator Recto!

In (33), the act of acknowledgement is evidently more direct but less formal than the previous examples. Although the subject is ellipted, the speaker is easily known because the speaker himself utters the text. The CS insertion ‘Thanks’ is obviously available in Tagalog but the preference to say it in English may be an indication of the communicative efficiency of the Filipinos in the two languages. According to Bautista (1999), communicative efficiency in both languages triggers the use of idioms or ‘ready-made’ structures as CS points. For Filipinos, the use of ‘thanks’ has become a routine structure in the act of thanking in casual situations. On the other hand, (25) to (32) are more formal CS expressions of gratitude.
Furthermore, in (33) it may be observed that the reason for gratitude is not money; rather, it is the achievement of the candidate. This may be an example of the function of personalization when the topic is on the candidate and his/her personal qualifications; but when the topic is money, as in (25) to (32), the CS insertions become attempts to show objectivity. The mode of the utterance may also contribute to the informality of the spoken text in (33). Notice that all the acknowledgements presented in (25) to (32) are written texts while (33) is a spoken text. The mode of the utterances, whether written or spoken, may also be a contributory factor in the formality of an utterance, the written being a more formal way of communication.

Overall, utterances (25) to (32) may be perceived as objective expressions of acknowledgement while the acknowledgement in (33) is more personal. This behaviour suggests that CS may be used to project formality or distance. On the other hand, when employed to insert a routine structure or conversational expressions, CS may also express personalization in an utterance, since in the latter they have become integrated in the host language.

3.2.3. Clause level

Out of the 27 clausal CS utterances, 23 are inter-utterances. One of the participant speakers in the corpus who belongs not only to the political elite but also to the social and business elite in the country, former Philippine President Corazon Aquino, has a total of three clausal CS in the corpus. One of these utterances is presented in the following excerpt.

(34) Former President Corazon Aquino:  
I’m sure he’ll make a good senator.

It would be unnatural for the former president, who graduated from an American university, to speak in straight Tagalog, considering her status and educational background.

Romaine (1995: 123) states that intersentential (parallel of inter-utterance CS clause) CS can be thought of “as requiring greater fluency in both languages than tag switching since major portions of the utterance must conform to the rule of both languages”. However, Poplack (1980 in Bautista 1999) claims that CS is more a style in
choosing the CS mode of speaking rather than a choice of switch points (whether word, phrase, or clause).

In the case of the TPCA, there is no doubt about the deliberate choice of language and the types of CS insertions employed in the corpus because it is scripted. Seen from this perspective, the intention of TPCA to employ fewer CS utterances may be a conscious decision attributable to the political candidate’s desire for solidarity and intelligibility in addressing a large and diverse group of target audience. At the same time, the CS insertions provide the authenticity that the senders of the TPCA messages aim to achieve in the discourse. Most of the scenarios in the TPCA transcripts are simulated conversations between ordinary individuals in naturally occurring conversations, if not dialogues that are addressed to the electorate, a large percentage of which is poor. Despite the conscious attempt to use Tagalog, CS cannot be totally disregarded as it has become a part of the linguistic repertoire of the Filipinos. CS may have been minimized but not totally eliminated as it renders the authenticity that the discourse needs. The functions of CS insertions (at various syntactic points) are further exemplified in the following examples.

**Functions**

**Quotation.** There are five CS instances in the corpus that express quotations. Some examples are:

(35) APC: Alan Peter Cayetano, political candidate

*Do you have an account in other parts of the world?*

T5, ST22

(36) FG: First Gentleman

*That is none of your business!*

T5, ST23 &25

(37) APC:

*No, it is the Filipino’s business.*

T5, ST24

Excerpts (35) to (37) are utterances of participants in a Senate hearing, where the medium of communication is English. If taken as dialogues in their original setting, the base language may be considered English since it is usually the medium of communication in Senate hearings. Considering the context of the frames, the
utterances are considered as quotations or sample speeches from an earlier time. In the present study, such utterances are classified as quotations from another setting (another political campaign ad) that has English as its normal mode of communication. They are not really part of the actual discourse in the transcript, nor are they dramatizations that simulate electorate experiences; rather, they are statements made in a replayed scene in another time and frame. Evidently, these utterances are extracts from another place that were just shown as a reminder of what the candidate has done in the past. In this case, the utterance “it is the Filipino’s business” is a political slogan of the candidate in another televised political campaign ad.

Another example is the following set of excerpts which are quotations from the candidate’s husband, a deceased former senator:

(38) WT: “All my life I’ve fought for an honest government; only an act of God will make me quit the race.”
(39) WT: “One day the Philippines will rise again… and we shall all be proud that we are Filipinos.”

Most political statements, especially those that are conveyed in more formal occasions, are predictably conveyed in English. Since the source of the message is a deceased politician who ran as President, it may be assumed that the utterances are political statements conveyed in a more formal occasion, although the time and place when the utterances occurred are not clearly indicated. In these situations, CS is used in reporting or quoting utterances in their authentic forms.

From these examples it may be observed that the quotations were employed to either refer to another prominent personality, which may be deemed as an association strategy, or refer to a candidate’s own campaign slogans for repetition strategy. These strategies may be considered as strategies in persuasion.

**Addressee specification.** Another function of CS is to direct the message to one of several possible addressees. The following CS phrase utterances are directed towards the target addressee, the electorate.

(40) Joker Arroyo for Senator!
(41) Richard Gomez for Senator
(42) Children: *Say Chiz!*
(43) **Adult Celebrity: Say Chiz Escudero sa Mayo!**

Most of these insertions are directives for the electorate to vote for the candidate. These are different ways of saying the same message. For example, the CS insertions in (40) to (41) are conventional utterances in politics when endorsing a political candidate. They may be considered as formulaic structures in endorsing a candidate for a position. Thus, in using the utterances, the senders of the messages assume that the electorate understands that they are pleas for the electorate to vote for the candidate.

On the other hand, (42) to (43) are more informal directives that similarly plead for the electorate to vote for the candidate. The expression *Say Chiz* is based on the common expression when taking pictures *Say cheese*. This is another instance of exploiting the name of the candidate and may be considered as a play on words. These may be different ways of addressing the electorate since the audience is similarly diverse. A part of the electorate may be the more adult and serious members of society while a large percentage belong to the youth sector.

**Interjection.** The present study exhibits only one interjection, as shown in (44). This may be due the fact that the message in a TPCA is scripted, which allows only limited conversations in dramatizations, and the rest are monologues that are made to simulate conversations with the TV audience.

(44) **Celebrity: Hello Tol!**

T9, 57

[Hello Bro!]

**Repetition.** Repetitions are usually a mnemonic strategy. They help the addressee remember the message of the addresor. In a TPCA the repetition may be in the form of a spoken utterance of the VO as a repetition of a prior CS insertion as well as a repetition of the same word in the host language, Tagalog. These utterances illustrate how the modes of the TPCA may complement each other in a frame through repetition of the same message. Other repetitions may be through the repetition of the same utterance in different modes, as shown in the following examples.

(45) **Ito ang pinakamahal na highway sa buong mundo,**

the 5.1 kilometer Diosdado Macapagal Highway (WT/ST)
These utterances are repetitions of spoken texts. Aside from repetition, the CS utterances may have overlapping functions such as message qualification for (45) and (47). Utterance (46) provides qualifying information to the previous statement: *Ito ang pinakamahal na highway sa buong mundo.* Similarly, utterance (47) serves the function of message qualification by providing a comment on overpricing. The function of CS in utterance (46) may have overlapping functions of objectivization and message qualification. As message qualification, it provides additional information with respect to the previous statement, the Diosdado Macapagal Highway; at the same time, the CS in English provides information using the language of business, which lends a business and formal tone to the utterance.

**Message qualification.** CS qualifies a statement through the use of a sentence, clause, or phrase. Bautista (1999) concurs with Romaine (1994 in Bautista 1999) in the interpretation of comment as a remark or annotation that form part of message qualification. In the corpus, this may be exemplified by the following:

(48) VS addresses JDL:

Ang tanda na natin noh
[We’re already old, no?]

T48, 288

(49) JDL: *Oo naman, but it’s cool, bukol,*

dahil palipat-lipat na lang tayo ng iba-ibang istasyon eh.

[Of course, but it’s cool [lump (word play)],

because we just transfer from one station to another, eh.]

T48, 289

Utterance (49) manifests dual functions of CS in the discourse: message qualification and personalization.

Firstly, the CS function in utterance (49) may be categorized as a message qualification because it provides a clarificatory response to utterance (48). It is a remark that elaborates on the age of the celebrity speakers, in terms of their length of stay in the entertainment industry and their age, in reference to their birthdates. The clause *but it’s cool* is a remark that explains how they have withstood the test of time by having survived changes in the major television networks where they have previously worked. In summary, the clause connects the
comment on age in utterance (48) to their durability in the entertainment business.

Secondly, utterance (49) serves the function of personalization, a CS function that is further discussed in the following section. In this particular example, personalization is achieved through the humour and allusion created by the word play in the utterance. For instance, the similarity in the sound of the clause alludes to the speakers’ past television sitcom, *Iskul Bukol*. The allusion in utterance (49) may bring about a personal connection between the speakers and the audience, especially those who are familiar with the humour of the comical sitcom. The manipulation of sound patterns (prosody, further discussed in the Word Play section) may be described in two levels of its occurrences: inter-clausal – which is an occurrence of word play between the expressions *it’s cool bukol* and its allusion to another expression, the TV sitcom title, *Iskul Bukol* – and intra-clausal which occurs between the words in the clause, *it’s cool, bukol*. First, the inter-clausal prosodic relationship is evident in the rhythm and the number of syllables of the two expressions: *it’s / cool / bukol* and *Is / kul / Bukol*. Besides having the same number of syllables, the sounds of the syllables in both expressions are very much alike. This prosodic relationship may easily create an allusion to the sitcom that has endeared the celebrity speakers to its audience. On another level, prosody may also be manifested within the clause; through the rhyme of the words, *cool* and *bukol*. The latter kind of word play may spark humour in the discourse since there is no apparent relation between the two words, except for the similar sound patterns of *cool* and the last syllable of *bukol*. The literal meaning of the word *bukol* [lump] does not provide any sense to the meaning of the utterance. This creative combination of code-switched words, phrases and clauses often result in fun and amusement in the discourse. In a transdisciplinary discourse that has an important persuasive goal of persuading the audience to choose the campaigning candidate, personalization through humour and allusion may be an effective way of appealing to the audience’s attention and sympathy. The function of personalization is further discussed in the following section.
3.3.6. Personalization versus objectivization

This function describes a continuum of statements that establish distance in ideas or messages expressed in an utterance. Personalization sets off an attitude that may spawn solidarity with the audience, while objectivization may create a certain distance to signal the importance or seriousness of the message. For instance, utterance (50) illustrates how CS may indicate a speaker’s wish to elevate a personal statement of opinion by inserting a switched word in another language to establish a more formal attitude, as exemplified in the following utterance.

(50) Tapat siyang public servant., T60, 363
[(He) is a true public servant.]

In excerpt (50), the speaker attributes the quality of being true to the term public servant. The closest Tagalog equivalent to public servant is tagapaglingkod, which means servant although it lacks the qualification indicated in the CS, that of being a public servant. The use of public servant provides a shift from the beginning statement of opinion by providing a term that is generally used to refer to government officials or anyone engaged in public service. Consequently, the term creates a more formal attitude by elevating a personal statement through an allusion to a more formal domain, which is political or public instead of just the personal sphere of the speaker.

The occurrences of CS in the corpus make a mark through the functions that they serve in the discourse. Code-switching may have many interactional functions that enable language users to be more emphatic or detached. In addition, CS enables the language users to integrate senses from more than one language and maximize their communicative strategies. Considering the scripted and persuasive nature of the TPCA, it may be concluded that CS is used by choice not only to simulate ordinary conversational scenarios that the electorate can identify with but also to provide the predominant functions of objectivity and message qualification. It is one of the linguistic and discourse strategies that may be exploited in a political discourse such as the TPCA. In conclusion, the TPCA reflects the persistence of CS as it provides immense resources to a bilingual or multilingual society for more efficient communication.
Conclusion

The contrived nature of televised political campaign advertisements substantiates the notion that the use of Tagalog and code-switching in this type of discourse is not accidental. It is one of the linguistic and discourse strategies that may be exploited in a political discourse such as the TPCA. The use of Tagalog as the predominant language in the TPCA manifests a solidarity strategy that is vital in persuasive discourse. Although English is predominantly used as the medium in business and the medium of instruction, a sizeable number of Filipinos, especially in the far-flung areas, speak and understand Filipino better than English. This supports the persuasive nature of political discourse. To be effective, first the message has to be understood by the majority of its audience; in this case, the Filipino language is the medium that is used and understood by the majority of Filipinos. The study has shown that the use of Tagalog enabled the discussants to capture the cultural values that the audience could easily identify with.

On the other hand, the use of code-switched insertions from Tagalog to English is a deliberate attempt to reflect the reality of the language usage patterns that has developed over time in the Philippines. The persistent use of CS even in the scripted dialogues of the TPCA shows that CS has become a language feature of the Filipinos in both formal and informal types of discourse. Code-switching may have many interactional functions that enable language users to be more emphatic or detached. In addition, CS enables the language users to integrate senses from more than one language and maximize their communicative strategies. Considering the scripted and persuasive nature of the TPCA, it may be concluded that CS is used by choice not only to simulate ordinary conversational scenarios that the electorate can identify with but also to provide the predominant functions of objectivity and message qualification. The persistent use of CS in a TPCA demonstrates its significance in the discourse as it provides an immense resource for a more efficient and persuasive type of communication in a multilingual society.
References


About the Author

Paulina M. Gocheco is an Associate Professor and the Vice Chair of the Department of English and Applied Linguistics, De La Salle University. Her research interests include Discourse Analysis, Contrastive Rhetoric, Academic Writing, Oral Communications, and ESL.
Tagalog or Taglish: the Lingua Franca of Filipino Urban Factory Workers

By Mikhail Alic Go and Leah Gustilo
De La Salle University

Abstract
The present study aims to investigate the preferred medium of communication among Filipino factory labor workers. A total of 28 labor workers (22 male and 6 female) were observed for three months dating from November 2011 to January 2012. Additionally, five of them were informally interviewed. An audio-recorder was further used after the aforementioned duration of the study so as to make the findings more consistent, valid, and reliable. The results found that they favor the use of Tagalog as their primary medium of communication when conversing among themselves, their peers, and their respective families. The results would also reveal that their main reason for using the aforementioned language when communicating with others is that they would like to be socially accepted within their social group.

Keywords: Language and society, bilingual communities, code switching, lexical borrowing, Taglish

Introduction
A plethora of research has already documented that code switching, the use of two or more languages when engaged in discourse, is one of the most widely used communicative strategies by speakers in bilingual/multilingual communities (Henson & Tan, 1998; Mashiri, 2002; Bautista, 2004, 2009; Gonzales, 2004; Chung, 2006; Smedley, 2006; Piao, 2007; Rezaei & Gheitanchian, 2008; Durano, 2009; Goldbarg, 2009; Kuo, 2009; Mercado, 2010, Pagano, 2010; Ramos, 2010; Erwin-Billones, 2012). The use of this particular linguistic strategy enables such communities to achieve better communicative competence (Cardenas-Claros & Isharyanti, 2009), helping them cater to their social needs. It could also be assumed then that the easiest and most effective way of communicating meaning in
a bilingual/multilingual country like the Philippines is through the use of code-switching (Durano, 2009).

According to Poplack (1980), there are two types of bilingual speakers in bilingual countries: the fluent bilinguals who have attained fluency, if not mastery, of both languages and are able to use them alternately in discourse and the non-fluent bilinguals who have fluency in only one language and are only somewhat knowledgeable on the other but nonetheless are still able to use both, albeit somewhat constrained or limited, when communicating with others. Those who could be considered as fluent bilinguals, therefore, are usually those who are educated as they have been trained to be fluent in one or more languages; whereas those who could be considered as non-fluent bilinguals are usually those who lack proper education, thus making them less skillful and less fluent, mainly due to lack of adequate training and experience in one or more languages aside from their L1.

Thompson (2003) and Bautista (2004) claimed that one of the main reasons why many Filipinos are comfortable in code switching between English and Tagalog or Filipino, the Philippine national language, when they communicate with others is that they had been born and raised in a community where both of these languages are mostly used everywhere as media of communication. Additionally, researchers such as Bago (2001), Vizconde (2006), and Tupas and Lorente (2011) noted that Filipinos were fully exposed to a bilingual/multilingual community after the implementation of the Bilingual Policy of Education of 1974 in the Philippines, which recognizes both English and Tagalog/Filipino as official languages in the government, business, and education sectors throughout the country. Moreover, Henson and Tan (1998) iterated that some Filipinos, aside from their native language, were already familiar with English words from as early as 1900s. Hence, it could be said that, through these exposures, the use of Tagalog and English code switching, or more commonly known as ‘Taglish’, between and among Filipinos would only be natural, regardless of their social status in life.

The emergence of the use of Taglish or the alternation/switch between Tagalog and English in discourse among Filipinos (Bautista, 2004) has caught the attention of various researchers and linguists around the world. Their studies showed substantial evidence of its
effectiveness as a communicative strategy in various types of discourse among its users who had used it in their daily conversations. Thus, it could be said that there is now an acceptance regarding the use of Taglish among the majority of Filipinos both inside and outside the country.

As a result of its widespread use, Taglish, according to Bautista (2004), though still considered as a linguistic phenomenon by some, is now properly accepted as the “lingua franca in Philippine cities” as most Filipinos living in urbanized-areas of the country always tend to code switch in natural/informal conversations they partake every day (p. 226). Metila (2009) also noted in her study that the actual use of Tagalog-English code switching among Filipinos in informal contexts/settings is already considered as a proven fact and is thus uncontested. Metin (2006) and Baladad (2011) further established that it is now widely used all over the country, and, therefore, it could already be considered as the de facto national language. Finally, Thompson (2003) posited that Taglish could already be essentially seen and heard everywhere in the Philippines (i.e. billboards, newspapers, televisions, streets, and the like); hence, it is only natural for Filipinos, like many other bilinguals living in bilingual/multilingual communities, to code switch.

However, there are also those who maintain that Tagalog is still the preferred medium of communication among Tagalog-speaking communities, especially those who live outside the capital, more specifically in rural areas, among the non-fluent bilinguals. Researchers who had immersed themselves in studying Filipino ethnicity like Taya (2010), for instance, had asserted that while there are many other languages being used in the Philippines, the dominant medium of communication among Filipinos is still Tagalog.

Meanwhile, there is a steady rise on research being done with regard to the use of the said switch as an effective communicative strategy among Filipinos in the past few decades such as informal classroom interactions (Abad, 2005; Metila, 2009; Mercado, 2010; Ramos, 2010), informal conversations, settings and public places (Thompson, 2003; Metin, 2006; Bautista, 2009; Baladad, 2011) printed materials (Henson & Tan, 1998; Erwin-Billones, 2012), weblogs (Smedley, 2006) as well as analyses of its linguistic structure (Bautista, 2004; Tangco & Nolasco, 2002), to cite some. These studies, together with the lack of sufficient empirical data to prove that Tagalog is the
preferred lingua franca in the Philippines, eventually resulted in the conclusion of many researchers and journal writers across the globe as well as bloggers found on various websites and forums on the internet that Taglish is now being considered as the mother tongue of Filipinos. Baylon (2008), for example, claimed that Taglish has already replaced Tagalog/Filipino as the national language, indicating that Filipinos could now see and hear Taglish anywhere and everywhere in the country. In addition, one of the students in Durano’s (2009) study claimed that, based on his observation, “Filipinos nowadays do not speak pure Filipino, they mix English all the time” (p.35). Moreover, one anonymous source from a public web forum (commented last May, 2005) boldly stated that using Taglish instead of pure Tagalog when editing or even creating articles is simpler, easier to understand and even sounds better since we already live in the modern age. He went on to say that those who speak pure Tagalog nowadays could be considered as “pa-feeling magaling mag-Tagalog” (translated as “[they] feel like they are very good in speaking Tagalog). Finally, Soriano (2011) went as far as to conclude that, based on his experience, Tagalog is not the language of educated people.

However, it is interesting to note that most research done on the alternation of Tagalog and English have mostly targeted middle as well as upper class Filipinos, or those which could be categorized as fluent bilingual speakers. It could be said, then, that there is currently a gap in linguistic literature with regard to whether non-fluent bilingual Filipinos belonging to the lower class use Tagalog or Tagalog-English code-switching when communicating with others, whose estimated number is, based on official census, over 31 million or almost 40% of the total population in the Philippines (Tañada, n.d.).

Statement of the Problem

The present study aims to contribute to the already very large number of studies done with regard to the use of code switching in bilingual/multilingual speech, in general, and, more specifically, the use of Taglish among Filipino bilinguals. At the same time, it would try to fill the gap in literature as regards the dearth of research on non-fluent bilinguals belonging to the labor work force in the Philippines. Specifically, the pilot study aims at providing answers to the following questions:
1. What is the preferred mode of communication of Filipino factory labor workers working in an urban area: Taglish or Tagalog?
2. What are their reasons for opting to use that particular mode of discourse?
3. How do these workers code switch when they use Taglish?

Theoretical/Analytical Framework

**Communication Accommodation Theory.** One particularly broad communication strategy widely used by many is the Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) or more formerly known as Speech Accommodation Theory (SAT) which was developed by Howard Giles and colleagues. CAT, simply put, is the adjustment or the adaptation of the way a person communicates with others by either copying or patterning his way and manner of speech in order to sound similar with one particular group of people in order to be socially accepted within their circle, thus firmly establishing his social identity (Coupland, Coupland & Giles, 1991; Giles, 2008; Janzen, 2012; Sand, 2012). Giles (2008), being one of the major authors of the said theory, claims that there are many different ways by which people get accommodated as well as accommodate others, namely (a) accommodation; (b) over-accommodation; (c) under-accommodation; and (d) non-accommodation.

First, accommodation or also known as convergence, is the adaptation of interlocutors to pattern their way of communication with their audience so that they would be more comfortable speaking as well as to further encourage social interaction; this could be done either consciously or unconsciously and also via verbal or non-verbal communication like “smiling or laughing at a joke” (Jansen, 2012: 13).

Second, both over- and under-accommodation are two different forms of divergence and are usually used to denote, express or establish social distance (Babel, 2009; Sand, 2012) Over-accommodation is the process wherein a person tries to accommodate someone who he considers as somewhat below his level or is somewhat inferior to him, but nonetheless maintains the social distance between them; whereas under-accommodation is the process wherein people usually stick to their original speech pattern or their manner of speaking, thereby making a newcomer who is
unused to hearing and speaking that particular style of speech uncomfortable (Giles, 2008; Jansen, 2012).

It should be noted, however, that while both convergence and divergence have two separate functions, people usually use them at the same time, albeit in a somewhat unbalanced manner. This means that these two usually co-exist with one another (Giles & Wadleigh, 2008, as cited in Jansen, 2012).

Lastly, non-accommodation is the process wherein a person entirely refuses to adapt his manner of speech with another; thereby refusing to accommodate any type of audience he may encounter (Sand, 2012); it is usually done to avoid losing one’s social identity (Giles, 2008) or to avoid possible embarrassments which he may experience (Jansen, 2012).

**Code alternation among bilingual/multilingual speakers.** Bilingual speakers always have the tendency to use two or more languages when conveying their thoughts and feelings with others. It could be posited that such use is due to their desire for convergence, to be socially accepted as they currently live in bilingual communities, and using two or more languages would seem to make them part of it.

The literature on code alternation has made somewhat confusing descriptions of code switching, lexical borrowing and code-mixing. Hence, there is a need to discuss these terms by turn.

Code-switching, as discussed earlier, is a general term referring to the use of two or more languages among bilinguals when engaged in discourse (Poplack, 1980; Bautista, 2004). Through this, they are able to fully express their inner thoughts, feelings, and identity (Smedley, 2006; De Fina, 2007).

Borrowing occurs between a donor (source) language and a recipient language (alternately referred to as dominant language and base language). Borrowed words, according to Mojela (2010), refers to foreign words being adopted into the recipient language’s lexicon in order to understand new concepts or terms which were first introduced in a foreign language. For example, when the English word computer is borrowed into Tagalog (kompyuter), English is the donor language and Tagalog is the recipient language. It could be said that this, like code-switching, has been the result of the constant exposure of people to different languages and cultures.
Various researches on code alternation seem to suggest that while code-switching and code-mixing are widely used in bilingual communities (Rezaei & Gheitanchian, 2008), there are different understandings among researchers with regard to how they interpret and distinguish one from the other. Linguists like Redlinger and Park (1980, in Eyo Effiong, 2010), Chavez (2005), Eyo Effiong (2010) and others who had taken their stance posited that code-switching and code-mixing are the same as both refer to the mixture of elements from two or more distinct languages in a single response. Mashiri (2002), Lamidi (2008), Musk (2010), Cakrawarti (2011) and those who share their views, on the other hand, iterated that they are different in that code-switching happens at sentence-level, whereas code-mixing is at word or phrasal-level and are inserted within one sentence.

Code-mixing, most especially the insertion of single lexical items, according to Poplack (2004), seems to somewhat fit in the description of lexical borrowing in that the said switch still follow the grammatical rules of the language bilinguals dominantly use when they speak with one another. She additionally claimed that code-mixing corresponds to the theories given on lexical borrowing. Lipski (2005) further affirmed this by stating that borrowed words are still considered as part of the recipient language as these normally avoid violating the rules of the recipient language. The present study, therefore, follows the notion of Poplack (2004) in that the insertion of single lexical items of a particular language which were mixed with the recipient language and which are still able to abide with the morpho-syntactic structures of the recipient language used is considered as lexical borrowing. Hence, code-mixing and lexical borrowing are regarded the same in the present study.

Researchers around the world have been divided on whether to define borrowing as a form of code-switching or to distinguish them into two separate processes. Many researchers like Myers-Scotton (1992), Boztepe (2003) and Goldbarg (2009) expressed their beliefs that code-switching and borrowing should be considered as a single, distinct process as bilinguals tend to say words they were introduced to in English, therefore making them switch languages, in general. They also added that these two are often indistinguishable as one may never know whether a given foreign word is already considered as part of the recipient language.
Poplack (2004), Lipski, (2005), Ghirardini (2006), Nortier (2011), as well as Poplack and Dior (2011), among other linguists, however, asserted that while the use of borrowing makes a bilingual speaker switch to another language, the word borrowed which was inserted within the recipient language, usually a single item, assumes the morphological, syntactic, as well as the phonological identity of the language and therefore could already be considered as part of a speaker’s L1. In addition to this, Fromkin et. al (in Ibrahim, 2006) as well as Mojela (2010) have pointed out that borrowed words could be considered as a primary source of new words as these foreign words are usually adopted into the recipient language’s own lexicon.

While all these assertions have valid and logical reasoning, taking into consideration the historical background of the Philippines would clearly indicate that the English language has had a major influence in the country’s language, culture and identity (Bago, 2001; Vizconde, 2006; Tupas & Lorente, 2011). Due to this exposure, many English words are constantly being loaned or borrowed into Tagalog, thus adopting them and making them as part of Tagalog’s lexicon. Therefore, it could be said that there is a need to separate the two since one could somehow easily distinguish a borrowed word from the use of code-switching here in the Philippines. Thus, the present study would classify these communication strategies into two distinct processes.

Utterances, henceforth, would only be considered as code-switching when more than one lexical item has been inserted within a sentence with the exception of some terms used which could be defined as lexical borrowing (See Below). In addition, single lexical items which were found to observe the grammatical rules of the recipient language would be distinguished as lexical borrowing.

Types of Code-Switching. Code-switching has been subdivided into three different types as people have different manner, style or ways of using this in their conversations. Figure 1 shows the different types of code-switching as proposed by Poplack (1980) in her study. These are (1) intersential switching; (2) tag-switching; and (3) intrasentential switching.
Inter-sentential Switching. This occurs when one language has been inserted from another at sentence level (Zirker, 2007). Let us consider the examples below:

(1) Okay kindly keep your things? *Kunin niyo ang notebook sa akin* (You get the notebooks from me).
(2) Tatanungin ko kayo ulit (I will ask you again). *Is there a big chance that you will get an even number?*

*Taken from Mercado (2010; 30)*

As could be seen in (1), the first sentence was completely uttered in English, then switches into Tagalog after it, thereby switching at sentence level. Sample (2) also indicates how the first uttered sentence was spoken in Tagalog and then switches right back to English in the next one.

Tag-Switching. This type of alternation occurs when a tag statement, usually an expression, has been taken from one language and then inserts it into another (Zirker, 2007). Consider the following example below:

(3) *O* what do we call energy coming from the houselight?
(4) We see thunder…lightning..sea..*di ba?*

*Taken from Mercado (2010; 30)*

In here, (3) shows the insertion of the Filipino expression ‘*O*’ often used by Filipinos at the start of the sentence and then speaks the rest using English. In (4), ‘*di ba*’, another commonly used Filipino expression to denote clarification or confirmation was inserted at the end of the sentence after positing the sentence in English.
**Intra-sentential Switching.** It occurs when one language has been inserted, usually more than a single lexical term, into another at word or phrasal-level (Jones, 2004). Below are some examples of the said switch:

(5) It is not feeding *pa rin ito* may feeding *dito* (It is still not feeding; here there is feeding here)

(6) What is the easiest..easiest *ano* (*what*), lowest term…that you could (form).

*Taken from Mercado (2010; 29, 31); translations are supplied by the authors*

In the samples stated above, (5) shows a sentence first uttered in English and then Tagalog words were inserted right at the middle of the sentence to better clarify what has been iterated to avoid confusion. In (6), English was the main language used with the insertion of the Tagalog word *ano* right in the middle of the clause.

**Samples of Lexical Borrowing.** The above discussion distinguished the difference between code-switching and lexical borrowing as well as how they could be pointed out. For the purposes of the present study, words considered as ‘lexical borrowing’ are limited to (1) (technical) terms introduced in English which has no Tagalog/Filipino counterpart; (2) brands/models/products/establishments/products which were named in English; (3) position titles/government agencies; (4) Names of various places introduced or named in English; (5) borrowed words which were already incorporated into the Tagalog/Filipino lexicon; and (6) single lexical items inserted within a sentence which properly observe the grammatical rules of the dominantly language being used.

Perhaps another clear manifestation of the influence of English in both language and culture of the Philippines is that there are many English terms that were already accepted into the Tagalog lexicon and yet many more are still being used that it would be quite tedious to enumerate them all. However, since this is the case, it would take some serious amount of time to put every specific word here. Hence, the words would be categorized into its general terms. Below are the following terms which could be considered as lexical borrowing
among Filipinos (It should be noted that only those terms necessary for the study were integrated here).

**Technical Terms**

*a.* Computer and its parts (e.g. hardware, software, hard disk, mouse, keyboard, monitor; laptop, and the like)

*b.* Other computer/cellphone/smartphone-related terms (e.g. settings, contacts, phone book, calibrate, picture, camera, and the like)

*c.* Mechanical (Machine) parts (e.g. [endless] screw, cylinder, mixer, crusher, pelletizer, [die head] mold, roller, inverter, socket, relay, and the like)

*d.* Other electronic gadgets/devices (e.g. cellphone, smartphone, speaker, amplifier, DVD, VCD, disc, charger, remote controller, [plasma] television, and the like)

*e.* Colors (e.g. pink, orange, grey, and the like as well as other color combinations like blue-green, yellow-green, dirty white, and the like.)

*f.* Materials being used at the factory (e.g. Hamba (soft & hard; light & colored), orange, assorted, cap seal, vacuum, blinds (light & colored), white board, card, beruta, and the like)

*g.* Office/Home Supplies and Appliances (e.g. ruler, voucher, (steel) cabinet, air-con, refrigerator, rice cooker, electric fan, printer, envelope, folder, time card, toolbox, flashlight, water dispenser, padlock, and the like)

*h.* Medical terms and conditions (e.g. cancer, goiter, arthritis, high/low blood, diabetes, X-Ray, UTI, ER (emergency room), and the like)

*i.* Medicines (e.g. Bioflu, Biogesic, Neozep, Alaxan, Paracetamol, and the like)

**Names of Establishments/Brands/Models/Products**

*a.* Soft drinks (e.g. Royal, Sprite, Coke, Mountain Dew, and the like)

*b.* Cellphones (e.g. Nokia, Samsung, iPhone, cherry mobile, myPhone, and the like)
c. Products manufactured by the site observed (e.g. PE (PolyEthylene) & PVC (PolyVinyl Chloride) Pipe, rolls, plastic moulding, and the like)

d. Vehicles (two/four wheeled) (e.g. Forward, canter, alba, mountain bike, big bike, ‘motor’ as in motocycle, taxi, jeep, and the like)

e. Establishments (e.g. Mall, SM supermarket, Hypermarket, Save more, Pure Gold, Ever Gotesco, The Block, Annex, Jollibee, Kenny Rogers, KFC, McDonalds’, Burger King, and the like)

**Titles/Positions/Government Agencies and Others Related to it**

a. Titles/Positions (e.g. manager, secretary, operator, boss, sir, and the like.)

b. Government Agencies and other government-related terms (e.g. Philhealth, SSS (Social Security System), Tax, form, bill, and the like.)

**English Words Incorporated into the Tagalog Lexicon** Many English words were already accepted and incorporated into the Filipino/Tagalog lexicon. Some examples of these are (1) Teks-teks (texting);(2) Kompyuter (computer); (3) iskul (school);(4) titser (teacher);(5) eksplanasyon (explanation);(6) Konstitusyon (constitution); and many more.

**Single Lexical Items**

These are single English words which were mixed into Tagalog sentences but still maintained the morpho-syntactic structures of the said recipient language. This is usually a combination of Tagalog affixes and English words (e.g. nagwiwiggle-wiggle, iapply, nagkadevelopan) and mostly functions as a verb (Tangco & Nolasco, 2002).

**Methodology**

**Data Gathering Techniques**

The researcher implemented the guidelines posited by Patton (1990), Hoepfl (1997), Fox (1998), Kawulich (2005) as well as Mack et al. (2005) when using observation as a means of collecting data as
they averred in their papers that using this type of method enables researchers to explore and experience the social world more and see how people react/interact naturally. Two types of observation were used in the present study: (1) nonparticipant observation-the researcher mostly relies on eavesdropping to gather empirical data (2) participant observation- the researcher helps in the tasks done by the workers, at the same time, befriends and talks with them naturally. Coupled with these particular methods of data collection is what Whitehead (2005) calls as natural conversational ethnographic interviews, a type of unstructured interview wherein the researcher converses with other people naturally in informal settings. This combination of multiple methods used in the present study is what Patton (1990) calls as method triangulation.

Participants

Twenty eight Filipino factory labor workers (22 male and 6 female), their ages ranging from 21 – 44 years, all of which could be categorized as those belonging to the lower class bracket, were covertly observed; five of which (4 male and 1 female) were informally interviewed after a permission from the owner to conduct the study was given. These workers are currently working in a private manufacturing company selling a variety of plastic products which could be located in a particular urban area in the Philippines. The pilot study took a span of three (3) months dating from November 2011 to January 2012.

Most of the participants of the present study were born and raised in different rural areas around the country from as near as Calumpit, Bulacan, which could be found in Northern Luzon, and from as far as Bukidnon, which could be found in Mindanao. They decided to take the risk of coming to the different parts of Manila or Metro Manila, leaving their respective families in the process, in hopes of attaining a better life by finding work as applying for decent jobs are very hard in the province, according to them. Only some of them were born and raised in urban areas, more specifically in Caloocan and Valenzuela City. However, many of those who grew up in their respective provinces have been in the different urban areas in Manila for more than twenty (20) years now. Moreover, most of them, if not all, could speak and understand basic English
language, although they admit that their knowledge of English is somewhat more limited when compared to others. Finally, many of them have failed to reach secondary education, while some of them have finished the said level of education, making it the highest degree they had earned. It could be iterated, then, that these have qualified them as non-fluent bilinguals as well as basilectal speakers of Philippine English.

**Cultural Context to Consider**

An informal interview was made among a different set of workers which asked them what they would feel about being observed or studied by another person. Their responses indicated that they do not like being studied as they view it as an insult to their social status in life. This result along with the knowledge of their cultural background were the major considerations why covert observations as well as natural conversational ethnographic interviews instead of structured interviews were used as a means of gathering data.

Also, the goal of the present study is to carefully observe how these people converse/interact naturally, the use of recorders (video and audio) was not resorted to since the recorders would essentially fail to capture actual conversations due to the noises the machines make which permeate in both factories during working hours. However, to make sure that this is really the case, an attempt to audio-record the conversations between the owner and the workers as well as the researcher’s own dialogues with the workers using a cellphone as an instrument was made; but after the interactions had been said and the audio recordings had been done, the noises coming from the machines made it quite difficult to efficiently transcribe the dialogues that transpired. Therefore, the use of field notes from the researcher’s memory as primary source of gathering data was utilized so that conversations could be as natural as possible during the data gathering period. No identities of the respondents were divulged throughout the course of this research report.
Procedure

The first part of the data gathering consisted of non-participant observation wherein the researcher, relying on eavesdropping while accompanying the owners, would take note of the conversations between the workers and their employers and conversations among the workers. After the familiarity of the researcher’s presence in the manufacturing sites were established, participant observation was used, enabling the researcher to gather more significant data. This time, the researcher started helping the workers in doing their tasks. At first, the workers were uncomfortable speaking with the researcher, and they usually answered in one or two sentences only; but as time went by, the researcher was finally able to converse with them more. Many of the short conversations had turned into long dialogues on different topics (See Appendix A). Then the researcher made interviews via informal conversations to get more information out of them (See Appendix B for the interview guide).

The researcher would intermittently go back to the office every fifteen minutes to an hour to record what he had heard and go back inside the workplace to continue helping and conversing with the workers. But there were also many instances wherein he was able to instantly write down verbal exchanges right after they had occurred. To further ensure that he would never fail to miss anything, he wrote down all English words/phrases/sentences that they have uttered in paper cubes and later analyzed them. It should be noted that the researcher had put ellipses in some lengthy dialogues; the important data were, nonetheless, recorded.

Method of Analysis

In order to answer research question 1, “What is the preferred mode of communication of Filipino factory labor workers living in an urban area, Taglish or Pure Tagalog,” the most frequently used language was determined in the data taken from field notes. Next, in order to answer research question two, “What are their reasons for opting to use that particular mode of discourse?”, the data gathered through ethnographic interview were analyzed by categorizing responses into themes. Then frequencies of the categories were counted. Lastly, the data gathered from field notes which comprised the corpus of the
study were analyzed in terms of the location of code alternation insertions (word, phrase, clause and sentence-level) to answer research question three. The results were later categorized into the three types of code-switching as discussed by Poplack (1980) in her study in order to determine whether their responses belong to inter-sentential, tag-switching, or intra-sentential switching. It should be noted that the overall data gathered during the present study were analyzed per utterance.

**Results and Discussion**

**Tagalog or Taglish?**

The results show that, surprisingly, all of the Filipino factory labor workers who were observed inside the manufacturing companies preferred to use Tagalog over Taglish as their medium when communicating their ideas, thoughts, and feelings with others. Below are some excerpts of dialogues exchanged between the owner and her workers, the researcher and the workers as well as conversations between and among them which were gathered and later analyzed. It should be noted that the names of these workers were intentionally omitted and were replaced by a blank or “___” when their respective names were mentioned during the said verbal exchanges so as to protect their identities.

The data show that these factory labor workers opted to use Tagalog words even when prompted to answer in English as could be seen in (1–3). In the transcripts, code O refers to the owner; R, to the researcher; and W to the workers. English translation follows each excerpt (in smaller fonts).

(1) O: ___ told me you mentioned to him that we run out of colorant.
W: Opo, ate. Hanggang bukas na lang ang itatagal nung nandiyan.
O” Ganon ba. O sige, oorder na lang ako mamaya. Anong kulay ba yung wala na tayo? Yung blue o yung light?
W: Yung asul po yung wala tayo, te’.

O: ___ told me you mentioned to him that we run out of colorant.
W: Yes. The supply we have will last only until tomorrow.
O: Oh, really? Okay. I will order for more later. What color do we need? Blue or the light one?
W: We do not have the blue one.

2. R: Paano ka po ba pumupunta dito sa pabrika? Commute o bike?
   W1: Namamasahe lang ako hanggang sa labas, tapos nilalakad ko na lang papasok.

   (R: How do you come here in the the factory? Commute or by bicycle?
   W1: I just commute until a certain point, then I walk to get here inside.
   W2: I use my bike. Because our place is just near here and I want to economize.)

3. R: Kuya, ano bang kulay ang gusto mo para sa nokia cellphone mo? Black, white, grey, o red?
   W1: Yung itim na lang siguro.
   W2: Sige, yung puti yung gusto ko.

   *In (2-3), W1 & W2 were answers given by two different workers on two separate occasions.

   R: What color do you want for your nokia cellphone? Black, white, grey, or red?
   W1: Just the black one.
   W2: Okay, I like the white color.

   *In (2-3), W1 & W2 were answers given by two different workers on two separate occasions.

   In (1), when promptly asked by the owner as to which color of colorant they need to buy, the worker replied using the Tagalog counterpart of the color blue, which is asul, even when he was prompted to answer in English. In (2), when asked about their preferred mode of transportation using English words commute or bike to prompt them to use Taglish, both workers, who answered differently, still replied using the Tagalog counterparts of the aforementioned words, which were namamasahe and nagbibisikleta, respectively. As for (3), both workers had answered the color they want for their cellphones in Tagalog which were puti and itim even when the choices given were in English.
It is also worth mentioning that these people could utter multiple sentences and even paragraphs in a particular episode of discourse without uttering a single code-switched word. There were even days wherein the researcher was unable to gather a single significant data as these workers really seldom switch between languages; if they did switch, perhaps, it is either the researcher was unable to hear it or he was nowhere near to those who uttered it. Let us consider the following excerpts of dialogues exchanged between the researcher and the labor workers as shown in (4-5) which could be found below:

4. R: Kuya, mga ano na po ba ang age ninyo?
   W: Magbebente-nuebe (29) na ako sa katapusan, Lan.
   R: Ang lapit na pala ah. Advanced happy birthday pala sayo kung ganon.
   W: (smiles) Salamat.
   R: Edi may girlfriend na po siguro kayo noh.
   W: Asawa na nga eh. May anak na rin kami, kaso nasa nanay ko dun sa amin sa Leyte.
   R: Ang layo ah...
   (R: Brother, what is your age?
   W: I will turn 29 at the end of the month, Lan.
   R: That is fast approaching. Advanced happy birthday to you.
   W: (Smiles) Thank you.
   R: So do you have already a girlfriend?
   W: I already have a wife, and we already have children who are now with my Mother in Leyte.
   R: That is far. )

5. W1: ___, tawagin mo nga si ___ para siya muna magbantay dito [sa makina ko] kasi kailangan ko pa maghalo ng materyales para dito kasi malapit na maubos yung nasa imbudo nito.
   W2: Sige kahit ako na lang muna magbantay niyan para magawa mo na yung gagawin mo.
   W1: Paano yung sayo?
   W2: Sus, kaya ko naman bantayan tong dalawa nang magisa eh at saka mabagal din naman yung andar ng akin kaya kaya ko naman bantayan pati yung sayo.
   W1: O sige. Bantayan mo na ah, kukuha lang ako ng mga panghalo.
   W2: Sige.
(W1: Can you call____ so that he could watch closely my machine because I need to mix the materials needed here because the ones in the funnel are almost consumed.
W2: Okay. I’ll do it so that you can do what you need to do.
W1: How about yours?
W2: I can watch closely the two machines alone because mine is going slower so I can watch closely yours.
W1: Okay. I’ll just get some materials for mixing.
W2: Okay.)

As shown in (4), the researcher intentionally used Taglish in this particular conversation to see whether the worker would feel that he somehow has to answer using Taglish in response. But the result has clearly shown he still answered everything in Tagalog. In (5), the researcher had listened to the conversation of two workers to know if they would somehow insert some Taglish words during their discourse, but their little discussion has ended without them uttering a single English word.

However, it should be pointed out that they also use Taglish in their daily conversations, especially when there is no other alternative or Tagalog translation for such words such as name of parts of a machine and various products such as electronic gadgets, energy drinks, soft drinks, and the like. Following the analytical framework adopted for the study, they are referred to in this study as borrowing. They also occasionally make use of code switching (to be discussed in the next section). Aside from this, they mostly maintain and utilize the use of Tagalog when communicating with another person. The excerpts below show their instances of borrowing:

6. R: Kuya, anong tawag dito sa [parte ng] makinang ‘to?
W: Ayan yung tinatawag na Cylinder
R: Ah, ganon po ba. Eh alam niyo po ba ang tawag dito sa Tagalog?
W: Hindi eh, basta Cylinder lang ang pagkaalam ko kahit noon pa.
R: Ah, ganon ba…

(R: Brother, what do you call this [part of the] machine?
W: That is what we call as Cylinder.
R: Hmm, I see. Do you know what it’s called in Tagalog?
W: No, All I know is that it’s called as Cylinder ever since.
R: I see…)}
7. W: ...siya nga pala, balita ko nagpapahulugan ka daw ah.
   R: Opo. May ipapabili din po ba kayo?
   W: Papabili sana ako sayo ng amplifier sayo kasi pangit yung nabilo ko dati eh.
   R: Sige po.
   W: Mga magkano kaya ang amplifier ngayon?
   R: Hindi ko alam eh. Magtatanong na lang ako sa Raon kung magkano para makamura tayo.
   W: Sige, gusto ko yung Konzert ah. Yon kasi ang pinakamagandang sa lahat. Pakitanong mo na rin doon kung magkano ang speaker nila...

(W:...by the way, I heard that you are doing installments.
R: Yes. Do you have something you want to buy?
W: I would like to buy an amplifier from you if possible because the one I bought earlier was not good.
R: Okay.
W: How much do you think an amplifier costs today?
R: I don’t know. I’ll just ask around in Raon for the amount so that it would be cheaper for the both of us
W: Okay, I want Konzert [as the brand]. It’s because that’s the best quality. Please also ask there how much their speaker costs…)

8. R: O, bakit tinigil ninyo yung Pelletizer natin?
   W: Eh kasi nagwiwiggle-wiggle na yung bakal sa tabi eh. Baka mamaya masira pa ng tuluyan kya tinigil ko na muna.
   R: Ah, palagay ko tawagin kya natin si kuya ___ para ipacheck natin sa kaniya kung ano ang sira niyan.
   W: Mabuti pa nga para maayos agad kasi kailangan natin ito eh...

(R: Oh, why did you stop [operating] our Pelletizer?
W: It’s because the metal at the side is wiggling. It could completely break down later, so I stopped it for now.
R: I think we should go call brother ___ to let him check the cause of its malfunction.
W: It’s better that we do because we really need it…)

In (6), the technical term, Cylinder, was used by the worker to call a particular part of a machine when asked by the researcher since he has no idea what is its Tagalog counterpart and has only it by that name for many years now. Excerpt (7) shows how the worker made use of English words like amplifier, or amplifier, speaker or ispiker, and
Konzert. However, these words are considered as technical terms since there is no Tagalog counterpart for amplifier and speaker, and Konzert is a brand. Excerpt (8) shows an English word wiggle (which was repeated) along with the Tagalog prefix nag- which was used in the sentence by the worker when asked as to the reason why the Pelletizer has been stopped.

It is clearly evident that they feel more comfortable when using Tagalog as the medium of their daily conversations as they are more relaxed when they speak in this way rather than using Taglish and/or English. However, it should be emphasized that most of the workers could understand English words, phrases, sentences, and even paragraphs, although there are also some whose understanding is somewhat more limited than others. Moreover, they occasionally made use of English words as a form of sarcasm to either make fun or somewhat annoy their peers as shown in (9) below. In this example, the first worker asked the second worker if it was raining outside in Filipino, which is umuulan; the other replied in a sarcastic manner, switching the said Tagalog word into its English counterpart, rain, coupled with the Tagalog prefix nag-.

9. W1: Pre, umuulan ba sa labas ngayon?
   W2: Hindi pre, nag-rain.
   W1: Niye, hindi nga.
   W2: Oo pre, umuulan. Kanina pa naman umuulan di pa humuhupa.
   W1: Malas naman. Wala pa naman akong payong. Pahiramin mo na ako.
   W2: Sus, takbuhin mo na lang. Malapit ka lang naman dito eh…

(W1 : Bro, is it raining outside right now?
W2 : No bro, it’s raining.
W1 : No, really.
W2 : Yes bro, it’s raining. It has been constantly raining it has not stopped yet.
W1 : Bad luck. I do not even have an umbrella with me. Let me borrow yours.
W2 : Just run. You’re just near here anyways…

How they codeswitch
As we have already pointed out, instances of code switching in the discourse of Filipino Factory workers under study are rare. The
results have indicated that out of the three types of code-switching proposed by Poplack (1980), they only made use of intra-sentential switching when they insert English words into Tagalog sentences as could been seen in (10-11). There were no instances of inter-sentential and tag switching in the corpus.

10. R: O, kala ko hindi na bibiyahe yung truck natin?
   W: Eh pinabibahe na ni taba eh.
   R: Pero napuno ba yung laman noon? Kasi wala na tayong stock nung huling nakita ko kanina.
   W: Kulang-kulang nga yung laman noon, pero at least nakapagbibahe sila ng maaga-aga para hindi na sila gabihiin ng uwi...
   (R: O, I thought our truck won’t be going on a trip anymore?
   W: Eh ‘the fat guy’ made them go [on another trip].
   R: But has its cargo been filled up? Because we do not have enough stock to fill it the last time I checked.
   W: It was not filled up, but at least they were able to go early so that they would be able to make it back before the night comes.)

11. W: …humihiram nga ng pera si ___ kay haba kanina kasi kailangan daw niya ng pera para mailabas na nila yung tatay niya sa ospital.
   R: Ay, ganoon. Eh kumusta na daw pala tatay niya?
   W: Ayon, kalahati daw ng katawan niya paralisado na.
   R: Kawawa nam nan pala tatay niya noh.
   W: Oo nga, kaso wala na tayong magagawa diyan. Kaya nga humihiram siya ng pera kasi yung suswelduhan niya nitong linggo yung pambilibi daw niya ng gamot ng tatay niya. Magtatago lang daw siya nang kaunti para in case kailangan ulit isugod sa ospital yung tatay niya, may pera sila panggastos sa mga bayarin.
   R: Ah, ganoon ba. Eh di ba malaking mahalaga ang kailangan ibayad sa mga ospital para mailabas na niya yung tatay niya?
   W: Eh nagtututulungan naman daw sila ng kapatid niya eh…

(W: … _____ is borrowing money from ‘the long guy’ earlier since she really needs the money so that they would be to discharge their father from the hospital.
   R: Is that so. How is her father faring then?
   W: There, half of his body is now paralyzed.)
R: It’s a pity that her father [came to be that way].
W: Yes, but we can’t do anything about it. That’s why she’s borrowing money because her salary for this week would be used to buy medicine for her father. She would save some money so just in case her father needs to be rushed to the hospital again, they would have some money to spend for the expenses.
R: Is that so. But a big sum of money would be needed to pay the hospital before they could discharge her father, isn’t it?
W: Well she said she and her other sibling would help each other…)

As could be seen in (10), the worker made use of the English phrase *at least* to say that there was also a good side in letting the truck leave early even though it only contained partial of what was ordered by the customer. And in (11), the worker used the English phrase *in case* to answer the reason why the worker being talked about would like to borrow money from her fellow worker

**Why Tagalog?**

Results from the ethnographic interview revealed that all the respondents prefer to use Tagalog over Taglish as their primary mode of discourse.

The reasons as to why they opted to use a monolingual approach when conveying what they wanted to say to other people is that they (1) are able to “express themselves” much better; (2) they would be understood by their peers more as the intended message which they would like to send would be “much clearer” to them; (3) Tagalog is the language of their family, friends, and neighbors; and (4) they are uncomfortable in frequently using both English and Taglish when communicating with others.

Based on these reasons, it is clear that these factory labor workers have been raised and exposed in an environment wherein the preferred way of communication between and among people is Tagalog. It can be concluded that one major cause as to why they opted to use the said language is that they have been surrounded by users of the Philippine national language ever since they were little; hence they, too, have adopted the linguistic culture.

However, it could also be posited that their frequent use of the Tagalog language is the result of their lack of mastery in the English language and, due to this, they find it quite hard to express themselves in it. The respondents under study lack formal education,
which is usually found inside the classroom as many of these people were forced to leave school due to insufficient funds to even support their daily needs; hence it could be said that they were deprived of the opportunity to master the English language but were able to develop their communicative competence in Tagalog.

Another possible reason for this could be what Heredia and Altarriba (2001) calls as language accessibility wherein one usually switches languages when words could be better accessed using another language to be able to fully express one’s self to others. The workers in the present study used Tagalog because it is the language that is more accessible to them—the language in which they have acquired communicative competence. They only switches in English when they cannot access words with which to express themselves in Tagalog. While some of them are unfamiliar with the general term ‘Taglish,’ they are aware that many people nowadays “mix Tagalog and English” in their daily conversations and have admitted in using it sometimes, especially when they converse with foreigners and other people living in the Philippines who could not understand Tagalog.

Conclusion

The findings of the present study reveal that Filipino factory labor workers prefer to make use of Tagalog over Taglish as their primary medium of communication. The primary reason for this is that they use it in order to be socially accepted within their group since they were born and raised in this kind of culture as well as to firmly establish their own social identity. From their perspective, the frequent use of Taglish widens the distance between them and their peers. Occasionally though, they made use of intra-sentential switching whenever they use Taglish in their spoken discourse in order to express their ideas that are difficult to express in Tagalog. They do, however, frequently make use of lexical borrowings.

It could be concluded, then, that the present pilot study has yielded unexpected results. While the frequent use of Taglish is now rampant among educated people, most especially those who could be categorized in the upper and middle class bracket, the notion posited by some linguists as well as writers and bloggers that Taglish should or is now being considered as the lingua franca in Philippine cities
may not be applied to non-fluent Filipino bilinguals. It could be asserted that the present study has added a significant contribution in discourse analysis and in Philippine Linguistics, in general, as it provided findings to fill the aforementioned gap in literature. Furthermore, it points out a research direction—to replicate the present study focusing on how Filipinos belonging to the lower class bracket communicate with one another, particularly those close to them (e.g. guards, maids).

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About the Authors

Michail Alic Chua Go is a graduate of Master of Arts in English Language Education (MAELED) in De La Salle University. He and his colleagues have published an article regarding the Understanding by Design framework, an integral of part of the curriculum currently being implemented in the Philippines.

Leah Espada Gustilo is a graduate of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics and a faculty in De La Salle University, Manila, teaching English communication, discourse analysis, translation and editing, and foundations of language. She has published articles on contrastive rhetoric, Philippine English, online self-presentation using CDA and SFL frameworks, and ESL writing. She has presented her papers in local and international conferences (leah.gustilo@dlsu.edu.ph).
Examining the Usage of “actually” and “in fact” in Philippine English through a Corpus-based Analysis

Miren Montoya Morales
De La Salle University, Manila
University of the Philippines, Manila

Abstract

The objective of this study is to give further evidence regarding the meaning and function of actually and in fact by identifying their usage in Philippine English to extend the deployment of signifying in bilingual/multilingual contexts. The data analyzed in this study are taken from ICE-PHI corpus. This study is helpful for Philippine-ESL teachers and learners in understanding how linguistic markers, such as actually and in fact, are applied in their own English variety when processing different types of discourses in view of effective communication. All occurrences of actually and in fact were identified and counted using Wordsmith Tools 5.0. These tokens were further classified according to their position within an utterance. One hundred tokens each of actually and in fact were randomly selected and analyzed, taking into account the full context in which each token appears, in order to find out consistent patterns concerning the distribution and/or usage of actually and in fact in discourse. The findings were compared to the American corpora (AmC) analyzed by Oh (2000). The results show that there are both parallelisms and variations between ICE-PHI and AmC.

Keywords: Outer-circle English variety, utterance position, discourse marker, usage, genre

Introduction

According to Schneider (2005), in his study of Philippine English (PhilE), “inherent variability is a crucial property of natural language” (p.27), and this has been acknowledged from the sociolinguistic research of Labov. This phenomenon applies to nativized varieties of English where they tend, inevitably, to develop unique and creative linguistic forms distinct from the model of L1.
speakers. This process of “structural nativization” may result in an endonormative orientation, that is, the acceptance of the way English is used locally to be the correct usage. Schneider proposed in his study of PhilE that one fundamental aspect of developing indigenous norms is “frequency-based habit formation” (p. 28) since previous researches have attested that “[i]n general, frequency of use has been found to be a decisive factor in shaping language structures” (p.28). An area of research that successfully obtained evidence for determining linguistic forms and patterns in a given region is the study of corpora in applied linguistics (Hunston, 2002; De Beaugrande, 1999; Biber, 1996; Aijmer & Altenberg, 1991;). Corpus Linguistic studies have helped in our understanding of new linguistic patterns in discourse that have become distinct features of particular varieties of English.

Like other Southeast Asean varieties, PhilE is characterized by its own distinct linguistic features (Bautista & Bolton, 2009) as one among several Outer Circle varieties. Halliday (2004) accounts for this inherent variability by foregrounding the role of socialization in language development, which influences an individual’s speech behavior (including writing skills), which, in turn, comes from one’s cultural orientation. Thus, the context of situation determines the actual choices made by the user of the language within a range of possibilities from which systematizable patterns of social behaviour are derived.

It is within this perspective that this paper investigates the varied usage applications of the linguistic items in fact and actually taken from ICE-PHI, a corpus that consists of a “wide range of linguistic phenomena” (Schneider, 2005, p.29). To be consistent with a descriptive research method, this paper bases its analysis of meaning and function of actually and in fact on corpus-based studies.

In Inner Circle usages, the linguistic items in fact and actually are generally held to be “interchangeable”; in addition, they are “frequently found in everyday language use,” and both linguistic items are considered multifunctional (Oh, 2000, p.243). These considerations, together with the desire to understand their more subtle usage differences have led to the comprehensive study on the role of in fact and actually in varied spoken and written contexts in Inner Circle English varieties (Lewis, 2005; Taglicht, 2001; Clift 2001;
Oh, 2000; Biber & Finegan, 1988; Aijmer, 1986). These previous linguistic studies show that there are disagreements as to their meaning and function.

According to previous analyses, *in fact* and *actually* adopt particular syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic roles depending on how they are embedded within an utterance or discourse. A significant factor that establishes these varied linguistic roles, in turn, is derived from how they are positioned within a clause. *In fact* and *actually* are regarded as conjunctions in their semantic roles as clarifiers (Halliday & Hasan, 1985; Martin, 1992). They are also viewed as evidentials, having pragmatic functions when they serve as expressing the mood, attitude, and judgements of speakers/writers (Aijmer, 1986; Chafe, 1986; and Biber & Finegan, 1988). In addition, they may be designated as discourse markers expressing discrete polyfunctional contributions to discourse meaning (Lewis, 2005; Lenk, 1998; Tognini-Bonelli, 1993; Fraser, 1988; and Watts, 1988). Oh (2000) summarized these various labels given to *actually* and *in fact* “as contrastive conjunctions, elaborative conjunctions, discourse or pragmatic markers, or even stance/evidential markers” (p.245). She claimed that “some of these treatments are compatible with each other, but others are not (e.g. ‘contrast’ versus ‘elaboration’ as the basic meaning of *actually* and *in fact*)” (p.245). Oh (2000) concluded from the findings of her study that *actually* and *in fact* do share a common core meaning of ‘unexpectedness’ such that “the difference between the two lies in the typical association of each with one or the other way of signaling ‘unexpectedness’” (p. 243). Oh further clarifies that her study “also shows that in real discourse contexts, *actually* and *in fact* develop a number of different uses that are more or less remote from this core meaning” (p. 243). These multiple designations reveal the curious and complex nature of these linguistic items.

The objective of this study is to give further evidence regarding the meaning and function of *actually* and *in fact* by identifying their usage in an Outer Circle application to extend the deployment of signifying in bilingual/multilingual contexts. It is helpful to both English teachers and learners from ESL/EFL environments to find out how linguistic markers, such as *actually* and *in fact*, are applied in their own English variety when processing different types of discourses in view of a more context-sensitive communication within
a multilingual consciousness. This study fills the gap in descriptive research in PhilE on managing spoken and written discourses through specific discourse markers by analyzing the usage features of *in fact* and *actually* in ICE-PHI. It aims to answer the following research questions:

1. Is there any difference in the distribution and/or use of *actually* and *in fact* in spoken and written Philippine English?
2. Do *actually* and *in fact* show different patterns of distribution and/or use depending on their position within an utterance (e.g. utterance-initial, medial, or final position)?
3. Which meanings do *actually* and *in fact* have in common?

**Method**

The data to be analyzed in this study came from the Philippine component of the International Corpus of English (ICE-PHI), compiled by Bautista, Lising and Dayag (1999). The ICE-PHI corpus follows the common design of other ICE corpora, wherein each component corpus contains 500 texts of approximately 2,000 words each. Based on evidence, a reliable source for identifying normative linguistic behavior is the regular usage of educated speakers and writers (Schneider, 2005; Bautista & Bolton, 2009); hence, the spoken and written text samples were taken from adults aged 18 and above and who received formal education through the medium of English up to the postsecondary level. The corpus is divided into two main categories: the spoken and written data. The spoken texts comprise of private and public dialogues and unscripted and scripted monologues. The written texts, on the other hand, included student writing, correspondence, academic writing, popular writing, reportage, administrative writing, press editorials, and literary writing. ICE-PHI does not claim representativeness in terms of proportion of gender, age, and profession in relation to the population as a whole.

The corpus size and frequency of occurrences of *actually* and *in fact* within the corpus were derived using Wordsmith Tools 5.0. The
The present study replicated Oh’s (2000) procedure in analyzing actually and in fact. First, all occurrences of actually and in fact were identified and counted. There are 673 tokens of actually and 239 tokens of in fact. These tokens were further classified according to their position within an utterance with the exception of the spoken frequency of actually. Since the amount is very large, to make the distribution manageable, only 100 texts representative proportion from the actual 300 spoken texts of actually were computed; hence the total 572 spoken tokens of actually (refer to Table 6 and Table 7) were reduced to 130 tokens.

The positions within an utterance are the following: initial position refers to either utterance-initial, clause-initial, and it may be preceded by discourse particles, gap-filler words, verbalized pauses (Sioson, 2011, pp. 52-53). Examples of such words are well, um, yes, or no; even subordinating/coordinate conjunctions such as and, but, wh-words are included as in “…he did not want to be embarrassed, when actually it was his fault…” <ICE PHI:W1A-003#17:1>. Likewise, final position refers to utterance final/clause final. Medial is a heterogeneous position with preverbal, post-copula and postauxiliary being the major subcategories. The distribution of actually and in fact in three positions was analyzed in both spoken and written corpora in order to make comparative analyses.

Finally, 100 tokens each of actually and in fact from the ICE-PHI corpus were randomly selected and detailed analyses were conducted, taking into account the full context in which each token appears, in order to find out consistent patterns concerning the distribution and/or usage of actually and in fact in discourse. The focus of the usage of actually and in fact were based on earlier works with evidence and/or explanations from authentic utterances (e.g. Biber & Finegan, 1988; Oh, 2000; Traugott, 1995) and those analyses which used contrived/invented examples were ignored (e.g. Taglicht, 2001).

Present usage of actually

Biber and Finegan (1988) consider actually and in fact as stance adverbials. Stance adverbials are defined by Biber and Finegan (1988)
as adverbial expressions that indicate “some aspect of speakers’ (or writers’) attitudes towards their messages, as a frame of reference for the messages, an attitude toward or judgment of their contents, or an indication of the degree of commitment towards their truthfulness” (p. 2) and that the “discourse functions of stance adverbials are often at variance with their literal meanings” (p.17). For instance, in British spoken and written corpora, actually indicates solidarity/shared familiarity/emphasis, rather than actuality (Biber & Finegan, 1988, p. 30).

Table 1
Frequencies of Stance Adverbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Conversation (AmE &amp; BrE)</th>
<th>Fiction (AmE &amp; BrE)</th>
<th>News (AmE &amp; BrE)</th>
<th>Academic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>actually</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in fact</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The study concluded that “The frequent occurrence of actually adverbials in spontaneous, highly interactive speech suggests their importance to the maintenance of a convincing or engaging dialogue in situations with little motivation and opportunity for careful argumentation” (Biber & Finegan, 1988, p. 18). In a later study by Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan (2000) which used American and British corpora, actually and in fact were classified as stance adverbials that express epistemic-actuality, that is, they comment on the propositional information of the utterance. The results in that study (Biber, et al., 2000) are shown in Table 1 above where frequency of occurrences is per one million words. Table 1 above shows that, in conversation, actually is significantly more frequent than in fact. Simon-Vandenbergen and Willems (2011) inferred from the results in Biber et al. (2000) that “actually is useful in face-to-face negotiation of meanings” (pp. 333-364).

Oh’s study (2000), on the other hand was the first serious attempt to discover potential differences in the distribution/use of actually and in fact. Table 2 below is a summary version of the results of the distribution of actually in terms of their position within a clause.
Table 2

Relative Frequency of the Positions of “actually”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Brown (written texts)</th>
<th>Switchboard (spoken texts)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1,014,312 words</td>
<td>2,400,355 words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial</td>
<td>26%</td>
<td>34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medial</td>
<td>74%</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Oh’s study (2000) refuted Aijmer’s earlier claim (1986, p. 129) that actually has “a different function and a different stylistic profile” according to its position by asserting that “there is no one-to-one correspondence between position and function. Rather, there exists a restriction such that the propositional use of actually can only occur in medial position. Otherwise, the functions of actually and in fact do not depend much on their position” (p.266). In fact, this restriction is evident in Table 2 above, which is derived from Oh (2000, p.249). Table 2 shows that actually occurs much more frequently in medial position in both written and spoken American corpora but very minimally used in final position in spoken texts and no occurrence in written texts. Possibly, the 8% occurrence in spoken texts may be attributed to its use in highly informal contexts. This attribution may be verified by analyzing the register in which actually occurred.

In written discourse, Table 2 further shows that actually “in initial position occurred in 43 examples (26%)” (p. 250) which is a fairly regular use. Oh (2000) stated that actually when positioned initially in written discourse functions primarily “to contradict an expectation” (p. 250). In medial position actually has a dual function, that is, one with a local scope, the other with a global scope. The latter is the type of function that is equivalent to the initial position which refers to the function of “contradicting prior expectations” (p. 252). The function in a local scope is also common: “It locally intensifies the meaning of the clause in which it occurs, and, in most of the cases, can be replaced with really” (p. 253). Oh (2000) noted a subcategory in medial position which she referred to as parenthetical insertions. She emphasized that under this category both actually and in fact have a similar function to paraphrase and/or elaborate previous
propositions, at times by providing more detailed information for precision. According to Oh, “[t]hese insertions are usually unexpected from the point of view of the recipient” (p. 254). She states that few parenthetical cases of in fact “provides more accurate information by marking the ‘enlargement’ of scope, for example, from ‘the rest of the country’ to ‘the world’ in example (18), and from ‘all the atoms outside’ to ‘the atoms of the entire universe’ in example (19) below. The result is an increase in the strength of a prior assertion, which is the typical use of in fact in all (but final) positions.

(18) . . . displays what outlanders call the New York mind, a state that the subject is necessarily unable to perceive in himself. The New York mind is two parts abstraction and one part misinformation about the rest of the country and in fact the world. In his fulminating against the literary world, Krim is really struggling with the New Yorker in himself, but it’s a losing battle . . . (B -G74)

(19) . . . Harmony, melody, counterpoint, symphonic structure are there; and as this music ebbs and flows, there is an antiphonal chorus from all the atoms outside, in fact from the atoms of the entire universe. And so today when we examine the structure of our knowledge of the atom and of the universe, we are forced to conclude that . . . (B-D13)

In fact occurs only rarely in final position (2%) (refer to Table 5), and actually does not occur there at all. This position is thus not a typical position in written discourse” (p. 254).

In spoken discourse, actually develops a special function in Oh (2000): “it signals that the speaker is engaged in a particular speech act, especially of a face-threatening type, such as contradicting, correcting, or disagreeing with the previous speaker” (p.254). For Oh (2000), expressing disagreement tend to be more frequent in speaking than in writing; thus, using actually for this purpose may explain why the occurrence of actually in spoken discourse is significantly more frequent than in written discourse as well as why the occurrence of actually is also much more frequent than in fact in spoken discourse. In addition, actually can serve the function of introducing a new topic, or of shifting the focus or perspective on the current topic (Tognini-Bonelli, 1993: 205; Lenk, 1998: 174 - 82) (p.257). Finally, Oh gave an additional function that both actually and in fact can serve in spoken discourse exclusively, and this refers to the speaker’s intention “to drop the previous verbal attempt in favor of a new utterance,” (p.259)
which appears more relevant to the speaker in light of one’s communicative purposes. Oh (2000) calls this speech act “re-start” function (p.259).

When it comes to the medial position, the use of actually coincides with the written counterpart where actually has the dual functions of a local and global scope as mentioned earlier. With the local scope, actually functions as a clause-emphasizer which has a reinforcing effect on the truth value of the clause, and can be rephrased with really (p. 260). In the spoken data, whether actually occurs in initial or medial position, it can be used to preface disagreement. In summary, actually has two possible uses in medial position: (1) as clause-emphasizer having a reinforcing effect on the truth value of (part of) the clause to which it applies; and (2) as a cohesive device.

In Dita’s research (2011), actually and in fact were analyzed as disjunctive adverbs in ICE-PHI. She stated that “it was expected that actually emerged as the most popular disjunct in PhilE” (pp. 3-4).

Table 3
Frequency of “actually” as a Disjunctive Adverb in PhilE (Dita, 2011, p. 35)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Single-word disjuncts</th>
<th>Spoken</th>
<th>Written</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Actually</td>
<td>467</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>493</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Dita (2011) pointed out that “[i]t is also worth mentioning that although the corpus yielded 672 instances of actually, only 493 function as disjuncts, the rest serve as subjuncts. She illustrated the difference between the two through these samples from ICE-PHI:

(7) Actually, it is more accurate to say that both have a common ancestor, probably some type of rodent! <W2B-003#24>
(8) Rizal outwardly scoffed and actually laughed at his own dreams, but in his diaries and letters to close friends he related the dreams which frightened him. <W2B-013#68>

In (7), actually functions as a disjunct as it gives a personal evaluation of the proposition in the preceding clause. On the other hand, actually in (8) functions as an intensifier, specifically an emphazer (see Quirk et al. (1985, pp. 583-9) for a detailed discussion.
of emphasers) as it provides an evaluation of the verb *laughed*, and not of the whole clause (pp.3-4).

Dita, also noted that the corpus showed “the fact that only *actually* (of all the -ly disjuncts) is used in code-switches. Apparently, this item can freely co-occur with Tagalog lexicon but not any other disjunct. Consider the following examples:

(72) *Actually* kasya nga ang eyeglass e <S1A-004#244>
(73) *Actually* sa T V mukhang hindi ganun kalaki ‘no pero pag katabi ninyo silang nag-aantay kayo ng bus diyan sa labas mukha kaming mga dwende kahit sa women’s side ano <S2A-019#53>
(74) *Actually* pareho ‘no swack tayo dun nagagalingan tayo sa mga setters ditto <S2A019#213>
(75) *Yeah actually* kasi Jullie ang orientation natin nagsimula tayo sa opposition na ’yon <S1B-030#94>” (p.12)

Lewis (2005) analyzed *actually* and *in fact* as discourse markers (DMs) within a pragmatic framework, specifically, she used the rhetorical structure theory (RST) (Mann & Thompson 1987) as a framework. Her study focused on rhetorical relations. Lewis (2005) explained that any relation is founded upon “some common ground or congruence between two ideas” for it to stand (p. 7) and so in considering rhetorical relations, “this level is the status -- the validity, accuracy or strength -- of the related arguments. Rhetorical relations are essentially persuasive and include sequences” (p. 7). The constituents of rhetorical relations consist of two arguments: “a claim followed by a narrower claim in the same field” (p.6). The sequence of the arguments may appear as: “claim + elaboration, claim + justification and claim + retreat” (p.7). The function of the DMs is to identify the relationship between these two related arguments to establish coherence within a semantic space. In the case of the discourse marker (DM) *actually*, the relation is called “epistemic-retreat” or “reformulation” (p. 6). On the other hand, *in fact* falls under “elaboration”. The difference between the functions of the two DMs has to do with how they “describe either a similarity or dissimilarity between the arguments, i.e. to be either consonant or dissonant” (pp.8-9). The function of “retreat” is a dissonant relation which “point to some incompatibility between ideas (p.9). On the other hand, “elaboration” is considered a consonant relation, thus,
“reinforce the status of the related segment based on the presupposition of consonance, or close compatibility of ideas” (pp.8-9). Lewis used corpus-based samples to explain her evaluation of these DMs.

Example 1 (in fact)
Example (1) shows a claim that something was successful, followed by a measure of its success.

(1) The Joint Research Equipment Initiative (JREI) … has proved to be an outstanding success. | In fact, the JREI has been so successful that […] it is to be an annual event (ELABORATION)
(Speech by John Battle, British Minister for Science, Energy and Industry, 17 March 1998)

The discourse marker in fact indicates that what follows is an elaboration of the previous idea. (Lewis, 2005, p.4)

In Lewis (2005), the first argument is called “claim” and the second argument “retreat”. For Lewis, the second argument does provide evidence, but the discourse markers indicate that the evidence is not conclusive.

Example 2 (actually)
You may never have heard of the "postmodernist" challenge to history; […] but you will surely delight in this exhibition of a superb professional historian seeing it off. | Actually, it is slightly unfair to say that Professor Evans "sees off" postmodernism, .. (Electronic Telegraph, 27 September 1997)
(Lewis, 2005, p.6)

Present Usage of in fact

Traugott (1995) made a diachronic analysis of in fact and concluded that its clausal role is found to be "as an adjunct and is primarily elaborative in function, at the beginning of the nineteenth century” (p. 10). These examples below used by Traugott were extracted from written data.4

Example 1
“I should not have used the expression. In fact, it does not concern you--- it concerns only myself. (1815 Austen, Emma, Vol. 3, Chap. 10, p. 393)” (p.10)
Example 2
“[Of Request-Response pairs] Between the request and the response a special type of cohesive relation (Schiffrin 87) exists, similar to that which binds question-answer pairs. In fact, we claim that at the level of discourse interpretation, the request and response form a discontinuous predicate argument structure. (1989 Ball, Analyzing discourses, p. 268)” (p.10)

Continuing with Traugott’s study (1995), contemporary usage examples of in fact show that it has two distinct applications:

(1) in fact was used to assert “the truth of what follows, despite contrary expectations” (p.7)

Example 3
“In terms of discourse structure, we might expect there to be radical differences between messages and dialogue, but in fact there are interesting similarities. (1989 Ball et al., Answers and Questions, p. 60) (p.7)

(2) in fact was used to confirm “a preceding formulation (i.e. is anaphoric) and promises to elaborate (i.e. is cataphoric); more particularly, it introduces an explanation of not ... the oldest in the preceding clause: (p.7)

Example 4
“Polling isn't The World's Oldest Profession, although around election time it might seem like it. In fact, once upon a time, way back in the first third of this benighted century, modern polling wasn't yet even a gleam in the eye of a small-town Iowa kid named George Gallup. (Oct. 8 1990, United Press International)” (p.7)

Lewis (2005) is consistent with Traugott’s analysis of in fact as demonstrated by the utterance she cited in the previous section where in fact plays a consonant relation with a function of elaboration. Dita (2011), on the other hand, pointed out the disjunctive function of the phrasal form in fact. She noted that there is a relatively high frequency of occurrence as shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Phrasal disjuncts</th>
<th>Spoken</th>
<th>Written</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In fact</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Dita concluded that *in fact* is one of the two most popular prepositional disjuncts in ICE-PHI. Dita added that according to her observation, this popular disjunctive usage “still maintain that status until the present day” (p. 37). The following examples illustrate how phrasal disjuncts are used in PhilE.

Example 5
And then James says I don’t care anymore I don’t care who knows *in fact* I want the whole world to know <S1A-015#27> (Dita, 2011, p. 37)

Lastly, Dita claims that the phrasal disjunct *in fact* also expresses actuality of reality:

(56) Well I was *in fact* the life of the party <S1A-088#51>

As mentioned previously, Oh (2000) concluded that in written discourse “*actually* has a contrastive meaning, as pointed out by Halliday and Hasan (1976: 253), denying a proposition that is asserted or implied previously” (p. 251). However, the phrasal form “*in fact* is characteristically used to signal an increase in the strength of an assertion that has been made in the previous utterance. As a result, it functions to reinforce, and not contradict, expectation” (p.251). According to Oh (2000), this particular type of use has been verified by Martin (1992, p. 208) who described this reinforcing function “as marking internal similarity between clauses” (p. 251).

Table 5
*Relative Frequency of the Positions “in fact”* (Oh, 2000, p. 249)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>in fact</th>
<th>American Corpora</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Position</td>
<td>Brown (written texts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Initial</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Medial</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Final</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This reinforcing function applies to the use of *in fact* in both initial and medial position. It was also noted earlier that like the classifications of Traugott and Lewis on the elaborative function of *in fact*, Oh (2000) also verified this elaborative function, labeled as parenthetical insertion which applies only in medial position for both
in fact as well as actually. As stated earlier, the uses of in fact in the final position are for exceptional cases only (2%).

In spoken discourse, “[i]nterestingly, the function of in fact in initial position remains very similar in written and spoken discourse” (Oh, 2000, p.257). However, in medial position, the use of in fact is rare (6%); although the function is still very similar with the initial position. Lastly, for Oh (2000), in fact also functions as a cohesive device to “indicate the relationship between the following utterance and the preceding context” (p. 254).

Results and Discussion

Overall Distribution of actually and in fact in PhilE

Table 6
Frequency of “actually” and “in fact” in Spoken versus Written Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal Mode</th>
<th>Spoken</th>
<th>Written</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Data</td>
<td>ICE-PHI Philippine English</td>
<td>Switchboard Corpus American English (Oh, 2000, p.247)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of words</td>
<td>683,910 words (300 texts)</td>
<td>2,400,355 words (200 texts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Actually</td>
<td>572 *(0.08%)</td>
<td>1,293 *(0.054%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in fact</td>
<td>167 (0.024%)</td>
<td>345 (0.14%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*lexical density (= the percentage of the token in one hundred words)

The total number of tokens of actually and in fact in the two corpora is shown in Table 6, with the corresponding lexical densities given in parentheses. As can be seen in Table 6, actually is 4 times more frequent in spoken than in written PhilE (0.08% versus 0.02%). Although there is a difference in the frequency of in fact in spoken and written discourse (0.024% versus 0.015%), nevertheless it is not a staggering one. In both cases, actually and in fact are more used in spoken discourse but actually is still more associated with spoken discourse.

Generally, these results are consistent with those of the Inner Circle Englishes (Brown Corpus, Switchboard Corpus, and London-Lund Corpus). Specifically, the lexical densities are consistent with American corpora with ICE-PHI yielding a slightly higher density except in the use of in fact which has an identical score (0.015%). In the written data actually have a particularly close density (0.02% in

PhilE versus 0.16% in AmE); while in the spoken data, both actually and in fact have a higher density but almost equal in proportion of relative frequency between the two linguistic items: actually (0.08% in PhilE versus 0.054% in AmE); in fact (0.024% in PhilE versus 0.014% in AmE). These results show that in writing, PhilE and AmE have similar lexical density of actually and in fact but in speaking, both lexical items are more frequent in PhilE.

Distribution Across Positions

The results of the analysis of the distribution of actually and in fact across positions within the utterance are summarized in Table 7 below. The results in Table 7 are compared with the American data in Table 2 (actually) and Table 5 (in fact).

Actually and in fact are distinguishable in terms of the position that each favors in written versus spoken discourse. Actually favors medial position, whether it occurs in written (81.2%) or spoken discourse (50.8%), although the tendency is stronger in the written variety. This result is consistent with the American corpora (Oh, 2000) which yielded these figures: (74%) written discourse/(58%) spoken discourse. Distinctly, in fact shows a very strong preference for the initial position in both spoken (77%) and written (72.4%) discourse. Clearly, both relative frequencies have a very close result with the spoken discourse slightly higher than the written discourse. These tendencies are in contrast to the American written discourse (Brown Corpus) analyzed by Oh (2000) where “the preference [of in fact] is for medial position (55%), rather than initial position (43%)” (p.250). However, regarding spoken discourse, the American data (Switchboard Corpus) shows a parallel relative frequency with ICE-PHI wherein the “initial is the position where it occurs most frequently (86%)” (Oh, 2000, p.250).

There is also a notable difference with the medial and final position between Philippine spoken discourse (PhilSD) and American spoken discourse (AmSD). With the use of in fact, PhilSD shows a 17% tendency which is significantly higher than AmSD of “6%” (Oh, 2000, p. 250). Conversely, the final position of in fact in PhilSD yielded a very rare 4% tendency while in the AmSD, the medial has the
lowest tendency (6%) although this occurrence is close to that of the final position (8%) in AmSD.

Table 7
Distributions Across Positions in ICE-PHI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Spoken Texts (300 texts)</th>
<th>Written Texts (200 texts)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>actually</td>
<td>in fact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Initial</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utterance-initial</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word + ^ + Utterance initial/Claue-initial</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause-initial</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Re-start</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rectify</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeat</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-total</strong></td>
<td>54(41.5%)</td>
<td>130 (77%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Medial</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S) + (Aux) + ^ + V [post-Aux/midVP]</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S) + Copula + ^ + C [post-LV]</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S) + ^ + Copula/Aux [pre-LV/pre-Aux]</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S) + ^ + V + C [preverbal (without aux)]</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(S) + VP + ^ + C [postverbal]</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-total</strong></td>
<td>66 (50.8%)</td>
<td>29 (17%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Final</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Utterance-final</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause-final</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sub-total</strong></td>
<td>6 (4.6%)</td>
<td>7(4%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Exceptions</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>full response to mean yes/no or ^ +yes/ no</td>
<td>4 (3.0%)</td>
<td>1 (0.5%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Excluded from the data</strong></td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The same news item stated twice in text(^5) (S2B-015)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In + fact (2 words – not a phrasal marker)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of tokens</strong> (concord result)</td>
<td>130</td>
<td>169</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Actual Total</strong> (data analysis)</td>
<td>130 (100%)</td>
<td>167(100%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{^\wedge}\) = token; S = Subject; Aux = Modal auxiliaries (can, may, will, etc.), aspectual auxiliary verbs (be, have) or emphatic verb (do); V = main verb; C = complement (including verbal phrases, and what traditional grammar refers to as objects)

\(\text{*}\)Only 100 texts representative proportion from the actual 300 texts were computed; hence the original 572 tokens were reduced to 130 tokens.

Lastly, it is worth noting that in the final position, American Data (AmD) and Philippine Data (PhilD) coincide wherein the final position is much more frequent in spoken than in written discourse for both actually (PhilD = 4.6% versus 0%; AmD 8% versus 0%) and in fact (PhilD = 4% versus 3%; AmD 8% versus 2%). This indicates that the use of actually and in fact in the final position is closely associated with spoken discourse in both English varieties. Although the 1% difference in the use of in fact in PhilD appears insignificant, this is
because of the relative frequency distribution; but if you consider the actual frequency of occurrence (7 tokens over 2 tokens), these results further support that, indeed, the final position uses are more of a feature of spoken discourse.

**Use of actually and in fact in Written Discourse**

*Actually* and *in fact*, as discourse and pragmatic markers in written discourse have similar “core” functions with those concluded in earlier studies; particularly, that (1) of guiding the reader to the intended propositional commitment made by the writer; as well as (2) to indicate the relationship between a prior assertion to a subsequent one. Through them, their role of establishing coherence in written discourse is accomplished.

Focusing on the initial position, *actually* is less favored, to be certain, *in fact* (72.4%) has far exceeded the frequency of *actually* (18.8%). *Actually* when used in initial position have a dual role and these uses are also found in medial position. On one hand, it reinforces the strength of the prior assertion and establishes compatibility, on the other hand, *actually* may also function to subvert the reader’s expected outcome. Example (1) demonstrates expectedness and example (2) shows unexpectedness.

(1) <p> <ICE-PHI:W1A-010#56:1>
When a mother leaves her child in the care of a babysitter, this means that the mother trusts the babysitter.
</ICE-PHI:W1A-010#56:1>

*Actually*, in a human-human relationship, every person must have to trust another person if he or she leaves something valuable to him or her.

<ICE-PHI:W1A-010#57:1>
This trust may arise from the thought that the other person knows how to take care of something valuable meaning that the caretaker should have enough knowledge about it and should be able to efficiently apply this knowledge in his or her work.

(2) <p> <ICE-PHI:W2D-019#130:2>
Advertising is really where the money is, according to her.

<ICE-PHI:W2D-019#131:2>
But she doesn't want the money as much as bringing out a good product.
</ICE-PHI:W2D-019#132:2>

<quote>&ldquo;Actually, I'm just new in the business.&rdquo;</quote>

<ICE-PHI:W2D-019#133:2>
My studio is only a little bit more than a year old.

I would like to establish my name first before thinking about money.

The function of *in fact* in written discourse, largely does not depend on its position within a clause or utterance. The universal function of *in fact* in Philippine English (PhilE) is to reinforce the earlier proposition or clause for emphasis, to give proof, to achieve a rhetorical purpose, or to crystallize the expected meaning. The relationship between the earlier proposition or clause with the subsequent one containing the phrasal marker *in fact* is one of internal similarity for the purpose of increasing the strength of an assertion from the previous utterance and not to contradict it. These different ways of supporting the earlier clause may overlap with each other but all of them signal a positive and parallel meaning in relation to the previous utterance. In addition, these functions are consistent with the results in Oh (2000) with AmD. The following examples demonstrate these varied uses.

Examples in initial position:

(3)  
You heard right: until last week I had never been on a plane.

I had never seen the inside of a plane except in the movies.

*In fact, I had never been higher than the top story of the Naga PNB building.*

Even that experience made me airsick for a week.

(4)  
When other female characters speak, it is in the form of traditional *woman’s talk*, a form of non-speech and background static of background noises and gossip which do nothing to articulate women’s concerns.

*In fact, the neighboring women in* *Karagatan* *are gossips who, while providing background information on Elpidio, are judgmental of other women:* *quotation in Tagalog*

(5)  
In the briefing sessions, it was also stressed that the sub-categories were to be used only to determine individual pay increases so as to ensure Bank-
wide consistency in the allocation of increases to staff with similar performance rating and salary quartile.

There would be no labeling and recording of the sub-categories of staff in their personnel files.

In fact, the overlaps in the salary matrix were introduced to ensure that staff would not be categorized.

Examples in medial position:

(6) Brides must be queens and not mannequins, Reyes says.

Putting too much blusher will make them look like Raggedy Anns.

Brides with soft supple skin can in fact do away with blusher for that more natural look.

(7) Aglipay said jeepney drivers and motorists will be reluctant to bribe female traffic enforcers.

The women enforcers, meanwhile would be hesitant to accept bribes because they would be exposed to probing eyes.

He said he would still consult Metro Manila Development Authority (MMDA) Chairman Jejomar Binay on his plan to get his approval.

MMDA Executive Director for Traffic Ernesto Camarillo in fact welcomes the idea of having more female traffic enforcers.

It appears that lady enforcers are more strict in traffic enforcement than their counterparts and motorists are less tempted to bribe them, maybe because they are ashamed to do it to a woman.

The extract below is a sample of clause-final use of in fact in PhilD which was used to emphasize the impact of Admi’s shortcoming. Again, it reiterates the universal function of in fact which is to reinforce the strength of the prior assertion.
Subsequent research by one of our faculty has revealed that the first curriculum proposal presented to us cannot even begin to compare with that of Harvard, but by linking it with a trend sweeping the globe, Admi has taken the first step towards the NGEC’s fetishization.

In this country, the word "global" has morphed into an alternative signifier for success and material progress, so anything linked to it is expected to find instant acceptability (who doesn't want success and progress, after all?).

Acceptability is the cornerstone of any object’s fetishization - without it, no object can work its magic.

But Admi’s first attempt has been less than successful – has elicited hostility, in fact, so now it is sending forth new verbal representations, among them one of Admi top brass being upset at having been so misrepresented and misunderstood.

Medial Position

In AmD (Oh, 2000), “medial position is favored by both actually (74%) and in fact (55%) in written discourse” (p. 252). However, the results in ICE-PHI show the huge disparity between actually (81.2%) and in fact (24.6%). In PhilD, actually in medial position received the highest relative frequency which is about 3.3 times more frequent than in fact. Actually takes the stage when it is investigated in medial position since this is the most favored category in PhilE.

It has three main uses in medial position. One function is having the same purpose as in fact which is to strengthen the previous assertion which is consistent with AmD (Oh, 2000) wherein these conjunctions serve to “make internal similarity relations explicit” (p. 244). Likewise, Lewis (2005) further verifies this type of use by pointing out that actually and in fact signals the compatibility in sequence of arguments using a formula of claim+elaboration. These three examples demonstrate this function:

It is evident here that the Chinese are highly unreceptive to foreign influences that they actually reached the point that they burned these
foreign (to be more specific European) artifacts just to openly show their disgust.

(10) By the way we had the national barangay and SK elections last Monday. I have classmates who were candidates and two of them won. I'm actually starting to believe that our class is composed of born leaders.

I have to cut this short. I have something coming up.

(11) Effort must be vigorous and consistent. The absence of collection effort gives a hint to the borrower that the bank is not interested in running after the account. It actually encourages payment default. One cannot wait another month without action, otherwise, one is inducing the very nonpayment one is trying to avoid.

The term argument used by Lewis (2005) is fitting since many sequential clauses and utterances may appear in one discourse which when taken in isolation may appear senseless; however, when considered within the entire discourse becomes evidently sensible. For instance, the reference marker actually and infact may not signal a relation to the immediate utterance but to several utterances or clauses apart. The important aspect to consider is the sequential relationship of ideas/propositional content not the superficial utterance sequence. As this example of compatibility makes clear:

(12) The National Economic and Development Authority lies all the time, the state university is full of crap, and forget the businessmen. They lie every morning to their wives. Why would they hold back with their country?
We need, not to sing, but to understand the situation as it really is and not as pet theories depict it.

Nobody predicted the crisis, except perhaps this newspaper, which stoutly dismissed economic trends over the past five years as a smoke-and-mirrors act.

The UP School of Economics actually clamored for massive devaluation on the peculiar theory that a cheaper peso will mean a richer country.

The difficulty of finding solutions is compounded in a country that defies orthodox economics about cheapening currencies to boost exports.

You couldn't give away the crap we produce here except, of course, children to pedophiles.

The second use of actually which is the most common and versatile function of actually in medial position is to contradict an expectation or what Lewis (2005) refers to as dissonance where the DM or conjunction (actually) signals that two sequential arguments are not compatible which appears structurally as claim+retreat.

(13) Whenever he could get away, the young man would go sailing or fishing.

He had never learned to swim and was actually afraid of the sea.

But something drew him to its icy blue depths and wayward breezes.

This obsession puzzled the young man's family.

(14) It had been done before and the poor hostess was dumped with white elephants which even their owners refused to claim.

The height, I think of the situation's absurdity was when a gift I once gave actually came back to me!

I know because the route was very traceable.

(15) Decanting, says De Guzman, is not wise because it leaves impurities in the extract which could hinder its effectiveness.
Sukang Iloko is customarily added to the solution and the yarns are soaked in it for 15 days.

Mang Luis is not aware that soaking the yarns actually weakens them.

After two weeks, the dyed yarns are squeezed, wrung and sundried, rinsed once, squeezed and wrung once again, and allowed to dry in the sun for the last time.

Some written texts use DM to signal the presence of a contrary position from the previous assertion. In example (16) the DM used is “however” which lessens the unexpectedness of the signal “retreat” word actually. Yet the use of actually is not superfluous but necessary for emphasis. For example (17), the DM used is “while”.

(16) Of these countries, Japan offers the highest wages in all occupational categories except transport operators.

However, because these figures do not take into account cost of living in the host country, the differentials may actually be lower.

Within occupations, entertainers show the highest wage levels; domestic helpers, some of the lowest.

(17) For the adjective &ldquo; traditional &rdquo; in the Philippine context is typically employed in a positive light, as in &ldquo; traditional values. &rdquo; And the word &ldquo; politician, &rdquo; while loaded with more negative than positive connotations, can actually be made to look good when paired with an affirmative word, like &ldquo; progressive &rdquo; or &ldquo; new. &rdquo; In political theory, the term &ldquo; traditional leadership &rdquo; is a purely analytical category.

Lastly, the third main use of actually in medial position is to act as clause-emphasizer which reinforces the effect of the truth-value of the prior assertion or proposition. This function has several
subcategories: (a) explain/clarify a point further; (b) to verify the validity of the prior assertion; and (c) to point towards the “actuality” of reality.

(18) (To explain)

<ICE-PHI:W2A-001#57:1>
On the other hand, the special type of teacher training included the conduct of vacation assemblies, division normal institutes, model or demonstration classes, supervision, and teachers' meetings. </p>
<p>The <it> <foreign> pensionado </foreign> </it> system, which was officially established by the General Superintendent of Education through a circular he issued on March 3, 1904, may be added to the list of regular forms of teacher training.

<ICE-PHI:W2A-001#58:1>
This actually consisted of sending a few qualified teachers to the United States or to the Philippine Normal School for further training along special lines.

<ICE-PHI:W2A-001#59:1>
The <it> <foreign> pensionados </foreign> </it> were to work either for a certificate, a bachelor's degree, or a graduate degree. </p>

(19) (Verify the validity of the prior claim)

<ICE-PHI:W2B-037#53:1>
While FoxPro had market share, Access had a newer relational DBMS architecture.

<ICE-PHI:W2B-037#54:1>
Microsoft built up ACCESS market share by making it a part of Microsoft Office Pro. </p>
<p>
<ICE-PHI:W2B-037#55:1>
<mention> Access </mention> is actually a multi-purpose product.

<ICE-PHI:W2B-037#56:1>
It is now the best PC and LAN database management system because it combines ease of use and relational DBMS functionality.

(20) (Actuality of reality)

<p> <ICE-PHI:W2D-004#32:1>
The monthly pension of a member who retires after age 60 and has paid the required 120 monthly contributions, will be the higher of either:

<ICE-PHI:W2D-004#33:1>
1. the monthly pension computed at the earliest time he could have retired had he been separated from employment plus all adjustments;
2. the monthly pension computed at the time when he actually retires.

A member who retires more than once shall be entitled to the higher of:
1. the monthly pension computed for the first retirement claim; or
2. the recomputed monthly pension for the new claim.

As shown in the previous section, the main function of in fact in medial position is similar to that of the initial utterance, that is, to reinforce the strength of an argument. Aside from this, there is also an occasional use of in fact in the medial position which is to signal an ironic claim. This use also occurs in initial position although less prevalent than in medial. This function differs from the initial and medial use of actually since it does not outwardly contradict prior expectation; instead, it buffers the irony by use of discourse markers or meaningful utterances to indicate the coming opposition. In number (21), the word “though” indicates “despiteness of the stated proposition” to the derogatory remark: “quibble at the .. banality of the act”. This prepares the reader for an expected opposing idea which is a positive claim, that is, “accepted norm”.

(21) Larawan III marks Benedicto Cabrera’s return to the theme that first made him a buzzword among collectors and the art public: painted retakes of antique photographs, particularly those taken at the turn of the century. Though some may quibble at the seeming banality of the act, such a painterly practice is, in fact, quite an accepted norm in the artworld mainstream. Artists have been consciously reproducing photographs as paintings since the 1950s, when Irish artist Francis Bacon took Edward Muybridge’s multiple-exposure shots, taken in the 1870s, and transformed them into brutalized images that conveyed the angst - ridden sensibilities of contemporary European existence.

Utterance (22) shows another facet of the function of in fact which is also a fairly regular use where the contrary claim is made obvious
by a direct statement with the use of signal words that are contradictory to the prior proposition; here, this function appears in both medial and initial position within a discourse. In the first occurrence, the word “opposite” is the signal word; while in the second occurrence, the word “distort” is used.

(22) <ICE-PHI:W2A-019#105:1>
The key is for governments to <quote> &ldquo; use their immense <it> leverage &lt;/it&gt; to structure the market." &lt;/quote&gt;

Osborne and Gaebler clarify this <it> &lt;i/&gt; has nothing to do with conservative calls to 'leave it to the market,' &lt;/i&gt; however. &lt;/X&gt;

<i> Structuring the market to achieve a public purpose is in fact the opposite of leaving matters to the 'free market' &lt;/i&gt; ( italics mine)--it is a form of &lt;i&gt; intervention &lt;/i&gt; in the market. &amp;rdquo; &lt;/X&gt; &lt;/quote&gt; &lt;/p&gt;&lt;p&gt;

In a word then, even if the current Philippine version of reengineering the bureaucracy adopts in words the progressive principle of steering, it does not give justice to the substance of the principle.

<i>In fact, it distorts the meaning of the principle. &lt;/p&gt;&lt;/i&gt;

Finally, in consonance with the AmD, in fact occurs only rarely in final position (2%), and actually does not occur there at all. This position is thus not a typical position in written discourse in PhilE as well.

Use of actually and in fact in Spoken Discourse

Both actually and in fact can be used utterance- (or clause-) initially, mostly preceded by discourse markers (well, yeah) or discourse particles (uhm, ah, na), conjunctions, and even gap-filler words from Tagalog lexicon (ano, ‘no, ‘ya). Based from the corpus, in general, both actually and in fact are more a feature of speech than of writing (actually: 41.5% versus 18.8%; in fact: 77% versus 72%). Although in PhilD, the relative frequency of in fact in both speech and writing are quite close which is not the case in AmD (Oh, 2000).

Unlike in AmD where the main function of both linguistic items in speaking is to contribute to the coherence of the discourse,
this function appears only as secondary in PhilD specially with regard to in fact. Although the use of actually in spoken discourse includes all the corresponding functions in the written discourse. This structural cleanliness is particularly applicable for particular registers in public speaking such as legalese, broadcast talks, and classroom discussions where great emphasis is put on the substance or meat of the discourse and a certain amount of intelligibility and logic is required in a transaction; thus, the necessity for coherence markers. For instance, these extracts illustrate the function of establishing “actuality of reality”. Both examples use the most common position which is medial position (post-copula).

(Legalese)

(23) <ICE-PHI:S1B-065#14:1:D>
Number six that Fontainebleau transferred its assets which were actually acquired from <indig> jueteng </indig> collections and waived its right to operate a casino in favor of Fontana through the owner R N Development Corporation

(24) <ICE-PHI:S2A-064#2:1:A>
Mr Chief Justice I 'll be very very brief
 <ICE-PHI:S2A-064#3:1:A>
I uh feel when I 'm standing in this chamber this evening that uh I 'm actually facing the bar of history and the bar of public opinion

(Classroom Interaction)

(25) <ICE-PHI:S1B-006#97:1:A>
Okay it gave descriptions of characteristics and behaviors of witches
 <ICE-PHI:S1B-006#98:1:A>
And if these descriptions were read by psychologists today or by you you 'd recognize that many of them were actually traits of mentally ill people
 <ICE-PHI:S1B-006#99:1:A>
Like symptoms of depression hallucination paranoia schizophrenia

The following are special functions of actually in spoken discourse which does not occur (0%) in written discourse. Only (27) single independent response and (28) rectify uses were excluded in AmSD (Oh, 2000) which make them a feature of PhilE. The label “rectify” is used for the purpose of this study. This function refers to
the signaling of the adjustment made or of making right the information that was inaccurately stated in the initial utterance as seen in example (28): 

(26) Parenthetical Insertion

<ICE-PHI:S1B-001#81:1:A>
Uhm I sometimes think that people who are experts in a field could not be as dependent on language <indig> 'no</indig>
<ICE-PHI:S1B-001#82:1:A>
They if if they know the subject matter very well they would not be as constrained when it comes to talking about these things <indig> 'no</indig>
<ICE-PHI:S1B-001#83:1:A>
So that's one layer of studies that you can do
<ICE-PHI:S1B-001#84:1:A>
Just looking at whether it makes a difference to use English or Filipino when it comes to these very specific aspects <","> actually focus on language skills <indig> 'no</indig>
<ICE-PHI:S1B-001#85:1:A>
But if you look at how they do uh my work is in mathematics so I look at how these things affect mathematical tasks
<ICE-PHI:S1B-001#86:1:A>
You can look at how they appreciate history
<ICE-PHI:S1B-001#87:1:A>
You can look at how they appreciate uh their studies in religion <indig> 'no</indig>
<ICE-PHI:S1B-001#88:1:A>
This can apply to any of our uh subject matter <",">

(27) As an independent affirmative/negative response

<ICE-PHI:S1B-026#111:1:D>
There are some bad sides here that you become extra-emotional when you make decisions
<ICE-PHI:S1B-026#112:1:B>
Uh uhm
<ICE-PHI:S1B-026#113:1:D>
But then again like you said I think earlier when you 're more of a powerful corporation you can easily buy or hire a professional manager
<ICE-PHI:S1B-026#114:1:A>
<\/> But don't
<ICE-PHI:S1B-026#115:1:B>
Uh
<ICE-PHI:S1B-026#116:1:A>
But don't you find that that uhm there's also a limited range of ideas and when you feel the idea needs to evolve

Actually

When it’s with the family

There is always a clash of ideas

(28) Rectify

Two rookies or actually three rookies in the first five of coach Luigi Trillo in Tagupa Rolan and Abadia so only Yong and Mangulabnan we don't even have a Mamaclay in the first five of Adamson

(29) Restart a

A teaspoon of chili garlic sauce one teaspoon of chili garlic sauce

And then we have some cooking oil for frying

Okay what we will do is we will just mix our cornstarch with our wine and our actually it's just a ma matter of mixing all these ingredients together well

Okay

Restart b

Actually uh we've gotten close to that already

Uh yeah

A very good friend uh uh actually the first option that we had was uh not fire but uh lie low

Uh uhm

Uhm save the friendship

(30) Utterance-final
Uh well that does it mean it 's better to start your business with with family so that you end up being a big corporation like that I mean really successful like that

It 's easy to keep the secret inside actually

Yeah uh okay

Uh skill and the people we needed their skill actually who were we used to climb with

The use of in fact in PhilD spoken discourse is mainly to give support to whatever proposition or assertion was discussed previously. This support comes in the form of a positive or parallel idea to clarify the point further regarding the topic being discussed or to give more weight or truth on what is being said. Not unlike the function in written discourse, in fact in spoken discourse also serves to strengthen the claim of the previous assertion but in a less compelling way such as in a form of an anecdote or a side comment. It is also used as an expression for being excused from the conversation or to express a point in a more polite manner.

(31) Medial (postauxiliary)

And uh you you can also notice our economy our economic situation right now is not in at its best

You can see that the Philippine peso has gone down to

Yes

Forty-four to one again

One U S dollar is in fact uh some of them are projecting that this will go up up to forty-six pesos

And this will affect the cost of fuel no

Yeah

(32) Medial (post-complement)
Is there a priest in the family

With us in among the distant relatives there are priests in fact parish priests and I don't know if we have a bishop already among the the uh

(33) Utterance-initial

Let's have another cup of coffee
You go ahead
Yes Jimmy will buy the next round so
Thanks Jim
In fact order a piece of cake too <O> Speaker C laughs </O>
Uh waitress
Uh Vic she's not a waitress <>, actually
This guy is the waitress <O> laughs </O>
In fact he's a waiter or so we think <O> laughs </O>

(34) Medial (before an obligatory element)

I'm glad that I'm very happy that Tish talked about the classroom because I've said many times I said it in fact about last month I think January four when I spoke at the Philippine Normal College

These functions appear in whatever position in fact is placed in the discourse. There is no correspondence between its position in the clause or utterance and its function/meaning; its varied functions may be applied in the same way in whatever position it is placed in spoken discourse. This is true even of this last function: “rectify”.

(35) Rectify (initial-position)

There's this notion <indig> na </indig> kids <indig> lang 'eh </indig>
No no even adults in fact a lot of adults uh have dengue
The only reason is that they don't normally uh adults don't normally go to the doctor right away (36)

But uh understand that uh as candidates find out that they are losing and have no more chances of catching up then they uh just fold up and they go home bringing with them the the poll watchers assigned to those precincts or to those uh uh municipal uh tally areas

So uh I would then recommend uh in fact appeal to uh the citizenry to maintain the watch because there are still many more days of this

Media also should be commended for uh for maintaining this sort of reportage because uh the people should be informed

Conclusion

The summary of the findings of this study is discussed in the context of the research questions stated in the introduction. ICE-PHI yielded a difference in distribution and/or use of actually and in fact in spoken and written Philippine English. There is a stark contrast of position and function between actually and in fact in written discourse. Actually is favored in medial position (81.2%) which occurred in 82 examples whereas in fact is favored in initial position (72.4%) and occurred in 50 examples. Congruently, with regard to spoken discourse, a parallel trend exists: actually is also favored in medial position (50.8%) and in fact is favored in initial position (77%). The difference of the preference for actually/in fact in Philippine Data depends on its position regardless of the verbal mode (spoken/written). This means that the preference has the same position in both spoken or written discourse. Whereas, in American Data, the difference of the preference is influenced by the verbal mode; that is, the preferred position of actually/in fact may differ in the spoken and written discourse. This implies that in the Philippine context, there is a close usage association between spoken and written registers of actually and in fact. It should be pointed out, however, that comparability of data may influence these results; specifically, the
ICE-PHI spoken data comprises of both private and public discourses whereas the AmD (Switchboard Corpus) consists solely of informal telephone conversations across major areas in the United States. This difference of genre/registers between American and Philippine Data may account, on one hand, for the parallelism of preferred position of actually and in fact between spoken and written discourses in ICE-PHI and, on the other hand, the pronounced usage preference disparity of spoken from written discourses between the Brown Corpus (consists of both informative and imaginative prose which apply academic and professional usage) and the Switchboard Corpus (consists of informal conversation).

The second significant finding of the study is that although both linguistic items have been shown to be favored in specific positions where the pattern of distribution may be traced, nevertheless how they function in the discourse in terms of syntactic, semantic, or pragmatic relation is not influenced by their position, this means, there is no correspondence between its position in the clause or utterance and its function/meaning; its varied functions may be applied in the same way in whatever position it is placed in spoken discourse. That being said, there are functions that occur more commonly in a specific position. For instance in written discourse, actually has a three-fold predominant function when used in medial position: namely, to express either the consonance or dissonance between sequential arguments, and to verify the “actuality of reality” of the preceding assertion or proposition. In addition, the use of in fact in initial position in written discourse predominantly function as clause-intensifier to establish the credibility of the prior utterance or prior assertion using parallel and positive evidence to support it. On the other hand, there are certain functions of actually that are a feature solely of spoken discourses: namely, repeat, restart and rectify functions; as well as the single independent retort. In addition, both actually and in fact may co-occur with Tagalog lexicon in spoken PhilE discourse.

Finally both linguistic items contribute primarily to the meaning and structure of the discourse; and also to bring out the rhetorical purpose of the writer (e.g. acting as stance adverbials) by (1) guiding the reader to the intended propositional commitment made by the writer; as well as (2) indicating the relationship between
a prior assertion to a subsequent one. Through them, their role of establishing coherence in written/spoken discourse is accomplished.

References


Taglicht, J. (2001). Actually, there’s more to it than meets the eye. English Language and Linguistics, 5(1), 1-16. doi: 10.1017/S136067 4301000119


Endnotes

1 Dita’s (2011) count yielded 672 tokens of actually, whereas in this study, the concordance count yielded 673 tokens of actually.

2 This reduction of distribution proportion is an original modification which was not applied in Oh’s (2000) study. This reduction was done because the distribution processing of a large amount of tokens was time consuming.

3 One requirement of the present study is to investigate the full discourse context in which each token occurs meticulously. The aim of the study is to explore possible existing usage tendencies and in no way does it intend to make general claims. Because of the high number of yielded tokens (673 tokens of actually and 239 tokens of in fact), it is not feasible to include all occurrences. Instead, the present study randomly selected 100 tokens each of actually and in fact, and then applied a detailed analysis of them “on the basis of the assumption that they are representative for the whole sample” (Oh, 2000, p.246, endnote #6).

4 A third application was pointed out by Traugott (1995) where in fact was used as two separate words as seen in the example below: “Many of my friends have urged me to issue a point-by-point denial of the book’s many outrages. To do so would, I feel, provide legitimacy to a book that has no basis in fact and serves no decent purpose," the former president said. I have an abiding faith that the American people will judge this book for what it really is: sensationalism whose sole purpose is enriching its author and its publisher," said Reagan. (8 April 1991, United Press International)” (p.10) This type of use in American corpora was also documented in Oh (2000, p. 246, endnote no.5). This use of
in fact was excluded from the data analysis. In ICE-PHI, the usage included “in truth” as in: “<ICE-PHI:W2C-015#38:2> Gunigundo also said the banner headline of the October 1 issue of a newspaper <mention> “Marcos Gold Deal–Swiss Witness Tags FVR, Then Retracts,”</mention> was <quote> “misleading and erroneous.”</quote>  

He informed the President that <quote> “retraction presupposes that the real Dr. P. Ritter-Jurus executed or issued the internal memorandum (on the Marcos gold), when in truth and in fact, said memo was executed by a fake Dr. Ritter.”</quote>  

An identical broadcast news item was uttered twice in subtexts: <ICE-PHI:S2B-015#66:3:A> and <ICE-PHI:S2B-015#18:1:A>; thus, even if the concordancer recorded two tokens of in fact, it is counted as one token in Table 7 for utterance initial position.

This paper authored by D. M. Lewis was published a year later in 2006 in K. Fischer (Ed.), Approaches to discourse particles. *Studies in pragmatics, 1*, 43-60.

About the Author

**Miren M. Morales** is a full-time faculty of the University of the Philippines, Manila and is presently pursuing a Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University, Manila. She received both her B. S. E. and M. A. English Studies: Language degrees from the University of the Philippines, Diliman. Her research interests include pragmatics, dramaturgy, World Englishes, and Bilingual Education.
Does Blogging Facilitate the Development of Students’ Writing Skills?

By Maria B. Cequena
De La Salle University Manila

Abstract

Blogging is viewed as a tool in facilitating the development of writing skills. To ascertain such contention, this study attempted to determine the effects of blogging (weblogs) on the forty-one freshman college students’ writing performance based on the results obtained from pre-test (entry essays) and posttest (exit essays) mean scores, interviews and reflections. Three classes or a total of 66 freshman college students from a top university in the Philippines, majoring in Communication Arts and Accountancy participated in the study that ran for more than three months in the first trimester of AY 2012-2013. These classes were introduced to blogging as they wrote their three essays on a computer in English classrooms with free access to the Net via school Wi-Fi. Prior to and after the treatment period, they were made to write entry and exit essays based only on one topic of their choice for an hour. However, upon completion of the study, only 41 students were able to accomplish all the instruments needed. The findings reveal that students’ writing skills improved based on the results of paired samples dependent t-test of their entry and exit essays’ mean scores at p<0.05 level of significance. Furthermore, three independent raters unanimously agreed that students improved on content and organization. These findings matched students’ perception that blogging helped them improve their writing skills because of their peers’ constructive feedback.

Keywords: blogging, weblogs, blogs, writing skills

Introduction

The influx of Information Communications Technology (ICT) has revolutionized the teaching of English, particularly writing, to ESL/EFL learners. If students before were used to in-class writing tasks using the traditional mode of writing, paper and pen, today, they can now enjoy laptop, net book, tablet, IPad, and other
electronic gadgets when writing their essays. Hence, with this technological advancement dominating globally, it is imperative that the teaching of English, specifically writing, must be interactive to make it more challenging and meaningful to the learners. The interactive nature of the Web makes it a good platform for the teaching of writing. Today, educators can utilize social networking sites as Blogger, Tumblr, Face book, and Multiply as platforms in honing students’ writing skills. Among these sites, blogger is the most widely used domain in ESL writing classrooms.

Blogger is a website in which students can create their own weblogs (blogs) where they can post their essays, poems, and other creative works arranged chronologically in reverse order, where the recent post appears first. Campbell (2003) defines a weblog (or 'blog') “as an online journal that an individual can continuously update with his or her own words, ideas, and thoughts through software that enables one to easily do so” (para. 1).

Since the invention of blogger in 1999 (Weblog applications, 2005), blogging and its impact on students’ writing performance has been the subject of several studies and most of them confirm that blogging improves students’ writing skills (Anderson, 2010; Zhang, 2009; Kelley, 2008; Jones, 2006; and Simsek, 2003).

While studies on the effects of blogging on students’ writing competences are mostly qualitative in nature, this study used mixed methods of quantitative and qualitative research to ascertain the impact of blogging on the writing performance of freshman college students.

Review of Related Literature

Blogs and Blogging

Blogging as defined by Jones (2003) “is short for web logging” (p.1). Blogging is the act of keeping a diary or journal online. This online journal or blog with dated entries are linked to other sites on the web, usually other blogs, thus creating a virtual community (Jones, 2003 cited in Cequena and Gustilo, n.d). Blood (2002) in Elison and Yu (2008) further defines blogs as, “online public writing environments in which postings (individual writing segments, often
containing hyperlinks to other online sources) are listed in reverse chronological order” (p. 105).

Campbell (2003) categorized blogs into three types which can be used for ESL classrooms: tutor blog, learner blog and class blog. The tutor blog is an online journal created by a teacher himself/herself whose objectives are to encourage students to read by providing texts written in casual and natural way native speakers write, to promote exploration of web resources related to lessons, to encourage verbal exchanges where students can provide feedback or comments on blog entries, to provide information about syllabus, and to encourage self-study by providing links like online quizzes, audio and video files for ESL listening exercises. The learner blog, on the other hand, is owned by individual learners. This can be an avenue where students can keep online journals for their writing practice by posting either their reactions to reading texts or their responses to writing assignments. Lastly, class blog, is a product of collaborative entries in which students can post messages, discussions, and images related to classroom lessons. In this way, students can better understand lessons in class since they are further discussed and elucidated through online forums in a class blog.

This study used learner blog wherein students were required to create their blogs from which they posted their entry essays and academic essays written on a computer in class.

Effects of Blogging in the Development of Writing Skills

Weblog or blogging has evolved from a simple online diary for self-expression to a complicated educational tool as academic writing. Weblog was viewed as a means of developing students’ writing proficiency (Jones, 2006; Roth, 2007; Kelley, 2008; Zhang, 2009; Drexler, Dawson & Ferdig, n.d.; Fageeh, 2011), positive attitudes towards writing (Fageeh, 2011; Jones, 2006; Lee, 2010; Armstrong & Retterer, 2008; Kelley, 2008; Drexler, Dawson & Ferdig, n.d.), and ability to critique others’ writing (Jones, 2006).

Several studies were conducted focusing on the effects of blogging in the development of writing skills. Fellner and Apple (2004) investigated the impact of blogging on the writing fluency of twenty-one low proficient and low motivated senior university Japanese students in a seven-day intensive English course for five and
a half hours a day. For each session following the listening and speaking activities conducted, each student is expected to write his/her reaction about the topic discussed previously for twenty-minutes and their outputs were sent via email to class blog account so that they can read and post their comments (feedback) on each others’ works. Results of the study reveal that students’ writing fluency improved from an average word count per student of 31.5 words to 121.9 words for 20 minutes. Their written outputs also improved in terms of lexical complexity. This implies that blogging or online journaling can hone writing skills for it provides the students an avenue not only for self-expression but also for writing practice where they get trained to write under time pressure and at the same time to comment on each others’ written outputs which serve as a learning experience because they also get to learn from their peers’ writing styles.

Similarly, in Lee’s (2010) study of seventeen university students at advanced level who kept personal blogs over 14 weeks, the findings obtained from blog pages, post surveys and final interviews “showed that regularly creating blog entries had a positive impact on learners’ writing fluency and increased their motivation to write for a broad audience” (para.1). Bernstein (2004) echoes similar findings, stating that weblogs improve writing given that frequent writing on a computer for an audience provides practice, thus improves writing.

Dujsik and Cai (n.d.) conducted a study among the 37 low-intermediate ESL learners enrolled in an English Language Institute (ELI) at a large southeastern public university. The class met 50 minutes each day for five times a week. They were given writing assignments on various topics which they accomplished in a networked computer laboratory once a week and posted in their individual blogs for peers’ comments. At the end of the term, a survey questionnaire consisting of 11 Yes/No items to identify the respondents’ profile or background knowledge about blogging and two open-ended questions to determine their attitudes towards blogging was administered. Students’ responses to open-ended questions were manually coded by the researchers themselves. The findings show that ESL learners felt comfortable in using computers, felt it was easy to create blogs, knew how to upload images in blogs, and thought that blogs helped improve reading and writing skills.
among others. Regarding students’ attitudes towards their blogging experience, results reveal six emerging themes from their responses to open-ended questions which included development of the English language skills, network/communication, motivation/interest, use of technology, collaborative learning/audience, and ease of blog tasks. Furthermore, analysis of qualitative findings indicated that the primary reason for students’ positive attitudes towards blogging is that it develops their writing skills.

The process done by Dujsik and Cai (n.d.) in manually coding students’ responses to open-ended questions, identifying emerging themes from these corpora and counting their frequency, was followed by the researcher in the present study.

Brescia and Miller (2005) in Cequena and Gustilo (n.d.) presented seven features of blogging that uniquely enhanced college level writing instruction:

(1) provides greatest instructional potential for those who maintain weblog throughout their college careers both as a source of knowledge and as personal management content system; (2) provides opportunities to share in public (via virtual society) what is learned in the classroom; (3) leverages teaching to outside school hours; (4) allows students to express freely what they feel; (5) provides opportunity for free writing; (6) encourages students to do more formal writing; and (7) promotes interactivity in which the students can post comments and ask questions.

Furthermore, Sun and Chang (2012) mentioned that weblog “not only encourages students to actively and reflectively engage in knowledge sharing, knowledge generation, and the development of numerous strategies to cope with difficulties encountered in the learning process,” (p.43) but also provides them with a sense of authorship, that allows them to reflect on the requirements of academic writing, the purposes of writing, and their authority as writers. Liu (2007), on the other hand, reported that in order for students to benefit from blogging, they have to meet the requirements such as English proficiency and computer/Internet, writing, and communication efficacy.
The aforementioned studies have pointed out the facilitative effects of blogging on the development of students’ writing skills. This study is an attempt to contribute to a dearth of existing knowledge in the field. However, different from the studies cited above that commonly used qualitative data, the current study used both quantitative and qualitative data obtained from students’ essays, reflections and interviews to fill in the research gap in ascertaining the effects of blogging on students’ writing performance. The study also described the students’ perceived improvements on their writing skills based on their reflections and interview transcripts.

Peer Feedback on E-portfolio: Effects on Writing Performance

Blogging may not be sufficient to help students improve their writing skills. Peers’ and mentor’s feedbacks on essays are essential to help the learners realize their lapses in writing, and in the process, improve on their writing style, content, flow and organization. While Wu’s (2006), Zhang’s (1995), and Yang and Badger’s (2006) studies reveal similar findings that teacher feedback was more preferred by students compared with peer feedback in making revisions, Bakar (1985) and Ware (2008) highlighted the significance of peer feedback in improving their writing skills.

Ware (2008) found out in his research that language learners are appreciative of their partner’s individualized feedback in their blog posts, with some even correcting their grammar errors. However, transcripts show little percentage of corrections on form. This finding indicates that students only provide grammar corrections unless given explicit directions (Ware, 2008). Hence, feedback through asynchronous dialogues in blogs can help improve one’s writing competence.

Likewise, Bakar (1985) investigated the effects of a blog collaborative project on students’ writing competence. Students were divided into small groups according to their own preferred members usually their friends. Each group chose any topic on social sciences to write a paper on. They initiated discussion about the topic and posted their research in blogs. The final paper of each group was also posted online for peers’ comments to help them revise their final group project. Next after having undergone collaborative blog
project, they were asked about their attitudes towards blogging. Results indicate “that the students perceived blogging as an interesting and motivating learning environment because interacting through blogs helped with the critical thinking and peer feedback facets of their writing projects” (p.45). It was also found out that social interaction online provided much help for students to improve their writing skills. Another interesting finding of Baker is that the students tended to write better online since they were aware that their papers could be read by many readers due to its accessibility via World Wide Web.

While peer feedback is indeed useful in developing students’ writing skills, Meier (n.d.) suggested that learners should be provided with opportunities for practice like workshops where they are guided on how to critique a piece of academic writing. A language teacher, for instance, may model first to the students on how critiquing of academic essay is done. Then, with small groups, they are provided an opportunity for practice through a critiquing workshop with the teacher as a guide on the side, scaffolding, until the students get used to the task. Then, later on when they are already trained, that is where the teacher may withdraw his/her instructional support where students can now critique and write essays independently.

This critiquing workshop advocated by Meier (n.d.) was adapted in this study where students were given a critiquing task by group after a critiquing workshop done in class with the researcher herself training the class in analyzing a sample essay. The critiquing workshop was done at home where students interact via email or Skype to critique an academic essay provided for them. Then, each group presented their outputs (critiques) in class where students interacted and provided feedback based on the reports presented.

Statement of the Problem

The main purpose of the study is to determine the effect of Weblogging or blogging on students’ writing performance. Specifically, the study attempted to answer the following questions:

1. What is the effect of blogging on freshman college students’ writing performance?
2. What are the improvements in students’ writing skills after having been exposed to blogging as a platform for their academic essays?
3. What is the perception of students on the mediating effect of blogging in the development of their writing skills?

Methodology

Research Design

This descriptive qualitative study aims to ascertain the effects of blogging on freshman college students’ writing skills through survey, focus group interview and students’ essays.

Participants

The respondents of the study consisted of forty-one freshman college students enrolled in English Communication, Study and Thinking Skills, from two degree programs, Communication Arts and Accountancy, in a top university in the country. The course is divided into two components, the Writing Component (WC) and the Reading, Viewing and Language Component (RVLC). Two faculty members taught the course— the first handled the WC while the other taught the RVLC. The RVLC teacher is responsible for teaching grammar, reading different text types and critiquing various forms of media to supplement the WC’s lectures on the basic principles of academic writing, stages of the writing process, logical fallacies, and APA documentation style so that the students can produce academic essays. This study was conducted during the first trimester of Academic Year 2011-2012 in WC classes. The classes were taught academic writing in English using weblogs (blogging) in which each student was required to write two major essays, extended definition and argumentative essays, along with other minor essays. Each session ran for one and a half hours with two sessions per week covering 13 weeks or more than three months.

Research Instruments
To gather pertinent data for this research, the following research instruments were utilized.

**Weblogs and response logs**

Weblogs are the respondents' essays posted in the Web. These include weblogs (blogs), their online electronic portfolio and response logs or online comments about their peers' blog posts. Students' weblogs and response logs were considered in describing qualitatively students’ improvements in writing.

**Reflections**

Three reflections were written by the students based on the following prompts: effects of blogging in developing their writing skills; their reactions towards online peer editing and peer review in facilitating the development of their writing skills; and the challenges they encountered in using blogging as a platform in posting their portfolios. These reflections served as a basis in ascertaining students’ perception on the impact of blogging in developing their writing skills.

**Gustilo’s (2011) Writing Rubric**

Gustilo’s (2011) writing rubric, having the highest score of 6 and lowest score as 1 with specific indicators/descriptions for each score, was used to measure the learners' writing skills. The criteria include content, organization, style (diction), grammar, mechanics, spelling and punctuations.

**Interview Guide/Protocol**

The interview protocol was designed to triangulate the quantitative and qualitative data obtained from students’ essays and reflections. It is a set of open ended questions which aims to determine the respondents' perception on the impact and benefits of weblogs in developing their writing skills.

**Procedure of the Study**
Survey questionnaire and materials for instruction like web-based activities were designed and modified prior to the treatment period. These instructional materials were modified based on language experts’ comments for implementation in Term 1 of AY 2012-2013.

Treatment period commenced in Term 1 of AY 2012-2013 after seeking approval and consent from the Deans of the colleges and parents or guardians for project implementation. The treatment period ran for more than 13 weeks with two sessions per week for one and one half hours per session. Prior to the treatment period, three English Communication classes were asked to write their entry essays on the topic of their choice.

During the treatment period, these classes were provided with web-based activities such as blogging, online forums, reflections and response logs where they could post their comments on each others’ essays. To illustrate how the writing class was conducted using the Net. The session started with a mini-lecture about specific text type that students had to write, e.g. extended definition essay. Then, the class was made to critique by groups an exemplar for specific genre discussed in class. After which, the students were advised to do research at home about specific topic they were interested to write on for extended definition essay. In school, they were required to bring their laptops with the soft copies of their research on their chosen topic. For one and a half hour class, they were supposed to have done pre-writing strategies such as listing and clustering of ideas relevant to their topic based from their readings and prior knowledge. From the ideas generated, they had to write an outline with a thesis statement. The following meeting, their outlines were critiqued both by the teacher and students, and from these comments, they revised their outlines. Then, students wrote the first draft following their outline and posted it online in their individual blogs using a pseudonym. Each of them was instructed to post comments on at least two essays and the posting was done at home. The teacher also provided constructive feedback online. The final step was revising where students were made to write the final copy of the essay based on peer and teacher evaluation.

After 13 weeks of treatment period, the students wrote their exit essay based on the topic similar to what they had written in their entry essay. The following meeting, focus group interview was
conducted with fifteen students to determine their perception on the impact and benefits of blogging. Open-ended questions like, “How would you describe the effects of blogging and online commenting on each others’ essays on your writing skills?” “Do you think blogging and online commenting on each others’ essays helped you improve your writing skills? If yes, what improvements in your writing skills could you cite?,” and “What are the challenges that you encountered in the following: writing essays via blogging and online peer editing?”

To determine whether blogging has facilitative effects on students’ writing skills, the entry and exit essays on a similar or related topic were rated by three language experts using Gustilo’s (2011) rubric.

**Data Analysis Procedure**

To find out the effects of blogging on students’ writing skills, three independent raters rated students’ entry and exit essays. Their ratings were averaged for both sets of essays. To measure whether students’ gains in post (exit) writing scores were significant, paired samples t-test was used. In addition, improvements in their writing skills were quantitatively and qualitatively described considering their entry and final essays posted in their blogs. The raters indicated specific improvements they observed in students’ final essays compared with their entry essays aside from assigning points for each essay. These writing improvements were clustered into six such as content, organization, structure, style, language (word choice) and flow. Finally, excerpts from students’ essays were taken as samples to illustrate specific improvements on their writing skills.

**Results and Discussion**

**Effects of blogging on students’ writing skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean of Students’ Entry Essays (Pre-test)</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>Mean of Students’ Exit Essays (Posttest)</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>T-test Sig = p &lt; 0.05</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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As can be seen in Table 1, the students’ mean score for their exit essays (posttest mean score) significantly improved as shown by the result of paired samples t-test of 0.02 at p<0.5 level of significance. This implies that weblog or blogging may have positive effect on the development of students’ writing skills. This study corroborates the findings of Jones’s (2006), Roth (2007), Kelley (2008), Anderson (2010) and Simsek (2009) that blogging is an effective tool in developing students’ writing proficiency. However, other factors such as instruction and peer feedback also contribute to the students’ writing improvements, which the study did not quantitatively measure since its focus is on students’ perception on the impact of blogging on their writing skills.

Improvements in students’ writing as evidenced by their exit essays

Table 2
Raters’ Evaluation of Students’ Improvements in Writing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Organization</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Flow</th>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Style</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To ascertain the improvements of students’ writing, three independent raters (professors of English from a top university) were asked to identify specific improvements on students’ writing based on their entry and exit essays. As gleaned in Table 2, the three independent raters unanimously agreed that students’ exit essays were more organized, clearer and more developed in content compared with their entry essays. Table 2 shows that among the six categories of writing skills, the freshman college students improved on content (38%) (Anderson, 2010) and organization (36%). This result is similar with Simsek’s (2009) finding in his experimental
study that web-integrated writing (blogging) improves students’ content and organization compared with in class writing.

To further support the above findings on students’ writing improvements, below are sample entry and exit essays which are analyzed in terms of content, language and organization.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student</th>
<th>Entry Essay</th>
<th>Final Essay</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Many people are wondering, why it’s getting hotter in the country, not only here but all over the world. Maybe it’s because we are experiencing global warming. What is global warming? What causes it? What are its effects on the environment? How can we prevent global warming?</td>
<td>The whole world is now experiencing much heat which causes many problems. People are having different kinds of illnesses that may lead to death, like skin cancer and asthma. Glaciers are melting and breaking which causes sea levels to rise. If this cannot be solved, what world would the next generation have? These are the effects of global warming to us and to the environment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>It is quite common among the cities, that particular state that brings every person to their demise when they finally sink down to it. Centuries ago, the Filipinos fought against the oppression, abuse, and racial discrimination of Spain for their freedom from it – poverty. Every citizen of a country has his or her right to utilize its resources. But with the fast-paced economic growth of other countries, the Philippines strives hard to catch up; and thus, leaving many of its children behind in poverty.</td>
<td>Some students find the dress code unfair in various ways. For most girls, problems regarding the length from hemline of their short, skirt or dress to the tip of their middle finger plus one inch continues to spur among the university. Most females state that some girls just have much longer arms than other girls. On the other hand, the confusion whether boys are allowed to wear shorts is not mentioned, as to the fact that the hemline protocol is most applicable to female students.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>Since Barack Obama approved of same sex marriage, much people are somehow legally allowed to sin. Divorce, premarital sex and corruption, these are the things that defile the word of God and it is being indulged in by America. These very things affect their government. Less values, more of the world. If they continue to do these, their country would flunk. If families get broken because of divorces, the mom and dad would fight in front of the kid.</td>
<td>It is often argued that a person has the will to avoid a smoky environment. It is one’s choice if he or she will opt to enter a smoke-zone. For these very reasons why then are smoking rooms created in the office or in mall? There are also restaurants or bars that choose to be non-smoking environments, to give the people the choice to select their own environment. Admittedly, a sentient person can opt to dodge a smoking area. Although, not all people can avoid it; what about those children who are nonchalantly within the reachable distance of their father’s cigar smoke?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>Most of the OFW did not finish their studies. That is why, it is hard for them to have an easy job that has a high salary. They have to work for like two times a day to have a bigger salary. Most of their jobs are being a nanny, janitor, domestic helper and other difficult jobs. When they catch a cold, there is no one to care for them. Some of them, when they catch a cold, they will just drink a medicine.</td>
<td>In conclusion, overseas Filipino workers should really be viewed as one of the modern heroes in our country. They do not only help sustain their families but help our country in many ways. I believe that someday other children who do not share a healthy relationship with their parents, who are working across the world, would understand them why they are seeking employment abroad.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Excerpts from Students’ Entry and Final Essays
It is evident in the above sample students’ writings the marked improvements on students’ writing skills particularly on organization, content and voice in their final essays. Notice in the above entry essay that student A’s introductory paragraph in his essay is not attention grabbing because the second sentence announces the cause so abruptly that the writer did not provide additional details to create an element of suspense. He introduced the topic ‘global warming’ that fast in his second sentence. Another flaw is the use of unnecessary commas. The succeeding statements are a series of questions that are not thought provoking. However, looking at his exit essay, his introductory paragraph is catchier and more logically organized compared to his entry essay, considering the topic sentence, “The whole world is now experiencing much heat which causes many problems.” This topic sentence is supported by the succeeding statements that present the problems that are associated with a very hot weather like various illnesses and melting of glaciers.

Another major flaw in the above paragraphs both for students A and B is that general statements are used without supporting details. For instance, Student A could have explained the reasons for having hot weather. Student B, on the other hand, speaks about fragmented or isolated ideas in one paragraph that are not linked to one another. Entry essays of students A and B do not have topic sentences to develop into paragraphs compared with their final essays where topic sentence is stated in the first sentence of the paragraph and was fully developed by supporting details that follow. While student C’s entry paragraph may have unity of ideas, it lacks coherence due to inability to sequence his ideas well. Lastly, student D’s paragraph is not coherent and repetitive. On coherence, the last two sentences are inappropriate since the idea is entirely different from the previous sentence that speaks about jobs. On redundancy, the clause ‘when they catch a cold,’ is repeated twice, and this makes the last two sentences ineffective. Another grammatical lapse is the wrong choice of words as shown in this phrase taken from the last sentence ‘drink a medicine,’ which should be ‘take medicine.’ However, considering his exit essay, it can be seen that his paragraph is more organized compared to that of his entry essay because of his ability to write a good topic sentence with appropriate supporting details.

Looking at their final essays, there have been remarkable changes on text organization. Their writing improved; if before their
ideas were disorganized, without supporting details, after their blogging experience, their ideas were more organized with a topic sentence at the start of each paragraph and supporting details. In addition, their essays are characterized by their use of cohesive devices and consistent point of view, tone, and voice. This shows that blogging may help develop students’ ability to organize their thoughts and to support their topic with adequate details since they had been introduced to peer feedback online and their exposure to various written essays may have also provided them insights on effective strategies to use in text organization.

Another factor contributory for their writing improvements can be instruction. With direct instruction done in the classroom on the basic concepts, principles, stages, and tips in academic writing, it is assumed that students also learned from classroom discussions. Hence, this study does not solely attribute students’ writing improvements on blogging since some other factors may come into play, which this research did not delve into.

**Perceived Effect of Blogging in Developing Students’ Writing Skills**

**Table 3**

*Benefits of Blogging in English Writing Classroom*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits of blogging</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>improves writing skills</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>helps improve essays because of constructive criticism</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>promotes ease and convenience in typing and editing essays</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boosts confidence/self-esteem to write due to anonymity</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serves as a good platform for writing/self-expression</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is fun</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>develops positive attitude towards writing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>develops critical thinking</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>motivates to write better because of wide readership</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>provides a chance for peer review that help others revise their works</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Table 3 summarizes the benefits of blogging as perceived by the students based on their reflections and interview transcripts which were manually coded. As gleaned in the table, most students perceived that blogging improved their writing skills (27%) and helped them improve their essays through constructive criticism (24%). It is also noteworthy to mention that some students perceived blogging as a good platform for writing or self-expression (12%), fun (7%) and a way of boosting their self-esteem (5%).

Results of interviews and reflections reveal that students perceived that blogging helped them improve their writing skills mainly because they were able to critique and learn vocabulary, writing styles, content, and organization of ideas from reading their peers’ essays. Likewise, they also indicated that in the same way that they learned from peers’ constructive comments, they too were able to help their peers improve their works as well through posting their reviews and recommendations. They also stated that since their essays would be published online, they were compelled to write well and be careful with their grammar (Baker, 1985). As what Zhang (2009) found out in his study, blogging “affects the quality of writing,” (p. 67) since students have their audience in mind while writing. Therefore, blogging may be considered as an effective platform in facilitating the development of students’ writing skills.

These findings are further supported by the following avowals in Figure 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reasons for/ and Writing Improvements</th>
<th>Interview Transcripts and Reflections Reflecting Students’ Perception on Their Writing Improvements</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Awareness that their essays are published online</td>
<td>Blogging is a nice way to spread what your insights are about a certain topic. You would be motivated to work better, knowing that you might get a lot of readers. This unconventional way of learning has taught me to be more careful in writing my essays. Posting my essays in blogs makes me write the best way I can because I know that my works can be read by many people online. I think blogging helped me most in my writing. Since, it would be practically seen by anyone I became conscious and it always reminded me to write better.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training in Honing Writing Skills</td>
<td>Moreover, my blogging experience was a bit like a training ground for me; I got to hone my skills and learn from the works, mistakes, and views of others as well.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning from peers’ comments</td>
<td>Editing became even more interesting especially when I read comments from my classmates about what they think of my essays. I had the chance to know the impact of my writing to various readers and to know my points of weakness. The idea of posting essays online was really interesting for me. I learned a</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I lot especially after receiving comments that are relevant to my work. Those comments helped me in improving my essays. Receiving the feedbacks from my block mates through blogging helped me with my personal essays. They taught me ways in which I can improve my essay.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Development of self-esteem</th>
<th>Not only does posting my work on a blog enable me to receive constructive criticism and comments that can help me improve, it also boosts my self-esteem.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being able to help peers improve their essays</td>
<td>The best part of blogging for me was actually commenting on others’ works. I had the opportunity to help others improve their work and to do a self-check if I did my essay properly as well. It was also fun to read others’ work and comment on them to help them in improving their works too.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ease in drafting, editing and revising essays</td>
<td>First of all, blogging made us all anonymous which made it easier for all of us to express our thoughts through our words. Using a blog made it easier for me to edit and revise any written output. I did not need an eraser to delete an error I did while writing. Editing your work online is a lot easier than writing it on a sheet of paper because you can write your paper again and again and it wouldn’t ruin your paper.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories/Areas that Improved on Students’ Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Development of Writing Style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization of ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spotting Writing Mistakes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Perceived Improvements on Writing Skills and Reasons for these Writing Improvements
Conclusion

The current study corroborates the findings of other studies (Jones, 2006; Roth, 2007; Kelley, 2008; Zhang, 2009; Drexler, Dawson & Ferdig, n.d; Simsek, 2009; Fageeh, 2011) that blogging helps facilitate the development of students’ writing skills. With more than three months of training students to write academic essays through blogging, the students’ writing improved particularly on content and organization. Although there are other factors that may come into play that could have orchestrated their writing improvements like instruction, motivation, and self-efficacy which were not covered by the study, we cannot also deny the fact that blogging has contributed to the development of students’ writing skills. Results of interview and students’ reflections proved that the students themselves perceived that blogging honed their writing skills through reading and commenting on their peers’ essays (Baker, 1985; Ware, 2008; Zhang, 2009). Since students had access on peers’ essays, they could readily read, critique and post constructive comments on their essays. Likewise, they also enjoyed reading peers’ constructive feedback that helped them improve their essays’ content, style, structure, flow and organization.

However, as what Meier (n.d.) suggested, language teachers particularly writing teachers should train first the students in critiquing academic essays through workshops prior to peer editing so that they can readily spot flaws in a piece of academic writing during the actual peer review. Consequently, with their exposure to reviewing/critiquing academic essays, they will be in the best position to help their peers improve their essays. Furthermore, with intensive training on critiquing essays, they will not only be able to understand what to avoid in academic writing but also what basic tips to apply in writing academic papers effectively. With the facilitative effects of blogging on students’ writing competence, language teachers, therefore, may introduce blogging as a platform for students’ writing of essays online. In that way, students may find writing enjoyable and fun because aside from the satisfaction they may feel for having a wide readership, it will also boost their confidence on their writing abilities. Studies (Bernstein, 2004; Fellner & Apple, 2006 Roth, 2007; Anderson, 2010; Kelley, 2008;) show that frequent blogging on random topics will hone writing skills, which in
effect, will enable the learners to take pride in their writing achievements, thus, developing their self-esteem.

However, we cannot also discount the importance of direct instruction in developing students’ writing skills. Since the findings of the study show that students find text organization as their topmost difficulty, language teachers, therefore, should intensify the use of cohesive devices in their instruction so that students can readily use appropriate transition markers in their academic essays.

As proven by research, the Internet plays a vital role in introducing new platforms like blogging for students’ academic writing. While it is true that blogging has positive effects on developing students’ writing skills based on several qualitative studies (Kelley, 2008; Jones, 2006; Liu, 2007; Ware, 2008; Lee, 2010; Simsek, 2009), limited research have been done to ascertain the effects of blogging on writing proficiency compared with the traditional tool, paper and pen, in writing essays. Thus, this study recommends that experimental research be conducted using two modes of writing academic essays, the traditional paper and pen and the innovative writing on a computer via blogging to ascertain which mode is more effective in honing students’ writing competence.

Finally, a follow up study can also be conducted to delineate the effects of blogging, instruction, and peer feedback on the development of students’ writing skills using multiple regression analysis.

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**About the Author**

**Maria Cequena**, Ph.D., is a faculty in the Department of English and Applied Linguistics, De La Salle University, Manila where she teaches English Communication, Speech Communication, Language Research and other research courses. She has presented her research papers on metacognition and reading and web-based writing in international
conferences in Asia, USA and Europe. Her articles on metacognition and comprehension appear in the Reading Association of the Philippines (RAP) journal and as a book chapter in Redesigning Pedagogy: Voices of Practitioners published in Singapore.

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Foreign Language Learning Motivation and Anxiety among Iranian Students in the Philippines

Hamid Gomari and Rochelle Irene Lucas
*De La Salle University, Manila*

**Abstract**

Motivation and anxiety can be referred to as two significant affective factors which can influence the process of foreign language learning (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei, 1994, 1998; Noels, 2000, 200; Bailey, 1983; Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Young, 1990; Young, 1991). Employing Noels et al.'s (2000) *Language Learning Orientations Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales* (LLOS-IEA) and Horwitz et al.'s (1986) *Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale* (FLCAS), the study sought to determine whether Iranian EFL students in the Philippines are motivated to learn English, whether they experience language learning anxiety, and lastly, whether there is a correlation between their language learning anxiety and motivation. Findings showed that there is insufficient evidence to suggest that Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines are more extrinsically or intrinsically motivated to learn the English language. However, findings suggest that they experienced a moderate level of language learning anxiety. Finally, the computed Pearson correlation coefficient revealed that, in general, there is a significant and negative correlation between language learning motivation and anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines.

**Keywords:** language learning motivation, language learning anxiety, language learning

**Background of the Study**

Language learning motivation is one of the key factors affecting the rate and success of foreign language learning (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Dörnyei, 1998; Lucas et al., 2010). According to Deci and Ryan’s (1985) Self-Determination Theory (SDT), there are two basic types of language learning motivation: intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation “refers to doing something because it
is inherently interesting or enjoyable” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 55) whereas, extrinsic motivation “refers to doing something because it leads to a separable outcome” (p. 55). When a task like language learning is not valued by a learner and not considered as an integral part of his/her life, the result would be the absence of motivation, which is referred to as amotivation (Ryan, 1995). Amotivation is a state in which learners cannot see the relationship between their behavior and the concerned outcome (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Amotivation, however, cannot entirely account for the poor performance of second/foreign language learners because such a behavior can also result from another important affective factor which is language learning anxiety.

Language anxiety is “a complex, multidimensional phenomenon” (Young, 1991, p. 434) which can be differently manifested in students based on their ethnic background, prior language experience, personality, and classroom circumstances. This phenomenon has attracted the attention of several scholars in the past three decades, including Bailey (1983); Campbell and Jose (in Young, 1991); Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986); Horwitz (1988); MacIntyre and Gardner (1991; 1994); Young (1991); and MacIntyre (1995).

The major focus of the current study is based on two points: first, to determine whether Iranian EFL students who are pursuing their studies in the ESL setting in the Philippines are motivated to learn English or whether they are amotivated. The second focus is to investigate whether Iranian EFL students experience language learning anxiety while studying in the Philippines and to identify the possible correlation between anxiety and motivation.

Motivation and anxiety can be referred to as two significant affective factors which can influence the process of language learning. Motivation can be regarded as an important factor which controls human behavior and gives it a direction. As discussed by Gardner (1985), language learning motivation demands the combination of several components which are effort; desire to achieve the goal of learning the language, and favorable attitudes towards learning the language. A considerable number of researchers conducted various studies on motivation and its different types (Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Lukmani, 1972; Deci & Ryan, 1985, 2000; Gardner, 1985; Dörnyei, 1994, 1998; Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, 1991; Noels, 2001; Lucas et al., 2010).
The relationship between motivational orientation and language learning performance was investigated by Noels, Clement, and Pelletier (1999, 2001). In the former study, 78 students who enrolled in a summer French immersion course were asked to complete intrinsic, extrinsic, and amotivation questionnaires. No significant relationship was found between intrinsic, extrinsic motivation, amotivation, and final grades. The researchers conducted another study two years later with 59 students enrolled in a summer immersion program at a French-English bilingual university in Ontario, Canada, but this time a significant correlation was found between intrinsic motivation and final course grades. Moreover, amotivation and final course grades were found to be negatively correlated. Noels (2001) also studied 332 native English speaking students enrolled in lower-level Spanish classes. The integrative orientation and intrinsic motivation were found to be consistent predictors of motivational intensity and intention to continue Spanish studies.

These and other studies by Noels et al. (2000) resulted in the design and development of a questionnaire used to investigate the students’ motivational orientation. The questionnaire included different items to measure intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, including their subtypes, as well as amotivation. Considering the results of these studies, the questionnaire, called the Language Learning Orientation Scale-Intrinsic, Extrinsic, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA), containing 21 items was found to be a valid and reliable instrument to empirically assess students’ motivational orientations.

In terms of language learning anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) believe that language learning anxiety includes intricate feelings and behaviors which are related to language classroom context, and they originate from the exclusivity of the process of language learning. The strength and type of relationship between language learning motivation and language anxiety vis-à-vis language learning vary according to context and different learner attributes, such as learning strategies employed. Personal and interpersonal anxieties; learner beliefs about language learning; instructor beliefs about language teaching; instructor-learner interactions; classroom procedures; and language testing, can be considered as potential sources of language anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986; Young, 1990; Young, 1991; Daly, 1991, in Young, 1991).
In a study set in Asia, Na (2007) examined 115 Chinese high school students’ English learning anxiety in EFL classrooms. The students were found to be anxious in English classes, and males exhibited higher anxiety than females. Such high level of anxiety appeared to have a debilitating role in performing the task of language learning. In Iran, Mahmoodzadeh (2012) conducted a study on the influence of gender on learners' foreign language anxiety. The major focus of the study was to determine the level of foreign language anxiety in matched-gender and mixed-gender classrooms. The results of the study showed that mixed-gender classrooms were more likely to be anxiety-provoking, and it was noticed that significant amount of language anxiety among Iranian learners was caused by the presence of the opposite gender in the classes. As suggested by this and other studies in different contexts (e.g., Idri, 2012), motivation is one of the affective factors which can predict language learners’ success and can determine L2 achievement and attainment.

In Africa, Idri (2012) found that Algerian students learning English as a Foreign Language experienced foreign language anxiety and mostly felt anxious when they were asked to speak in English and to be assessed doing so. Moreover, in order to reduce language anxiety while performing oral tasks, the students were found to employ some learning strategies. As discussed by Nemati (2012), students are more likely to experience anxiety while being evaluated. This kind of anxiety according to Huberty (2009, in Nemati, 2012) is referred to as test anxiety, which appears to be an apprehension over academic evaluation. Nemati (2012) examined test anxiety among 323 Iranian undergraduate and post graduate university male and female students from different disciplines. No significant relationship was found between age and anxiety, but both males and females were found to be equally affected by test anxiety. Anxiety therefore, comes from different sources for different students learning a foreign language; moreover, it affects students differently, both physically and mentally.

In order to find the possible relationship between foreign language learning anxiety and English learning motivation, Liu and Huang (2011) conducted a study on 980 (617 male and 363 female) first-year non-English majors from various disciplines such as law, engineering, mechanics, and economics and management at three universities in China. It was found that foreign language anxiety and
English learning motivation were significantly negatively correlated with each other, and both of these factors were also found to be significantly correlated with students’ performance in English classes. In terms of studying the relationship between motivation, anxiety and language learning, Koizumi (2002) conducted a research on 129 Japanese junior high school students to investigate the extent to which motivation, language anxiety, and test anxiety affect L2 proficiency of such students. The results of the study revealed that motivation had considerable impacts on L2 proficiency; however, the effects of test anxiety and language anxiety were not considerable, and they were also found to be weakly correlated.

Kwan (2004) also examined the relationship between the sources of language anxiety (communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and general anxiety towards English) and motivational intensity of English learning among 117 secondary school students in Hong Kong. The results of the study indicated that students had moderate level of anxiety and motivational intensity, and these two affective factors were found to be moderately and negatively correlated. In a related study, Carreira (2006) studied the relationship between English learning motivation and foreign language anxiety among 91 Japanese, English major university students. The results of the study showed that those students who were studying English for practical reasons and had intellectual satisfaction while learning English were more likely to have lower levels of foreign language anxiety.

Lastly, Lucas et al. (2010) conducted a study on 240 freshmen college students in the Philippines to examine whether students are intrinsically motivated to learn L2 communicative skills, such as writing, reading, speaking, and listening. It was clearly indicated by the results of the study that the students were intrinsically motivated to learn specific language skills, such as speaking and reading, in English, their second language. They were also found to be intrinsically motivated via accomplishment and knowledge.

Language learning motivation is thus an important factor that affects the performance of different students differently. The learning context of students is likewise an important factor that may determine students’ type of motivations and may affect their overall performance and level of anxiety.

These studies have demonstrated that language learning motivation is a key factor controlling L2 achievement, while language
learning anxiety is another important factor influencing students’ language performance and second/foreign language learning process. These are worth investigating among Iranian EFL learners in the ESL setting of the Philippines, particularly since this has yet to be studied. Notably, only Outadi (2011) has done previous work on Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines, focusing on the sources and manifestations of their English language learning anxiety. No previous work focusing on the English language learning motivation among Iranian EFL students in the Philippines has been done; no study has also explored the correlation of language learning anxiety and motivation for this group of learners.

Research Problem

The present study sought to determine the English language learning motivation and anxiety of Iranian students in the Philippines. The major focus of the study was to answer the following questions:
1. Are the Iranian students motivated intrinsically or extrinsically towards learning English, or are they amotivated?
2. Do the Iranian students studying in the Philippines experience language learning anxiety and, if so, what types of language learning anxiety do they experience?
3. Is there a correlation between the level of English language learning anxiety and motivation of the Iranian students?

Theoretical Framework

Language learning motivation and anxiety are considered important aspects in foreign and second language learning and in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). They have also been referred to as two of the most crucial factors significantly affecting L2 learners’ achievement and attainment (Lucas et al., 2010). The existence, strength, and direction of the relationship between these two factors have been established with varying outcomes, depending largely on the learning context (Koizumi, 2002; Kwan, 2004; Carreira, 2006).

Types of Language Learning Motivation
Self-determination theory (SDT) was introduced by Deci and Ryan (1985). They argue that orientations can be further divided into three categories: intrinsic orientation, extrinsic orientation, and amotivation. Intrinsic orientations can be referred to as reasons for learning the target language “that are derived from one’s inherent pleasure and interest in the activity; the activity is undertaken because of the spontaneous satisfaction that is associated with it” (Noels, 2001, p. 45). As Noels (2001) pointed out, there are three types of intrinsic orientations: intrinsic knowledge, intrinsic-accomplishment, and intrinsic stimulation. Intrinsic knowledge refers to the feelings of enjoyment resulting from developing knowledge. Intrinsic-accomplishment refers to enjoyable feeling coming from overcoming the existing barriers and finishing a challenging task. Intrinsic-stimulation refers to “the simple enjoyment of the aesthetic of the experience” (p. 45). Extrinsic orientations refer to those reasons for performing a task not because of the inherent interest in the activity per se, but because of the “rewards extrinsic to the activity itself” (Lucas et al., 2010, p. 6). The third category of motivational orientation is amotivation, which can be considered as the opposite of the previous orientations, in particular, the intrinsic subcategories. Deci and Ryan (2000) refer to it as “the state of lacking the intension to act” (p. 72). They also pointed out that “amotivation results from not valuing an activity (Ryan, 1995), not feeling competent to do that (Bandura, 1986) or not expecting it to yield a desired outcome (Seligman, 1975)” (p. 72). Therefore, according to Noels (2001), amotivated learners “feel that what happens to them is independent of how they behave” (p. 48).

In sum, the main focus of SDT is on three needs: the needs for competence, relatedness, and autonomy (or self-determination). Competence includes how to reach different external and internal outcomes and being efficient in performing the required actions; relatedness pertains to developing secure and satisfying connections with others in a specific social milieu; and autonomy involves being self-initiating and self-regulating of one's own actions (Deci, Vallerand, Pelletier, & Ryan, 1991).

Within SDT (Deci & Ryan 1985), there is a subcategory, which is called organismic integration theory (OIT). In this subcategory, the different forms of extrinsic motivation and the related contextual factors, which promote or delay internalization and the integration of the regulation for such behaviors, are included. If we consider it as a
continuum, on the one side there is amotivation and on the other side there is intrinsic motivation. As discussed in Deci and Ryan (2000) and pointed out by Otis, Grouzet, and Pelletier (2005), extrinsic motivation cannot be regarded as only non-autonomous and as antithetical of intrinsic motivation; therefore, in between amotivation and intrinsic motivation, it is postulated that there are the four different forms of extrinsic motivation.

The forms, from the least autonomous to the most, are external regulation, introjected regulation, and identified regulation, and integrated regulation. The behavior of externally regulated individuals is controlled by external sources. Deci and Ryan (2000) posit that “such behaviors are performed to satisfy an external demand or reward contingency” (p. 72). For example, a student studies for the purpose of getting a good grade or not being punished by his/her teacher. It is usually this form of regulation that is referred to as the common definition of extrinsic motivation and “was typically contrasted with intrinsic motivation in early laboratory and field studies” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 72). Individuals with introjected regulation seem to have internalized the previously external source of information even if they have not truly accepted it i.e., “introjection involves taking in a regulation but not fully accepting it as one’s own” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 72). For example, students study because they think that they have to study due to some self-imposed pressures not because they want to. The third form of extrinsic motivation is identified regulation. It refers to “a conscious valuing of a behavioral goal or regulation, such that the action is accepted or owned as personally important” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 72). Individuals with an identified regulation choose to do an activity after evaluating its value and considering its importance to them. For example, students are willing and want to study because by so doing they will get some advantages. Finally, the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation is integrated regulation. Individuals with integrated regulation fully assimilate identified regulation to the self – i.e., identified regulations “have been evaluated and brought into congruence with one’s other values and needs” (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 73). They also discussed that actions, which are characterized by this form of external motivation have many qualities in common with intrinsic motivation; however, they are still different since they are done to gain separable outcomes, but not for their inherent enjoyment. Research has shown that the quality of one’s performance...
can be greatly influenced by such intrinsic and extrinsic reasons (Deci & Ryan, 2000).

**Language Learning Anxiety**

Horwitz et al. (1986) referred to anxiety as “the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness, and worry associated with an arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (p. 125). Many scholars have referred to foreign language learning as an anxiety-provoking task, and the anxiety resulting from learning a foreign language can be considered as a sort of major obstacle on the part of language learners, which should be overcome. Horwitz et al. (1986) believe that language anxiety is “a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process” (p. 128).

According to Horwitz et al. (1986) there are four types of performance anxieties. Communication apprehension is the first type, which is referred to as a sort of shyness characterized by fear of communicating with people. Those who have this type of anxiety usually have a difficult time talking to others in groups or in public and even while listening and dealing with spoken messages. Such people in a foreign language class encounter many problems since they have limited control over the communicative situation and their performance is constantly monitored. Moreover, there are other concerns related to the setting since in a foreign language class students are required to communicate through a medium which they are not so competent in order to use to understand others and make themselves understood.

The second type of language anxiety is test anxiety which, as the name implies, is related to taking tests, and it originates from a fear of failure in tests. Test-anxious learners unrealistically expect themselves to get perfect grades in tests and, to their minds, a score below perfect is equal to failure. Such students even experience more difficulty in foreign language classes due to the frequent number of tests and quizzes which can affect the performance of well-prepared students and cause them to make errors.

The third component related to language anxiety is fear of negative evaluation. Watson and Friend (1969, in Horwitz et al., 1986) defined this type of language anxiety as “apprehension about others’ evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation
that others would evaluate one’s self negatively” (p. 128). It seems to be similar to test anxiety, but it has broader scope because it may not only be related to test taking situations but also to any social, evaluative situations, such as job interviews and speaking in a foreign language class. The fourth component identified by Horwitz et al. (1986) concerns the student’s learning environment. This includes the teaching style and the teacher’s personality, as perceived by the learner (Lucas et al., 2010).

Methodology

Research Design

A descriptive research design was used in this study to determine the English language learning motivation and anxiety of Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines. Two survey questionnaires (Noels et al.’s Language Learning Orientation Scales – Intrinsic Motivations, Extrinsic Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales [LLOS-IEA] and Horwitz et al.’s Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale [FLCAS]) was administered to 100 Iranian EFL learners enrolled at four private universities in Manila.

Setting and Participants

The study was conducted in Manila, the capital city of the Philippines, and the subjects were selected from four different private universities in Metro Manila. The primary basis for selecting these schools is the sizable population of Iranian undergraduate students who are pursuing their studies.

The age range of participants was 19 to 32 years old, and forty-three of them are between the ages of 21-23 years old. The participants’ length of stay widely varied from a mere six months to as long as five and a half years; 13 participants have stayed in the Philippines for 12 months or one year and 10 participants have been in the Philippines for 42 months or 3 and a half years.

Instruments

In order to determine the level and the type of the language learning motivation among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines, the Language Learning Orientations Scale – Intrinsic Motivation, Extrinsic
Motivation, and Amotivation Subscales (LLOS-IEA) developed by Noels et al. (2000) based on Ryan and Deci’s (1985) self-determination theory was used. The instrument was deemed reliable by Noels and her colleagues (2000) after conducting exploratory factor analysis and reliability analyses for each motivation sub-type; correlations of subscales were then performed to determine the construct validity of the subscales (Noels et al., 2000). The questionnaire consists of 21 items that measures amotivation (3 items), three types of extrinsic orientations (nine items or three items each), and three types of intrinsic orientations (nine items or three items each). The LLOS-IEA has been used by other scholars to measure English language learning motivation in Japanese Elementary Schools (Carreira, 2006), in Taiwanese Junior High Schools (Hsu, 2004) and private university students (Chu, 2008), and among Taiwanese hospitals nursing staff (Chu, 2006). For this study, respondents were asked to rate each given statement in the LLOS-IEA using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from ‘Strongly Disagree’ to ‘Strongly Agree’, of which 1 referred to Strongly Disagree, 2 to Disagree, 3 to Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 to Agree, and 5 to Strongly Agree. The phrase “English language” was used instead of “foreign language” or “second language”. The version of the LLOS-IEA used for this study is included in the Appendices section.

Secondly, to determine the level and type of language learning anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines, the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) was used. The questionnaire consists of 33 items in total measuring four types of language anxiety: eight items measure Communication Apprehension (item numbers 1, 9, 14, 18, 24, 27, 29 and 32), nine measure Fear of Negative Evaluation (item numbers, 3, 7, 13, 15, 23, 25, 31 and 33), five measure Test Anxiety (item numbers 2, 8, 10, 19 and 21), while 11 measure English Classroom Anxiety (item numbers 4, 5, 6, 11, 12, 16, 17, 22, 26, 28 and 30). In the Philippines, this questionnaire was used by Lucas et al. (2010) in their study of EFL learners in the country. As in the LLOS-IEA, respondents were asked to rate each statement according to the same five-point Likert scale and the phrase “English language” replaced “foreign language”. The FLCAS questionnaire is also included in the Appendices section.

Procedure
The research utilized a non-probability sampling method to identify respondents. This was deemed most appropriate for the study due to the difficulty in accessing information about all Iranian EFL learners studying in Manila, Philippines. While most are enrolled in formal courses in recognized universities, some are enrolled in non-formal courses in language learning centers inside and outside recognized universities. For these reasons, convenience sampling was specifically employed by the researcher.

Survey questionnaires were distributed to Iranian EFL learners in Manila, Philippines either in person or via email. In the former case, the researcher visited four selected universities in which Iranian students are studying. After securing the permission of university authorities the researcher distributed the printed questionnaires to selected participants. The researcher also visited Iranian students from the selected universities who reside in the same building in Manila to ask them to answer the questionnaires. While the survey was being answered by the participants themselves, the researcher was on hand to clarify any of the given statements by answering questions or translating the statements into Persian.

The questionnaires were also sent via e-mail to the participants who sent the answered questionnaires back. In order to have more access to the e-mail addresses of potential participants, the researcher sought the assistance of a graduate student from Iran who conducted a study on English language learning anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines in 2011 for her MA thesis (Outadi, 2011).

In distributing the questionnaire, the researcher gave verbal and written instructions to the participants prior to answering the questionnaires. The instructions were also indicated on the first page of the questionnaire. The researcher likewise disclosed the intention and purpose of the study.

**Methods of Analysis**

To measure the English language learning motivation and anxiety of Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines, data from 100 collected questionnaires were coded according to a five-point Likert scale, ranging from ‘Strongly Disagree’ to ‘Strongly Agree’. The scales were coded as 1=Strongly Disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly Agree. The data were analyzed by means of the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). The
responses were carefully encoded and then cleaned to ensure accuracy. Reverse-worded statements in the FLCAS were recoded prior to performing statistical tests.

Descriptive statistics were employed to determine the level and type of English language learning motivation and anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines and their relation to each other. After obtaining the frequency and mean for the given items, the weighted mean was computed to describe the overall motivation and anxiety of the participants. The Standard Deviation (SD) was then computed to measure the dispersion of the responses. To test the significance of the difference between respondents’ extrinsic versus intrinsic motivation scores, a paired samples or dependent samples t-test was done. This test is used to determine differences between two scores from the same group or sample (Bryman& Cramer, 1994, p. 145). Finally, to evaluate the correlation between the students’ English language learning motivation and anxiety, the Pearson’s r Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was calculated. The strength of the correlation was determined using Cohen’s (1988, p. 83) criteria: a correlation of 0.50 is large, 0.30 is medium, and 0.10 is small. Accordingly, it can be interpreted that the correlation coefficient which is greater than 0.5 is large, 0.5-0.3 is moderate, 0.3-0.1 is small, and smaller than 0.1 is trivia.

Results

Language Learning Motivation

Table 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Motivation</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Extrinsic Motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External Regulation</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.515</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identified Regulation</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.717</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introjected Regulation</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Intrinsic Motivation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accomplishment</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>0.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>0.867</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stimulation</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>0.591</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Language Learning Motivation Scores of Respondents |
The results of the descriptive analysis based on the LLOS-IEA survey suggested that, in general, Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines are motivated to study the English language. Table 1 shows that, of the three types of extrinsic motivation, they are most motivated via External Regulation ($M=4.00$), followed by Introjected Regulation ($M=3.59$) and Identified Regulation ($M=3.45$). It can be also noted that these learners are generally not amotivated learners ($M=2.61$).

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>External Regulation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>In order to get a more prestigious job later on.</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.513</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>In order to have a better salary later on.</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>0.485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Because I have the impression that it is expected of me.</td>
<td>3.96</td>
<td>0.549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Introjected Regulation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know the English language.</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>0.669</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Because I would feel ashamed if I couldn't speak to my friends from the English community in their native tongue.</td>
<td>3.69</td>
<td>0.654</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>To show myself that I am a good citizen because I can speak the English language.</td>
<td>3.59</td>
<td>0.519</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Identified Regulation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak the English language.</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>0.664</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>0.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Because I think it is good for my personal development.</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>0.774</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 suggests that the three statements under External Regulation also obtained the highest level of agreement among respondents. Respondents agreed most with the following answers: *In order to get a more prestigious job later on* ($M=4.20$); *Because I have the*
impression that it is expected of me (M=3.96); and In order to have a better salary later on (M=3.94).

However, to determine whether Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines are indeed more extrinsically rather than intrinsically motivated to learn the English language, a paired samples t-test was performed. This test was applied to determine whether there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of extrinsic motivation items and intrinsic motivation items.

Table 3
Paired Samples T-Test for Iranian EFL learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Extrinsic &amp; Intrinsic Motivation</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>90% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 EX T-IN T</td>
<td>0.256</td>
<td>0.570</td>
<td>0.3294</td>
<td>-0.7053 to 1.2186</td>
<td>1.2186</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>67</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0.772</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>0.517</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 presents the results of the paired samples t-test performed on the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation scores of the respondents. The possible range on the motivation measure was 1 to 5, where higher scores indicated higher levels of motivation. The mean score of respondents for extrinsic motivation was 3.68 (SD=0.632), whereas the mean score of respondents for intrinsic motivation was 3.42 (SD=0.772). There was no significant difference between the respondents’ type of motivation for learning the English language in terms of mean scores for extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (t (98) = 0.779 p = .517).

Given these results, the researcher failed to confirm that Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines are, in general, less intrinsically motivated or more extrinsically motivated to learn the English language. In other words, with this data, there is insufficient evidence to suggest that Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines are more extrinsically rather than intrinsically motivated to learn the English language.
Language Learning Anxiety

Table 4
Language Learning Anxiety Mean Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Anxiety</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Test Anxiety</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication Apprehension</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>0.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Language Classroom Anxiety</td>
<td>3.53</td>
<td>0.589</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fear of Negative Evaluation</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FLCAS Overall Mean</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>0.558</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results in Table 4 show that respondents generally experienced language learning anxiety (M=3.61). Furthermore, it shows that they experience Test Anxiety (M=3.90) and Communication Apprehension (M=3.61).

Table 5
Language Learning Anxiety Mean Scores (Test Anxiety)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Test Anxiety</td>
<td></td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I don't worry about making mistakes in English language class. <em>(recoded)</em></td>
<td>3.77</td>
<td>0.503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I am usually at ease during tests in my English language class. <em>(recoded)</em></td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I worry about the consequences of failing my English language class.</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I am afraid that my English language teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>0.498</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>The more I study for an English language test, the more confused I get.</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>0.598</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The feeling of Test Anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines is confirmed by the results presented in Table 5. It shows that the statement which obtained the highest level of agreement among respondents (M=4.20) was *I worry about the consequences of*...
failing my English language class. Two reverse-worded statements related to Test Anxiety that obtained high mean scores were recoded. The statements *I am usually at ease during tests in my English language class* (M=3.97) and *I don’t worry about making mistakes in English language class* (M=3.77) actually yielded a high level of disagreement among Iranians but for data analysis purposes they were positively recoded to allow comparison with other statements.

**Correlation between Language Learning Motivation and Anxiety**

Finally, to evaluate the relationship between Iranian EFL learners’ language learning motivation and anxiety in general, the Pearson correlation coefficient was computed using the overall mean scores for motivation and anxiety of respondents. The possible range on both motivation and anxiety measure was 1-5, where higher scores indicated higher levels of motivation and anxiety towards learning the English language. The obtained range for both measures was 2-4. There was a significant negative correlation between respondents’ overall mean scores for motivation and anxiety toward learning the English language ($r$ (98) = -.366; $p < .01$).

**Table 6**  
*Pearson Product-Moment Correlations of Motivation with Overall Anxiety*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Type of Motivation</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>$R$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Amotivation</td>
<td>I cannot come to see why I study the English language, and frankly, I don’t give a damn.</td>
<td>.673*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Amotivation</td>
<td>Honestly, I don't know, I truly have the impression of wasting my time in studying the English language.</td>
<td>.534**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Amotivation</td>
<td>I don't know; I can't come to understand what I am doing studying the English language.</td>
<td>.424**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>External Regulation</td>
<td>Because I have the impression that it is expected of me.</td>
<td>-.293**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cont. Table 6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>External Regulation</td>
<td>In order to have a better salary later on.</td>
<td>.179</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>External Regulation</td>
<td>In order to get a more prestigious job later on.</td>
<td>.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Identified Regulation</td>
<td>Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak the English language.</td>
<td>-.516**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Identified Regulation</td>
<td>Because I choose to be the kind of person who can speak more than one language.</td>
<td>-.460**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Identified Regulation</td>
<td>Because I think it is good for my personal development.</td>
<td>-.328**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Introjected Regulation</td>
<td>Because I would feel guilty if I didn't know the English language.</td>
<td>-.484**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Introjected Regulation</td>
<td>Because I would feel ashamed if I couldn't speak to my friends from the English community in their native tongue.</td>
<td>-.314**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Introjected Regulation</td>
<td>To show myself that I am a good citizen because I can speak the English language.</td>
<td>-.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Accomplishment</td>
<td>For the enjoyment I experience when I grasp a difficult construct in the English language.</td>
<td>-.525**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Accomplishment</td>
<td>For the pleasure I experience when surpassing myself in my English language studies.</td>
<td>-.451**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Accomplishment</td>
<td>For the satisfaction I feel when I am in the process of accomplishing difficult exercises in the English language.</td>
<td>-.443**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>For the pleasure that I experience in knowing more about the literature of the English group.</td>
<td>-.327**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Because I enjoy the feeling of acquiring knowledge about the English language community and their way of life.

For the satisfied feeling I get in finding out new things.

For the "high" feeling that I experience while speaking in English.

For the "high" I feel when hearing the English language spoken.

For the pleasure I get from hearing the English language spoken by native English speakers.

Based on Cohen’s (1988) classification of strength of Pearson correlation values, the correlation between the language learning motivation and anxiety of Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines is considered moderate ($r = .30 - .49$). In general, therefore, as the level of language learning motivation of a student increases, it is moderately likely for his or her language learning anxiety to decrease, or vice-versa.

To further evaluate the correlation of the type of motivation (Extrinsic, Intrinsic, and Amotivation) with the overall anxiety, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient for each statement was computed. Table 6 shows the Pearson Product-Moment Correlations of the different types of EFL learning motivations with the overall level of anxiety of respondents.

The data indicate that there was a significant positive correlation between the three statements pertaining to Amotivation with the overall anxiety ($r (98) = .673, .534, .424; p<.01$). This would suggest that the more amotivated a learner is, the more likely that he/she will experience language learning anxiety. This finding reflects Deci and Ryan’s (1985) discussion on amotivation: they point out that while amotivation may be a factor of poor foreign language
performance it can also be a result of language learning anxiety. The two factors are thus closely intertwined.

The three statements pertaining to Intrinsic Motivation-Accomplishment were found to have a significant negative correlation the overall anxiety (p > .01). This suggests that learners who are more motivated to learn the English language because of the pleasure associated with overcoming barriers and achieving goals in their English language studies tend to have a lower overall level of anxiety. Comparatively, both Intrinsic Motivation-Knowledge and Intrinsic Motivation-Stimulation are only weakly to moderately negatively correlated to overall anxiety.

Discussion

The findings revealed that Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines are generally not a motivated learners. However, there is insufficient evidence to suggest that they are more motivated intrinsically or extrinsically to study the English language. In other words, although it would appear that Iranian EFL learners are motivated more by the potential or immediate rewards separate or “extrinsic to the activity itself” (Lucas et al., 2010, p. 6) based on the mean scores for extrinsic orientation, the t-test confirms that this is not the case.

According to Deci and Ryan (2000), external regulation is the least autonomous among the different kinds of extrinsic motivation. EFL learners bearing this motivation study “to satisfy an external demand or reward contingency”, such as the promise of a higher salary or a better job, getting high grades, avoiding punishment, or meeting personal, professional or social expectations (Deci & Ryan, 2000, p. 72). They tend to view English skills as something they need to advance their professional or personal standings in the future and less likely as something they want to acquire for the sake of it. Without these promised benefits, it is unlikely for them to continue learning the English language.

Based on the research of Dörnyei (1994), Noels, Clement, and Pelletier (1999; 2001), Noels et al., (2000), Noels (2001), and Lucas et al., (2010), learners who are motivated intrinsically or integratively tend to perform better in foreign or second language classes compared to those who are extrinsically or instrumentally motivated or especially to those who are amotivated. While this current study
did not correlate motivation with students’ performance in their English language class, it is important to take note of this finding in light of its possible ramifications on the performance of Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines who may be largely extrinsically motivated to study the English language.

In view of all these, Vaezi (2008) cited an important consideration in analyzing Iranian EFL learners’ motivation. According to her, Iranian EFL learners may, consciously or otherwise, tailor-fit their English language learning motivations to suit the prevailing socio-cultural climate in Iran, one that is at present, suspicious of Western—and thus, English—culture and values. This may result in students, knowingly or unknowingly, rejecting their actual intrinsic motivations and highlighting their extrinsic motivations in order to appear to be a loyal citizen (Vaezi, 2008). If this will ever be the case, it is difficult to underestimate the potential impact this can have on studies such as this, which focus on the language learning motivation and anxiety of Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines. If indeed language learning motivation is affected by a learner’s desire to achieve goals and attitudes towards the language, as Gardner (1985) stressed, then it is reasonable to posit that the unique socio-cultural context of Iran has both direct and indirect impacts on the English language learning motivation and performance of Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines.

Apart from motivation, however, foreign language learning is also affected by a student’s level of anxiety (Horwitz et al., 1986). This includes Iranian EFL students in the Philippines (Outadi, 2011). The results of the FLCAS survey showed that Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines generally experience anxiety while learning the English language. The level of anxiety, however, was moderate compared to Outadi’s (2011) study which found Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines to have a high level of anxiety based on the results of the FLCAS survey (M=3.90). The primary source of anxiety for Iranian EFL learners in this study is Test Anxiety. This is followed, respectively, by Communication Apprehension, English Classroom Anxiety, and Fear of Negative Evaluation. This finding presents another interesting contrast to Outadi’s (2011) study which determined Fear of Negative Evaluation to be the leading source of language learning anxiety among Iranian EFL students in the Philippines; moreover, Test Anxiety was found to be the last source of anxiety among her respondents. To discuss these contrasting results
at length, it pays to consider Vaezi (2008) and Outadi’s (2011) observations and other possible factors that may have influenced the results of the FLCAS survey.

Outadi (2011) zeroed in on the English education background of Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines in analyzing the sources of their language learning anxiety. Coming from the unique EFL setting of the Islamic Republic of Iran, Iranian students in the Philippines face similarly unique challenges. Apart from the cultural, mental, physical, and for some, spiritual adjustments that accompany moving to a new country, Iranian EFL learners must also adjust to the ESL climate of the Philippines, where English albeit widely spoken and understood is not the language spoken on the streets. This is compounded by the fact that, as Outadi (2011) noted, most Iranian students who come to the Philippines to study are not required to meet an IELTS or TOEFL score prior to enrolment and, as Vaezi (2008) discussed, they already had to contend with the limited basic and secondary English education opportunities in Iran. Consequently, Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines may not possess the required English language competency to perform well in an English class in the Philippines. They thus become perfect candidates for language learning anxiety – be it in terms of Test Anxiety, Communication Apprehension, Classroom Anxiety, and/or Fear of Negative Evaluation (Horwitz, 1986; Young, 1986; Lucas et al., 2010).

Arguably, the lack of English competency for students may manifest the strongest as test anxiety since it is during an exam that they are faced with an inescapable situation from which their performance will be measured (Horwitz et al., 1986). This may be especially true for students, such as Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines, who may possibly be largely extrinsically motivated or who study the English language in order to improve their status in the future. The fact is: poor test scores and failing course grades pose as a hindrance towards meeting these specific personal and professional goals (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Accordingly, Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines feel pressure to perform extremely well in English language tests in order for them to be able to use their background in English language studies as a stepping stone towards a more secured and prosperous future for themselves. In other words, the pressure and anxiety may in fact emanate from their primary motivation in learning the English language in the first place – not for
the sheer pleasure and enjoyment of English language learning itself but for what it can do for them and their careers in the future.

In this scenario, a self-fulfilling prophecy may take place: Iranian EFL students travel to the Philippines, a foreign country, determined to learn the English language in order to secure a better future for them and their families, but are sorely unequipped with the necessary skills and competencies to help them meet these objectives. The immediate result is anxiety in the English classroom (Young, 1991; Na, 2007) – one that originates from a fear of the potentially ill consequences of failing their English language course and one that relates to their unrealistic expectations of performing extremely well despite the crucial limitations and handicaps that they have as young Iranian EFL learners. The caveat, of course, is that the intensity of their language learning motivation should be enough to propel them past their initial fears and language learning anxieties. However, given that the correlation between Extrinsic Motivation and overall anxiety is only weak, according to Cohen’s (1988) classification, it may not necessarily follow that these Iranian EFL learners who are motivated are likely to be less anxious.

Overall, among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines, the correlation between language learning motivation and anxiety was found to be significant. When analyzed according to the types of motivation, however, students face additional challenges to overcome their anxiety. In particular, possessing a high level of extrinsic motivation via external regulation may not be enough to lower overall language learning anxiety and ultimately guarantee a good performance in English language courses.

Furthermore, the correlation between English language learning motivation and anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines was generally found to be negative and moderate (similar to Koizumi [2002] and Kwan [2004]), based again on Cohen’s (1988) classification. This would suggest that increasing English language learning motivation may potentially decrease language learning anxiety for this set of learners. However, given the multidimensionality of English language learning motivation, it is important to determine the specific type of motivation that must be generally addressed among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines in order to address high levels of English language learning anxiety. Based on the results of this study, Amotivation, Intrinsic Motivation-Accomplishment, and Identified Regulation are important areas to
consider owing to their strong to moderate correlation to overall anxiety.

Firstly, for Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines, amotivation may lead to anxiety, and vice-versa. In other words, while it is likely for an amotivated learner to feel anxiety it may also be likely for an anxious learner to feel amotivated towards learning the English language. As Deci and Ryan (1985) noted, amotivation and anxiety are inexorably linked in the language learning process and must be jointly addressed by learners and teachers alike.

Secondly, Iranian EFL learners who study the English language because of how much they enjoy mastering this language or other foreign languages in general (IM-Accomplishment) may be less likely to feel anxiety. This is a potentially important finding since it underscores the importance of a healthy and positive attitude towards the English language in improving one’s EFL performance. Often times, students are made to believe that forming good and rigorous study habits, along with clearly defined goals, are enough to learn a foreign language. But this is not the case: favorable attitudes toward learning the language are as essential as students’ desire to reach specific language learning goals and as important as the physical and mental effort they exert towards reaching these goals. As Gardner (1985) explained, motivation is a combination of effort plus desire to achieve specific goals plus favorable attitudes towards the language. Unfortunately, the last component is often forgotten in formal educational settings, especially in Iran (Vaezi, 2008).

Thirdly, Iranian EFL learners who study the English language because of self-imposed goals of personal development (Identified Regulation) may also be likely to experience less overall anxiety. While the previous finding highlights the importance of favorable attitudes towards learning the English language, this result underscores the significance of a learner’s self-determination, maturity, and optimism about his or her personal and professional future. According to Noels and other (2000), students who are motivated in this manner are willing to endure tedious tasks related to foreign language learning precisely because they are greatly invested in the outcome of the process. It is therefore important to encourage Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines to envision themselves three to five years into the future, after they have finished their English language courses, to allow them to articulate how they
personally value learning the English language and how this may relate to their personal development.

It is interesting to note that based on the results of the LLOS-IEA survey, IM-Accomplishment and Identified Regulation obtained relatively low mean scores among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines. Thus, in general, they neither agreed nor disagreed that they were studying the English language because of the enjoyment of surpassing one’s expectations (IM-Accomplishment) or because of the need to fulfill personal development goals (Identified Regulation); on the other hand, they mostly disagreed that they did not know or care why they were studying the English language (Amotivation).

Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines most agreed that they study the English language for the promise of a better job or a higher salary (External Regulation) and for the pleasant feelings they associate with speaking and hearing the English language (IM-Stimulation). However, the correlations between External Regulation and overall anxiety and IM-Stimulation and overall anxiety were not statistically significant, or if significant, can be classified as weak. This may mean that although Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines are mostly motivated via External Regulation, this could have no correlation on their language learning anxiety – that is to say, just because a student is highly motivated to study the English language because of its future personal benefits or due to the pleasure from speaking of hearing it, does not necessarily mean that he or she does not feel anxiety.

In view of the significant correlations between the three types of language learning motivation and overall anxiety, it can be posited that although in general, the correlation between language learning motivation and language learning anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines is significant and negative, this is not the case for all types of motivation.

In view of the significant correlations between these three types of language learning motivation and overall anxiety, it can be posited that although in general, language learning motivation is significantly moderately and negatively correlated to language learning anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines, this is not the case for all types of motivation.
Conclusions

The first part of this study showed that Iranian EFL learning in the Philippines may not be amotivated to learn English as a foreign language. In terms of orientation, there is insufficient evidence to suggest that they are more motivated extrinsically rather than intrinsically towards learning the English language. The second part confirmed that Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines experience a moderate level of language learning anxiety based on the results of the FLCAS survey. Specifically, Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines experience Test Anxiety.

Overall, there was found to be a significant negative correlation between language learning motivation and level of anxiety among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines. More specifically, this correlation appears stronger for learners who are motivated to study the English language because of (1) their desire to master it or to surpass their own English language expectations or (2) their desire to meet their personal development goals, such as speaking more than one foreign language. Meanwhile, there was a significant positive correlation between amotivation and overall anxiety confirming Deci and Ryan’s (1985) observation that the two factors affecting language learning are inexorably linked in that one may directly affect the other. Notably, the negative correlation, although significant, is weaker for Iranian EFL learners who are motivated to study the English language because of the promise of a better job and higher salary or because of the pleasure they derive from hearing or speaking the English language.

Implications and Recommendations

The results of this study would assist EFL teachers in terms of adjusting their teaching styles in their EFL classes involving Iranian leaders.

Firstly, teachers must be cognizant of reducing the overall level of anxiety among Iranian EFL learners, specifically Test Anxiety or anxiety towards formal assessment of performance, stemming from a fear of failure, if they aim to improve their learning outcomes. Prior to this however, as Lucas et al., (2010) recommend, teachers must first accept that EFL learners do in fact experience anxiety in their classes.
Throughout the process, teachers must maintain focus on the goal of lowering anxiety to improve their students’ overall EFL performance.

In addition to these preliminary steps, schools and teachers must also make sure that tests and examinations given in English language classes are valid measures of performance based on the actual lessons taken up in class, as Deci and Ryan (1985) recommend. Other specific strategy EFL teachers, schools, and curriculum designers may consider adopting includes the use of a more mixed criteria for evaluating Iranian EFL students’ performance – one that is not heavily reliant on test scores.

In terms of increasing language learning motivation among Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines, teachers and students may do well to focus on encouraging the formation of favorable or positive attitudes towards learning the English language. As Vaezi (2008) noted, Iranian EFL learners may have in the course of their English language education in Iran downplayed, if not rejected, their enthusiasm towards learning the English language. This might be based on the misconception that being avid to learn the English language automatically means being enamored by the entire culture and values system of the native English speaking community. Therefore, there may be a need to make students appreciate the English language not simply as an instrument towards achieving their future professional goals or meeting social expectations but as an interesting, challenging, and fulfilling area of study. This may be done by exploring the use of alternative and authentic materials for English language teaching, such as human interest stories, important current events, games, and popular films and literature.

Overall, it is clear that for Iranian EFL learners in the Philippines to improve their EFL performance in terms of possessing ample motivation and having low levels of anxiety, their educational background and the socio-cultural context from which they come from, the environment in their English language classroom in the Philippines, and the strategies employed by their teacher to measure their performance must all be jointly accounted for.
References


**About the Authors**

**Hamid Gomari** is currently a Ph.D student of Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University, Manila, Philippines. He received his Master’s Degree in English Language Education from the same university. His research interests include psycholinguistics, corpus linguistics, and discourse analysis.

Email: h.gomari@yahoo.com

**Rochelle Irene G. Lucas** is an Associate Professor at the Department of English and Applied Linguistics and the Vice Dean of the College of Education, De La Salle University-Manila. She has completed her Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics from the same university. She has published, presented and conducted research on bilingualism, language learning in children, motivation, alternative assessment and discourse analysis. She is currently under the DAAD (German Academic Exchange Service) Training for the International Deans’ Course in South East Asia.

Email: rochelle.lucas@dlsu.edu.ph
Bilingual Readers’ Metacognitive Strategies as Predictors of Reading Comprehension

Ma. Joahna Mante Estacio
De La Salle University, Manila

Abstract

Mokhtari and Reichard’s (2002) Metacognitive Awareness Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSII) was administered to the 30 participants to assess their metacognitive awareness and perceived used of reading strategies. Furthermore, two types of reading comprehension tests (multiple choice and unaided written recall) based on four reading materials (two narratives and two expository) have been used to gather data. Results reveal that the participants use the three major types of metacognitive reading strategies. However, results have not been conclusive as to which strategy affects reading comprehension more because there was no single predictor of the reading tests scores. Nonetheless, the results of the study validated the relationship between bilinguals’ use of metacognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension.

Keywords: Metacognitive, Reading, Comprehension, Predictors

Introduction

Described as a multifaceted process, reading has been analyzed by experts by breaking it down into a set of component skills to understand and explain the process of fluent reading. One of the six general component skills is metacognitive knowledge and skills monitoring which are the two main areas of metacognition (Grabe, 1991). Metacognition or metacognitive awareness is “being conscious of one’s own mental processes” (Gunning, 1996, p.225) which includes having the ability to plan, check, monitor, revise and evaluate one’s unfolding comprehension. Metacognitive knowledge is the knowledge about cognition and its self-regulation that involves such skills as recognizing the more important information in a text, adjusting reading rate, using context clues, skimming, previewing, formulating questions, taking notes, and summarizing (Grabe, 1991).
Metacognitive regulation on the other hand, which is the ability to manage one’s own thinking process, is further subdivided into three groups of strategies: monitoring strategies, checking strategies, and repairing or fix-up strategies (Grabe, 1991).

Baker and Brown (1984) posited that the teaching of metacognition should be built in all reading instruction because “any attempt to comprehend must involve comprehension monitoring” (p. 385, in Gunning, 1986). Although reading experts in general consider it a developmental process, they agree that metacognition can already be introduced and taught to young readers so that the basic strategies would be familiar to them at an early age. Furthermore, since the understanding of the reading process is not limited to identifying effective and appropriate strategies, but also includes being aware of the correct reason and appropriate use of the strategies, Philip and Hua (2006) suggested that teachers guide their students to know not only the “what” of metacognitive reading, but also the “why” and the “when” of it.

Previous Studies on the Use of Metacognitive Strategies in L2 Reading

According to Singhal (2001), not many studies have examined readers’ metacognitive awareness of reading strategies, strategy use, and reading proficiency. Furthermore, much of the research on metacognition and metacognitive strategies has employed participants who were reading in their first language. Doing a study on how second language readers use metacognitive strategies would be different because an important dimension is added in the analysis part since readers process reading texts in their first language differently from how they process those which are written in their second language (Connor, 1984, in Knight, Padron, & Waxman, 1985). The studies that are reviewed in this section focus more on how readers read in a second language since the participants in the current study are described as second language readers.

Carrell (1989) did a study to describe the metacognitive awareness of second language readers on the reading strategies in their L1 and L2, and the relationship between their metacognitive awareness and comprehension in both languages. Results revealed
that local reading strategies such as focusing on grammatical structures, sound-letter, word meaning and, text details tended to be negatively correlated with L1 reading performance, which was a surprising result when compared with previous findings according to the researcher. Moreover, the ESL students who were more proficient readers, tended to be more global (used background knowledge, text gist, and textual organization) or top-down in their perceptions of effective and difficulty-causing reading strategies, while those at lower proficiency levels were inclined to be more local. Knight, Pardon, and Waxman (1985) compared the reading strategies employed by ESL Spanish students and English monolingual students while reading. Their findings revealed that concentrating was the most cited strategy among the monolinguals during the interview after reading a text, while it was attempting what the teacher wanted to know among the bilinguals. Also, strategies like imaging, noting details, and predicting outcomes were not mentioned by the bilinguals. Lastly, the monolingual participants used twice as many reading strategies used by the bilingual participants. The researchers concluded that the bilinguals were made to read in English too quickly that they have not gone beyond decoding-level processing. Barnett (1988) examined the relationships among reading strategies and perceived strategy use. Results revealed that students who effectively noted the context as they read comprehended the text more than those who did not use this strategy often. Moreover, students who thought they used the said strategies were more productive because they understood the text better. Xianming (2007) studied the awareness of metacognitive reading strategies among 74 freshmen college students. Using the Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory by Mohktari and Reichard (2002), interview, and passive participant observation, the researcher was able to identify the various metacognitive strategies used by the respondents. Overall, there was a moderate use of the strategies, with rereading, encircling and underlining, translating, and knowing the questions to be answered prior to reading as the most commonly used ones.

Anderson (1991) also studied differences in strategy use among adult second language learners while engaged in two reading tasks: taking a standardized reading comprehension test and reading
academic texts. Results revealed that there was no single strategy that significantly caused the success on these two reading measures. Both high and low scoring readers appeared to be employing the same kind of strategies while answering the comprehension questions. However, high scoring students seemed to be applying strategies more effectively and appropriately. Another study claimed that good readers attend to meaning, read in phrases, and persevere through texts (Hosenfeld, 1977). The study reported that unsuccessful reader on the other hand, forgot the meaning of the sentences after it has been decoded, read in brief phrases, focused on inconsequential words, hardly ever ignored unimportant words, and had negative self-concepts. These studies point to three important findings: One, both successful and unsuccessful bilingual readers employ strategies when they read. Two, the successful ones use the better and more appropriate strategies while the others rely on basic and decoding strategies. Finally, readers use different strategies when reading in their first and second languages.

Philip and Hua (2006) showed how explicit teaching of metacognitive reading strategies could help both high proficient and low proficient college readers improve their comprehension skills when reading academic texts. Using Retrospective Written Recall Protocols (RWP), the researchers were able to identify the actual reading strategies employed by the students during several reading tasks which allowed them to conclude that explicit teaching of metacognitive strategies, including the underlying processes involved in the strategies, indeed helped students understand what strategic and effective reading is all about.

There are studies in the Philippines which support similar findings. Sadorra (2000) attempted to describe how 29 underperforming college freshmen read complicated academic texts written in English and Filipino. She reported that overall, the participants read at a “detail level” which did not allow them to get the major ideas as well as to interpret the materials. The study also noted that they did not use any strategy that helped them comprehend the text written in Filipino, although they attempted to employ their content schema and to identify important information when they read the materials in English. A similar study was conducted by Gaerlan (2005) who reported that skilled readers use
word monitoring strategies most of the time when reading narrative texts, while it was comprehension monitoring for the less skilled readers. There was no dominant strategy for both groups of readers when they read expository texts.

Lastly, a study by Castillo (1999) on the effectiveness of metacognitive strategy training on both the reading and listening comprehension of first year high school students revealed that participants in both control and experimental groups had better scores after the intervention. Why the participants in both groups improved after receiving a different treatment may mean that other variables, such as motivation, came into the picture.

Related to the last point of the previous study is a fairly recent observation that there are students who fail even though they have knowledge that should help them succeed. There are studies which have reported that “negative motivational beliefs may explain why some students fail to use knowledge effectively...and that the consequences associated with ineffective strategy use are serious” (Collins, Dickson, Simmons, & Kameenui, n.d., par.124).

Borkowski (1992, in Collins, Dickson, Simmons, & Kameenui, n.d) explains that “motivational beliefs develop over time as a function of how "refined" one becomes in their strategic and executive processing” (par. 103). Motivational beliefs like self-competency, strategy awareness, and effort are developed as readers refine their metacognitive awareness and strategies use. Corollary, negative motivational beliefs develop when the same processes are not advanced. He further posits that motivational beliefs have some bearing on whether strategies will be selected and used in the future. Those strategies that have resulted in feelings of self-competency are maintained while those that have negative effects are rejected.

The Present Study

This exploratory, descriptive-correlational study focused on adolescent Filipino bilingual learners and investigated three research questions in a sample of third year high school students.

1. What metacognitive reading strategies do third year high school students report to be using most frequently?
2. Is there a significant relationship among the participants’ self-reported use of metacognitive strategies?
3. Which strategy predicts the students’ reading comprehension ability more?

Methodology

Participants

There were 30 final participants (16 boys and 14 girls) who were third year high school students from different sections of the same school at the time of the study. As regular students of a typical parochial school in the Philippines, the participants belong to lower middle class families. No assessment of the participants’ reading level or other similar aspects was done by the researcher prior to the administration of the questionnaires.

Instruments

Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARI). Designed and validated by Mokhtari & Reichard (2002), this instrument was administered to the participants to assess their metacognitive awareness and perceived used of reading strategies. This 30-item five point Likert scale (1=“I never or almost never do this”, 5=“I always or almost always do this”) has three categories: Global Reading Strategies, Problem-Solving Strategies, and Support Reading Strategies and is designed for adolescent and adult readers. The first group of strategies includes those that metacognitive readers employ to get a general view of a text (“I have a purpose in mind when I read”); the second set are strategies used when readers encounter difficulties while reading (“I try to get back on track when I lose concentration.”), and the last are those that aim to sustain comprehension (“I summarize what I read to reflect on important information in the text.”) According to Karbalaei (2010), the internal consistency reliability coefficient for its three above subscales ranged from 0.89 to 0.93.

Reading Texts. Four reading materials, two having narrative structures and two that are informative, were chosen to function as
stimuli in this study. The two narrative texts are “Psyche and Cupid” and “Marissa’s Dilemma”, while “Helping a Depressed Person” and “Teen Pregnancy” are the expository texts. Each selection was encoded double-spaced in a computer and copies were reproduced on 8 x 14 bond paper. All four texts which were downloaded from the Internet have been assessed by the researcher to have readability levels between Grades 8 and 9 using Fry’s graph for estimating readability which translate to be between Second and Third Year High School in the Philippines. Given that the participants read these materials in June, the materials were expected to be in their Instructional level. It should also be noted that the texts were copied verbatim and were not proofread to maintain their authenticity. Care was taken however to ensure that the comprehension of the materials was not affected by the typographical errors.

**Reading Comprehension Tests.** Since reading comprehension is an important variable in this study, the researcher used two measures, one quantitative and one qualitative, of reading comprehension: (1) four 10-item multiple choice tests and (2) an unaided written recall for each of the four texts used. The multiple choice questions were created to meet the two criteria set by Wolf (1993, in Brantmeier, 2003) which address the limitations of this assessment tool: (a) all items are passage dependent; (b) some of the items require the reader to make inferences, and similar to what Brantmeier (2003) did, (c) correct responses could not be determined by looking at the other questions. With these criteria, the items were able to target the literal and the interpretative levels of reading comprehension. For each question, four possible responses were created: one correct response and three distracters which are all plausible. An M. A. in Reading graduate did a face validity assessment of the items based on these criteria. Items were subsequently revised according to the suggestions and comments received. The unaided written recall assessment asked the participants to retell by writing what they have just read without referring back to their copies of the text. This procedure determines a reader who has comprehended a text well enough to be able to recall it in a coherent and logical manner, while allowing gaps in comprehension and misunderstanding to surface (Berkemeyer, 1989,
in Bernhardt, 1998). Moreover, Hayes (1987, in Bernhardt, 1998) describes the procedure as “cognitive psychology’s most powerful tool for tracking psychological processes” (p. 200). Empirical studies have noted that the choice of assessment task affects a reader’s achievement in a reading comprehension test (Brantmeier 2003). To make sure that the recall will measure the participants’ reading comprehension and not their language proficiency (Bernhardt, 1998), the participants were informed that they may do the recall in Tagalog or in English. To make sure that the participants would be able to do well in this type of assessment, the exact instructions were typewritten on pieces of paper and were attached to their answer sheets: Without looking back at the text, write in your most comfortable language (Filipino or English) all that you can remember about the text that you have just read. Try to mention the main ideas as well as the details. Importance is given on the quality of ideas recalled.

**Prior Knowledge Tests.** Four reading texts were used for the reading comprehension aspect of the study. To see if prior knowledge played a role in the participants’ attempt to understand these materials, it was necessary to determine what each of them already knows about the topics of the reading materials prior to their actual reading of the texts. This was carried out by giving them a particular type of Prior Knowledge test called Focused Listing test. This test asked the students to individually list words and phrases that they associate with a specific concept or idea. The concepts/ideas which were chosen for this study were the main topic/theme of each reading material. One point was given for every distinct word/phrase identified by the student which refers to a character, event, idea, or concept related to the main topic. Since every reader brings with him/her unique prior knowledge on every topic, the scores in the four Prior Knowledge Tests helped the researcher identify the texts that were read with more topic familiarity than the others by each student and by the entire group as well.

**Procedure**

The data gathering happened in two sessions, with the second one taking place three weeks after the first. The Metacognitive Awareness of Reading Strategies Inventory (MARSII) was
administered first, followed by the four Prior Knowledge tests, and then by the four reading comprehension tests on the first session. The other four reading comprehension tests were given on the next session. All the instruments have been answered individually by the participants.

The four reading materials were counterbalanced so that the participants read all the texts in different sequence, with one narrative text and one informative text read in each session. Moreover, each written recall measure was administered before the multiple choice questions to prevent the students from gaining any passage-related information from the multiple choice questions. The researcher projected 90 minutes for the participants to individually answer the assessment tools for each session, but all of them finished answering all the tests earlier than expected.

Method/s of Data Analysis

Each correct answer in the multiple choice test was given one point. For the unaided written recall, the present study used a weighted propositional scoring system. This system rated the idea units based on their importance within the text (Sharp, 2002). Following this scheme, the researcher prepared a template which listed every sentence of each reading text. During the first raters’ meeting, this scoring guide was shown to the two raters (teachers of High School English for approximately 15 years in a private school) as they discussed and decided how many t-units (operationally defined in this study as “a word or a group of words having a complete thought”) are found in each reading material and how many points would be given to each based on its relevance to the message of the texts. They have agreed that three points will be given to a t-unit that cites a very significant concept or incident; two points for one that helps build the significance of a concept or incident by clarifying, explaining, or illustrating an example, and one point if it is a detail that does not contribute significantly. In the same session, the raters rated four outputs using the scoring guide to make sure the rating process will be done uniformly when they do the task individually. After two months, the researcher and the two raters met for two successive days for the raters to discuss and compare their individual
findings, and to arrive at the final scores based on the averages of the individual rater’s scores.

**Results and Discussion**

Having established the important role that metacognitive awareness play in reading comprehension, this study aimed to identify and describe the metacognitive reading strategies used by the participants, to examine if there was significant relationships between the various metacognitive reading strategies and to identify which strategy has a stronger effect on reading comprehension.

1. **What metacognitive reading strategies do students at this age report to be using most frequently?**

   Pearson product-moment correlation was calculated to find out if there is a relationship between the students’ self-reported use of metacognitive reading strategies and their reading comprehension. Results described if each relationship is weak, moderate, or strong. A level of significance at 0.05 was used to determine a significant relationship.

   Results based on the self-reported questionnaire revealed that the participants are frequently using all the three types of metacognitive reading strategies, with the following means: Problem solving strategies (3.93), Global reading strategies (3.63), and Support reading strategies (3.61), which may be interpreted to mean that they are metacognitive readers who use effective strategies when they read.
Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of the Metacognitive Reading Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Global Reading Strategies</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>.41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem-Solving Strategies</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.56</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Reading strategy</td>
<td>3.61</td>
<td>.51</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Is there a significant relationship among the participants’ self-reported use of metacognitive strategies?

All the types of strategy also positively correlated with each other. This would mean that they interact with each other (Mokhtari & Reichard, 2002). Global reading and Support reading strategies had the strongest correlation even when prior knowledge was controlled ($r=.68$ in both). Since Global strategies are mostly used before the actual reading (I have a purpose in mind when I read; I preview the text to see what’s it about before reading it.) and because Support reading strategies are actually combinations of monitoring and checking strategies which allow a reader to direct his or her own reading processes and to evaluate his or her reading performance, the result seemed to imply that the participants employ good strategies before, during, and after reading. Since the participants are encountering reading materials from the different content areas inside and outside their school, the results may be considered as a sort of an assurance that they are able to make sense of their various textbooks, modules, and other learning materials mainly because they themselves have reported that they use effective reading strategies. As Garcia, Jimenez, and Pearson (1998) posited, “Heightened metacognitive awareness is not an automatic outcome of children’s bilingualism or bilingual education” (p.213). On the theoretical side, the finding also seems to suggest that a complete metacognitive reader is one who employs all the necessary strategies that a reading
task calls for, and not one who is efficient in using only a particular

type of strategy.

To further explore these relations, a multiple regression

computation was made in which the various types of metacognitive

reading strategies were used to predict which strategy/ies would

affect the students’ reading comprehension. The scores in the two

reading comprehension tests were used as predictors to account for

difference in students’ ability level. The next sections present the

discussion of the answers to the four research questions posed by the

researcher.

3. Which strategy predicts the students’ reading comprehension

ability more?

Upon finding significant correlations among the independent

variables, a multiple regression was done to see if metacognitive

reading strategies influence the participants’ reading comprehension.

Using SPSS, the dependent variable (reading comprehension ability)

was first specified, and then the set of independent variables

(metacognitive reading strategies) box was entered. The initial

computations revealed that there is no single predictor of reading

comprehension ability. Thinking that analyzing the reading test

scores according to text type would reveal the predictors, the

researcher decided to categorize reading comprehension ability as

narrative texts reading comprehension ability and informative texts

reading comprehension ability, making each a dependent variable.

After the new set of independent variables was entered, the

computations showed significant betas that identified the predictors

of informative texts comprehension. However, this was not the case

for the narrative texts. Entering the scores in each story, the researcher

was finally able to identify the predictors of narrative texts

comprehension. Note that some of the variables to be discussed are

motivational factors since the study presented here is actually part of

a bigger research which included reading motivation.

Table 2 presents the summary of the regression analysis for the

predictors of the scores on the informational texts. For the recall

scores, five factors were able to explain 68% of the variance in the

reading scores, with adjusted R²= .5585 and F (8, 21) = 5.59, p<00073.
It can be seen that the use of Support Reading Strategies is the strongest predictor, which is followed by the motivational factor Familiarity with the Content and Format of the Text. The results seem to say that to be successful in reading these types of reading materials, what is needed is familiarity with the content and format and the ability to direct his own reading process. It is noticeable too that one type of metacognitive reading strategy negatively predicted the scores.

Table 2
Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Written Recall of Informational Texts Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SEβ</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Familiarity with the Content and Format of the Text</td>
<td>0.848</td>
<td>0.215</td>
<td>0.6803</td>
<td>0.5585</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance Orientation</td>
<td>-0.416</td>
<td>0.150</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social and Learning Environment</td>
<td>-0.546</td>
<td>0.226</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Reading Strategies</td>
<td>-0.536</td>
<td>0.180</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Reading Strategies</td>
<td>0.945</td>
<td>0.264</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only one variable, Familiarity with the Content and Format of the Text, negatively predicted the multiple choice score. This explained 24% of the change in the scores (See Table 3.). The results seem to confirm the text-dependency trait of the multiple choice questions. Recall that in an earlier section, one of the criteria set by the
present researcher in constructing these questions is that they should be passage dependent, which means the answers should be based on the participants’ understanding and comprehension of the reading materials used in this study and not on their prior knowledge on the topics discussed. This could be the reason why prior knowledge on teen pregnancy and depression did not help the participants get good scores on this type of test. The .15 adjusted R² value indicates that there are probably more and stronger factors that can predict the multiple choice test scores that have yet to be identified.

Table 3
Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Multiple Choice Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>SE β</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Familiarity with the Content and Format of the Text</td>
<td>-0.503</td>
<td>0.191</td>
<td>0.2403</td>
<td>0.1527</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Again, Content and Format Familiarity and Support Reading Strategies are the two factors which positively predicted the written recall scores based on the story “Marissa’s Dilemma”. The findings reveal some consistency of these two factors in predicting recall scores.
Table 4
Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Written Recall of “Marissa’s Dilemma” Text Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>SE β</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Familiarity with the Content and Format of the Text</td>
<td>0.667</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>.3589</td>
<td>.1549</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Global Reading Strategies</td>
<td>-0.542</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support Reading Strategies</td>
<td>0.695</td>
<td>0.325</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the second narrative text, “Psyche and Cupid”, only one factor significantly but negatively predicted the multiple choice scores, Social & Learning Environment, with $R^2 = .34$ and with $F(3, 26) = 4.42, p<01219$. A possible explanation for this result is that the Learning Environment factor, which explains how certain instructions and teaching and learning atmosphere affect reading motivation, holds true during the reading process itself but not when someone attempts to answer tests, (multiple choice in this case) after reading. It is like saying that in answering the test, the participants were left to make sense of the questions and to choose the best answer; no external help was available.

Table 5
Summary of Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting “Psyche and Cupid” Multiple Choice Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>SE β</th>
<th>R²</th>
<th>Adjusted R²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social and Learning Environment</td>
<td>-0.532</td>
<td>0.173</td>
<td>.3379</td>
<td>.2615</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall, the results for the last research question are not conclusive. As it turned out, no single variable predicted the reading tests scores. The small adjusted R² values connote that other, perhaps stronger, predictors are still left unaccounted for. Still, the scores in the recall tests in both informational and narrative texts revealed that Support Reading Strategies and Familiarity with Text Content and Format are positive predictors of the scores in this type of assessment. This means that there are indeed motivational factors and metacognitive strategies that predict success in reading comprehension. Why Social and Learning Environment and Text Familiarity are negative predictors of the multiple choice test scores need further analysis however.

Conclusions and Recommendations

This exploratory study determined relationships between the participants’ use of metacognitive strategies and their reading comprehension in a second language. The results of self-reports from the participants reveal that they are frequently using all the three types of strategies before, during, and after reading.

There was no single predictor of the reading tests scores although for the recall tests in both informational and narrative texts, Support Reading Strategies positively predicted the scores. The reason why a relatively high level of strategy use did not translate to high reading test scores requires some explanation and reflection. Although similar results have been found in a related study (the one on listening comprehension by Vandergrift, 2005), majority of the previous studies showed better reading performances resulting from strong strategy use. Schooren (1998, in Hanson, 2003) explained that there is a need for a certain threshold before metacognitive awareness can become a significant factor in one’s reading performance. This was also proven by Castillo (1999) who reported that her Filipino first year high school participants were unable to employ some reading and listening strategies because they do not have the necessary basic language skills. This threshold is in terms of language proficiency, which, when applied to the participants in the current study, would imply that they have not reached the required proficiency for their
strong motivation to read and regular use of metacognitive strategies to support them while doing the reading tasks.

The present researcher cites other possible reasons why the participants’ strong use of metacognitive reading strategies seemed not to help them when they answered the reading comprehension tests. One is that the reading tests, especially the one which asked for an immediate recall of the information from the texts, may be too difficult for the participants, noting the standard deviation of each of the four texts (13.22, 18.73, 10.97, and 8.63). In the multiple choice tests, the mean is only 5 (with 10 items in every test). It is also possible that a test-method effect contributed to the results. It may be that the immediate recall assessment tool did not require the use of metacognitive reading strategies among the participants since recalling is a basic reading skill. Still another possible reason for the low recall scores is the unfamiliarity with the assessment tool. Although they were allowed to use Tagalog in recalling details about the texts, many of them were able to recall minimal information, while some wrote their reactions to and inferences about the reading materials. Nonetheless, the results of this study provide valuable contributions and implications. Because context factors are the ones controlled by the teacher, using engaging methods and strategies are encouraged to facilitate students’ use of metacognitive strategies to read in a second language. Since the results of this study did not identify common predictors of reading comprehension after using two types of assessment, teachers are reminded to be judicious in choosing the appropriate type of test to be given that will also match the expected reading skill/s from the learners. Moreover, by giving students reading activities that they will accomplish outside the classroom and by using non-traditional reading materials, teachers highlight the important message that reading is not limited to school setting and school-type materials, and that it should be enjoyed and appreciated more with their parents and peers.

With regard to the findings on the use of metacognitive reading strategies, it is emphasized that the explicit teaching of the various metacognitive reading strategies (which should include the “how”, “when”, and “why” of these strategies) be made when reading various texts. As mentioned in a previous section, strategy use in L2 reading is affected by instruction, and transfer of effective
L1 reading strategy to L2 reading strategy is not easily achieved. Therefore, additional teaching strategies that facilitate the use of these strategies need to be put together. Moreover, finding and helping the students to go beyond the threshold needed for these strategies to take positive effects lies on the shoulder of the teacher. Lastly, the findings in this recent study point to the importance of having a clear understanding of theoretical and practical aspects of metacognitive reading strategies among teachers so they can truly identify, understand, and help at-risk and problematic readers, as well as those who need reinforcement.

For research purposes, the findings here open up many possible tasks and topics for those interested in the field of metacognition in reading. Future researchers may want to know if there are differences in bilingual participants’ use of metacognitive reading strategies in both languages, and what variable or variables in one or both languages will affect reading comprehension better. Other assessment tools, such as observation, interview, think aloud protocols, are encouraged to be used to identify and describe the types of strategies used, and even in the reading comprehension aspect to see if test method is indeed a factor in this kind of a study. Also, it would be interesting to undertake a longitudinal study on bilinguals’ use of metacognitive strategies. Since the present research only had 30 participants in the second phase, future studies are also encouraged to involved more subjects. The methodology and results presented here, modest as they appear, contribute in the attempt to probe into and to understand the role of metacognition in the specific domain of reading.

References


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**About the Author**

**Dr. Ma. Joahna Mante Estacio** is a full-time associate professor in the Department of Applied Linguistics, De La Salle University-Manila (Philippines). She handles Undergraduate level and Graduate level courses in Reading, Research, and Psycholinguistics. She has published in various local and international journals and has presented empirical papers in both local and international conferences on the same topics.
A Comparative Study on the Language Anxiety of ESL and EFL Learners

Alice Mae A. Mamhot, Maria Hannah V. Martin, and Elaine M. Masangya
De La Salle University, Manila

Abstract

A total of 40 respondents had participated in the study, comprising of 20 ESL students and 20 EFL learners from two Philippine-based learning institutions. The respondents were administered with a questionnaire which has two parts: the 33-item Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) survey developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) and the 2-item questionnaire adapted from Williams and Andrade (2008). For the EFL respondents, the questionnaire was translated in their native language for comprehension and validity of the results. The gathered data were then analyzed using three frameworks: Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986 in Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2004) levels of anxiety of foreign language students, Tanveer’s (2007) factors that affect language learning, and lastly a combination of Tanveer’s (2007) definitions of the three stages of language learning with Williams & Andrade’s (2008) sample categorization of learning stage. The general results of this study show that ESL learners have a neutral reaction to the three levels of anxiety and they also have a Fear of Negative Evaluation in the aspect of low self-perceived linguistic competency. As for EFL learners, the results indicated “no level of language anxiety” based on the scale, but a further analysis revealed that these EFL learners disagree on the statement: I don’t worry about making mistakes in English class. Both groups of respondents answered that they view their selves to be responsible for the language anxiety they experience.

Keywords: Anxiety, ESL learners, EFL learners, Language Learning

Introduction

There has been a growing interest in the language learning anxiety problems of English students. An investigation on this issue is
very timely because the language is studied at every school level for 112 countries, where English is not a native language and is either a foreign language or a second language (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985). Chan and Wu (2004) categorize anxiety as a psychological concept, whereas Spielberger (1966) describes it as “subjective, consciously perceived feelings of apprehension and tension, accompanied by or associated with activation or arousal of the autonomic nervous system” (p.15). When anxiety is incorporated into language learning, it is described as an apprehension that occurs when a language student performs a second or foreign language (Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993). Friedman (1980) and Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) characterize anxiety as “high feelings of self-consciousness, fear of making mistakes, and a desire to be perfect when speaking.” MacIntyre (1999) further expounds that it is not just an ordinary fear in learning but rather a negative worrisome reaction when studying a second language. Liu (2007), in addition, acknowledges that it is a phenomenon so complex yet it can predict the learner’s acquisition of the language intended. Similar to these aforementioned studies is this present research.

**Review of Related Literature**

**Evidence of Language Anxiety**

Numerous studies have found that anxiety has debilitating effects on the language learner and was said to be one of the strongest predictors of success in language learning (McIntrye, 1999 in Woodrow, 2006). It has to be noted that one cannot discount the fact that understanding the learner’s apprehensions towards the target language is indeed important in the field of language teaching and learning.

Several research studies have explored the relationship of Language anxiety to language learning. Perhaps the most influential of which was the study by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) in which they proposed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale which became the basis of almost all foreign/second language anxiety studies. As mentioned earlier, they have clearly articulated that language anxiety is a situation-specific anxiety construct, which is largely independent of the other types of anxiety. The FLCAS is a
self-report instrument which elicits responses of anxiety specific to foreign language classroom settings. The results of the study demonstrated that a situation-specific anxiety construct which they called Foreign Language Anxiety was responsible for students’ negative emotional reactions to language learning. According to Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope, this anxiety is attributed to the inherent unfamiliarity associated with immature second language communicative abilities. According to them, adults typically perceive themselves as reasonably intelligent, socially-adept individuals, sensitive to different socio-cultural mores. When communicating using the native language, these assumptions in adults are rarely challenged because it is not usually difficult to understand others or to make oneself understood when using one’s L1 (first language). However, the situation when learning a foreign language is different. As an individual’s communication attempts will be evaluated according to uncertain or even unknown linguistic and socio-cultural standards, second language communication entails taking risks and is necessarily problematic. “Because complex and non-spontaneous mental operations are required in order to communicate, any performance in the L2 (second/target language) is likely to challenge an individual’s self-concept as a competent communicator and lead to reticence, self-consciousness, fear, or even panic” (p. 128).

Another study which explored language anxiety was done by Von Wörde’s (2008) research listed factors which may contribute to language anxiety in learning English and the ways to reduce them. Using the qualitative approach, the researcher posted the questions on the factors that contribute to anxiety, the students’ belief on anxiety as hindrance to language acquisition, the factors that the students believe to reduce anxiety, ways that anxiety manifest on the participants and the language that triggers the most anxiety. There were a total of 15 respondents in this particular study, and Von Wörde (2008) incorporated a 10-item interview questions and Horwitz’s (1986) Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) as instruments in gathering his data. The questions are set to answer inquiries posted by the research, whereas the FLCAS is a standard language anxiety survey used by many research. The findings show several negative experiences from the students, and it mentioned how anxiety is translated to frustration and anger, although they are not
aware of the term language anxiety. The reason for this is anxiety as a lexicon was often interchanged with the words nervousness and frustration. However, most of the participants feel better knowing that others also experience the same way.

Worde’s (2008) study cited several factors that contribute to students’ anxiety such as participating in speaking activities, inability to understand the lessons, and evaluation among others. Peer affiliation or a feeling communal connectedness, classroom set-up and teacher’s role were referred to by the participants as factors that reduce anxiety. His research as a whole is thorough and suggestive since it encompassed language learning anxiety in both mental and physical condition of the participants. It appears that the students were more receptive in answering the face to face interview questions probably because relating and or recalling negative instances relieves them of the pain associated to it. The participants were able to share explicit details without limitation as compared to survey which only captured their replies in categories. The interview allowed the participants to give concrete examples and suggestions from simple to denser ideas such as changes on how textbooks are written etc. The author, however, was unclear in employing tri-language as opposed to one language as vehicle for observation. It was not clearly stated though, whether such anxieties are from a particular language or a general observation to all languages. Although Von Worde’s (2008) study has contributed greatly in understanding how learners perceive language anxiety, other variables (e.g. age, socio-cultural background) which might have some bearing to the results were not clearly discussed.

A similar study also was conducted by Williams and Andrade (2008) in which they examined the anxiety among Japanese EFL students. Their goal was to analyze the situations that provoked language anxiety, the cause of it, and the ability of the students to cope with it. In order to achieve this goal, the researchers administered a survey to 243 randomly selected Japanese students in 31 conversational English classes in six universities in Japan. The findings of this study indicated that most of these Japanese EFL students’ anxiety is associated with processing or output-related tasks, such as speaking in front of the class, especially at the beginning of the course wherein each student is asked to go to the
front and introduce himself. This could be so since talking in front of the class involved processing what to say, and actually delivering it is the output of the task. In addition to this, the study’s findings also indicated that for the students, the cause of anxiety is mostly attributed to the teacher. This could be explained by the fear of the negative evaluation that students felt. Lastly, the findings indicated that though most students thought they could positively influence the situation, an almost the same number of students think they could not influence the situation. According to the researchers, this might mean that majority felt they could do something about the anxiety; yet, they also felt that such action might be ineffective.

There are also studies that combine language anxiety with other factors that affect language learning, and some of these other factors are attitudes and motivation. For example, the instrument used in Gardner’s socio-educational model (the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery) includes a classroom anxiety scale that measures students’ embarrassment or anxiety level within the paradigm of attitudes and motivation. A study on this was done by Hsieh (2007) whose research examined the factors that influence foreign language learning as well as the consideration of the learner’s motivation. The study employed 249 college students learning Spanish, German and French with Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) as instrument with some questions taken originally by the test developed by Gardner, Clément, Smythe, and Smythe (1979). Hsieh also used a self-efficacy test and the final course grade taken from the students’ instructors as measurement for language achievement. These corpora are basis for the comparative analysis of his study. The findings of this study showed that the student’s self-efficacy test as a predictor of the student’s success inside a language classroom, and cemented the initial theory of the researcher himself that students who did not experience anxiety and had a positive attitude towards the foreign language they were taking are successful learners inside the classroom. The study may have incorporated several instruments to prove its theory alluding to make it a complex paper rather than a simple reinforcement of what is deemed obvious. However, even without employing the students’ grade or solely relying to the self-efficacy test, it will result to the prediction that the more the students
are motivated, the bigger the chances that they will be successful in class.

Research on language anxiety also delved on which language macro skill is greatly affected by this seeming affective filter. Liu (2006) conducted a study on anxiety to Chinese undergraduates that are non-English majors at three different proficiency levels. The researcher observed classes and utilized the students’ reflective journals and also conducted interviews to gather the needed data. Results of the study revealed that generally, students are more anxious when speaking and those students who are more proficient in the use of the English language are less anxious when speaking. Moreover, students feel more anxious when talking to their teachers and when they are singled out during recitations.

Anxiety has also been investigated to find out its effects on another language macro skill such as writing. Cheng et al. (1999, in Cheng 2004) surveyed 433 university English majors in Taiwan using three pre-existing instruments: Horowitz et al.’s Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS); the second language version of the Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Test (SLWAT); and a background questionnaire designed to capture demographic and specific language learning history information. In addition, final course grades were used as achievement measurements for comparison. Additional correlations were examined to compare second language classroom anxiety and second language writing anxiety with second language speaking and writing achievement.

As previous studies dealt with college or adult learners, there are other studies that also involved children. One of these studies is by Chan and Wu (2004) that examined the language anxiety among elementary students studying a foreign language. This study had 601 fifth grade students from 205 elementary schools in Taipei County, Taiwan as participants. All of these elementary students answered a questionnaire, though 18 students who were considered as high-anxious students based on their scores in the questionnaires were selected as interviewees. Moreover, the researchers also interviewed nine English teachers. Aside from questionnaires and interviews, classroom observations and document collection were also done by the researchers in this study. Results indicate that, first, there is no doubt of the existence of foreign language anxiety among the
children, and that as previous studies indicated, the level of language anxiety is negatively correlated to learning achievement. Second, the sources of language anxiety include low proficiency, fear of negative evaluation, competition of games, anxious personality, and pressure both from classmates and parents. Third, results also indicated that there are five most dominant anxiety-provoking situations, and these are tests, speaking in front of others, spelling, incomprehensible input, and speaking to native speakers. Fourth, from the teachers and students, both recognized the positive effect of a balance of instructional languages; such balance lessens the anxiety felt by the children. Lastly, this research study indicates that the teachers’ knowledge of the existence of anxiety is not enough to solve the problem of foreign language anxiety.

All these mentioned studies dealt with EFL students studying the foreign language in their own country, and specifically on EFL learners only. Thus, a question arises on how EFL learners feel when they are learning the target language in a foreign country. Moreover, would these EFL learners have the same feelings or experiences with those that are learning the target language as a second language? It is with these arising questions that the present study came about as this study aims to identify the level of language anxiety between two groups of English language learners: the EFL and the ESL.

**ESL vis-à-vis EFL**

MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) presented that both foreign and second language students are susceptible to problems related to anxiety because it can restrict “acquisition, retention and production of new language” (p.86). Further, Zhang (2001) identified that “age, learning and epistemological experiences and other socio-economic factors” are the variables that could attribute to ESL students’ anxiety. He suggested that these factors help the ESL learners on the psychological construct of their learning difficulties. On the other hand, Oxford (1992 in Lucas, 2009) hypothesized that foreign language students in a foreign country would tend to worry about their performance, and the potential loss of one’s cultural identity, and culture shock. One study by Chae (2008) investigated on Korean EFL students’ in the Philippines by using affinity to culture in the context of “grammar differences between English and Korean” and
“being self-conscious” as perceptive causes of difficulties with spoken English on the part of the respondents.

Although there were a limited number of local literatures related to language anxiety, this was compensated by various research studies in other countries particularly the ones written by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986), Worde (2008), Williams and Andrade (2008), Cheng (2004), Liu (2006) and Zulkifi (2007). These mentioned studies focused more on the identification of levels and types of language anxiety experienced by foreign/second language learners, but these studies did not thoroughly delve on what really causes this language phenomenon, and what could be the possible effects of it to the foreign/second language learners. Hence, Worde (2008) conducted a study in which he utilized the FLCAS by Horwitz et al. (1986) to find out factors that contribute to the students’ anxiety. Although Worde’s (2008) study has been significant in terms of its contribution to foreign/second language anxiety, there were some important variables which were not clearly discussed in his paper like age and socio-cultural background which may have affected students’ perception about language anxiety.

Moreover, studies which have explored factors (e. g. motivation, attitude, aptitude) variables that play an important role in learner’s perception of language anxiety, as mentioned earlier, were mostly conducted in other countries and are considered foreign literature. For example, Williams and Andrade (2008) have identified that students usually associate anxiety with processing or output-related tasks such as speaking in front or reporting and most of them attribute their anxiety to their teacher. Further, they have also found out that some students reacted positively to the situation while some are not sure if such action might be effective to reduce levels of anxiety. This means that somehow, students are able to employ some strategies or techniques to help themselves ease the apprehensions they are feeling.

As mentioned earlier, although there might be sufficient foreign literature about language learning anxiety, there still seems to be a scarcity of available and published written materials which would elucidate the status of language learning anxiety in the Philippines (ESL) and how it can be compared with that of EFL
learners. According to Zulkifi (2007), nationality and cultural influences of a certain community are one of the strongest predictors of language anxiety. Horwitz (2001) further intensified that it is important to keep cultural differences in mind when considering the issue of language anxiety. According to Horwitz, “... it is entirely possible that some practices perceived by one group of learners as comfortable may prove stressful for learners from a different cultural group who are used to different types of classroom organizations.” (p. 120) Cultural influences and discrepancies are some of the reasons why the present researchers have decided to pursue the present study. This is to further contribute to the scarce local literature that the Philippine SLA research has at present.

**Framework of the study**

In answering the research questions of this study, the researchers used three frameworks. The first one is the levels of anxiety of foreign language students, which were outlined by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986 in Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2004). These components are (1) communication apprehension, (2) fear of negative evaluation, and (3) general feeling of anxiety towards a foreign language.

In communication apprehension, the learners get apprehensive in using or speaking the target language (a language they are not very familiar) since they are anxious that they may not get the message across properly or may not comprehend others as they converse, and this is attributed to these learners’ limited second language vocabulary. Normally, students who experience communication anxiety would respond positively to questions “I get nervous when I am speaking in a language class” and negatively for questions like “I feel confident when speaking in a language class” (Horwitz et. al., 1986 in Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2004). The second component is fear of negative evaluation. Since the students are not very confident in speaking the target language, they get anxious that they may not make a “proper social impression” (Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2004). In this case, the apprehension that the learner feels is more of the outside factor (i.e., what other people think about him/her than what he/she thinks about him/herself). The third component, which is general feeling of anxiety towards a foreign language, is the “feelings of
apprehension related to other sensations of apprehension akin but not intrinsically linked to communication or fear of negative evaluation” (Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2004). Students with this anxiety would agree with questions, such as “even if I am well prepared for language class, I feel anxious about it” and would disagree with questions, such as “It wouldn’t bother me at all to take more foreign language.”

The second framework is based on Tanveer’s (2007) factors that that affect language learning. These three factors are: “self perceptions”, “instructor’s beliefs about classroom teaching”, and “classroom procedure”. According to Tanveer (2007), the first factor -- “self perceptions” -- pertains to how the individual perceives himself or herself. Anxiety here begins in how students believe in themselves and how they want others to see them. Anxiety begins when these students worry on how people think of them when they use the target language, or how they use the target language in communicating. According to Brandl (1987, in Tanveer, 2007), the second factor -- “Instructor’s belief about classroom teaching” -- is also a source of anxiety when the instructor believes that his role in the classroom is merely to correct students’ mistakes, rather than to facilitate students learning when these students commit mistakes. Further, it is emphasized that though students know that their mistakes should be corrected, they become anxious on the manner that their errors are being corrected. Lastly, the third factor -- “classroom procedure” -- is about how the language classes are conducted. According to Tanveer (2007), “different activities in the classroom procedure, particularly the ones that demand students to speak in front of the whole class, have been found to be the most anxiety provoking” (p. 18). Moreover, students become more anxious when they are called individually, rather than by pair or by group.

The third framework is a combination of Tanveer (2007) and Williams and Andrade (2008). As the third research question addresses the issue on the effect of language anxiety to the learning process, Tanveer (2007) gave definitions of the three stages of language learning: Input, Processing, and Output; on the other hand, Williams & Andrade (2008) gave a sample categorization of participants’ answers as to which learning stage they affect.

According to Tanveer (2007),
Language anxiety has been theorized to occur at all the three stages of language learning: input, processing and output. The description of these three stages with relation to anxiety will point out why L2/FL learners make mistakes and the reasons of linguistic difficulties L2/FL learners face in learning and using the target language. This can offer an insight to help understand anxiety experienced while communicating in the target language (p. 19).

First stage is Input, which activates the “Language Acquisition Device” or LAD. This device is innate in the brain, which carries out the further process of language learning. Anxiety at this stage refers to “the anxiety experienced by the learners when they encounter a new word or phrase in the target language. Input anxiety is receiver’s apprehension when receiving information from auditory and visual clues” (Tanveer, 2007, p.20). Second stage is Processing. Anxiety at this stage refers to the “apprehension students experience when performing cognitive operations on new information” (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000 in Tanveer, 2007). The last stage is Output where anxiety occurs while communicating in the target language. “Anxiety at the output stage refers to learners’ nervousness or fear experienced when required to demonstrate their ability to use previously learned material (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000 in Tanveer, 2007, p. 23). Further, anxiety at this stage might hinder the students’ ability to speak in the target language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 2000 in Tanveer, 2007, p. 23).

Hypothesis and Research Questions

Together with this model, the researchers also derived their investigation from Casado and Dereshiwnsky (2001) study on the effects of learning anxiety to foreign language students and Kondo’s (2005) research on language anxiety as a predictor for English proficiency and its change. For this paper, the researchers hypothesize that the most dominant type of language anxiety for EFL is the Fear of Negative Evaluation, especially on how people perceive their linguistic competency, which may affect their output stage of language learning. As for ESL learners, the dominant type would more likely be General Feeling of Anxiety, such as failing the subject
or thinking of other things while in their English class, which may affect their processing stage of language learning.

The researchers conducted this study because they believe language anxiety is one of the factors that hinder their students – both ESL and EFL – from learning the target language fully. In doing so, the findings by which the researchers would gather hope to result in a thorough understanding and comparison on language learning anxiety within the context of EFL and ESL learners.

With this goal in mind, these are the questions that the study would like to address:
1. What are the common language anxieties experienced by EFL and ESL learners?
2. What are the causes of these language learning anxieties?
3. What are the effects of these language anxieties on language learning?

Methodology

Research Design

This research study is descriptive in nature which focused only on the identification and comparison of the different language anxieties experienced by ESL and EFL learners. The study also deals with the analysis as to what causes these anxieties and as to what language process is greatly affected by these anxieties. Moreover, descriptive statistics is also applied, attaining only the mean and standard deviation as the questionnaire administered to the respondents used the five-point Likert Scale.

Participants and Setting

A total of 42 Filipino and foreign language learners studying in a Manila based university and an EFL school in Quezon City is the sample groups for the study. For the ESL respondents, a class of 20 Filipino engineering freshman students enrolled in Basic English Communication classes was chosen with ages 15-18 years old. As for the EFL respondents, the researchers administered the questionnaire to 20 Korean students whose ages vary from 21-30 years old. Half of the EFL respondents are university students in Korea who are either in their 3rd year or last year in their respective courses in college (i.e.
engineering, Library Science, Management and Tourism) whereas the other half are working professionals with the intention of studying English in the Philippines. The EFL respondents were randomly selected and they are from Levels 3, 4, and 5 (i.e. intermediate and advanced levels based on the Institutional Assessment/Evaluation Tests given every month). These levels were chosen as students enrolled here would not have difficulty reading the questionnaire.

The surveys were administered during the respondents’ English classes so as to make them feel the “English classroom atmosphere” while answering the questionnaire, and in doing so, they could genuinely assess themselves whether they experience some anxiety or not.

**Instrument**

This study used a questionnaire which has two parts: the 33-item Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) survey developed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) and the 2-item questionnaire adapted from Williams and Andrade (2008). Worde (2008) states that FLCAS aim is to develop and capture the specific essence of foreign language anxiety in a classroom setting and to provide investigators with a standard measure thru a self-report measure, scored on a five-point Likert Scale, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. The basis for FLCAS is Horwitz, et. al’s (1986) analysis of potential sources of anxiety in a language classroom. It integrates three related anxieties, namely, communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation and general feeling of anxiety. The second part of the questionnaire was administered to answer the second and third research questions which attempt to answer the causes of language anxiety and the language process that is most affected by this anxiety.

For the Korean EFL respondents, the FLCAS was translated in their native language so as to ensure that they really understand the test questions for the researchers to get valid results. It was done by a Korean national who has been a Research Analyst and acts as interpreter and translator for some bank officers at the Industrial Bank of Korea. The Korean translated version of the FLCAS was also used for an unpublished theses work about foreign language anxiety; thus, ensuring its validity with regards to the translated content.
Procedure

The two sample groups were administered with the adapted survey during their respective morning and afternoon English classes. For the Filipino ESL students, the survey was administered on August 13, 2009 and accomplished it in 15 minutes. The researchers administered the survey to the Korean EFL respondents from Quezon City the day after and were able to accomplish it in 30 minutes.

After the survey was administered, the researchers tallied the respondents’ answers on the 33-item first part of the questionnaire. The researchers then, with the help of a statistician, analyzed the dominant anxiety felt by the ESL and EFL respondents. As for the second part of the questionnaire, the researchers categorized and analyzed the respondents’ answers using the frameworks of Tanveer (2007) and Williams & Andrade (2008).

Method of Analysis

For the statistical method employed by the researchers for the item analyses of the data, the means and standard deviation were computed. After getting the mean and the standard deviation for each statement, the interpretation was based on the following scheme:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Interpretation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.20 – 5.00</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.40 – 4.19</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.60 – 3.39</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.80 – 2.59</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.00 – 1.79</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To answer the first research question, the 33 statements were categorized according to the three levels of anxieties by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986 in Casado & Dereshiwsky, 2004). These components are (1) communication apprehension, (2) fear of negative evaluation, and (3) general feeling of anxiety towards a foreign language. The students’ responses were tallied and analyzed using the scheme above to determine the interpretation according to the 5-
point Likert Scale; for example, if the overall interpretation for statement 1 is Strongly Agree, Agree, Neutral, Disagree, or Strongly Disagree. Then, to interpret whether there is anxiety or not, an interpretation from Al-Sibai was used. Adapted from her study, an interpretation of Agree or Strongly Agree for questions 1, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 29, 30, 31, 33 for would indicate some level of anxiety. Then, interpretation of Disagree or Strongly Disagree for questions 2, 5, 8, 11, 14, 18, 22, 28, 32 would indicate some level of anxiety. Overall mean and standard deviation was also computed per level of anxiety to determine the consensus of the respondents regarding that level.

For the second question, the answers of the respondents were also analyzed using the frameworks of Tanveer (2007) and Williams and Andrade (2008). The analysis for the second research question is based on Tanveer’s (2007) factors that affect language learning. These three factors are: “self perceptions”, “instructor’s beliefs about classroom teaching”, and “classroom procedure”. Then, for the third research question, a combination of Tanveer (2007) and Williams & Andrade (2008) which presented the three stages of language learning that might be affected by language anxiety was used. These language processes are the Input, Processing, and Output. The elicited responses from the students on part II of the questionnaire were analyzed and classified according to what language process is most affected of their perceived language anxiety. As there were three researchers, each analyzed the answers of the students. Afterwards, analyses were compared, discussed, and finalized.

Results and Discussion

What are the common language anxieties for ESL and EFL learners?

From the tallied data, each statement in the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) was categorized according to the three levels of anxiety: communication apprehension, fear of negative evaluation, and general feeling of anxiety. Furthermore, the descriptive statistics was conducted (mean and standard deviation) for every statement from which the interpretation was based.

For both ESL and EFL learners, the overall interpretation in their levels of anxiety is neutral, as presented in the table below:
As can be seen, everything is neutral for the ESL learners; however, taking a closer look at the standard deviations for ESL learners, their Fear of Negative Evaluation and General Feeling of Anxiety have large values. This means that the ESL learners’ perception of Neutral is not very close to the respective means. In the Fear of Negative Evaluation, whose mean is almost 3.0 and a standard deviation of close to 0.5, this could have a high probability of having statements that are clearly answered by “Agree” or “Disagree” using the scheme of 3.40–4.19 Agree and 1.80–2.59 Disagree. Then, in the General Feeling of Anxiety, in which the mean is a little more than 3.0 and a standard deviation of 0.7, there is a possibility of having a “Strongly Agree” as the consensus of the students, using the same scheme. In contrast, the EFL learners answered straightforwardly that they disagree in experiencing any anxiety in their English classes.

To investigate further, a closer look on the three levels of language anxiety would illustrate how these ESL and EFL learners truly feel towards English language learning. The first anxiety as mentioned earlier is about communication – the anxiety experienced when talking with classmates or with teachers using the target language, English. The statements and their respective interpretations are summarized in Table 2.
Table 2
Communication Apprehension of ESL and EFL Learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>ESL learners</th>
<th>EFL learners</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.</td>
<td>1.026</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 I tremble when I know that I'm going to be asked to speak in English class.</td>
<td>1.234</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 I am afraid when I don't understand what the teacher is saying in the English class.</td>
<td>1.021</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in English class.</td>
<td>1.348</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.</td>
<td>1.240</td>
<td>2.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 I will not be nervous when speaking with native English speakers.</td>
<td>1.099</td>
<td>3.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 I feel confident when I speak in English class.</td>
<td>0.933</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 I feel my heart pounding when I am going to be</td>
<td>1.040</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen in Table 2, 100% of all ESL students are neutral with their feelings regarding communication comprehension. According to Holbrook (1987), this anxiety is the individual’s level of fear associated with either real or anticipated communication with others. With the results presented above, it could be implied that Filipino ESL learners, in general, do not acknowledge that they feel fear nor do they deny that they feel fear when talking with their classmates or teachers in English. For instance in the first statement: “I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class”, in which agreeing to this statement would reveal an anxiety on their part, and disagreeing would show their confidence on themselves. With the mean of exactly 3.0, the general feeling of Filipino ESL learners is neutral, meaning, they neither show any anxiety nor are they showing any confidence. On one hand, it could be that as they have been exposed to the English language since they were children, these learners might think that they should not feel
anxiety when using the target language; on the other hand, as they are still first year college students and are still in the beginning of their career, expressing confidence might be too bold for their age. Either that, or it could be that they are humble enough not to show off their ability in using spoken English. More than anything else, the researchers agree that as the statements for communicative apprehension deal with spoken interaction between teachers and students inside the classroom, it has crossed the minds of the researchers that as these learners have been inside English classrooms or have been exposed to English classes since they entered the academe, these learners are very used to these situations that they could be very familiar with interactions using the English language, thus experiencing neutrality over the said situations.

In comparison to ESL, the EFL learners are more certain with their answers: they agree that they are confident when they speak (referring to responses to statements 14 and 18) and they disagree that they are shy or that they get nervous (referring to negative responses for statements 1, 3, 9, 13, 20, 24, 25, and 33). However, it is interesting to note that they are neutral when the situation pertains to their comprehension of what is being said. In contrast to the aforementioned statements, statements 4 and 29 deal with the teachers talking and the students listening and understanding the message. In these two statements, the EFL students neither agree nor disagree. These results seem to show that EFL students disagree that they feel anxiety when they are the productive members of a speaking activity, meaning, when they are the ones who are using the language; yet, they do not show any feelings when they are receptive members, meaning, when they are the ones receiving and understanding language.

The second level of anxiety, Fear of Negative Evaluation, is explained as the feeling associated with performance, that is, having this fear means one is anxious on how other people perceive him or her when he or she uses the target language, which in this case is English. Moreover, Fear of Negative Evaluation is when students feel that other people are better than they are; thus, they feel afraid that they might commit mistakes and end up being embarrassed in the class. This is shown in Table 3 below.
### Table 3
Fear of Negative Evaluation of ESL learners and EFL Learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>ESL learners</th>
<th>EFL learners</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2  I don't worry about making mistakes in English class.</td>
<td>1.293</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>0.971</td>
<td>2.09</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  I think that my classmates' English is better than mine.</td>
<td>1.147</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>1.058</td>
<td>2.87</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  I am usually at ease during tests in my class.</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1.167</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 I get depressed when I don't understand what the teacher is correcting.</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1.287</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 I am afraid that my English teacher will correct every mistake I make.</td>
<td>1.170</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>0.790</td>
<td>1.64</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 The more I prepare for an English test, the more confused I get.</td>
<td>0.887</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0.950</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 I always feel that my classmates speak better English than I.</td>
<td>1.095</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>1.054</td>
<td>2.60</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I am afraid that my classmates will laugh at me when I speak English.

As can be seen from the table, despite the general feeling of neutral, there are two out of the eight statements that have positive answers from the ESL learners:

Statement #7: I think that my classmates’ English is better than mine.
Statement #23: I always feel that my classmates speak better English than I.

These two statements imply that ESL students always compare themselves with their classmates. This could probably be caused by the fact that they have been studying English since elementary. Moreover, as these ESL students belong to one of the prominent schools in the Philippines, they could have assumed that they all have the same background in learning and acquiring the English language. Thus, a small mistake, especially in the pronunciation would be very embarrassing. In addition to this, as to what have been observed in the Philippines, when a person’s pronunciation is bad, he or she is immediately labeled as ‘Bisaya’ – a person from the central part of the Philippines who speaks any of the Visayan languages. On the other hand, as these students are freshmen and they graduated from different high schools, there might be a feeling of insecurity from most students who graduated from schools outside Metro Manila.

Another interesting finding from the table is statement 21, “The more I prepare for an English test, the more confused I get”. This, again, could probably be a result to having been learning English since early childhood or elementary years, that English lessons have been so familiar. Students have been complacent with the feeling that they have learned so much in the past that having another English class is too easy. These learners felt that in their early schooling they have learned enough grammar (which is a key in conjugating in the intended language); thus, they felt that they can confidently express themselves in English. But these are not enough
as every learning stage in a student’s life has different needs in preparation for another rank. In the tertiary level, the expectations of the teachers are geared towards preparing students to be part of the work force. Lessons such as required essays, ranging from static, process, to argumentative essays, are taught. Then, as these essays were asked as outputs, these students tend to approach these lessons the same way they have approached their secondary English lessons; one approach could be memorization. Now, taking for example this approach on memorization, the more they memorize structures in writing, there is a high tendency these students would become confused.

As for the EFL learners, based from the table, their answers range from Neutral to Strongly Disagree, and it is interesting to note that there are two statements responded with Strongly Disagree. These two statements pertain to the reactions of their classmates and their teacher when they are speaking in English. On the side of the classmates, it seems that these EFL learners are confident that their classmates are not in the position to laugh at them since these classmates are fellow Koreans; and being Koreans, they know that public criticisms and laughing at each other are considered impolite as the one being criticized of the one being laughed at would definitely lose face (*Korean business and culture*, 2009). As for the teachers correcting them when they speak, it seems that they are not afraid because such reactions are expected. For them, it could be that a correction from the teachers is not to be perceived negatively; thus, it is not considered a situation in which anxiety arises. A second thing to note on this table is the presence of two responses that are Neutral. In contrast to Table 3 of ESL learners, EFL learners do not show their opinion on the subject of their classmates being better than they are. This could be that they do not want to be put in the position of judging others, and in turn, judging themselves also; thus, they rather stick in the middle because either way, they lose face. Moreover, like the ESL learners, these EFL learners are also neutral in their feeling when taking the exam. This could probably mean that EFL learners are used to taking exams in English.

The third level of anxiety is General Feeling of Anxiety which pertains to the students’ general perception of English as a language and as a subject. Results are shown in Table 4 below:
### Table 4
**General Feeling of Anxiety of ESL learners and EFL Learners**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>ESL learners</th>
<th>EFL learners</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5  It wouldn't bother me at all to take more English classes.</td>
<td>0.988</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>1.260</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  In English classes, I think of things that are unrelated to the lesson.</td>
<td>0.786</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1.120</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 I worry about the consequences of failing my English class.</td>
<td>0.933</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>1.090</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 I don’t understand why some people get so upset over English class.</td>
<td>0.716</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1.214</td>
<td>2.96</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 In English class, I am so nervous that I forget what I know.</td>
<td>1.234</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1.225</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 Even if I am well prepared for English class, I feel anxious about it.</td>
<td>0.889</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>0.935</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 I often feel like not going to my English class.</td>
<td>0.912</td>
<td>2.10</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1.435</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 I don’t feel pressure to prepare very well for English class.</td>
<td>0.979</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1.232</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 English class moves so quickly that I worry about getting left behind.</td>
<td>0.826</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1.077</td>
<td>2.27</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 I feel tenser and have more pressure in English class than in other classes.</td>
<td>1.356</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1.037</td>
<td>2.14</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From this table on General Feeling of Anxiety, it is very interesting to note that the ESL students strongly agree on the feeling of worrying about the consequences of failing their English classes (statement 10). The most probable scenario is that they need to retake the English class, and may result in being delayed in their course work. In another perspective, it could also mean that they might be embarrassed that they failed English class, a class that they have been taking since they were very young. It seems that English class is perceived to be very familiar and that failing it could be an embarrassment. In addition, the students agree that they still feel anxiety despite their preparations. This could be associated with their fear of negative evaluation, afraid of being embarrassed as their classmates are better than they are.

As for the EFL learners, from this table, it is interesting to note two things. First, these EFL learners are excited to have more classes. This is shown in the general agreement on statement 5. This could also possibly explain why these EFL learners have even come to the Philippines to study English. Second, these EFL learners express their strong disagreement on the statement about their being anxious even well prepared. This could mean that these students know what their objectives in studying are, and that it is necessary for them to prepare English class. Moreover, as they are well prepared, they are confident with what they do and what they have.

What are the causes of these language learning anxieties?
This question was asked with the hypotheses that both groups of respondents would have language learning anxieties. However, results have indicated that only the ESL learners have anxieties in the levels Fear of Negative Evaluation and General Feeling of Anxiety. What became more interesting is the result that when both groups were asked who could have been responsible for these fears, majority of both the EFL and the ESL learners answered themselves. The rest of the results are in Figure 1 below.

As emphasized in the bar graph, both ESL and EFL perceive themselves as the primary cause for the anxiety that they feel. For the case of ESL learners, this explains their anxiety that their classmates are better than they are. Moreover, it explains that when they are about to present, the anxiety still comes from their self-perceived linguistic competency. As the result in Table 5 above, ESL students are still anxious even when they are prepared; thus, it is not the materials nor the activity that causes their anxiety, but their own selves whom they rate as not so well in speaking English.

An interesting result as presented in Figure 1 is the answers of the EFL students’ to the question, *Who is responsible for this language anxiety?* In the FLCAS, EFL learners had a consensus that they disagree that they feel anxious when they speak using the English language. For instance, they disagreed to these following statements:

- Statement #1: I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my English class.
- Statement #3: I tremble when I know that I’m going to be asked to speak in English class.
- Statement #2: I don’t worry about making mistakes in English class.
Statement #12: In English class, I am so nervous that I forget what I know.

Yet, from Figure 1, the EFL learners perceive themselves as the ones responsible for the language anxiety that they feel. This incongruence of answers – not having any anxiety from the FLCAS results and the self-perception source of anxiety – could be a result of EFL learners’ pride or perhaps it has something to do with their age and their status in society (e.g. being a professional). Since most of the EFL respondents’ ages vary from 21-30 years old, it could be implied that, as mature individuals, they are expected to handle their emotions accordingly; hence, there might have been a possible suppression of whatever anxiety they might feel or feelings they might want to express. This was done perhaps to comply with the society’s perception of professionals as ‘experts’ in their respective fields and having flaws such as admitting to have language anxieties might cause them to lose their ‘face’ or public self-image. Nonetheless, the incongruence of the results for the EFL responses might be interpreted as to how they view language anxiety in which according to the EFL respondents, oneself is the primary cause of this kind of anxiety. This may not exactly mean that they are experiencing such kind of anxiety, but perhaps, based on their past experiences or what they have heard or seen from others; anxiety is usually caused by oneself.

What language process is most affected with the dominant anxiety among ESL and EFL learners?

In this study, when a language learner experience anxiety, his or her language learning process may be affected, which as a result the output could be poor linguistic competency. Below is Figure 2 that shows which language process is mostly affected by the anxiety that ESL and EFL experience.
As can be seen in figure 2, the most affected language process for both EFL and ESL learners is the output. According to Onwuegbuzie et al. (2000, in Tanveer 2007, p. 23), “Anxiety at the output stage refers to learners’ nervousness or fear experienced when required to demonstrate their ability to use previously learned material”. In the second part of the questionnaire where both the ESL and EFL respondents needed to answer and describe a situation or event in which they felt anxiety in an English conversation class.

Examples:

1. When I had to be an actor, I felt nervous. For example, acting as a role, but it is not a big deal (EFL)

2. In one group report in Englcom when I have to defend my answer otherwise our group loses points. Since I am the one representing my group for that time, I really felt nervous and unsure of what I’m going to say (ESL)

Example 1 is a manifestation of anxiety which affected the EFL learner’s linguistic output in a role play. The act of performing using the target language instigated anxiety on the part of the learner which then might also have affected his/her performance. Furthermore, Example 2 shows how anxiety may have an effect as regards the learner’s output as part of the language learning process. The ESL learner became anxious which then made her unsure of what she was going to say. According to MacIntyre & Gardner, (2000 in Tanveer, 2007, p. 23), anxiety at the output stage might hinder the students’ ability to speak in the target language.

Referring back to figure 2, it is important to note that the EFL respondents did not indicate any instance in their language class in which the linguistic input might have affected their learning process.
Moreover, some of the EFL respondents made no comments or indicated that they do not have anxiety at all. This result is in accordance with the results in the first part of the questionnaire which is the FLCAS in which most of them disagree as to having language anxiety.

The other language processes that were affected by language anxiety of ESL and EFL learners are the input and processing.

Examples:
1. During impromptu speech in 3rd year high school English class because I was totally caught off guard by the question (ESL)
2. In our debate where I can’t express details much where I also felt very embarrassed (ESL)

According to Tanveer (2007, p.20), input anxiety is receiver’s apprehension when receiving information from auditory and visual clues. In example 3, the teacher’s question is the linguistic input which then caused anxiety to the learner. Example 4 is an instance given as a response by an ESL learner which reveals anxiety affecting the language processing of the learner. Apprehension in processing happens when a learner performs cognitive operations on new information (Onwuegbuzie et al., 2000 in Tanveer, 2007) and this new information could not be well-grasped by the learner.

**Conclusion and Recommendation**

This study aimed to identify, compare, analyze, and understand the similarities and differences of ESL and EFL learners’ language anxieties. Further, this study wanted to investigate the probable causes of the anxiety, and which language process it might or could affect mostly. In the results, the hypothesis that ESL learners will experience a General Feeling of Anxiety which would affect the output was only partially proven true. It was found that ESL learners have an indication of language anxiety on the Fear of Negative Evaluation and General Feeling of Anxiety, and these levels of anxiety have affected their output. As for EFL learners whom the researchers hypothesized to experience Fear of Negative Evaluation which would affect their output was proven incorrect as the results from the FLCAS survey to EFL learners indicated no level of language...
anxiety. However, both groups of respondents answered that they view their selves to be responsible for the language anxiety they experience. With this admission, despite the disagreement in the FLCAS survey, researchers deduced that EFL learners do still experience language anxiety.

Since the findings show that ESL students have a slight anxiety on the Fear of Negative Evaluation and General Feeling of Anxiety, this means that ESL students worry on how others perceive them and how English affects their daily activities. Because of these worries, these ESL students suffer having a low self-perception, which result in a negative effect on the output process of language learning. With this knowledge, educators should assuage their ESL learners’ fears, guide them through their anxiety, and help them increase their self-esteem through good qualitative feedback. Worde (2003) suggests that, for starters, the classroom should have a relaxed atmosphere. Students should not be intimidated with activities and instructors should initiate motivation settings before a learning activity. Worde (2003) also includes the incorporation of topics that are related to the students’ current interest. This may be challenging on the part of teacher since some students’ interests do not usually conform to academic requirements as such the educator may just simplify concepts and apply them on practical usage.

In the case of the EFL students, the teacher’s main focus should be to eliminate the low self-perception of these students. To achieve this, it would be better for these teachers to refer to the cultural background of the learner. Discussing any links from their heritage makes the learners feel accepted and respected for their background. Every student needs affirmation or acceptance to foster a sense of a conducive and a friendly learning environment. Worde (2003) also suggests that the manner in which activities are delivered in the case of assignments, seatworks, and others should be in written form be it on the blackboard or white board instead of dictation. This manner instigates frustrations among the learners since the language is difficult for them and the delivery (tone and accents) compounds to their dilemma. Anxiety stems from every factor, be it human-, event-, or situation-caused, but at the end of the day, it is one’s personal belief that eliminates such problems.
In addition, teachers should also be aware of the tools or other avenues where students are most comfortable writing. They may ask students to use blog sites and other networking sites to post their written works aside from the traditional pen and paper. In a study by Fageeh (2011 in Cequena & Gustilo, 2012) showed that students perceived the use of weblogs as an effective tool for self-expression in English. Aside from this, students should also be encouraged to keep their class writing outputs online to monitor their progress in English writing. Cequena and Gustilo’s (2012) study on the reduction of writing anxiety through weblogs revealed how e-portfolio using blogs have improved the writing skills of the students and have also lessened their anxiety.

As this study is limited only to the identification, comparison, and analyses of the language anxieties of ESL and EFL learners, the researchers would recommend other research on the relationship of language anxiety and oral linguistic competency of ESL and EFL learners. In another perspective, it would also be interesting to know the relationship between language anxiety and teaching styles or strategies.

References


**About the Authors**

Alice Mae A. Mamhot, Maria Hannah V. Martin and Elaine M. Masangya are faculty members of the Department of English and Applied Linguistics, of De La Salle University – Manila, where they also finished their MA in Teaching English Language. Further correspondence may be addressed to the authors at De La Salle University: 2401 Taft Avenue, Malate, 1004 Manila, Philippines. Tel. Nos: (632) 524-4611 (direct line)

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The Significance of Language Exposure with Writing Self-Efficacy and Writing Apprehension of Filipino ESL Writers

Jose Cristina M. Parina and Kristine de Leon
De La Salle University Manila

Abstract

The study investigated the relationship of English language exposure, writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy of 64 college students taking up academic writing. Instruments used were the language exposure questionnaire, the writing apprehension test or WAT by Daly-Miller, which was used in the study of Erkan and Saban (2011), and the self-efficacy in writing scale questionnaire (SWS) by YaVuz-Erkan (2004, as cited in Erkan & Saban, 2011). Pearson r was utilized in the analysis of the relationship of the mentioned variables and results of the study show that first, exposure and self-efficacy are moderately correlated, which means that the respondents who have more access or exposure to the target language felt more confident in their writing outputs. Second, the exposure and self-apprehension are not correlated, which means that apprehension is possible despite high exposure to the language. Lastly, writing self-efficacy and writing apprehension are inversely correlated, which means that the higher the self-efficacy, the lower the apprehension and vice versa.

Keywords: Language Acquisition, Language Exposure, Writing Skills, Writing Self-efficacy, Writing Apprehension

Introduction

Various studies have been done on how one acquires and comprehends a language simply because contradicting views are involved. “Various aspects of the nature of L1 and L2 acquisition were examined, compared, and contrasted and the results from these comparisons and contrasts have valuable implications for language teachers which can help them to design their syllabuses, teaching processes, and classroom activities” (Ipek, 2009, p. 155). Yet, despite the challenges of each theory (The Behaviorist, The Chomskian, and The Interactionist Theories, to name a few), there is one principle...
agreed upon by many researchers, and that is, acquiring a language requires a certain amount of exposure to the target language (Escamilla & Grassi, 2000). In fact, Ipek (2009) even claimed that a silent period during one’s exposure to the target language is necessary.

Exposure in a language is considered successful when the learner can already produce the language. In fact, Lightbrown and Spada (2006) claimed that language acquisition theories emphasize the importance of interacting with others in broader social context. This production may either be in spoken or in written form. But of the two, writing is the skill considered to be essential to academic success. It requires thinking strategies and is a complex activity that requires a certain level of linguistics knowledge (Erkan & Saban, 2011). According to Mohamed and Darus (2012), writing is an important skill whereby learners are able to progress independently to a higher level of intellectual maturity, especially in the case of language learning. In addition, “learning to write fluently and expressively are the most difficult of the macro skills for all language users regardless of whether the language in question is a first, second or foreign language” (p. 182).

As mentioned, though speaking and writing are both used to communicate, this paper has chosen to test the writing skills. Aside from the reasons stated in the previous paragraph, there is also a growing interest in linguistic accuracy in relation to L2 writing pedagogy. In fact, linguistic accuracy is considered a relevant construct in “L2 writing assessment and L2 writing pedagogy” (Polio, 1997, p. 102). In addition, writing is considered varied “with context and cannot be distilled down to a set of abstract cognitive or technical abilities (Hyland, 2007, p. 150). This even becomes more complex when writing in a second language in the academic context (Myles, 2002).

Language exposure plays a big role in the learner’s language production. It has been documented that exposure can immediately develop a target language and that language comprehension can be a result of social interaction with speakers of the target language (Peregoy & Boyle, 2005). Yet, a decent amount of exposure may be affected by one’s apprehension and self-efficacy, especially in writing. According to Faigley, Daly, and Witte (1981), writing apprehension makes people avoid writing or find writing burdensome, and this
reflects on their written products. Self-efficacy, on the other hand is the individuals’ beliefs in their abilities to perform a task and this is believed to be an important variable in predicting learners’ performance (Bandura, 1986). It is also claimed to mediate in learners’ aptitude, past achievements, and subsequent performances (Bandura, 2006). Thus, writing self-efficacy, is one’s self belief in his/her ability to write, which may enhance his/her writing performance.

The relationship between writing and apprehension and self-efficacy has been investigated in numerous studies. To cite a few, Ajileye (1998) studied the effect of English exposure to English activities. In this study, she concluded that language exposure outside the students’ classroom has a positive effect on the writing performances of the students. Atkinson (2010), on the other hand, conducted a study on writing apprehension and academic beliefs. He found out that there is no correlation between writing apprehension and stress and coping behaviors, low negative correlation between writing apprehension and beliefs on academic work evaluation for self-responsibility, and low negative correlation between writing apprehension and rational beliefs.

Another study by Shawish and Atea (2010) was conducted to investigate on Palestinian EFL majors’ writing apprehension. They found out that high achievers have high writing apprehension compared to low achievers. Another study, by Erkan and Saban (2011), shows that writing performance is directly affected by writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy. Similarly, a local study by Magno, de Carvalho, Lajom, Bunagan, and Regodon (2009) examined Taiwanese college students in Taiwan and in the Philippines. Results of their study confirmed that Taiwanese students in the Philippines get more exposure to the English language, making them acquire a higher English proficiency level. The most recent study on writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy is the study of Singh and Rajalingham (2012). Their study, conducted in Malaysia, investigated writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy as variables affecting writing proficiency level. All of these studies confirm the statement of Harmer (1998, as cited in Guerrero, 2012) that “if students get enough exposure to language and opportunities for its use, then language learning will take care of itself” (p. 13).
Writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy, as discussed previously, are two factors that could affect a students’ writing despite the amount of exposure. Thus, this study explored whether language exposure has a relationship with these two factors in an ESL setting, specifically university students studying in the Philippines.

It is acknowledged that a lot of factors could contribute to writing apprehension and self efficacy. Stress, coping behaviors, or a students’ sense of control over, and responsibility for his or her academic progress (Atkinson, 2010) are just a few influencing factors. But, as mentioned in the literature, exposure is the strongest variable, and so, this research has chosen to explore the link between exposure and writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy. The research questions are as follows:

RQ 1: Is there a relationship between language exposure and writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy?
RQ 2: Is there a relationship between writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy?

The quantitative method of the study tested the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant relationship between language exposure and writing self-efficacy.
Hypothesis 2: There is a significant relationship between language exposure and writing apprehension.
Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy.
Or
There is a significant relationship among language exposure, writing self-efficacy, and writing apprehension.

Methodology

This study has 64 respondents who were college freshman students of De La Salle University currently taking up English communication at the time of the study. Among these 64 students, 24 are males and 40 are females. These students were given three sets of Likert scale type of questionnaires. The first one is the language
exposure questionnaire, the writing apprehension test or WAT by Daly and Miller, which was found highly reliable and valid by previous studies. Please refer to Appendix A. This questionnaire “has been used in a previous work dealing with self- esteem and career preference. It has performed admirably as a baseline for work with written communication apprehension (Atkinson, 2010, p.11).”

The writing self-efficacy in writing scale (SWS) was by YaVuz-Erkan (2004, as cited in Erkan & Saban, 2011) is the third instrument used in this study (Appendix A). SWS was used to assess the students’ self-efficacy in writing. SWS is a 21-item writing self-efficacy scale to grade the strength of subjects’ belief in their writing ability. The items of the scale were graded with the four-tier system Likert scale (p. 174).”

To ensure that the students would answer the questionnaires, all of these questionnaires were administered inside a classroom during their English communication class. To know what the students felt about writing, the researchers asked 10 students to write an essay about their experiences and learning in their writing class to further support the results of the study. After gathering the data, Pearson r was used in analyzing the relationship of language exposure, writing apprehension, and writing self-efficacy using SPSS.

Results and Discussion

The data which were analyzed using Pearson r were presented in the tables that follow while the qualitative analysis of the open-ended questions by the respondents was also presented to supplement and strengthen the quantitative analysis.

The first relationship examined, as shown in Table 1, was the relationship between language exposure and writing self-efficacy. As seen in the table, the computed $r$ between language exposure and writing self-efficacy is .318. The significant value is .010, which is lesser than the significant level of (p<0.05). This implies a moderate relationship between language exposure and writing self-efficacy. With this, the researchers accept Hypothesis 1. Thus, there is a relationship between these two variables. Apparently, the respondents who were exposed more to the target language felt more
confident in their writing outputs. Based on the questionnaire, most of the students answered that (1) they are exposed to English at school because the medium of instruction here in the Philippines is English and that they are exposed to it through media. Also, (2) they usually watch movies and TV shows in English and they usually read information or books in English, too. With these exposures, they assumed that since English is everywhere within their reach, writing is not as difficult to accomplish.

Table 1
Correlation between Language Exposure and Writing Self-Efficacy

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<tr>
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<th>Language Exposure</th>
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<td><strong>Language_Exposure</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.318**</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>.010</td>
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<td>N</td>
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*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 2
Correlation between Language Exposure and Writing Apprehension

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<tr>
<td><strong>Language_Exposure</strong></td>
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<td>Pearson Correlation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-.0212</td>
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<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>.092</td>
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<td><strong>Writing_Apprehension</strong></td>
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</table>

The second relationship examined was the relationship between language exposure and writing apprehension. While language exposure and writing self-efficacy have a significant relationship, the two variables in Table 2 do not have significance at all. As can be seen in the table, the coefficient correlation between language exposure and writing apprehension is -0.213, and the p value is 0.092 which is greater than the significant level (p>0.05). Therefore, the second hypothesis was rejected. Thus, it appears that, the high exposure to the language does not affect the writing apprehension of the respondents. This is similar with the findings of the study of Pajares and Johnson (1994).

Since Table 1 shows that there is a significant relationship between language exposure and writing self-efficacy, while Table 2 shows no significant relationship between language exposure and writing apprehension, the researchers decided to investigate if there is a relationship between writing apprehension and writing efficacy. The result is shown in Table 3.

Table 3  
Correlation between Writing Apprehension and Writing Self-efficacy
Results in Table 3 display that writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy are inversely correlated. As shown, $r=-0.748$ and $p$-value=0.000. These are less than the significant level ($p<0.01$), which signifies a strong significant inverse relationship between writing apprehension and writing self-efficacy. This implies that when one variable goes up, the other goes down. Thus, in the case of the variables in Table 3, the high writing apprehension of the respondents obtained a low writing self-efficacy. Thus, the third hypothesis is accepted because, though the relationship is considered inverse, they still influence each other. According to properties of $r$, if the value is close to the lower limit of -1, a strong negative relationship is present (Peck & DeVore, 2011).

To substantiate the qualitative analysis, selected students were instructed to write about their experiences and learning in their writing classes. They indicated that writing in college was terrifying at first and they were apprehensive when first introduced with the parameters of academic writing. Atkinson (2010) mentioned the same when he claimed that “students expect to do poorly and tend to do so because their inability to cope with the associated stress does not allow them sufficient practice of the craft (p. 1).” But the respondents
of this study changed their opinion when they were exposed to different writing materials and activities. But this generalization was not observed in all the chosen respondents. There were those who stated that (1) *I think I do not know how to properly write* and another who claimed that (2) *I now have difficulties in writing because I am scared that my written product will not be as good as it should be*. Thus, it appears that, there are still students who feel stressed over writing despite a high exposure to the language. This is again similar to the claim of Atkinson that there are students who would still feel anxious at the mere thought of writing.

**Conclusion**

This study revealed that language exposure plays an important role in the writing self-efficacy and writing apprehension of students, while self-efficacy and writing apprehension are inversely correlated. Bandura (1986) also addresses the same view, when he stated that an exposure to mastery experiences can affect students’ self-efficacy. Thus, a thorough exposure to the target language will improve writing skills since it will lower students’ self-apprehension and self-efficacy, which are believed to influence students’ writing performance (Zimmerman & Bandura, 1994). Same result was garnered by Singh and Rajalingham (2011) and other studies mentioned by Erkan and Saban (2011) regarding the inverse relationship between self-efficacy and writing apprehension.

Based on the essays of the selected respondents, language exposure to English in the Philippine setting is not a problem because it is mostly used in their everyday affairs. This, however, is the opinion of one university and may differ once conducted in other schools. But it was established that, somehow, schools where English is predominant provide greater opportunities in improving writing skills, an important mode of communication. The last result in this study revealed that writing self-efficacy and writing apprehension are not correlated. The lack of correlation cannot be over generalized, on the other hand, for different respondents may yield different results. Also, writing abilities are sometimes called by temporary situations, which can change the relationship between the said variables.
Over-all, educators have to utilize many different reading materials inside a classroom in order to expose students with the different writing styles and formats. This will enable them to jumpstart their own writing outputs. This will also minimize common errors in essay writing (Masangya & Lozada, 2009). After all, writing must be practiced and learned through experience (Myles, 2002). Future studies can deal with the students’ efforts to improve writing and how these can affect apprehension and self-efficacy. Also, correlational studies cannot always determine the causal relationship of variables, in this case between self-efficacy, writing comprehension, and language exposure. “They [correlational studies] simply show the extent of relatedness of the variables” (Green & Salkind, 2005, as cited in Raoofi, Tan, & Chan, 2012, p.66). Thus, a bigger sample size may be needed in future studies.

References


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http://www.qou.edu/english/conferences/firstNationalConference/pdfFiles/drJaberDrMohammad.pdf


About the Authors

Jose Cristina M. Parina, Ph.D. is a full-time faculty of the Department of English and Applied Linguistics, De La Salle University, Manila, Philippines. Her fields of specialization include Second Language Acquisition, Research Writing, and Sociolinguistics. She has published books and articles on peer-reviewed journals and has presented her papers in international conferences. She is currently the coordinator of English for Research at the said department.
Kristine D. de Leon is a faculty member of the Department of English and Applied Linguistics, De La Salle University-Manila and is currently a PhD in Applied Linguistics student in the said university. Her research interests include Second Language Acquisition, ESL, and Academic Writing. She has been invited to present papers in international conferences.