

ISSN 1718-2298

THE PHILIPPINE ESL JOURNAL

Volume 17 July 2016



E.L.E PUBLISHING

Published by the English Language Education Publishing

Asian EFL Journal
A Division of TESOL Asia Group
Part of SITE Ltd Australia

<http://www.philippine-esl-journal.com>

© Philippine ESL Journal Press 2016 This E-book is in copyright.

This journal is open-access and users may read, download, copy, distribute, print, search, or link to the full texts, crawl them for indexing, pass them as data to software, or use them for any other lawful purpose, without financial, legal, or technical barriers other than those inseparable from gaining access to the internet itself. The only constraint on reproduction and distribution, and the only role for copyright in this domain, should be to give authors control over the integrity of their work and the right to be properly acknowledged and cited.

Chief Editor: Leah Espada Gustilo
Managing Editor: Dr. Paul Robertson and Dr. John Adamson

The Philippine English as a Second Language Journal is indexed in the Asian Education Index, Index Copernicus, Cabell's Directory, Google Scholar and Ulrich's Web.

The Philippine ESL journal (ISSN 1718-2298) is published two times a year by ELE Publishing.

This journal is part of the Asian EFL journal services. Access to on-line table of contents and articles is available to all researchers at www.philippine-esl-journal.com

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Foreword	1
<i>Francisco Perlas Dumanig, Ph. D.</i>	
Analysis of in-class Writing Errors of College Freshmen Students	2
<i>Peter Jon Loyola Mendoza</i>	
Writing Patterns of Omani Learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL)	27
<i>Francisco Perlas Dumanig</i> <i>Maya Khemlani David</i> <i>Ali Hubais</i>	
Discourse Analysis of Research Introduction and its Pedagogical Implications to ESL Writing Classroom	41
<i>Irish Mae G. Fernandez</i>	
Building on Children’s Linguistic Resources: A Socio-culturally Responsive Pedagogy for English Language Teaching in Pakistan	67
<i>Syed Abdul Manan</i>	
Where is the CR? A Description of Philippine English in Hawaii	86
<i>Rodney C. Jubilado</i>	

Foreword

This volume focuses on various approaches in teaching and learning English in native and non-native contexts. The papers included in this volume tackle some issues in English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) writing, pedagogical approaches in teaching English in ESL context and the use of Philippine English in a native speaking country.

The first three articles examine the writing styles of second and foreign language learners. Peter Jon Mendoza analyzes the common errors made by college freshmen in the Philippines. It highlights the common errors in writing among second language learners which include verb tense, erroneous complementation of preposition, lexical single, missing words and incomplete style. Similarly, Francisco Perlas Dumanig, Maya Khemlani David and Ali Hubais explore the writing patterns of Omani learners of English. They examine the occurrence of theme and rheme and the thematic progression pattern in the writings of Omani learners of English. The writing styles of ESL learners are further explored by Irish Mae Fernandez where she analyzes the discourse patterns of students' research introductions from three different academic programs and suggests an effective thesis-writing pedagogy for educators who are teaching or advising ESL/EFL undergraduate and graduate students.

Such issues in second and foreign language writing are sometimes linked to the pedagogical approaches in teaching. Syed Abdul Manan tackles the pedagogical approaches in teaching English in low-fee private schools in Quetta, Pakistan. He argues that the use of English language as the medium of instruction and the teaching methodologies used by the classroom teachers are counterproductive and less effective as they are not founded on the fundamental theories of ESL/EFL and content-based instruction.

The last article focuses on the use of the Philippine English in Hawaii. Rodney Jubilado explores the description of Philippine English in Hawaii where he examines the description of the sound properties, lexical items, and grammar features of Philippine English in Hawaii (PEH). The article provides an argument that the sound properties, lexical items and grammar features of PEH can be distinguished from the American English spoken in Hawaii.

The studies included in this volume offer a wider perspective in English language teaching and learning. Issues in ESL and EFL writing, pedagogical approaches in teaching English and the use of Philippine English in English native speaking country like the US are discussed in this volume.

Francisco Perlas Dumanig, Ph.D.
Philippine ESL Journal Volume Editor
Volume Editor's Affiliation: English Department
Buraimi University College, Buraimi, Oman

Analysis of in-class Writing Errors of College Freshmen Students

Peter Jon Loyola Mendoza

Mindanao University of Science and Technology

Abstract

This study examines the common errors made by college freshmen students. The sources of such errors are classified as interlingual and intralingual errors. There were 40 participants who were asked to write essays in the classroom and were given prompts for self-correction. Moreover, the participants were given one week to revise each essay. Codes and types of error were used to categorize the errors and back translation was employed to classify the source of errors. Findings reveal the common errors committed by students in their essays which include morphology (13), verb tense (27), erroneous complementation of preposition (13), single lexical items (20), missing word (53), register (9) and incomplete style (14). Such errors are mostly driven by intralanguage influence. This goes to show that learners find the grammar system of the English language a major challenge, though at times the error is due to transfer surfaces, but still the rules of the target language carry the most burden for learners. However, interlanguage surfaces from time to time and it is imperative that pedagogues should recognize the influences brought by the L1 in the teaching of English. In addition, it should be noted that 41.67% of the errors caused in missing word is attributed to interlingual interference.

Keywords: writing error, performance slip, intralingual interference, interlingual interference

Introduction

Error Analysis, as an approach in language research, has a long history that traces back to the early beginnings of Contrastive Analysis of Lado (1957) and Fries (1945) to the Interlanguage of Selinker (1972) and Corder (1967). Contrastive analysis involves the empirical study of two languages, identifying what is present in the mother tongue and how this influences the learning of an L2. Interlanguage development or transfer, on the other hand, arose from Corder's idea (later supported by Selinker) of a mid-stage of language development or what they coined as "transitional competence" where the properties of the language (erroneous in form or structure when inferring to TL) is independent from either L1 or L2 grammar system or structure, thus an independent form in itself and further confirming that learners have a built in syllabus to facilitate the learning of an L2.

Error analysis is commonly attributed to Pit Corder's theory which does not only involve the comparison of the distinct properties of L1 and L2 (Target Language), nor the Interlanguage (IL) and L2, but rather explores on the contrast between Interlanguage (IL) and the target language (TL).

Author's Affiliation: Mindanao University of Science and Technology
Cagayan de Oro City, Philippines
Email address: pete_2983@yahoo.com

Why EA still works as a method?

Error Analysis (EA) has been widely criticized for a number of methodological and theoretical reasons that EA does not provide a complete idea of the learners in terms of their competence and performance and cannot explain the development of the learner during his/her process of acquiring a second language since the analysis is done on a static text, a sort of language photo taken at a certain moment under certain circumstances. However, Ellis (2003) stated that no dispute between longitudinal studies and EA exists since the study of errors through different stages of the learning process can contribute to the understanding of the strategies that learners put into practice when acquiring a second language, yet still one cannot undermine that second language learners cannot be ‘acting’ the whole time they write or speak the target language (Castillejos-Lopez, nd, p. 667.)

In general terms, the pertinence of error analysis in language teaching could be situated in the middle of no error tendency (at the expense of communication) and the only-communication matters tendency (at the expense of linguistic quality in the message) (Castillejos-Lopez, n.d). In fact, the student’s L1 affects greatly the areas of difficulty that they find in the target language. Other factors such as cognitive and affective variability, also point to diverse areas of the L2 property in determining the degree of difficulty.

Thus, learner’s variation needs to be taken into account when evaluating learner’s performance which is particularly crucial in an ESL setting where the classroom consists of students of various backgrounds (Boecher, Y.2005), thus, there is a need for studying student errors.

Why study Errors

Assessment is the act of gathering information on a daily basis in order to understand individual student’s learning and needs (Roble, 2006). It is in assessing the learner’s current state of proficiency that we could best track or monitor their development and this may be made possible by the most tangible of all evidences of a learner’s state of proficiency on a Target Language – their errors.

Furthermore, according to Richards (1974: 124) as cited by Haryanto (2007), “the sources of errors in studying a language might be derived from the interference of the learners’ mother tongue and the general characteristics of the rule learning. The errors that are caused by the general characteristics of the rule learning are also called the intralanguage errors. On the other hand, the errors caused by the interference of the learners’ mother tongue are called the interlanguage errors.”

In addition, Richards (1974: 124) as cited in Haryanto (2007) distinguished three sources of competence errors. First, interference errors occur as a result of the use of an element from one language while speaking another. An example might be when a German learner of L2 English says, “I go not” because the equivalent sentence in German is “Ichgehe nicht.” Second, intralingual errors that reflect the general characteristics of rule learning such as faulty generalization, incomplete application of rules and failure to learn conditions under which rules

apply. Lastly, developmental errors occur when the learner attempts to build up hypotheses about the target language on the basis of limited experience.

Richards (1971) also classified intralingual errors into four categories. First is overgeneralization which occurs when the learner creates a deviant structure on the basis of other structures in the target language. It generally involves the creation of one deviant structure in place of two target language structures (for example, 'He can sings' where English allows 'He can sing' and 'He sings'). Second is ignorance of the rule restrictions which involves the application of rules to contexts where they do not apply. For example 'He made me to rest' through extension of the pattern found with the majority of verbs that take infinitival complements (for example, 'He asked /wanted/invited me to go'). Third is incomplete application of rules which is typically related to analogy. It involves a failure to fully develop a structure. Thus learners of L2 English have been observed to use declarative word order in questions (for example, 'You like to sing?') in place of interrogative word order (for example, 'Do you like to sing?'). This type of intralingual error corresponds to what is often referred to as an error of transitional competence (Richards, 1971). Lastly, is false concepts hypothesis which is sometimes called semantic error, may be derived from faulty comprehension in the target language.

Furthermore, learners are believed to operate on three levels of language which are substance, text, and discourse. However, the focus in this paper is on the productive skill, specifically the writing skills of the learner in which much mental process is required to perform or complete a task. Misencoding is also considered by Carl James (1998) as a culprit for these felicities, thus he proposed an in-depth investigation by considering the nature of such felicities in classifying them whether they are intralingual or interlingual. Classification of errors would aid instruction and learning of an L2 in order to pinpoint not only the gravity and frequency of the errors made, but also the ways to deal with and repair them, come up with efficient language focus lessons, develop effective intervention, and possibly syllabi updating or revision. In this paper, students were asked to focus on a working essay that they periodically revised as new topics are discussed in class. Their other essays further reinforce the monitoring of student progress. This is with the belief that misproductions and misinterpretations are performance errors, attributable to a variety of performance factors like tiredness, boredom, drunkenness, drugs, external distractions, and so forth (Radford, 2004).

This paper focuses on the written compositions of L2 learners to identify their common errors, type of errors committed, and the source of these errors as tool for instructional materials (syllabi, module, etc) improvement, development or arrive with a common identification/classification of the current schema of incoming first year college students for remediation purposes.

In addition, error identification will provide various opportunities for the teachers to modify learning objectives and outcomes for his/her students' identified weaknesses, to reinforce L2 learning through a much suited and effective remediation during consultation and in-class activities, and to trace the trend of learner profile of an incoming college freshman for monitoring purposes and possibly future researches.

Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on the theories posited by Corder (1971), Richards (1972), and Ellis (1994). Error Analysis (EA), which was developed from the ideas of Contrastive Analysis (CA), had a much convincing paradigm of analyzing learner errors since it compared a learner's Interlanguage (Idiosyncratic Dialect) with the target language (TL). This paved the way for treating the learner's error as a product of his cognition, where juxtaposed rules and features converged into an utterance independent on both L1 and L2.

The importance of knowing the role of error in language teaching and learning is that “a learner's error[sic]...are significant in that they provide an evidence of how language is learned or acquired, what strategies or procedures the learner employs in the discovery of the language” (Corder, 1967:167, as cited in Brown, 2000: 217).

Similar to Myles' work (2006) on “Second Language Writing and Research: The Writing Process and Error Analysis in Student Texts” where writers were made to write different topics every week, each topic for essay in this paper was given a revision period of one week with three allowable revisions. Myles (2006) pointed out that depending on proficiency level, the more content-rich and creative the text, the greater the possibility there is for errors at the morphosyntactic level. For which, this paper targeted various instances of writing and covered possible conditions a writer is at in a given topic.

On the other hand, Pan (2009) studied on Chinese learners of English common sources of error, and found out that most Chinese have difficulty in the third person singular form and the plural endings ‘-s’ or ‘-es’. Though the source of error may seem ridiculous to other learners of English, but the fact remains that one's MT marked properties or the TL's (in this case, English) contribute to the learning of English. Thus, in this study, determining the sources of error is included to rationalize the still significant contribution of one's L1 in Learning an L2.

Also, Gustilo (2013) explored the relationship between writer's performance, writer's resources, and writer's idea generation process. Findings partly confirm the findings of previous studies where the writer's performance is correlated with all the variables under study except for spelling test. However in this study, global and specific errors were the focus in determining the sources of their errors.

Cabansag (2013) revealed that most of the students are proficient in structure and grammar, but not so much in mechanics. The study also revealed the persistent errors committed by the respondents in their written compositions, namely; use of verbs, verb tenses, and proper use of capitalization. It revealed that there is no significant relationship between the written language proficiency of the respondents and their profile variables. It revealed further that there exists no significant relationship between the persistent written language errors of the respondents and their profile variables. Thus in this study, demographic profile specifically social status and gender is not included.

Lastly, errors arise from several general possible sources, two of which are interlingual errors of interference from the native language, and intralingual errors within the target language, context of learning and communication strategies (Brown, 2000:218 as cited in Haryanto, 2007).

Thus, this study tried to establish the importance of what learner errors tell us in their capacity to learn and the areas which they find most challenging, and ultimately in the design of the course to be taught.

Conceptual Framework

This research operates on the paradigm on Input-Process-Output. In the Input stage, the participants were made to write essays on various topics every week in four weeks. Further, following the methodology of Castillejo-Lopez' study (n.d.) wherein Corder (1974) suggested three steps in the study of EA: recognition, description and explanation. He also emphasized the importance of data collection and analysis particularly in a corpus linguistics work where the data analysis helps to draw conclusions of linguistic value. The over-all flow of the study therefore is as follows: **INPUT STAGE** includes the collection of the sample written compositions to analyze; **PROCESS STAGE** begins with recognition of errors, description of errors, classification of errors (the researcher's improvisation) and explanation of errors (as cited in Castillejos-Lopez) that includes source, gravity and frequency. And the **OUTPUT** will be the findings deduced and induced from the analyzed data in the form of recommendations.

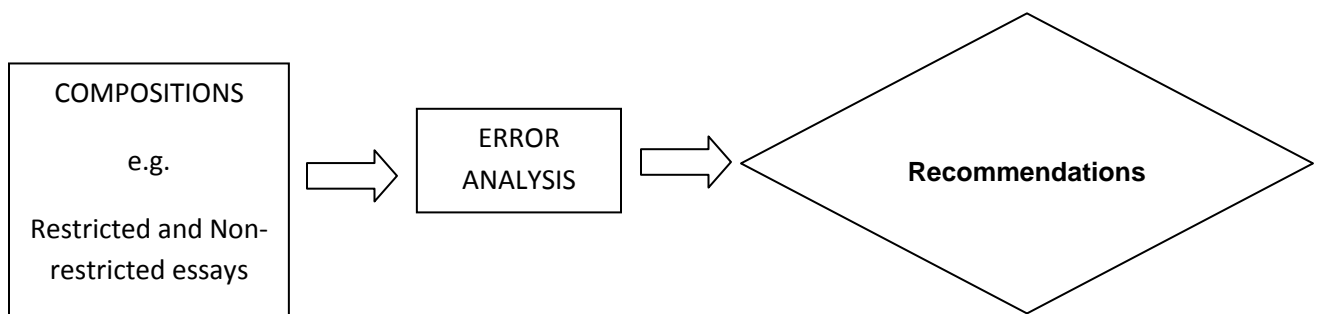


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework of the study

Material and Methods

This study employed an explanatory mixed method. It started with quantitative then followed by qualitative approach. The explanatory research design is used as the study aims not just the quantitative aspect of the data to be interpreted but also the quality of the data collected. This paper aims at describing the nature and source of the errors. The qualitative approach is used to stress on validity of multiple meaning structures and holistic content analyses. It is based on the epistemological and ontological assumptions that each person has a different perception from the rest and the best way to understand a phenomenon is to view it in its context (Bula, 2007). On the other hand, quantitative approach was used because the study gathered the errors and classified them according to source, whether intralingual or interlingual. Furthermore, the results of both approaches were mixed to arrive at a unified interpretation, which is evident in the analysis of data.

Research Instrument

This study used the “codes and types of error” developed by Dagneaux. et. al. (1996) as the main instrument for identifying the errors. The instrument is comprehensive that it covers both the global and specific errors. Researchers from the Center for English Corpus Linguistics at the Université Catholique de Louvain defined seven main categories for error classification, the categories are: form, grammar, lexicogrammar (that is to say, error incidences on both lexical and syntactic properties of a word), lexis, word redundant, word missing and word order (the three ‘word’ adjectives with the three nouns integrate a single category), register, and style (Dagneaux, et al, 1996). These categories involve concrete linguistic areas where errors can occur, for instance, the category ‘form’ involves two linguistic aspects which originate errors: morphology and spelling (Myles, 2006).

The said instrument has been widely accepted and utilized for EA-related researches. The following studies are that of Mislevy (2007) on “Taxonomy of adaptive testing” of University of Maryland, USA, and Yong-Won Lee with M. Chodorow and Claudia Gentile (2007) on “Error-coded ESL learners’ and Automated Diagnostic Feedback” of Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea

The collection of data followed the procedure employed by Makino (1992) in his study “Learner self-correction in EFL written composition.” However, a modification was done such that in this study, the 3rd of the three-step procedure was richly utilized in all the three levels of the student self-correction, prompts (teacher cues) were given.

Thus, in this study, the participants were asked to write an open and non-restrictive essays which they had periodically revised as topics were discussed in class (e.g. principles of unity: tense, idea, language, mood, voice, person and number; kinds/types of introduction and conclusion). The students were initially taught the principles of good writing and then underwent planning, drafting, editing, revising and publishing. Before writing the essay, though, they were given a simple lecture and a selection to read to set the context that served as a mere consciousness raising activity, thus setting a classroom atmosphere still. The topics for the essay were varied as to accommodate a writer’s preference. Topics included were Valentine’s day, Adele (the singer), anecdotal entries on surviving Typhoon Sendong, an account on personal daily routine/activity, and view on Mel Silberman’s Learning Credo (1996). Furthermore, as the class progressed, they were slowly introduced to the various discourses in essay writing, specifically the techniques in introduction (relevant quotation, question, anecdote, definition, and background information) and in conclusion (repetition of relevant points, summary, relevant quotation and prediction).

To address the rigorous rudiments of this research, the following steps were done:

- 1) Learners were asked to self-correct through teacher’s cues. These prompts were given in the form of encircled morphemes or phrases to indicate the need for them to somehow revise. At some point, underlining was employed, and this is on top of the one-on- one consultation where fact sheets to read or pages of the book on grammar lesson were given/ recommended for self or independent reading.

- 2) Participants had to revise their work in a maximum of three revisions and submit their final work attached with the original compositions (drafts) at the end of each week.

To further support the procedure in data collection, Long (1977) as cited in Makino (1992) made a useful distinction between error correction and error feedback. He defined error feedback as error detection, and it is designed to promote correction. The correction he viewed as describing the hoped-for result of feedback on errors (Chenoweth, Day, Chun, and Luppescu, 1983). In this paper 'error feedback' was used disguised in teacher cues or hints which are given to learners to encourage self-correction.

Feedback is of utmost importance to this writing process. Without individual attention and sufficient feedback on errors, improvement will not take place. We must accept the fact that L2 writing contains errors; it is our responsibility to help learners to develop strategies for self-correction and regulation (Myles, 2006).

Data Analysis

To obtain the quantitative data for the study, frequency (distribution) was used to classify data for comparison of the occurrence on instances of appearance in each category. While the mean (weighted) was used as to compute for the average occurrences of variables expected.

A simple formula is presented below:

$$\text{Number of specific error/ total number of errors} = \bar{x}$$

And to get the percentage value mean is multiplied to 100, as shown below:

$$\bar{x} \times 100 = \text{the percentage}$$

To analyze the qualitative data of the study, errors were categorized according to the following: form, grammar, lexicogrammar, lexis, word redundant, word missing and word order, register, and style (Dagneaux, et al, 1996).

Results and Discussion

Common Errors in Writing

The figure below presents the general errors with the most frequency of occurrence found in the writing composition of the participants. There were 318 errors found and 193 or 60.69% of which is lexical. The most common error is missing word with a frequency of 53 or 16.67%, while verb tense is the most common grammatical error with 27 or 8.49% frequency followed closely by verb number (26 or 8.18%), noun number (22 or 6.92%), and grammar-article (11 or 3.46%).

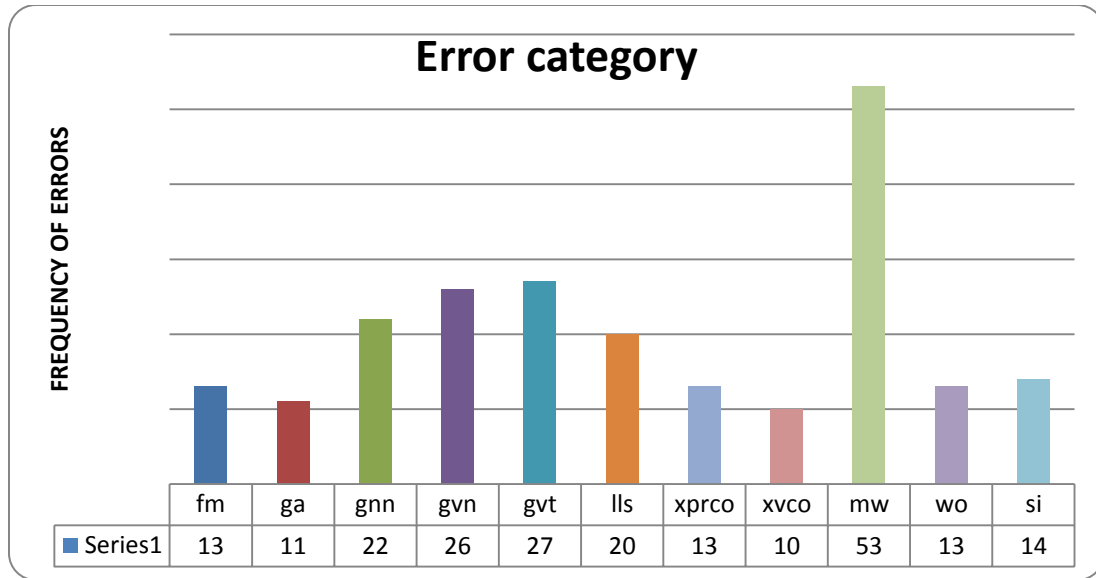


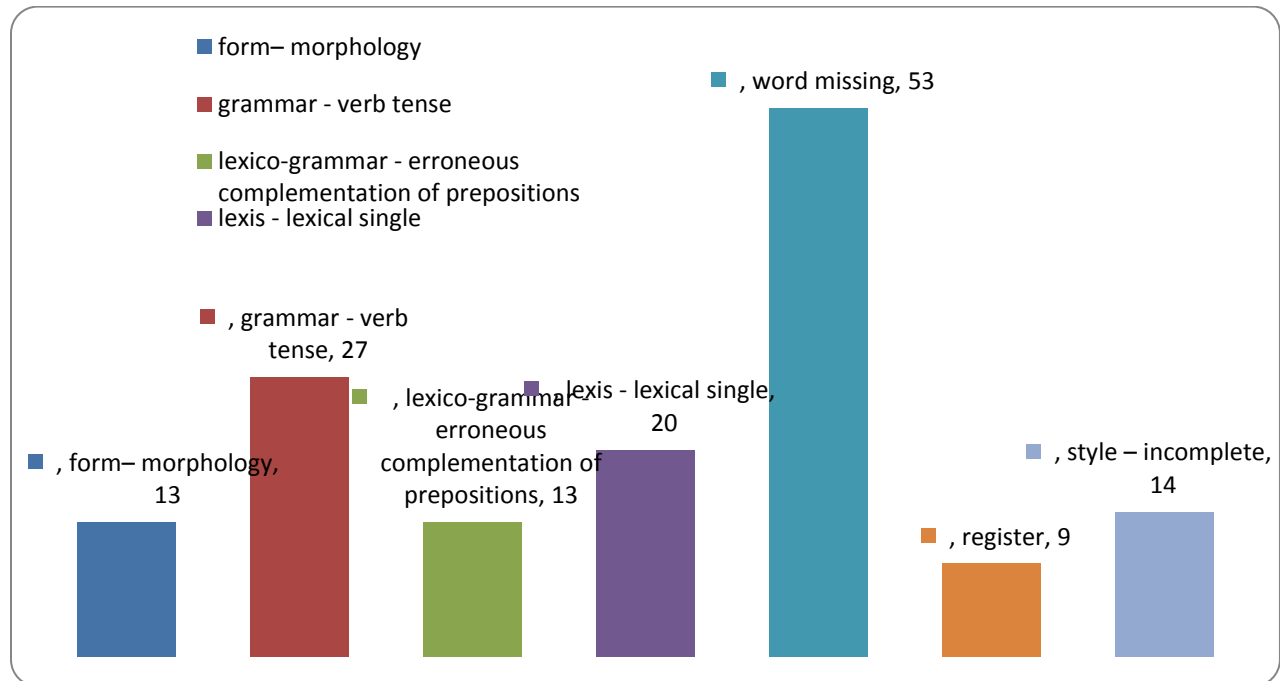
Figure 1: Top Error frequencies across categories.

Fm: form-morphology; Ga: grammar article; Gnn: grammar noun number; Gvn: grammar verb number; Gvt: Grammar verb tense; lls: lexis - lexical single, xprco: lexico-grammar - erroneous complementation of prepositions; xvco: lexico-grammar - erroneous complementation of verbs, mw: missing word; wo: word order, and si: style incomplete.

Lexico-grammatical error, preposition use, specifically on erroneous complementation of preposition emerged on top with a frequency of 13 or 4.09%, followed by erroneous complementation of verbs with 10 or 3.14%. It is apparent as well to find word order as a concern with 13 or 4.09%. Style was also evident with incompleteness at 14 incidences or 4.40%. Also notable is the incidence of form-morphology at 13 incidences or 4.09%.

However, in this paper the type of error with the highest frequencies in each category will be the focus of analysis. Thus, trimming the category for analysis to just seven, namely: form-morphology (13), grammar verb tense (27), lexico-grammatical erroneous complementation of preposition (13), Lexis- lexical single (20), missing word (53), register (9) and Style (14).

Figure 2: Top-error Frequencies per category



The figure above reveals that there are morpho-syntactic issues to settle in classroom discussions as it can be inferred that it is a case of internal fragmentation that hampers a complete thought to be transmitted successfully as evidenced by the frequency of missing word. Moreover, the incompleteness stemming from missing words, with a close study on the 53 instances or 16.67% in frequency, suggests that learners' limitations are not in vocabulary but in the application of the rules even with error feedback.

Indeed, L2 writers require and expect specific overt feedback from teachers not only on content, but also on the form and structure of writing. If this feedback is not part of the instructional process, then students will be disadvantaged in improving both writing and language skills (Myles, 2006).

It is not entirely odd to still find errors in spelling among writers and even in word form. 13 or 4.08% of the errors found can be considered odd in form with respect to context and co-text as seen below:

Sentences 1, 4, 8, and 12 are a result of interlanguage interference. In 1, the verb “remain” reflects the use of “mao gihapon” (still the same) thus its use over *maintain*, which is more suitable in the sentence.

1. *But some Filipino **Family still **remain** this practice. (maintain)*

In 4, the use of the phrase “can witnessed” is the literal back translation of “makakita or mas makamao,” context wise.

4) *Our parents *is the one **can witnessed** our weaknesses because they know you (us) better and **be** with you (us) **in the longest. (who know, have been)*

In sentence 8, the phrase “the observance” should closely and can logically be translated, with respect to context, to mean “pamarog or porma” (the appearance/looks).

8) *Nowadays, the Filipino families are really changing from the way they used to live like **the observance** (their appearance) and also their actions which are reflective *to the influence of the west.*

Finally, in sentence 12, to mean to sleep again or to go back to sleep, instead of the past form of *go* (went) the participant used *come* which then in back translation may mean to some as “nimbalik” (went back) while the rest are just mere intralingual of an error in nature.

12) *After playing basketball I got home tired so I **came** back to sleep. (went)*

Table 1: Frequency of errors in Form

Type of Error	Frequency	Mean
form– morphology	13	4.08
form – spelling	3	0.94

As for spelling, Table 1 reveals very few nevertheless the usual fault is set on false friends. Such that a word is a minimal pair of the other that causes others to mistakenly use them. This is reinforced by Chen (1979) on the hierarchy of common errors where spelling came in 8th of the top 9. As in the sample below:

- 1) We celebrate it, since it is one of the important *celebration that we **adopted** from a roman celebration every February 14. (adapted)
- 2) It *change because we **emitate** *to our neighbors country.(Interlingual)
- 3) Being an **emitor** is one of our *problem.
- 4) Filipino known as **have *a strong beliefs, very respectful **for elders, harmony to get along with others to preserve a harmonious relationship, **dept** of gratitude especially to the person who **has help him through the trials he had undergone. (debt)

In the case of sentences 2, 3 and 4, one might consider qualifying the error to be due to phonological factors, a mental image or perception of the production of the word – its form.

As for the grammar error category of the study, it is logical to say that the three are interdependent. That verb tense, verb number, and noun number are not mutually exclusive errors as error in one significantly affects the integrity of the other, thus are complements of each other. This can be inferred in the closeness of the frequencies of occurrence of each type of error where Grammar – Noun number has 22 occurrences, Grammar – Verb Number has 26 occurrences and Grammar – Verb Tense with 27 occurrences, plus the occurrences are morpho-syntactic that they co-occur as constituents of a phrase where the error is cited/observed.

Table 2: Frequency of Errors in Grammar

Type of Error	Frequency	Mean
grammar- articles	11	3.46
grammar – nouns	0	0
grammar - noun case	4	1.26
grammar - noun number	22	6.92
grammar – pronouns	7	2.20
grammar - adjective order	0	0
grammar - adjective number	0	0
grammar - comparative/superlative	1	0.31
grammar - adverb order	0	0
grammar - verb number	26	8.18
grammar - verb morphology	7	2.20
grammar - non-finite / finite verb forms	0	0
grammar - verb voice	1	0.31
grammar - verb tense	27	8.49
grammar – auxiliaries	2	0.63
grammar - word class	1	0.31

Table 2 confirmed the findings of Cabansag (2013) that the persistent errors committed by the respondents in their written compositions are the use of verbs, and verb tenses. In addition, the findings of Chen (1979) confirms almost the same degree of complement in an occurrence of verbs (also #1 in the study), nouns (also #2 in this study), global errors determiners (articles), prepositions, adjectives, adverbs, spelling errors and pronouns.

Below are a few of the instances on verb tense errors:

- 1) If I had an assignment, **I'll** do it. If there's ****not, I am going** to bed and pray to God and take some rest.
- 2) Often, gathering the courage to move on in your life can be one of the ****challenge you have ever faced.**
- 3) For example the “mano po” which ****is** still signifies nowadays even though it **replace** by the “beso” but still conveys deep respect for elder relatives.
- 4) Modern family *are* one of the *cause* why we ****undergone** our traditions, our beliefs, values, and culture being Filipino, at this time when we look ****to** our society many things **will change** especially the values of the people.
- 5) ...because of the people **starting doing** what **was** they learn for being modern, have no respect with each other and respect to our traditions.
- 6) When I was on my way to school, I suddenly noticed that I left my riffle at home. There **is** no time ****to** came back at home so I **continued go** to school.
- 7) Every 4am in the morning I **woke up** because me and my brother are **ganna** washing a bus in the terminal.

- 8) Last December an incident happened here in Iligan **were many Iliganons died and lost their houses. The people living **their blamed the log that **comes** from the mountain.
- 9) For example the “mano po” which is still signifies nowadays even though it replace by the “beso” but still conveys deep respect for elder relatives.
- 10) Whatever gifts that they give or receive *is very special ***compare** to the gifts that they give or receive **in** [from] the other day or **in** [from] the other celebration.
- 11) Even?? it is a simple way of showing our love but it ?? **appreciate[d]** a lot **for** them.
- 12) I often go home late every afternoon but these past few weeks, I **had been striving** to go home early so that my mother will not be angry **to** (at) me.
- 13) Even though, many things **was happen** but we never **surrender** because we **thought** that life is important to us.
- 14) Since **we’re** in our mother’s womb, they **make** plans for our future and also they showed love to us. (This also for style)
- 15) They [took] care [of us] when we’re sick and they **accept** whatever mistakes that we did.
- 16) All that they **work** for is just for us.
- 17) In fact this will be the time where you will apply all the things you have truly **understand** from the lectures of your teacher.
- 18) Always remember that mastering a field that you want takes a lot of time and that is why attitude is also important **on whatever you **are doing**.
- 19) When she wrote that song her feelings **is sad** because her boyfriend **break up** their relationship.
- 20) Valentines day is also an exciting day for me and also for those people who **were** single and in a relationship.
- 21) Love for God by praising him and **thanks for him** and for the love **given**.
- 22) Because of low salary rate here in the Philippines, some decided to work overseas and sacrificed **to leave** their families behind. And it **will result** to a **far communication which is very difficult.
- 23) Let **defined** what is valentines mean for those who are in a relationship (Over application- intralingual / noun to verb form)
- 24) For example the “mano po” gesture which **is** still signifies [respect], nowadays even though **it replace** by the “beso” but still conveys deep respect for elder relatives.
- 25) Often, gathering the courage to move on in your life can be one of the challenges you **have ever faced**.
- 26) One should never [get] disappointed if he **taste** failure in his early attempts.
- 27) Whatever gifts that they give or receive is very special ***compare** to the gifts that they give or receive **in** [from] the other day or **in** [from] the other celebration.

The complexity of learning the tense-aspect system of the English language is reflected much on the instances of this error type. The discussion dwells on two realizations, one in the sphere of form and the other on the function.

Function wise, consistency in form accounts the nature of error type most observed such that the conjugated form of the verb may not fit or is not appropriate in the suggested aspect in use. As in:

17) *In fact this will be the time where you will apply all the things you have truly understand from the lectures of your teacher.*

In sentence 17, the case of incomplete application of the rules is evident in the form of the main verb “understand” which should have taken its past participle form.

22) *Because of low salary rate here in the Philippines, some decided to work overseas and sacrificed **to leave** their families behind. And it will result to a ****far communication** which is very difficult.*

In sentence 22, the infinitive form is clearly a misfit as against its much favorable gerund equivalent. The writer seems to stick on achieving parallelism at first by the use of conjoined infinitives, but then it is sanctioned by the awkwardness of the construction. It would have been better if the sentence had been like this “...others sacrificed **leaving** their families behind.”

As to function, the form may have been achieved, yet the meaning elucidated by the form in sentence 12 suggests otherwise.

12) *I often go home late every afternoon but these past few weeks, I **had been striving** to go home early so that my mother will not be angry **to** (at) me.*

The use of had in the verb phrase upsets the aspect consistency and logic since the first main clause suggests of a habitual past action that is still done or performed at present which only suggests on the use of a much appropriate present perfect progressive aspect, thus, *have* instead of *had*. Also *observed* is the lapse on both form and function.

In sentence 24, what should have been a passive construction for a main clause has an active verb phrase thus disrupting the context of eliciting a passive form and its function supposedly carried by a present perfect tense to suit unity.

24) *For example the “mano po” gesture which **is** still signifies [respect], nowadays even though **it replace** by the “beso” but still conveys deep respect for elder relatives.*

However, an incomplete application of the rules shows that learners have grasped the concept of the aspect system in the English language; however, fails to fully adapt this as evidenced below:

26) *One should never [get] disappointed if he **taste** failure in his early attempts.*

27) *Whatever gifts that they give or receive is very special ***compare** to the gifts that they give or receive **in** [from] the other day or **in** [from] the other celebration.*

Prominent case as well is the absence of the inflectional bound morphemes to signal past, in this case the -d and -ed as shown in sentence 27. Even the irregular past forms, which has affected the meaning intended. As in below:

13) Since **we're** in our mother's womb, they **make** plans for our future and also they showed love to us.

14) They [took] care [of us] when we're sick and they **accept** whatever mistakes that we did.

15) All that they **work** for is just for us.

While over application is not something to miss out, as such below.

3) For example the “mano po” which ****is still signifies** nowadays even though it replace by the “beso” but still conveys deep respect for elder relatives.

The over application of the singularity rule represented by both the “be” verb and the singular form of the main verb “signify” is indicative of a case of misunderstanding through over application of the rule. When in fact the intended form of the phrase is active voice thus the exclusion of any be verb, yet still is accompanied by one. Though the target was correct that is to give the singular form of a verb, but fails to filter the application on the verb being in the active voice – a case of intralingual error.

Table 3 shows that the most number of incidences on lexico-grammatical error is the erroneous complementation of preposition. As can be inferred in Table 3, it holds 13 incidences and is one of the common pitfalls for most of the participants.

Table 3: Frequency of Errors in Lexis

Type of Error	Frequency	Mean
lexico-grammar - erroneous complementation of adjectives	5	1.57
lexico-grammar - erroneous complementation of conjunctions	2	0.63
lexico-grammar - erroneous complementation of nouns	8	2.52
lexico-grammar - erroneous complementation of prepositions	13	4.09
lexico-grammar - erroneous complementation of verbs	10	3.14
lexico-grammar - adjectives used with the wrong dependent preposition	1	0.31
lexico-grammar - nouns used with the wrong dependent preposition	2	0.63
lexico-grammar - verbs used with the wrong dependent preposition	2	0.63
lexico-grammar - nouns: uncountable/countable	0	0
lexis - lexical single	20	6.29
lexis - false friends	5	1.57
lexis - lexical phrase	5	1.57
lexis - logical connectors	4	1.26
lexis - single logical connector	1	0.31
lexis - complex logical connector	1	0.31
lexis - coordinating conjunctions	1	0.31
lexis - subordinating conjunctions	5	1.57

The general challenge is the ability to use the appropriate preposition as to location, direction or goal/purpose, an issue on collocation.

On direction, participants usually find difficulty on which to use as in below:

I often go home late every afternoon but these past few weeks, I had been striving to go home early so that my mother will not be angry **to (at) me.*

The use of preposition has always been a dilemma to Filipinos in general as it confuses quite a handful of the participants. This being trivial which can be attributed to the limited morpheme to associate location, direction, purpose and intention. The mother tongue of the participants (bisaya) generally has a collective morpheme “sa” that may stand for *at*, *in* (sa sulod sa), *on/above* (sa taas sa) and the “para” (to) and its variety *para kay/sa* (for) and sometimes the morpheme “ug” for (with) but usually “with” is more complex as it may be represented by a couple more like the phrase “kauban nila” and “sabay sa”.

On location:

*Every 4am in the morning I woke up because me and my brother are gonna washing a bus **in** (at) the terminal.

*A friend is also willing to risk everything in case you need them **in** [at] your side.

On purpose/goal

*...because of the people starting doing what was they learn for being modern, have no respect with each other and respect **to** (for) our traditions.

(topic: Friendship) *They serve as an *instruments **on** (in) leading you to a better and successful life.

*Although, when it come **on** (to) celebration, they invite all of their relatives.

*Even?? it is a simple way of showing our love but it ?? appreciate[d] a lot for (by) them.

*They usually use valentine’s day as a solution **of** [to/for] their love life problem by inviting the persons they love to be with them in this *special heart day celebration in order....

On complement

*Whatever gifts that they give or receive is very special *compare to the gifts that they give or receive **in** [from] the other day or **in** [from] the other celebration.

*I spend most of the time **to** (with) my friends when I am free from all my classes.

*Nowadays, the Filipino families are really changing from the way they used to live like the observance and also their actions which are reflective **to** (of) the influence of the west.

*Showing and expressing their **feeling are done **by** (in) many different ways.

*This day is exclusively [for] **to** the two persons in love [with] each other.

As for the category of lexical errors, error type in Lexis-lexical single accounts for the most number of incidences with the frequency of 20 or 6.29% of the total errors found. The errors of this type may further be classified as collocation error (CE), generalization error (GE), duplication error (DE) wrong lexical choice (WLC), and wrong word formation (WWF).

A classic pitfall must be the wrong lexical choice (WLC). Lack of the appropriate word or facility if not vocabulary would account for these errors. As such below:

*Valentines **given** from the name of the two legendary Christian martyr whose feasts were formerly observed on February 14. (is derived/taken)

*A typhoon is the most dangerous **enemy **who** will do it to us like “Sendong” which **attacked** some particular place of Mindanao, the Cagayan de Oro and Iligan City, destroyed many lives and houses of people. (devastated)

*Because of low salary rate here in the Philippines, some decided to work overseas and sacrificed to leave their families behind. And it will result to a **far** communication which is very difficult. (distant)

*Then in year 1996, another man named Mel Silberman **showed up** and expanded the wisdom [taught] by Confucius and called it the Active Learning Credo.

*Another area of concern is the Wrong Word Formation (WWF). Lack of the appropriate word or facility if not vocabulary would account for this error type. As such below:

It is **away to feel the people about the happenings in our environment **as a return of our bad doings. (though one may mean “repercussions”)*

Filipino parents consider it their duty to provide for the **materials (collective: needs) and educational needs of their children. For the parents to **furnish** (provide/do) it they need to have a good job with a good salary.*

Every Wednesday after my class in Basic Electronics, I practice Octava and it is usually **end up** 8 pm.*

Another category under lexical errors is the generalization error (GE). This is where one has either the same form with the rest or a word is made to represent a group of items. Such as below:

When depressed some people spend their time in **doing, reading, writing, cooking and others.*

There is; as well, the duplication error (DE). This is where words are used together which may have composed independent phrases that would arrive with the same meaning. Such as below:

Those who *success and mastered *in writing, **aims after a better learning. (aim for or are after for)*

Finally, collocation error (CE), they are just juxtaposition of words that are allowable at some certain conditions. Such error occurs as shown below:

College schedule **can seem to be busy. (collocation error)*

As for word use errors, prominent among this category is missing word, the conditions of incompleteness however, is not isolated to one area of grammar, but of multiple cases such as missing verb, preposition, article, and copula. Table 4, below shows some of the findings:

Table 4: Frequency of Errors in other major categories

Type of Error	Frequency	Mean
word redundant	6	1.88
word missing	53	16.67
word order	13	4.08
Register	9	2.83
Style	9	2.83
style – incomplete	14	4.4
style – unclear	4	1.26

Somehow the usual pitfall would not come out as a surprise as it is so common even in spoken language to hear (the words in bold) in regular conversation.

And this is the very **reason why we should learn to stand on our own. Moreover, after you graduate from college, it doesn't mean you will stop on **acquiring further more ideas**.*

*...is the possibility that only **few numbers** of people will get affected by the typhoon.*

However, the difficulty on the use and usage of English in written composition is evident in the rich case or missing lexical items in a sentence. This actually is the dominating case or error type in this study as can be inferred on the table above.

As seen in Table 4, certain words in some compositions of the participants show these as a developmental challenge such that quite a number never missed out on case of missing word for an error type. Usually the errors involve the peripheral categories of a sentence such as the determiners/articles, adverb, pronouns, prepositions and quite a few on the nucleus of the sentence- verb and its phrase forms.

The words written according to context, reveal how the writer thinks of his/her readers. The quality of words used or even the usage would indicate the frame of thought a writer considers while composing an essay. In this study, varying topics where the corpora so the register is quite taxing to appraise.

1) After I ate my lunch I took a nap for an hour to **gain back my energy. When I wake up, my **buddies** called and asked me if I want ****to** played basketball.*

- *2) While waiting for our teacher, me and my block mates are talking and talking all the time like we've always been doing. **“cheka all the way”**, until our math teacher will eventually arrive.
- *3) Every 4am in the morning I woke up because me and my brother are **gonna** washing a bus in the terminal.
- *4) After that, I will prepare myself to take a bath, I'm **gonna** eat my breakfast, and finally go to school by 7:00 in the morning for my 7:30 class.
- *5) *My vacant time is 12:00 noon – 1:30 p. I'm **gonna** take a nap at that time after eating my lunch.*

The use of “gonna” (sample sentences 3,4, and 5) among these writers only shows the level of acquisition they have on informal talk from one of these likely sources: American shows, TV series, or popular local TV personality. Notable on these registers is that they appear on what seem to be a personal account of the writers' personal activities. Somewhere, probably in their consciousness allowed them to use such informal register as the topic is more of an opening, thus, they abandon the conscious setting of a formal writing. More so, the topic is quite anecdotal, the level of informal entry is further evidenced by the use of “buddies” in sentence 1. Lastly, though appropriately enclosed in quotation marks the amalgamated expression “Cheka all the way” assumes the context of free association of languages even in written form. Whereas meanings were never disrupted, the registers of informal composition adhere to the writing tasks assigned which clearly demonstrate the writers' ability to recognize propriety, at some degree, when needed.

In sentence 6, the use of the words “attacked” and “enemy” made this entry an interesting one. It would not be a case of lack of vocabulary since the sentence was consistent with related terms pertaining to warfare. Though inappropriate in the context, if we are to consider combat terminologies, the register simply suggests that the writer had an optimal view of the concept of combat but fails on the propriety of the other words in the sentence.

*6) A typhoon is the most dangerous ****enemy who** will do it to us like “Sendong” which **attacked** some particular place of Mindanao, the Cagayan de Oro and Iligan City, destroyed many lives and houses of people.*

Like labelling typhoon as an “enemy” and not a natural force of nature or the use of “attacked” instead of devastated clearly demonstrates the lack of sensitivity of the user to the words' semantic value. As a result, the prevailing idea is as if humans are at war and has a fighting chance to combat or counter the destructive force of a typhoon.

Sentence 7 shows how the language and behaviour of a writer is affected by beliefs on any higher entity, in this case God. The absolutes of things are so assured that even the tone of hopelessness and renewed faith surface though the text. This by the way is part of the composition “Surviving Sendong”. The register here is the shift on language intent and the implied or suggestive submissive tone set by the words used is evident.

7) *Each life is very important because God gave us only one but time will come that he will take it back from us and we don't have any choice but to accept it ??? be ready for it wholeheartedly.*

It is quite common to see our student writers to repeat terms in one sentence. This shows the fact that, with limited words to describe, the participant writers have the propensity to overuse terms to express a desired meaning. The case below in sentence 8 shows the overt use of the noun “song” and its common collocations.

8) *And as a song writer of her own songs, Adele expresses her emotions through writing it in a song that often results **to a feeling of melancholy whenever we hear her songs.*

Sentence 9 shows a shift in language form could easily affect the overall tone and mood of the sentence such that the contracted form of “we are” makes for the shift from formal to informal writing. The matter is simply on technicalities of writing.

9) *Since we're in our mother's womb, they **make** plans for our future and also they showed love to us.*

Finally, among the 9 entries, sentences 2 and 6 may be considered interlingual in nature. This is so as the phrases “**cheka all the way**” (Sentence 2) specifically “cheka” represents to chat, a language switch to capture the meaning of to chat. And attacked to actually mean devastate configures closely to the commonly used collocation “contra” or enemy, thus the verb attacked.

As for the category Style, the most dominant error type is unclear/incomplete style. This encompasses unfinished discourse and or simply nimblic expressions or sentence constructions whose semantic values are apparently poor no matter how long the clause may be.

1)...which means you can't skip anything to go to the next level until you are not done with everything before the other.

Wordiness in sentence 1 disrupted the clear intention of the sentence that is one cannot proceed to the next level unless the (immediate) previous level is accomplished. The structure even corresponds to “dili ka kabalhin sa sunod nga lebel hangtod wa ka kahuman sa tanan bag-o ang uban”, interlingual interference this is.

2)...but when it comes [to losing] **that** our properties, our business and the lives of people we love **will lost** it takes long time for us to recover.

The challenge in sentence 2 is the delay of the speech event. The exophoric approach of revealing the cause of the event lessens the emotional value of the sentence. Literally translated to vernacular, one will arrive at the delay of the information or of the speech event such that the writers' intent, considering the structure chosen, is to emphasize the cost of the incident's damage over the incident itself - typical feature of condition contrary to fact statements structure of the bisaya language, thus interlingual.

- 3) *Valentines day have many ways on how to celebrate especially (for) those who are in (a) relationship.*

Whereas in sentence 3 above, the wordiness may have achieved the intended meaning, but the form is awkward and is not tact. In back translating the phrase, one would arrive at “daghang paagi kung unsaon (pag) i-celebrate”, thus another interlingual case of an error. This may be avoided by the use of an exophoric approach in introducing the topic such as below:

There are many ways of celebrating valentines day.

- 5) Each life is very important because God gave us only one but time will come that he will take it back from us and we don't have any choice but to accept it ??? be ready for it wholeheartedly.

Sentences 5 (above) and 6 (below) show how an incomplete construction can temporarily impede the overall meaning intended. Like in sentence 5, the seemingly long sentence is stymied by a loss of what seems to be a conjunction but then suggests otherwise as the hanging clause is introduced by a “be verb” thus further requiring readers to fill “and we must” to complete the most plausible intended thought.

As for sentence 6, the incompleteness is awkward, yet comprehensible still.

6) *Let's [move] forward and keep the faith inside burning and win the race of life.*

7) *We have many problems that **are unexpected to happen.** (happen unexpectedly)*

Sentence 7 is a clear application of the strategic competence of the participant writer when an adverb was not that convenient to use, he resorted another form which apparently lengthened or increased the number of words but still arrived at the intended meaning. This demonstrates the wordiness of the bisaya language in expressing thoughts such that we do not have adverbs, thus the longer (wordy) description, interlingual this becomes.

8) *As a help of that we should keep on teaching good values, especially biblical values and principles to our generation today.*

Sentence 8 is another incomplete discourse as one would have difficulty in deciphering the thought it tries to send across. The challenge emanates from the use of the cataphoric reference “that” which in common oral discourse is acceptable as it could point to an object seen or that is the current focus of topic in a conversation. Again, propriety settles the use of the demonstrative pronoun, in this case “that”, in its use in written discourse as the point of reference if fluid.

Sentence 9 carries both the structural features of a declarative and an interrogative sentence. As thus juxtaposition of structure result to a confused meaning on structure 1) what all that matters 2) all that matters is, or 3) what matters to all, when a clear intended structure is [that is] what all that matters - a clear case of intralingual interference.

9) *And be yourself that is **what is all that matters because you don't have to change the way you are in order to help them.*

Sentence 10 is a simple case of anomalous referencing such that the contradicting association of modern with tradition is apparent. Though the meaning implies the association of modern thought to beliefs and attitudes, more to the dilemma in meaning is that both describe culture, that in no way can a tradition be modern for we can only put it as contemporary, a case of collocation indeed. As for its association to culture, the preposterous suggestion arises as cultural traditions are not done overnight, thus contradicts the idea of a modern cultural tradition. This construction must be motivated on the current use or free association of the terms culture, modern and tradition in a sentence such as in magazines and brochures. But if it were contemporary traditions or contemporary cultural traditions then it would be highly probable since contemporary stands for something that is changing.

10) *Although the Filipino family has embraced the modern cultural traditions, but the main significance of these [anomalous reference] is still applied.*

Sentence 11 shows the urge of some writers to insert preposition in an otherwise acceptable structure is a trait among the participant writers, another interlingual case.

11) *Moreover, during those moments when you want to say something that you can't tell to your parents.*

But sentence 11 is entirely incomplete of a sentence. One could only get the meaning of the above written discourse if and when the rest of its accompanying sentences are around.

12) *The best way(s) to express our love for our love ones are through love quotes, love poems, and love letter, which help to vent our inner most feeling(s) in the most amazing ways.*

13) ***This special persons include my relatives, friends and specially my family, as well as to my classmates and neighbours.*

Both sentences 12 and 13 are endophoric in nature, thus delaying the introduction of the true subject of the sentence. In addition, the enumerated items follow directly in support of the main subject. This sentence structure is most common of a style in writing among the participant writers. This may be because of the constructions taught in English 1 class where the structure is limited to focusing on the common s-v-o and the like, and had less emphasis on the other variety of the sentence structure. Thus, most of the time, the structure we see on the write-ups of the students can be considered as juvenile in development, if not common.

Sources of Errors

Table 5: Frequency of Intralingual and Interlingual errors

Category of Error	Absolute and relative frequencies		Total (%)
	Intralingual	Interlingual	
Form-morphology (16)	9 (56.25%)	4 (25%)	81.25%
Grammar- Verb Tense (109)	26 (23.85%)	1 (.00917%)	23.859%
Lexico-grammar erroneous complementation of prepositions (43)	0 (0%)	13 (30.23%)	30.23%
Lexis- Lexical Single (42)	14 (33.33%)	6 (14.29%)	47.62%
Missing Word (72)	30 (41.67%)	23 (31.94%)	73.61%
Register (9)	7 (77.78%)	2 (22.22%)	100%
Style (27)	9 (33.33%)	5 (18.52%)	51.85%
Total (318) (\bar{x})	95 (29.87%)	54 (16.98%)	46.85%

Note: The percentage is based on the number of errors analyzed for this purpose, thus the numbers in this figure do not represent the total error found in the study.

As shown in Table 5, intralingual sources dominate the instances or occurrences with 29.87% of the total errors analysed thus making it the main source of errors which means that around 3 out of ten times an error occurred were due to this (error due to L2), and around two out of ten were due to interlingual influence or transfer (error due to L1). In addition, this goes to show that learners find the grammar system of the English language a major challenge, though at times the trouble or error due to transfer surfaces but still the rules of the target language themselves carry the most burden for the learners.

According to McEnery, Xiao and Tono (2006), learner corpora are immediately related to the classroom. Thus, the importance of recognizing the sources of the errors learners make to serve as a basis or guide for course direction or lesson guide.

Moreover, though error types like verb tense and wrong complementation of preposition occur more than register and style, it should be noted however that this is true because the former are more frequently used than style and register for both are even subject for a grammar test.

Conclusion

As to the sources of these writing errors and based on their either being intralingual or interlingual, the study reveals that 6 out of the 7 error types analysed are highly intralingual in nature, except for lexico-grammar – erroneous complementation of preposition where all the errors in this type is attributed to being interlingual.

Overall, the intralingual interference, with a frequency percentage of 95 or 29.87%, rule as the major cause of errors and the College Freshman. However, interlanguage interferences surface from time to time and it is imperative that pedagogues should still recognize the influences brought by it in the teaching of English. In addition, it should be noted that 41.67% of the errors caused in missing word is attributed to interlingual interferences.

The morphological processes involved in sentence use specifically the syntactic position of the word is a common challenge among the writers. The fact that there are about 12 tense-aspect combinations in the English tense-aspect system as against to the limited and unique positioning of tense-aspect markings in the Cebuano language which is chiefly signalled by a mere affix caused these numerous errors to recur.

This study revealed that the cause of most of these errors emanate from the Cebuano language having very few and sometimes are polysemic word equivalents to represent English prepositions. Our mother tongue generally has a collective morpheme “sa” that may stand for *at*, *in* (*sa sulod sa*), *on/above* (*sa taas sa*) and the “para” (to) and its variety *para kay/sa* (for) and sometimes the morpheme “ug” for (with) but usually “with” is more complex as it may be represented by a couple more like the phrase “kauban nila” and “sabay sa”.

The adaptive skills of the learner may seem uncanny; however, the sparingly odd use of words is alarming. Most writers are stuck with the very prescriptively taught sentence structure when a thought could be much effectively expressed on a specific syntactic orientation/structure. The level of maturity among the participant writers’ writing is quite of average as there are cases of incomplete sentences, ambiguous structures, and even wordiness.

Prepositions post to be trivial to the Filipino learners and this can be attributed to their MT’s limited if not collective set of morpheme to associate location, direction, purpose and intention. Furthermore, these errors stem from lack of vocabulary, overgeneralization/application, ignorance of the rules and even over application of the rules. The English language is indeed a very complex language to master for some Filipino learners of English as a second language but the result tells us that it is still the mastery of the rules of the language to be learned (English) that requires enhancement which should therefore be the focus in teaching English as Second Language.

Finally, it may have not dominated yet it could never be taken for granted that one's L1 (intralingual interference) affect the production, understanding and performance of the English language learner. Thus placing the importance on recognizing the L1 all the more such that a sentence's complete thought is dependent on how it is constructed in the mental view of the learner and therefore an integral part of learning English language as the influences on one's L1 have contributed to the learners' understanding and therefore their overall development in their English language proficiency.

References

- Brown, T. And Myles-Vollan, M., (2013). Pedagogical Application of Verb Error Correction in an L2 Composition. *Linguistic Portfolios: Vol. 2, Article 5*. Retrieved at: http://repository.stcloudstate.edu/stcloud_ling/vol2/iss1/5 retrieved on May 2014.
- Bula,B. (2007).Area development program: Best practices as replicable models for poverty reduction intervention.(An unpublished dissertation) College of Governance, Business and Economics, University of Southeastern Philippines
- Bula,B.(2006). Constructivism and multiple intelligence theories: Their application to classroom instruction. University of Southeastern Philippines.
- Cabansag, J. N. (2013).*Written language proficiency of Laboratory high school students in a state university in Cagayan Valley Philippines*.retrieved on March 7, 2013. Retrieved from http://www.researchersworld.com/vol4/issue2/Paper_12.pdf
- Gustilo, L.E. (2013). *An analysis of writer's performance, resources, and idea generation processes: the case of Filipino engineering students*. Department of English and Applied Linguistics, De La Salle University, Manila, 2401 Taft Ave., Manila, 1004, Philippines Retrieved on March 7, 2014, Retrieved from <http://www.languageestingasia.com/content/3/1/2>
- Haryanto, T.(2007). *Grammatical error analysis in student's recount texts. (The Case of the Twelfth Year Students of SMA N 1 Slawi, Tegal in the Academic Year of 2006/2007)*.Semarang State University, Indonesia.
- He,D.(2007). *On error analysis of English majors' writing from the perspective of interlanguage theory*. Foreign Language Department of Huizhou University, Huizhou, Guangdong, 516007
- Huang, J.(2002).*Error analysis in English teaching: a review of studies*. Retrieved from lib.csg.ghs.tp.edu.tw/中山女高學報第二期/03error%20analysis.pdf
- James, C. (1998). *Errors in language learning and use: Exploring error analysis*. Addison Wesley Longman Inc., New York.
- Castillejos-López, W. (nd). *Error analysis in a learner corpus.what are the learners' strategies?*Universidad Autónoma Chapingo (México). Retrieved from <https://www.scribd.com/document/73162791/Error-Analysis-in-a-Learner-Corpus>. Retrieved on May 2010.
- McEnergy, T., Xiao, R., and Tono, Y. .(2006).*Corpus-based language studies:An advance resource book*. Retrieved from: https://books.google.com.ph/books?id=SU8yRlBA9rAC&pg=PA181&lpg=PA181&dq=McEnergy,+Xiao+and+Tono&source=bl&ots=_qCjw5qf_F&sig=cEi1hjDq2OZKWgrBZc7iISZoz48&hl=en&sa=X&ved=0ahUKewia2oy6mMLOAhVJnpQKHT3HC6QQ6AEIjz

- AB#v=onepage&q=McEnery%2C%20Xiao%20and%20Tono&f=false.Retrieved on May 2010.
- Mislevy, R.(2007). *A taxonomy of adaptive testing*. University of Maryland. Retrieved from http://www.public.iastate.edu/~apling/TSSL/5th_2007/2007_abstracts2.html
- Myles, J. (2006). *Second language writing and research. The writing process and error analysis in student texts*. Queen's University, Kingston, Ontario, Canada Retrieved from TESEL – EJ at <http://tesl-ej.org/ej22/a1.html> on June 27, 2010.
- Pan, A.(2009). *Contrastive and error analysis: Methodology of language teaching*. Retrieved on March 2012 retrieved on <http://www.khoanh.net/index.php?module=News&func=display&sid=1044&title=Contrastive-and-error-analysis:-Methodology-of-language-teaching.and> [http://www.socialvision.supanet.com/Language/Contrastive%20and%20error%](http://www.socialvision.supanet.com/Language/Contrastive%20and%20error%20), retrieved on January 2014
- Radford, A.(2004). *English Syntax: An introduction*. University of Essex. Retrieved from <https://www.cambridge.org/asia/catalogue/catalogue.asp?isbn=9780521542753&ss=exc> Retrieved on May 27, 2014
- Roble,C.(2006). *Language testing assessment*. University of Southeastern Philippines.
- Taka-Yoshi, M.(1992). *Learner self-correction in EFL written composition*. Hokkaido University of Education. Pdf. Retrieved form <http://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/content/47/4/337.abstract> retrieved on December 2013.
- Yong-Won, L., Chodorow, M., and Gentile, C.(2007). *Error-coded ESL learners' essays and automated diagnostic feedback*. Seoul National University, Seoul, Korea. Retrieved from http://www.public.iastate.edu/~apling/TSSL/5th_2007/2007_abstracts2.html
- Yumiko, B. (2005).Native and non-native English speaking distinctions: From dichotomy to collaboration.*The Catesol Journal*, p. 72.

About the Author

Mr. Peter Jon Mendoza currently teaches as a full-time faculty at the graduate school of the College of Public Studies, Education and Management; and undergraduate courses at the College of Arts and Sciences of the Mindanao University of Science and Technology in Cagayan de Oro City. He has served as faculty of the Department of English of the Mindanao State University-Iligan Institute of Technology (MSU-IIT) in Iligan City for seven years where he also served as lead facilitator of USAID's Job Enabling English Proficiency Programs (START and ACCELERATE) at the said university. He also taught at the Language Department of the University of Southeastern Philippines (USEP) for three years and, as shared faculty of the College of Education and College of Arts and Sciences of the University of Mindanao for two years, both in Davao City. He also served as the Peace Education Coordinator of Institute for Peace and Development in Mindanao (IPDM) at MSU-IIT while taking the post as faculty coordinator for extension activities at the Department of English, CASS, MSU-IIT. His research interests are as follows: Error Analysis, Applied and Theoretical Linguistics, Pedagogy, Discourse Analysis.

Writing Patterns of Omani Learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

Francisco Perlas Dumanig
Buraimi University College

Maya Khemlani David
University of Malaya

Ali Hubais
Salalah College of Technology

Abstract

The successive occurrence of themes and rhemes in a text is called thematic progression (TP). It explains the order of information in the text that can be determined by the progression in the sequence of utterances of themes and the corresponding rhemes. TP has become influential in analyzing the occurrence of organization of theme and rheme in written discourses. In this paper, we would like to analyze the occurrence of theme and rheme and the thematic progression pattern in the writings of Omani EFL learners. This study examined 20 argumentative essays written by Omani students who were enrolled in English Foundation courses. The data were analyzed by identifying first the theme and rheme of each clause then followed by the analysis of the thematic progression such as constant, linear, split rheme and derived theme patterns. The findings reveal that most Omani EFL learners use the constant theme and linear theme patterns in their argumentative essays. The use of split rheme and derived theme patterns are rarely used by learners. Such limited use of complex thematic progression patterns in writing indicates that Omani learners of English need to enhance further their knowledge and skills in writing.

Keywords: theme, rheme, thematic progression, descriptive essays, Omani EFL learners

Introduction

Learning how to write effectively in a foreign language does not only require learner's foreign language proficiency but it also needs the necessary writing skills of a particular genre of writing. Many foreign language learners struggle to develop their writing skills due to inadequate training. Therefore, to achieve such goal, there should be a collaborative work between the teacher and the learner.

Authors' Affiliation: Buraimi University College
Buraimi, Oman

University of Malaya
Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Salalah College of Technology
Salalah, Oman

Email address: fdumanig@yahoo.com
mayadavid@yahoo.com
alihubais@yahoo.com

However, in every class there is always the best approach that will fit the needs of the learners. Therefore it is essential that teachers must evaluate first the writing skills needed by the students in class. In fact, studies show that students have diverse needs in enhancing their writing skills. In a study conducted by Mohammed (2011) which examined the written essays of EFL Omani university students, reveals that the use of incorrect prepositions in English are influenced by the learners' first language, which is Arabic. Similarly, Al Ajmi (2015) argued that Arab English speakers have difficulty in using ten common English prepositions. The study recommended that in order to correct the use of prepositions of Omani students in college, the writing corrective feedback (WCF) could help students to enhance the correct usage of English prepositions.

In another study conducted by Al Seyabi & Tuzlukova (2014), it reveals that deciding how to start an essay is one of the problems that students in Oman encountered when writing essays in English. Such problem occurs because students feel that the beginning of an essay or a paragraph must be original and they need more input from their own knowledge. This only shows their poor writing skills coupled with limited knowledge of the English language.

The language issues in writing among students who are learning English as a foreign language may hamper their creativity to initiate any writing task. However, it must be noted that perhaps the problems could be culturally indexed since writing styles differ across cultures and this view has been widely supported in many linguistic research and linguistic analysis (Kaplan, 1966). The need to discover and describe the causes for the preferences found in other cultures is based on the notion that there are unique rhetorical traditions in the world's major cultures. This idea supports the fact that people in different cultures do not only write in contrasting styles, as has been adequately demonstrated in numerous contrastive rhetoric studies, but they also develop other methods of writing because of the difference in world views. Therefore, it might be helpful if the writing tasks must be socially and culturally relevant and familiar to the learners so they can easily conceptualize the ideas that they want to write.

Topics for writing provided by some writing books that are of western concepts could be problematic for foreign language learners of English. For instance, Asian learners of English may have issues in conceptualizing the western culture. In fact, it is generally known that Asian culture does not share much with Anglo-European and the American cultures. This is evident in the perception of Asian people which differ from those of the native English speakers in constructing reality and in seeking the truth through rhetorical activities. The rhetorical patterns of communication are influenced by speakers' cultural and linguistic backgrounds and are evident in their literacy skills like reading and writing particularly, among learners of English as a second language.

Students' problems in writing can be enhanced by employing more effective pedagogical approaches in teaching writing. However, based on the reviewed literature, it is evident that most teachers focus their attention on the grammatical aspects of their students' writing and less attention is given to the coherence in writing. In order to improve the writings of most EFL students, then there is a need for students to learn the basic principles of a coherent communication. As Cook (1989: 64) explained that communication must focus on the conversion of new information into given information, and for communicator to be successful he

or she must assess the state of knowledge the interlocutor. Furthermore, if we misjudge and treat what is given as new, we will be boring; in the reverse case when we assume the new to be given, we will be incomprehensible. This means that thematization in writing needs to be given importance in order to achieve coherence. This can be done through proper structuring of the given information (theme) and new information (rheme) in a clause and by creating links of the theme and rheme of the subsequent clauses (thematic progression).

Based on the aforementioned issues encountered by EFL learners in writing, this paper analyzes the coherence of writing of Omani students. More specifically, this study examines the occurrence of theme and rheme and the thematic progression of Omani students' argumentative essays.

Thematic Progression

To analyze and examine the students' writings, the thematic progression proposed by Frantisek Danes in 1969 is used as theoretical framework of the study. Danes (1974) defined thematic progression as one that refers in effect to the conversion of new into given material through the repetition or transformation of elements in a sentence. Theme and Rheme are two terms which represent the way in which information is distributed in a sentence. Danes (1974) explains that the order of information in the text can be determined by the progression in the sequence of utterances of themes and the corresponding rhemes. The successive occurrence of themes and rhemes in a text is called thematic progression or TP (Danes, 1974). TP has become influential in analyzing the occurrence of organization of theme and rheme in written and spoken discourses.

Halliday (1985, 1994) defined theme as the point of departure of the message. This means it is the starting point or beginning of the sentence. The given information is the information which has already been mentioned somewhere in the text, or it is obtained through shared or mutual knowledge from the immediate context. On the other hand, rheme is the remainder of the message in a clause in which Theme is developed, that is to say, Rheme typically contains unfamiliar or new information. New information is the knowledge that a writer assumes the reader does not know, but needs to have in order to follow the progression of the argument (Halliday, 1994). The boundary between Theme and Rheme is simple: Theme is the first element occurring in a clause and the remaining clause is the Rheme. Theme is what the message is concerned with and it is considered as the point of departure for what the speaker is going to say in a clause (Halliday, 1994). At the level of a clause complex, the first clause is taken as the theme while at the level of a text, the first clause or clause complex is regarded as the departure of what the author is going to say in the article (Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks & Yallop, 2000). On the other hand, rheme includes what the author wants to say about the theme, which according to the writer is new and interesting to the reader (Halliday, 1994). While using theme as signposts and rheme as information fills-in in presenting new knowledge to readers, a writer develops new themes from elements (themes or rhemes) mentioned in the previous clause or an earlier clause or the topic clause. The flow of information in a sentence from theme to rheme is crucial in achieving communicative effectiveness in a message.

The exchange of information between successive theme and rheme pairings in a text is called Thematic Progression (Eggins, 1994). Thematic progression contributes to the cohesive

development of a text, that is to say, in a cohesive text the distribution of given and new information needs to follow certain patterns. The progression of new themes is called Thematic Progression or TP (Butt et al, 2000), which has textual meanings of how experiential and interpersonal meanings are organized in a linear and coherent way.

The following example shows one of the styles of Thematic Progression. As the organization of theme and rheme progresses, Danes (1974) formulates three major patterns such as simple linear progression, constant progression, and derived hyperthematic progression. As TP develops, other linguists propose additional patterns in analyzing its occurrence.

Thematic structure has been widely studied and has proved to be an important cohesive element at the discourse level and is the basic form of the organization of the clause as message (Halliday, 1994, p. 38). A more dynamic view is that of Danes' concept of thematic progression. He claims that the organization of information in texts is determined by the progression in the ordering of utterance themes and their Rhemes. His spelling out of the relationship between successive themes and their Rhemes would appear to provide a more satisfactory account of the 'method of development' of texts.

Bloor and Bloor (2004) proposed four patterns such as constant theme pattern, linear theme pattern, split rheme pattern and derived themes. Constant pattern shows that the progression of themes in the text retains the same theme.

Example

The saw-scaled viper is found in dry sandy areas where there is little vegetation. Its length is about two feet, and it is sandy in colour with darker spots. It is aggressive and very poisonous. It may be found in the full blaze of the sun or beneath hot stones and in crannies heated by the sun

Theme A + Rheme B
↓
Theme A + Rheme C
↓
Theme A + Rheme D

Bloor and Bloor (2004)

The linear theme pattern is organized in which the rheme of one clause is taken up as the theme of the subsequent clause. This means that the theme links to the rheme of the preceding clause.

Example

The stomach produces gastric juice, which contains dilute hydrochloric acid. The acid kills most of the bacteria in the food. The partly digested food passes next into the duodenum, the first part of the small intestine. This is a coiled tube about eight meters long, which is as wide as a man's thumb.

Clause 1. Theme A + Rheme B



Clause 2.

Theme B + Rheme C



Clause 3.

Theme C + Rheme C

Bloor and Bloor (2004)

The split rheme pattern occurs when the rheme of the a clause has two components, each of which is taken in turn as the Theme of a subsequent clause.

Example

The only other considerable region of dense population in the world lies in Japan. This country shows a remarkable fusion of both densely populated rural and urban communities. Japanese peasant farmers, who constitute 45 percent of the total population, practice a typical monsoon Asian subsistence economy, whereas the millions of people living in vast industrial cities such as Tokyo and Osaka have much in common with counterparts in Europe and North America.

Clause 1. *The only other considerable region of dense population in the world lies in Japan.*

Clause 2. *This country shows a remarkable fusion of both densely populated rural urban communities.*

Clause 3. *Japanese peasant farmers practice a typical monsoon Asian subsistence economy*

Clause 4. *Who constitute 45 percent of the total population*

Clause 5. *Whereas // the millions of people living in vast industrial cities such as Tokyo and Osaka have much in common with counterparts in Europe and North America.*

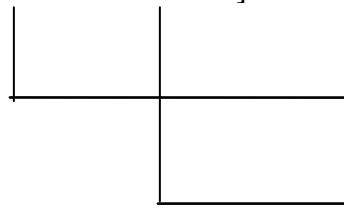
Clause 1. Theme A + [Rheme B + Rheme C]

Clause 2.

Theme B + Rheme

Clause 3.

Theme C + Rheme

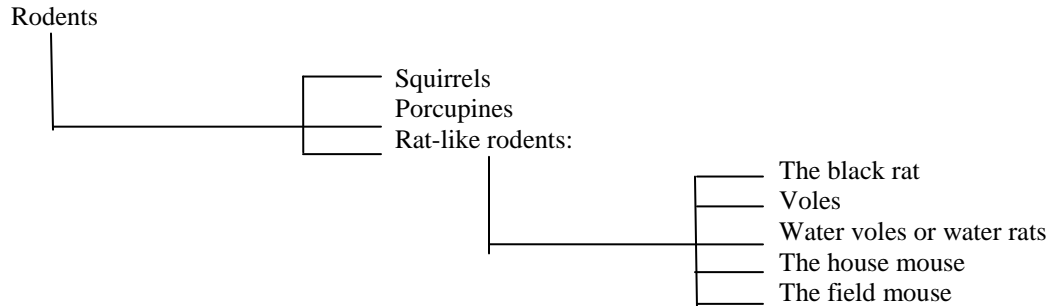


Bloor and Bloor (2004)

Derived themes occurs when there is link of themes not to the preceding elements but to co-hyponyms under a single hypertheme, which maybe explicit or implicit in the text.

Example

The rat-like rodents include hamsters, lemmings, voles and gerbils as well as rats and mice. The black rat is found in buildings, sewers and rubbish yards, but has been largely replaced by the bigger, more aggressive, brown rat. Voles are mouse-like rodents that live in the grasslands along riverbanks. The house mouse often lives inside buildings and is a serious pest because it eats stored food. The field mouse, on the other hand, very rarely comes near human dwellings.



Bloor and Bloor (2004)

Methodology

There were 20 EFL students from Salalah College of Technology who took part in the study. The participants were chosen based on their English language proficiency level in English. Consequently, only the first year Diploma students from three different departments and had just completed their Foundation Program were taken as participants of the study. This is to ascertain that all participants have almost similar level of English language proficiency. All participants during the data collection were currently taking the English Foundation courses.

To carry out the study, a written consent was given to the university and the students. After the permission was granted, the data collection started by asking the participants to write an argumentative essay on “the importance of learning English and other languages.” Similar data were used in our previous study on ‘Form and Content Feedbacks in Foreign Language Writing: The Case of Omani Learners of English’ (Hubais and Dumanig, 2015).

The analysis of data started with the content which focused on the rhetorical structure of whole texts. More specifically, the way Omani students structured their essays in English was analysed. The written essays were examined to analyze the arguments made by students through their essays particularly on how they organized their arguments to show coherence in writing.

To analyze the data, this paper specifically examines the rhetorical structure of the students’ essays then followed by the analysis of the theme and rheme and the thematic progression.

Results and Discussion

Structure of students' writing

The findings of the study show the macro and micro analyses of the Omani students' argumentative essays. The macro structure of the students' writing show that students follow a simple structure in writing their argumentative essays which can be classified into three parts such as the introduction, body and conclusion.

It is evident that in the introduction, students tend to provide a general statement by mentioning the argument and a brief description of each argument follows.

Example

Introduction

English is one the most important languages in our modern lives. It is one important language because most people are using this in our life. Also English language used in many places for example it is used in the movies, computer language, etc.

After a brief introduction of the essay, it is followed by the body of writing. Omani students tend to write their reasons to justify their arguments in the body of their written essay. It is evident that students tend to enumerate their reasons with brief or sometimes no justification. Sometimes the justification does not even fit with what has been argued and such incongruency could perhaps due to poor language competence where students could not express themselves freely on what they really want to say. The language difficiency limits the students to express their ideas in writing.

Example

Body

There are three main agruments why learning English is more important communication with people and to get a job. The first main argument why learning English is more important than learning other foreign languages is that it is international. Most people in most countries speak English habitually like the United States, Australia, New Zealand, Britain, etc.

Lastly, the conclusion is simply written by just restating the general staement or sometimes summarize the reasons. Usually, the conclusion is very brief and does not offer any critical analysis of the arguments made. It evident that perhaps language proficiency hampers the students' ability to provide critical analysis in every argument they made. Therefore, the argument has no substantial justification.

Example

Conclusion

In conclusion, English language spoken by many people. It is easy language and contains the most important three reasons that help English language to be the most important language. In my opinion....

In the macro level analysis, it shows that students' writing follows a simple style such as the introduction, body and conclusion. In each part, it is evident that students have limited to no justification and expansion of their writings. Such limited expansion is perhaps brought by the limited knowledge of students about the topic, low proficiency of the English language and limited skills in writing.

Apart from the macro structure in writing, it is also essential to examine how the students develop the entire writing by examining the occurrence of the themes and rhemes, and the thematic progression.

Thematic Structure

To understand the information communicated in students' essays, it is essential to examine the occurrence of the theme and rheme in each clause which reflects the organization of text or the thematic structure. Examining the thematic structure, which includes the theme and rheme will provide a clearer understanding of the exact function of the message provided to the readers.

	Theme	Rheme
Introduction	<i>Today English Language English</i>	<i>is very important for any person. is very useful in many places. has become the most famous language in the world.</i>
Body	<i>The first reason for learning English When a person learns English, he He</i>	<i>is easy language. will change his life. will speak foreign language in any country or anywhere.</i>
Conclusion	<i>In conclusion, English I advise, you</i>	<i>is an easy language and increases knowledge. should improve your language.</i>

Furthermore, the findings disclose that topical themes are frequently used in students' writings. Bloor and Bloor (2004) explained that topical theme refers to the constituent that is part of the meaningful structure of the clause. It always represents a participant, circumstance or process in a clause and is always realized as Subject (S), Predicator (P), Complement (C), or Circumstantial adjunct (A) in the clause structure. The use of the topical theme is evident that the learners of English are oriented more on the idea that the theme should always be the subject. This is inevitable as well because this is the simplest structure of the theme which is also easier for foreign language learners to formulate sentences.

Example 1

Theme	Rheme
<i>English language</i>	<i>is the most important language in each educational institution</i>
<i>English</i>	<i>is not the easiest language to use</i>
<i>Language</i>	<i>is useful in any place</i>

Example 2

Theme	Rheme
<i>So many people</i>	<i>use the English language with other people from different countries</i>
<i>Most countries</i>	<i>use English in the education system</i>
<i>The English language</i>	<i>is very important in all jobs</i>

Thematic Progression

To understand, how the Omani students expand their writings, it is important to analyze the thematic progression of their essays.

A text is categorized into two components such as the structural component and the cohesive components. The structural component includes the occurrence of information in a clause such as the occurrence of the theme and rheme. The other component is the cohesive component which includes the use of reference, ellipsis, substitution, conjunction and lexical cohesion. The text itself provides clear information when there is cohesion in the theme and rheme in each clause in the entire text and this is called thematic progression. The thematic progression can be seen through the use of cohesive components.

The findings show that students' writings follow a pattern of thematic progression such as the constant theme progression and linear theme progression. It is shown in Table 2, the common thematic progression used by Omani students in their writings.

Thematic Progression	Students' essays
Constant Theme Progression	12 (80%)
Linear Theme Progression	3 (20%)
Total	15 (100%)

Table 2. Thematic progression of students' writing

Table 2 shows the thematic progression of students’ writing. The findings reveal that constant theme progression is common which appears that students develop their ideas through the use of the constant theme progression particularly when presenting new information. It is also evident that in these students’ essays, the pattern of writing follows two similar thematic progression which include the constant theme progression and linear theme progression.

The use of the constant theme progression is easier for students to write the message and provides much clearer information for foreign language learners as compared to the use of split and derived thematic progression. Halliday stated:-

“...by analyzing the thematic structure of a text clause by clause, we can gain an insight into its texture and understand how the writer makes clear to us the nature of his underlying concerns” (Halliday 1985: 67).

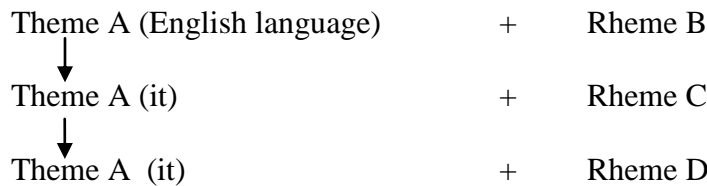
Thematic progression in the introduction section

The introduction section of the argumentative essays of Omani students shows that the majority follows the constant thematic progression. Out of 15 essays, 12 students use the constant thematic progression. Such constant theme progression shows that the progression of themes in the text retains the same theme. An example taken from the students’ essays is shown in Table 2.

Thematic Progression	Students’ essays
Constant Theme Progression	12 (80%)
Linear Theme Progression	3 (20%)
Total	15 (100%)

Table 2. Thematic progression in the introduction section

Introduction
English language is of great importance in the world in terms of communication. **It** is the way of communication for many people. **It** is the language of expression....



The use of constant theme progression in the introduction section in an argumentative essay is easy for foreign language learners to expand their writings because they use only similar structural patterns in writing. Moreover, the theme which is usually topical is just replaced with the pronouns or other naming words similar to the first theme.

Thematic progression in the body

In the body, it shows a different thematic progression when Omani students present their arguments. They normally enumerate their reasons but the way the themes progress they follow the linear theme progression in which the theme is linked to the rheme of the preceding clause.

The findings show that out of 15 essays, 4 essays use the constant theme progression and 11 essays use the linear theme progression. This indicates that Omani students present their arguments differently as compared to the way they write their introduction. Table 3 shows the occurrences of constant theme and linear theme progression.

Thematic Progression	Students' essays
Constant Theme Progression	4 (26.67%)
Linear Theme Progression	11 (73.33%)
Total	15 (100%)

Table 3. Thematic progression in the body

Body
*The reason why English is important is useful in dealing with **people**. **They** need to speak English when travelling to different **countries**. **These countries** use English because it is a common language around the world.*
*The second reason why learning English is important is to get **better jobs**. **These jobs** require people who can speak **English**. **English** is the main language of **business**. **Businessmen** communicate with other businessmen from different countries using English.*

Clause 1. Theme A (people) + Rheme B



Clause 2. Theme B (they) + Rheme C



Clause 3. Theme C (countries) + Rheme C

Thematic progression in conclusion

In the conclusion, it is evident that Omani students prefer to follow the constant theme progression which is similar pattern used in the introduction section. Table 4 shows the number of occurrences of the constant theme progression in the concluding paragraph. Out of 15 essays, 12 essays use the constant theme progression and only 3 essays use the linear theme progression.

Thematic Progression	Students' essays
Constant Theme Progression	12 (80%)
Linear Theme Progression	3 (20%)
Total	15 (100%)

Table 4. Thematic progression in conclusion

Conclusion

*In conclusion, **English** is the major language of the world. **It** is used in dealing with foreign people and in getting a better job. **Learning English** maybe difficult. However, **it** has many benefits.*

Theme A (English) + Rheme B



Theme A (It) + Rheme C



Theme A (Learning English) + Rheme D

Pedagogical Implications

The findings of the study reveal that the thematic progression in Omani students' argumentative essays follow a similar common pattern such as constant theme progression in the introduction and conclusion sections and linear theme progression in developing the body of the essay. Such patterns of thematic progression in argumentative essay writing can be used as a tool in teaching Omani students on how to write an effective and coherent essays. Providing students with the idea on how the ideas must be arranged like using either constant or linear theme progression pattern will enhance the students' understanding on how an argumentative essay should be organized in order to present a clear and well-organized argument.

For teachers, using the thematic structure to illustrate how an argumentative essay is written will be very useful in developing the writing skills of students. This is seen to be effective when teachers use the strategy of modelling. Modelling is a teaching strategy which focuses on the explicit genre that the students will be using in writing. The emphasis on using such a strategy in teaching writing is to focus on the purpose of the text, the generic structure and language features. Students should be given optimum exposure to a specific genre, which allows them to become familiar with such a text type.

In short, to teach an argumentative essay writing effectively, teachers can make use of genre and thematic progression as a framework. A joint construction can be used as an approach in which the teacher serves as a facilitator in order to help the students construct a model of the genre. This helps students to practice what they have learned but with limited guidance by the teacher.

After teaching the students about the genre and the thematic progression, an independent construction must be introduced in which students will be required to write the text independently. As a result, students will be able to produce their own end-product based on the model of the specific genre provided by the teacher. They can then move on to choose their own topic, draft, and edit their work and in the process obtain feedback from the teacher or peers.

Conclusion

It can be generalized that such use of similar patterns in the rhetorical structure, thematic structure and thematic progression reflects the writing of foreign language writers. The use of

constant theme progression and linear theme progression patterns aid in decoding of the text as they provide simpler rhetorical patterns, thematic structure and thematic progression.

Illustrating the use of a specific genre and thematic progression can be used as an effective method when teaching how to write an argumentative essay. Identifying the various moves in this particular genre of writing will facilitate both teaching and learning.

References

- A.M. Mohammed (2011). The use of prepositions by arab efl learners: looking on the bright side. *The Buckingham Journal of Language and Linguistics* 4, 84-90.
- A.A. S. Al Ajmi (2015). The Effect of Written Corrective Feedback on Omani Students' Accuracy in the Use of English Prepositions. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies* 6 (1).
- Bloor, T. & Bloor M. (2004). *The Functional Analysis of English*. London: Hodder Arnold.
- Butt, D. , Fahey, R. , Feez, S. , Spinks, S. & Yallop, C. (2000). *Using Functional Grammar-An Explorer's Guide*. Sydney:National Center for English Language Teaching and Research acquarie University.
- Cook, G. (1989). *Discourse*. London. Oxford University Press.
- Danes, F. (1974). Functional Sentence Perspective and the Organization of the Text. In F. Danes, ed. *Papers on Functional Sentence Perspective* (106-128). Prague: Academia /The Hague: Mouton.
- Dayag, D. (1997). Illocutionary Acts in Philippine English Editorials. *Teaching English for Specific Purposes*, 10(1), 109-139.
- Dayag, D. (2004). Evidentiality in Philippine English and Filipino Newspaper Editorials *Philippine Journal of Linguistics*, 33(2), 1-18.
- David, M. K. & Dumanig, F. (2008). Nativization of English in Malaysia and the Philippines. *Philippine Journal of Linguistics* 39, 67-79.
- Dumanig, F. et al. (2009). Topical Structure Analysis of American and Filipino Editorials. *Academic Journal: Journal for the Advancement of Science and Arts* (1): 63- 72.
- Eggins, S. (1994). *An Introduction to Systemic Functional Linguistics*. London: Pinter.
- Eggins, S. & J. R. Martin. (1997). Genres and Registers of Discourse. In T. A. van Dijk (ed.) *Discourse as Structure and Process*. London: SAGE publications. 230-256.
- F. Al Seyabi & V. Tuzlukova (2014). Writing Problems and Strategies: An Investigative Study in the Omani School and University Context. *Asian Journal of Social Sciences & Humanities* Vol. 3(4).
- G. Al Murshidi (2014). Emirati and Saudi Students' Writing Challenges at U.S. Universities. *English Language Teaching*; Vol. 7, No. 6; 2014.
- Halliday, M.A.K., (1985). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*. London: Arnold.
- Halliday, M.A.K., (1994). *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (Second Edition). London: Arnold.
- Harnisch, S., David, M.K. & Dumanig, F. (2009). Crosstalk and Communication Breakdown in Professional Interactions in English. *Language in India*. 5 June 2009.
- Hawes, T. (2010). Thematic progression and rhetoric in Sun and Times editorials: 1991-2008. *Rice Working Papers in Linguistics vol. 2 Spring 2010: 39-51*.

- Hubais, A. & Dumanig, F. (2014). Form and Content Feedbacks in Foreign Language Writing: The Case of Omani Learners of English, *Language in India* 14: 3-16.
- Kaplan, R. (1987). Cultural Thought Patterns Revisited. In Ulla Connor and Robert Kaplan (eds.). *Writing Across Languages: Analysis of L2 Text*. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.
- Katajamäki, H. & Koskela, M. (2006). The Rhetorical Structure of Editorials In English, Swedish and Finnish business newspapers. Teoksessa Proceedings of the 5th International Aelfe Conference. *Actas del V Congreso Internacional AELFE*. Prensas Universitarias de Zaragoza. 215–219.
- Pulido, D. (2011). A Systemic Functional Analysis of Philippine English Newspaper Editorials. *TESOL Journal*, Vol. 4(1): 52-63.
- Tirkkonen-Condit, S. (1986). Text Type Markers and Translation Equivalence. In J. House and S. Blum-Kulka eds. *Interlingual and Intercultural Communication: Discourse and Cognition in Translation and Second Language Acquisition Studies*: Tübingen.
- van Dijk, T.A. (1993). Discourse, Power and Access, in C.R. Caldas (ed.). *Studies in Critical Discourse Analysis*. London: Routledge
- van Eemeren, F.H. & R. Grootendorst. (1984). *Speech Acts in Argumentative Discussions*. Foris, Dordrecht.
- van Eemeren F.H., et al. (1996). *Fundamentals of Argumentation Theory*. New York, Erlbaum.

About the Authors

Dr. Francisco Perlas Dumanig is an Assistant Professor at the English Department, Buraimi University College, Buraimi, Oman. He used to be a Senior Lecturer at the Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. He has published and presented a number of research articles in the Philippines, U.S.A, UK, Australia, Japan, Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Oman and Thailand. His research interests are in language teaching (Teaching English as a Second Language - TESL and Teaching Filipino as a Foreign Language - TFFL), cross-cultural communication, world Englishes (Southeast Asian Englishes), and discourse analysis (Language, Migration and Identity).

Professor Dr. Maya Khemlani David (Faculty of Languages and Linguistics, University of Malaya) received the Linguapax Award in 2007 and is an Honorary Fellow of the Chartered Institute of Linguists, United Kingdom and an Honorary Member of the Foundation of Endangered Languages. As a sociolinguist, Dr. David has a special interest in discourse analysis, languages in Malaysian minority communities, and the role of language in establishing and maintaining national unity within and across cultures.

Mr. Ali Hubais is an English language lecturer at Salalah College of Technology. His research interests are English Language Teaching and Phonetics and Phonology.

Discourse Analysis of Research Introduction and its Pedagogical Implications to ESL Writing Classroom

Irish Mae G. Fernandez

University of Southeastern Philippines

Abstract

The study aims to establish the discourse patterns of students' researches from three different academic programs and to suggest an effective thesis-writing pedagogy for educators who are teaching or advising ESL/EFL undergraduate and graduate students. The analysis of the seventy-nine (79) randomly sampled research introductions revealed that the research introductions from the English program are the wordiest; most cohesive based on the frequency of cohesion resources; and follows the sequence of moves provided by Swales' Create-a-Research-Space (CARS) model. The Biology research introductions are the most abbreviated, disjunctive, and show few moves and steps that are in concert with CARS model. On the other hand, the Statistics research introductions are appropriately condensed, moderately cohesive, only few follow the CARS model.

Keywords: Discourse Analysis, research introduction, CARS, cohesion

Introduction

Discourse has generally been defined as anything beyond the sentence. The analysis of discourse, as a method, seeks to describe how written, oral, and visual texts are used in specific contexts to make meanings, opposed to analyzing language as an abstract system. According to Brown and Yule (1987), the analysis of discourse is, necessarily, the analysis of language in use. As such, it cannot be restricted to the description of linguistic forms independent of the purposes or functions which those forms are designed to serve in human affairs. It focuses on language in use, the relation of language to context, and the relation of cohesion within texts. For Schiffrin, et al. (2008), DA could be categorized as anything beyond the sentence, language use, and a broader range of social practice that includes nonlinguistic and nonspecific instances of language. Therefore, it focuses on knowledge about language and the world beyond word, clause, phrase, and sentence that is needed for successful communication.

Both reading and writing in a second language are complex skills, capable of causing great difficulties to learners particularly in writing. Such difficulties occur because the output is a product (text) that needs to meet readers' expectations in terms of register and generic features such as the overall organization, metadiscourse features, use of cohesion, etc., and to attain an adequate standard of linguistic accuracy. The writer's principal support, as Swales and Feak (1994) put it, is genre. It provides a conceptualization of writing purposes within the context of

Author's Affiliation: University of Southeastern Philippines
Davao City, Philippines
Email address: irishmaefernandez@gmail.com

the professional goals and means of the discourse community, a framework of discourse organization which constructs or interprets a text, and guides the conventionally-accepted and rhetorically effective exploitation of instrumentalities at the micro-level of text construction.

A discourse-based description of grammar – a discourse grammar (Hughes & McCarthy, 1998; McCarthy, 1998) – will treat grammar functionally. It will cover not only the possible realizations in grammar of particular speech act functions such as requesting and suggesting but the way in which grammatical categories such as tense, aspect and modality pattern across texts, the role of grammar in creating textual cohesion and information structure through devices of thematization such as adverbial placement, the use of the passive and clefting. However, beyond the grammar-based DA, Trappes-Lomax in Schiffrin, et al. (2008) noted that the constructs discourse analysts work with in analyzing texts – function, texture, information structure, macro-structure, cohesion, coherence, the text itself – are meaning constructs.

Barton and Hamilton (2004) went on to say that the goal of the analysis is to arrive at systematic descriptions that provide a basis for comparing written texts with one another. In addition, written discourse is not only a medium of information presentation but also a window into the mental model of the learner. Therefore, through DA what writers think of through analyzing his/her writings can be inferred. The readability and completeness of the writing itself can be evaluated as well. Also, it can evaluate learners' writing competence. In sum, DA in written texts is a process that successively approximates ways to adequately capture systematicity and variance across written texts and draw inferences about knowledge and learning.

Research writing provides an avenue for individuals to be inquisitive, to read, to probe, to argue, and to inquire about anything. In addition, academic writing establishes facts that are beneficial to an individual, a group of persons, an institution, or even nations. However, the combination of advanced skills that include critical thinking, logical development, and coherence of ideas involved in the writing process remains a challenge that students have to face. Research introductions, for instance, are regarded as unique genre identified to have inherent set of standards, norms, and conventions. Its intricate pattern of words and thought is both tiring and demanding for students. Few have had backgrounds on research but still find it hard to complete one composition. In fact, most Philippine researches have difficulty in being published in “research journals that are adequately peer-reviewed and accessible for international verification of results due to wrong research practices,” Lacanilao (2009). Moreover, as Samraj (2008) observes on her paper, student-produced research papers remain as a “genre that has been relatively unexplored in genre studies.” Despite Hyland’s (2000) claim, in his book *Disciplinary Discourses*, “published texts are the most concrete realization of the social practices of academic writing,” it still receives less attention from linguists and researchers.

The thought of thinking what and how to write troubles students thus, hampering their desire to write. According to Caron (2008), “students fear the dreaded writing-intensive requirement because they do not like it.” O’Leary (2009) supports this claim and added that “writing, thus, results in a form that other people can understand in a very slow process.” This left the impression that thesis writing is tedious and worst; students were not able to produce good and reliable theses.

Few studies of master's theses have explored the organization of certain sections of this genre after Swales (1971, 1990), such as introductions and discussion sections (Dudley-Evans, 1986) and conclusions (Hewings, 1993). These studies have focused on texts from single disciplines produced in some British institutions and have used a small number of texts for analysis, although a more recent study by Paltridge (2002) analyzes the overall organization of both master's and Ph.D. theses from a number of disciplines produced at a major Australian research university. Also, DA has been greatly exploited to further understand the intricacies of the results section (Brett, 1994), discussion section (Holmes, 1997), patterns of use of linguistic features, and studies which have revealed disciplinary and cross-linguistic variations within this genre (Samraj, 2002).

Barlow (2004) hinted that "students do not fully engage in writing (dissertations) because they view papers as research for research's sake. Because many students lack a true grasp of the overall task, they also lack an understanding of how to proceed in preparing the paper." Without a sense of direction, students do not understand what to look for in the professional literature or how to present the information when they write. Consequently, many college freshmen submit a position paper filled with opinion and unsubstantiated claims rather than an academic paper filled with research.

Cited in Pronin (2008), Emig (1977) argued that one way writing helps learners learn is by forcing them to engage actively with the material. Shaughnessy (1977) suggested that this activity embeds the material more "deeply" in memory. According to Fulwiler (1982), others described writing as a "connective" activity, arguing that the process of writing forces to discover and articulate relationships between what might otherwise be discrete bits of knowledge and encourages learners to go beyond the text, to engage in imaginative and speculative thinking.

"Research to date suggests four key variables in the relationship between writing and learning: the type of learning desired, the nature of the material to be learned, the nature of the writing task, and characteristics of writers themselves" (Pronin, 2008). Hence, the role of research writing is tacitly positive in facilitating learning of students. A journal published by the Colorado State University realized the necessity for doing research in the field of Nursing because "as students develop a greater comprehension of subject matter and begin to think critically about what they have to say, they have more to communicate to an audience," (Quiroz, 2004).

Their increased mastery of theory and practice gives them ideas and opinions that they want to share with others in the field. Learning to write for a professional audience takes on more importance. Being able to use the conventional forms and styles for addressing others in the discipline, another concern of writing across the curriculum becomes a necessity. Finally, research is essential to any discipline. In the field of nursing it requires practitioners to stay abreast of changes and identify gaps in the knowledge base, as well initiate their own projects.

Previous studies on master's theses have not drawn on the views of subject specialists concerning the purpose and nature of this genre in different disciplines, and, while these studies have provided with a preliminary understanding of the generic structure of master's theses, they

have not systematically analyzed disciplinary variation in this student-produced genre. In the Philippines for instance, has few known types of research which aimed to analyze written texts specifically the grammatical structure (Mendiola, 1978) and coherence (Almaden, 2006). However, the researcher has not come across studies that concern discourse analysis of undergraduate theses, especially the research introductions, to date. It is in this light that the researcher chose this study to espouse the need to establish discourse patterns of students' research from BS in Biology, BS in Statistics, and AB in English, with a further goal of realizing the importance of research across disciplines. Ultimately, the goal of this study is to suggest an effective thesis-writing pedagogy for educators who are teaching or advising ESL/EFL graduate students since discourse analysis is deemed necessary to clarify the communication goals of a particular discourse and the writing strategies employed by an individual to respond to the designated goals of a particular discourse community.

Theoretical Framework

This paper primarily utilized *John Swales' (1990) Create-a-Research-Space (CARS) model* as the basis for the analysis of the content and structure of the research introductions analyzed. Originally, Swales developed genre analysis by using moves to identify rhetorical patterns in research articles. The intent was to explain the communicative purposes of a text by categorizing the discourse units according to rhetorical moves. Each move had a communicative purpose and contributed to the overall communicative purpose of the text. The rationale of genres was created by these purposes. In his investigation of 48 English research articles, Swales found a pattern of four moves that occurred consistently in introductory sections: establishing the field, summarizing previous research, preparing for present research, and introducing present research (Sunton, B., 2000; Jogthong, 2001). However, in his major work, *Genre Analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*, Swales revised the previous model and identifies a pattern used in introductory sections of English research articles. Three moves are identified: establishing territories, establishing a niche, and occupying the niche. Swales has not provided a concrete definition of "move"; however, others have referred to a move in a text as "a section of a text that performs a specific communicative function" (Connor et al., 2007). It is a top-down approach to investigate the discourse structure of a genre (Biber et al., 2007). Connor et al. (2007) stated the relationship between move analysis, genre analysis, and discourse analysis. Researchers involved in the analysis of text as genre further relate discourse structures to the communicative functions of texts, resulting in the current approach of doing genre analysis using rhetorical moves.

Dudley-Evans (1994), who investigated the rhetorical moves in dissertation, implements the definition of the move of McKinley as "a semantic unit which is related to the writer's purpose."

Originally, Swales developed genre analysis by using moves to identify rhetorical patterns in research articles. The intent was to explain the communicative purposes of a text by categorizing the discourse units according to rhetorical moves. Each move had a communicative purpose and contributed to the overall communicative purpose of the text. The rationale of genres was created by these purposes. The table below shows the moves and steps identified by Swales in his study of the introductions of research outputs.

Table 1. Swales' Create-a-Research-Space Model (Revised, 1990)

<u>Move 1 Establishing a Territory</u>	<u>Move 3 Occupying the Niche</u>
Step 1 Claiming Centrality and/or	Step 1a Announcing present research descriptively and/or
Step 2 Making topic generalization	Step 1b Announcing present research purposefully and/or
Step 3 Reviewing items of prev. research	Step 2a Presenting research questions
<u>Move 2 Establishing a Niche</u>	Step 2b Presenting hypothesis
Step 1a Indicating a gap or	Step 3 Definitional clarifications and/or
Step 1b Highlighting a problem or	Step 4 Summarizing methods
Step 1c Question-raising or	Step 5 Announcing principal outcomes
Step 1d Hypothesizing or	Step 6 Stating the value of present research
Step 1e Adding to what is known or	Step 7 Outlining the structure of the paper
Step 1f Presenting justification	

There were also few known attempts in discovering and analyzing the complex process of organizing theses conducted by contemporary researchers. Samraj (2008) argued that a genre analysis of master's theses, which also draws on subject specialist views, can shed light on the nature of this student-produced genre in terms of its discourse structure and its place among different kinds of academic writing. The findings from such a study can be utilized in EAP courses to facilitate the production of this genre by master's students. Similar to Samraj, Dudley-Evans (1986) finds that Swales' methodology is not only applicable to the analysis of introductory sections of dissertations but also is an appropriate approach for the analysis of the discussion section. Dudley-Evans, who investigates the moves that appear in the introductory and discussion sections of seven dissertations on plant biology, reports that in the beginning of the dissertations, apart from Swales' moves "establishing the field" and "summarizing the previous research", the moves used are "introducing the field", "introducing the general topic", and "introducing the particular topic." In the discussion section, there are 11 moves used such as information move, statement of result, (un) expected outcome, reference to previous research (comparison), explanation, problems with result, hypothesis, deduction, reference to previous research (support), recommendation, and evaluation of method. Dudley-Evans noted that a strong feature of the dissertations is the cyclical organization of the moves. In other words, a move may occur more than once in different places of a section. Therefore, the move analysis approach is not only applicable to the analysis of research articles but also to dissertations.

In the light of the content of the research introductions, the work of Halliday and Hasan (1976) in Schiffrin, et al. (2001), considering cohesion as functioning essentially within texts to create semantic links and facilitates the decoding of meaning.

What constitute cohesion are reference, substitution and ellipsis, connectors, and lexical cohesion. *Reference* includes the demonstratives, the definite article, pronouns, comparatives, and phoric adverbs like *here, there, etc*; *Substitution and ellipsis*, refer to any grammatical items that might be replaced for another item to avoid repetition; also included are those connectors which link clauses in discourse, referred to as *connectors*, which exclude coordinating and subordinating conjunctions but focused rather on linkers between sentences; and, finally, the use of varied vocabulary that has an effect on the semantic link of the text which is known as *lexical cohesion* like synonymy or near-synonymy, and collocations.

Crane (2006) conducted a study “Texture in Text: A Discourse Analysis of a News Article Using Halliday and Hasan’s Model of Cohesion,” which highlighted the importance of some principles that exist in that provides a semantic link within sentences and paragraphs. The study has also shown how cohesion in text creates a kind of texture that coordinates ideas and helps students in their comprehension of any text. Furthermore, it has been explicated by Crane (2006) that the more cohesive the text will be, the easier it is for readers to comprehend the text since cohesion is an important aspect for creating meaning within text. In like manner, the present study utilized Halliday and Hassan’s Model of Cohesion to verify whether the research introductions are cohesively tight so as to facilitate better understanding that this corpus like any written stretch of language should come in a linear sequence where the next line should be related to the first.

The difference of Crane’s work from the present study, however, is its great emphasis in the cohesive ties of an article from a US based magazine called Newsweek. Apart from the additional focus on structure of research introductions of the present study, the corpus used in the analysis of the related study is written by a native English speaker unlike that of this paper which focused on research introductions written by Filipino students who consider English as their second language.

The research introduction has been specifically chosen to be analyzed since the said part identifies the main issue or problem that a researcher is trying to shed light to. The introduction of the research paper requirement will either make or break a research output. Readers would hardly be interested to read a poorly written introduction and worst, they would find the work incomprehensible. Hence, students need to know the framework that almost all research papers implicitly follow. Aside from this, the research introduction is taken as a unique genre that has a distinctive pattern in its structure and content. This serves as the *input* subject for analysis in this study. Through discourse analysis (DA), these patterns will be analyzed and eventually will pave the way for a deeper understanding of this unique written academic genre. DA is the *process* used in getting the results of this study. As Paltridge (2001) asserts, when genre knowledge is made explicit for students, instructors are providing them competencies needed for successful communication in particular discourse communities, hence, course designers and teachers will be guided in structuring their lessons according to the needs of the particular discourse community. The lesson design in English 2 is the *output* of this study.

Methodology

This is a descriptive-qualitative study which utilized the method of Discourse Analysis of undergraduate theses of three academic programs offered in one of the State Universities in Davao City, Philippines. Thirty (30) percent of the total number of undergraduate theses were randomly sampled from all undergraduate theses listed from the three (3) programs namely, BS in Biology, BS in Statistics, and AB in English and subject the said papers for analysis. Among the three (3) programs, Biology had the most number of research introductions produced from 2008 to 2010, considering the number of students enrolled and number of students who work on a single research output (some by pair, more work individually). The introductions of these papers, as the corpora of the study, have been analyzed using Swales’ (1990) CARS model and Halliday and Hasan’s Model of Cohesion. The researcher made use of a top-down approach to

determine the frequency of cohesion resources (i.e. *Reference, Substitution and ellipsis, Conjunctions, Discourse Linkers*), as cited by Halliday and Hasan; and to identify the moves and steps in the corpora, that is, based on the function or content of the texts on study. Although the identification of moves based on function or content can be criticized for its subjectivity, the researcher hence dealt with the problem through validation suggestion of Denzin (2004).

Results and Discussion

Biology Research Introductions

The undergraduate research introductions sampled from the BS in Biology program were briefer (with an average of 288.9 words), compared to the two (2) other programs examined. There are no rules governing brevity in research paper requirements but it can be a criterion writers should consider when writing academic papers like research papers, because it facilitates comprehension and allows readers to read the text in toto. This is supported by Wendy Carter, Ph. D. on her article *How to Write a Thesis or Dissertation Using Academic Language* that “shorter, less complicated sentences and paragraphs are always better – and more readable – than complicated string of sentences.”

On the other hand, BS Biology research introductions were written directly; and based on the low turnout of cohesive resources, the samples were disjunctive. It consisted of an average amount of modifiers (31.79%), noticeably very focused on the topics being discussed on each of the papers, and used technical terms. Because of the nature of their field, BS Biology research introductions commonly used scientific terms such as the excerpts below:

There are secondary **metabolites** in the plant kingdom and many were known to be **phytotoxic** (Einhellig, 2002).
Vertudazo (2010)

This may be more environmental friendly, easy to handle by rural people, and comparatively less **toxic** than using **chlorine** which is known to produce **carcinogenic tetrahalomethane compounds**.
Bag-ao and Cajano (2008)

Mitosis was used in this study as the basis to determine the influence of **Moringa oleifera** seed extract on the germination of **Allium cepa**.
Arro and Azarce (2008)

Many **species** of birds also depend seasonally on **mangrove environments** for food and shelter. Honeyeaters and lorikeets (**Trichoglossus haematidus**) visit the mangroves for nectar during the plant flowering season. Other species, such as the Torresian Imperial Pigeon (**Ducula spilorrhoa**), inhabit the mangroves during breeding.
Arcader (2009)

The **biodiversity** of the ocean depends also on delicate balance of **chemicals, salinity, pH** and temperature. Sea urchins are commonly spread throughout the **intertidal** rocks.
Bonalos (2009)

In establishing cohesion, it is shown in Table 3 (page 27) that the research introductions of the BS in Biology used Definite Articles (45%) and Pronouns (33%), i.e. *it, its, they, their, this*, as referring expressions. However, there were only very few Phoric Adverbs (9%), i.e. *now, here*, Discourse Linkers (8%), i.e. *however, thus, furthermore*, and Near Synonyms/Synonyms (5%), i.e. *regeneration~repair, shelter~habitat*, which are deemed necessary to establish textual cohesion. Definite articles provide easy ‘forward and backward referencing’ (Idrus, 2010); while Pronouns help strengthen objectivity in any academic paper by subordinating author’s voice to

that of the analyses and results of the study (Simandan, 2007). Cohesion in texts creates one kind of texture through the ties that coordinate ideas and experiences; and texture aids in creating meaning within the language (Crane, 2006). If this is the case, with the low frequency of cohesive devices found in the research introductions of the BS in Biology, majority of the samples were very straightforward to the point of losing the building of case from one paragraph to another.

In the analysis of the tenses and aspects of the verbs, majority show high percentage in the use of the Simple verbs in the Present (this is used in stating generally known data) and Past tenses (11.6 and 3.5 respectively) used in citing previously known facts, although there were few recorded usage of the Present Perfect (1.7) and Present Progressive (1.4) forms of the verb.

The *simple present tense of the verbs* was used in **stating more general statements of information or generally accepted facts; or**

Contaminated river water contains coliform bacteria (Bag-ao, 2008).

when referring to the students' present study;

Because of these, there is a need to establish a baseline data on the distribution of macrobenthic crabs in Mangrovetum (Segura, 2010).

and sometimes, when citing famous theories or claims from other researchers.

According to the biological assumption of Belbin (1987), when mangrove forest ecosystem is present, ... (Marañon, 2010).

On the other hand, the *simple past tense of the verbs* was used primarily in **citing other researchers' studies or mentioning results culled from previous studies;**

Unfortunately, many of these species were seen close to extinction due to severe habitat destruction and overzealous shell collection (Pechenik, 2000) in (Samson, 2010).

The sampled research introductions also showed less frequency of the passive verbs (6.40%). Carter added that for a research paper to be effective, writers should know that the use of passive verbs always results in more words than necessary to say the same thing, hence, the use of active verbs is suggested.

Finally, for the verbals, as shown in Table 3 (page 27), the BS in Biology research introductions utilized more participles (46%), compared to infinitives (39%), and gerunds (15%). Participles help course through the meaning intended by the writer to the understanding of the readers, since participles make clear references between ideas propounded. This has been affirmed by Granger (1997) in her study *On Identifying the Syntactic and Discourse Features of Participle Clauses in Academic English: Native and Non-Native Writers Compared*, which revealed that participles play an important role in foregrounding and backgrounding of information in a given text.

The considerable turnout of modifiers (31.79%) found in the research introductions of the BS in Biology program, revealed further that a list of modifiers is necessary in creating vividness in creative works, but in academic genres, objectivity is thwarted if the paper is filled with modifiers (Caprette, 2007).

Statistics Research Introductions

The research introductions of the BS in Statistics program sampled as corpora of the study, on the other hand, were condensed (averaging 306.13 words). The style of writing was also direct, almost always avoiding ambiguity by using crisp and clear terms that are mostly understood even by readers who do not major Statistics. Although the length does not determine the presence of moves and steps that previews text organization (Mauranen, 1993 in Samraj, 2008), but if the introduction is wordy and long-winded, readers' attention will fade missing the ultimate purpose of the research output. Since the beginning section of the paper contextualizes the research topic and articulates the thesis statement, it should be straightforward (Intro for a Research Paper Guide: How to Write an Essay. Retrieved from www.essaytown.com on March 27, 2011). Shown below are excerpts of the research introductions of BS in Statistics:

From the **data** obtained, the researcher observed that on the **average**, the **success rate** of each student in completing the three successive major subjects are **declining** for the past years.
Salla (2008)

Educational **measurement** is the set of **tests** and other devices to determine students' abilities, their achievements, and the effectiveness of educational programs. **Tests** are used to select students for special instruction (such as for the gifted or disabled); for college or graduate study; to admit lawyers to the bar and physicians to the practice of medicines (Grolier International Encyclopedia, 1997).
Betinol (2009)

It is for this reason that it is important to know the **predicted value** of the University **admission test** to the **academic performance** of the students.
Butt (2009)

College entrance tests are a way to **predict** your ability to perform in College-level classes. Because courses **and grading standards** differ from high school to high school, entrance tests provide colleges with a **standardized method** to compare you with other students.
Lavega (2009)

... the incidence of mismatch job has escalated due to **relatively low level** of specialized vocational ability of large number of job seekers as well as increases in the number of young workers who keep exchanging jobs, and middle-aged and older workers with high salary requirements.
Brigole (2010)

As shown in the samples, BS in Statistics students utilized words that are comprehensible even to non-majors of the field. This provides concrete examples in what was stated in an article Scientific Discourse (2009) retrieved from bmhlinguistics.org that since any research requirement attempts to communicate to an audience, the author bears the responsibility to write clearly.

Table 3 also shows that coordination of paragraphs was observable in the number of cohesive resources found in the sampled research introductions. And this made the samples more readable and comprehensible for readers because cohesion facilitates reading (Crane, 2006).

Cohesion was achieved through the use of Definite Articles (55%), Pronouns (21%), *i.e. it, this, they, their, them*, and Discourse Linkers (14%), *i.e. thus, therefore, however*. But still few Near Synonyms/Synonyms (6%), *i.e. studying~learning, dropped~flanked, good result~high result*, and Phoric Adverbs (4%), *particularly of time i.e sometimes, before, later*, were found in the corpuses. Reading the papers was fluid because ideas were properly sequenced through the presence of the cohesive components.

Like the papers of the BS in Biology program, majority of the papers used the Simple forms of the verbs in both the Present (11.10) and Past tenses (3.95), and few recorded Present Progressive verbs (2.15).

Again, *simple present tense of the verbs* was used in **stating more general statements of information or generally accepted facts;**

Systems vary widely from country to country, and sometimes from institution to institution (Butt, 2009).

when referring to the students' present study;

The researcher feels the importance of investigating it and it is the major reason for conducting this study (Nandu, 2008).

and, when citing famous theories or claims from other researchers.

Testing is a widely used tool in schools and in colleges to find out how well a student can learn or is learning, to discover learning difficulties and to improve teaching to assist counselors in providing educational and vocational guidance and to screen applicants for colleges (Brooks-Gunn, J., et al., 1996) in (Cavan, 2009).

The *simple past tense of the verb* was used primarily in **citing other researchers' studies or mentioning results culled from previous studies;**

Dick (1997) cited that the more students are able to relate their lives and experiences to academic work, (Salla, 2008).

For the verbals, as shown in Figure 8, the BS in Statistics research introductions used Infinitives (68%), with less distribution of Participles (18%) and Gerunds (14%). Infinitives create a sense of detachment by the author from the actions s/he describes (Scientific Writing Tips from a Science Journalist. 2010). Knowing this, BS in Statistics research outputs exemplified a more impersonal tone in writing or has a weak author presence, thus, apparently more objective in style.

Finally, the research introductions showed the least occurrence of modifiers (27.50%) compared to the other disciplines. This further supports the idea purported by Caprette (2007) in his article Subjectivity and the Use of Superlatives, that unless necessary, modifiers are as much as possible limited to establish objectivity in the academic paper requirement.

English Research Introductions

Research introductions of the AB in English program lacks the brevity required in any academic genre (with an average of 593.5 words used). Although there are no rules governing research length (Nador, 2004), an article by Robin Turner (1998) stated that authors need to use a fairly terse (brief and crisp) style and get to the point quickly in academic writing.

However, what the researcher of this study found out was even if the corpuses on study were wordy, among the three (3) programs, the AB in English research introductions showed the most number of cohesive resources, hence the most coordinated.

Consciousness over the global-national-local framing of citations from other work was apparent in all papers analyzed. And the tendency of being wordy or long-winded was true to majority of the sampled research introductions of the AB in English program given the highest frequency of modifiers, as shown in Table 3 on page 27).

Similar to the two (2) other programs being investigated, the AB in English research introductions showed extensive use of Pronouns (46%), *i.e. it, their, they, that, who, which*, and Definite Articles (35%). However, there were only few recorded Discourse Linkers (9%), *i.e. for this reason, further/furthermore, first, then*, Phoric Adverbs (7%), *i.e. outside, here, today, often*, and Near Synonyms/Synonyms (3%) used.

For the tenses, as shown on the preceding page, again the Simple form of the verbs in Present was primarily utilized, although an average of 6.25 Present Progressive verbs were found and 6.14 Simple Present Verbs were recorded from the corpuses on study.

The *simple present tense of the verbs* used in **stating more general statements of information or generally accepted facts;**

Scholars and industry leaders now emphasize the importance of good communication skills among graduating students, regardless of their field of specialization, for after graduation, they become the labor force of a country (Ayo, Cirilo, 2010).

also used when referring to the students' present study;

In this study, the researcher aims to find out the similarities and differences of Dabawenyo who speaks Davao-Cebuano or "Bisaya" and Davao-Manobo in their phonetics (Ardonza et. al, 2009).

and sometimes, **when citing famous theories or claims from other researchers.**

These errors according to Shaw (1993) in Bustamante (2006) hinder communication and impede thought (Balico et. al, 2009).

Meanwhile, the *simple past tense of the verbs* was used in **citing other researchers' studies or mentioning results culled from previous studies;**

Kearney (1998) said that people felt anxious about communicating at one time because apprehension as special kind of shyness. Some shy people may lack communication skills (Anino et. al, 2009).

Infinitives were also used loosely in the research introductions of AB in English students (with a frequency of 43%), compared to Gerunds (30%) and Participles (27%). Like the BS in Statistics program, infinitives facilitate comprehension in the sampled AB in English research introductions since infinitives are discourse structuring devices that set and highlight the author's thesis (Granger in Aarts, et. al 1997) while maintaining a more impersonal and serious tone for objectivity (Nador, 2004).

Among the three programs, samples from the AB in English program showed the most number of modifiers. Although, modifiers or 'superlatives', which include adjectives and adverbs, clarifies a point (Caprette, 2007), modifiers need to be moderately used because any academic genre is written to inform, to prove or disprove, and not to entertain. This is what separates academic writing from creative writing.

Discourse Features of Research Introductions in Terms of Content

The Cohesion model proposed by Halliday and Hasan was used in the analysis of cohesion in this study. Cohesion creates 'texture' that makes a string of sentences comprehensible. The study of texture (Martin in Schiffrin et. al, 2008) is a "process whereby meaning is channeled into a digestible current of discourse."

The Definite Articles received the most number of frequencies in all cohesive resources, particularly for BS in Biology and BS in Statistics (with an average of 20.63%). This cohesive resource is assistive in identifying specific addressee or referents. The cohesive resource Pronouns followed with an average of 17.63%. Pronouns stand for the antecedents that come before them. By establishing a clear relationship to their antecedents, pronouns help create cohesion (<http://depts.washington.edu>).

Also shown in figure 1 on the preceding page, the AB in English corpora showed the highest frequency in four cohesive resources provided by Halliday and Hasan, to wit, Pronouns (34.10%); Definite Articles (26.20%); Discourse Linkers (6.81%); and Phoric Adverbs (5.50%), except for Synonym/Near-Synonyms (1.90%).

With this turnout of cohesive resources, the AB in English research introductions were more coalesced compared to the two (2) other programs. Although AB English research introductions tend to be very wordy, given the student's prior knowledge on the Mechanics of Research Paper Writing, the sampled introductions were still able to establish cohesion. The BS in Biology research introductions showed the lowest frequency of cohesive resources (with an average of 6.67%), while the BS in Statistics also showed a relatively less frequency of 7.51%.

What does a cohesive introduction do to understanding the research paper as a whole is that these cohesive devices that provide evidence for the unity and connectedness of ideas

propounded from one paragraph to another, “facilitates in the readers’ interpretation process,” (Olshtain and Celce-Murcia in Schiffrin et. al, 2008). Cohesive resources therefore make comprehending texts easier.

Discourse Features of Research Introductions in Terms of Structure

In the in-depth analysis of the structure of the corpuses on study, the Create-a-Research-Space (CARS) model developed by John Swales facilitated the researcher in pursuit of finding the common patterns in the research introductions of the three (3) Undergraduate programs of the College of Arts and Sciences.

In Swales’ model, a 'Move' is a unit of discourse with a core communicative purpose and, together, the three Moves have a combined communicative purpose of demonstrating the significance of the research under discussion (Swales, 1990). Each Move is realized in the form of schema labeled as 'Steps', which operate singly or sequentially. Swales claims that a number of linguistic elements signal the various Moves and Steps; and these help to identify them.

Biology Research Introductions

Establishing a Territory (Move 1)

For a written output to elicit interest and response from the readers, it has to ‘establish the relevance of the topic to be discussed.’ This is the first move of Swales – Establishing a Territory. In the research introductions of the BS in Biology, *Establishing a Territory* (Move 1) is fulfilled in **Claiming Centrality** (Step 1) shown in the excerpts below:

The beginning of the 21st century has experienced heightened awareness on ecological matters. Along with it are rapid urbanization, population growth, environmental problems, illnesses, and deaths. Among children, more than half of all illnesses and deaths are caused by germs, which get into the body through water and food. In a developing country, especially rural, semi-urban, and even urban areas, water scarcity is a nagging problem.

Bag-ao, Cajano (2008)

Sea urchins belong to the Phylum Echinodermata, the same group as sea stars, sand dollars, sea lilies and sea cucumber, constitute a very large family of many different species all are covered with spines of varying colors and many are unbelievably beautiful. They have a hard outer skeleton, known as a test.

Mortillero (2009)

Bats, winged mammals that belong to order chiroptera are economically more diverse compared to any group of mammals. There are more than 750 species of suborder microchiroptera also known as microbats that occupy mostly the terrestrial and climatic zones and exploit variety of food that include insects and other arthropods and small invertebrates.

Robles (2010)

Majority of the research introductions sampled from the BS in Biology assert ‘centrality’ of their chosen topics by providing any known information or stating the relevance of the topic. in **Topic Generalization** (Step 2);

Aquatic microinvertebrates are those animals smaller than 2mm and typically comprise the Microcrustacea and the Rotifers.

Monilla (2010)

Barangay Tambo is one of the 46 barangay’s found in Samal Island. The abundant species found in the area are the mangroves but other species are also present such as the ferns.

Telebangco (2010)

Other samples also claim ‘centrality’ by giving a statement of generally known information, like the table above.

and in **Reviewing Previous Research** (Step 2).

Mangroves are trees that have the common trait of growing in shallow and muddy salt water especially along quiet shorelines (Crosby, 2007) and it is the most productive ecosystems of the world.
Aguan (2009)
Freshwater prawns, also known as crayfishes are among the most endangered species in the world’s lakes and rivers (Fureder, et al., 2002).
Senoy (2010)

It is found in the previous table that most common in all research introduction samples from BS in Biology were the previous investigations that may substantiate their present studies. The researcher also found that citations were all over their research introductions.

Although citing other researchers’ work is an obligatory step, according to Swales’ CARS model, the researcher was able to perceive that a paper with citations all throughout has a weaker claim compared to an introduction that articulates the individual researcher – his views, his assertions based on previously known facts, and his voice.

Establishing a Niche (Move 2)

In the following Move, the research introduction samples from BS in Biology, ‘*established a niche*’ in various ways like **Presenting Justification** (Step 1F); and/or

Moringa have numerous potential uses, it was found out that the plant is so beneficial to the health of humans and the sense of physical well being. The plant possessed many valuable properties, which made Moringa of great scientific interest which eventually caught the attention of several researchers. A Moringa seed was used in the study to find out the possible effect of this plant part to an organism.
Arro, Azarce (2008)
In recent years, there had been a revival of interest in herbal medicines. In the Philippines, this acquired a deep significance considering the economic level of the people and the rising cost of medicines and medical treatment.
Mayol (2010)

The larger bulk of BS in Biology student researchers presented facts rationalizing that there is a need to study their present research outputs. Through providing facts and sound reasoning, they have given idea to readers that the present study has value to the present situation.

Highlighting a Problem (Step 1B); or

1E Moringa oleifera grows wildly in tropical climate. It is considered as “nature’s medicine cabinet” due to its nutritional qualities coming from the plant itself, particularly the leaves (Fritz, 2005). It is said that “an ounce-for-ounce of Moringa leaves contain more Vitamin A than carrots, more calcium than milk, more iron than spinach, more Vitamin C than oranges, and more potassium than bananas.” (Fahey, 2005)

Bolivar, Uchang (2008)

1D Sea urchins are very common among the other aquatic organisms. These species are commercially important in many other regions of the world; these are one of the sources of food particularly the gonads and source of income.

Mortillero (2009)

One way of establishing the need for their research topics to be studied was foregrounding a problem. This is shown in the table above.

Indicating a Gap (Step 1A).

However, the manure itself may inhibit the production of Moina because farm animals are oftentimes given feed additives to control the fly population. Hence, other food preparations including yeast, alfalfa and bran were tried to propagate the water fleas (Smith et al., 1998).

Into, Luna (2008)

However, nowadays sea cucumbers were considered as a heavily exploited resource because of its lessened frequency in fishing and reduced catch volume, due to its high economic importance, and even in its medical value (Gamboa, R. et. al).

Consuegra (2009)

Almost related to the former, student samples showed a fair frequency of the use of statements indicating a gap to establish a niche. The latter, however, is more concerned with the conflicting truths averred by previous known information and what truth is existing at present.

A relatively less frequency of the use of **Adding to what is known** and **Hypothesizing** (Steps 1E and 1D) were also found in the sample introductions.

However, there is a lack of information on the distribution of fishes of within mangrovetum, an area with blocks of different mangroves are protected and preserve.

Marañon (2010)

Unfortunately, this area is subjected to human exploitation for the other portion of the land is being utilized for reconstruction of new building sites and for other human services area. Based on initial interviews done, there is a decrease in the frequency of occurrence of bats in the area and presumably, also a decrease in population and diversity of bats species. Diminution of bats population is an implication of a disturbance of these species in the area.

Lopez (2009)

In establishing the niche, BS in Biology research introductions were brief and convincing in demonstrating that there was really a need to pursue their individual studies given the justifications, the problem, the gap, and hypothesizing the effects of one variable to another, etc. Again, several introductions still cite other researchers’ work in establishing the niche.

Occupying that Niche (Move 3)

In closing their introductions, students ‘occupy that niche’ most commonly by announcing purpose of the present study, its impact to the society as a whole, or simply announcing the paper descriptively, and/or summarize the procedure they will have to take to achieve the results.

Announcing Present Research Purposefully (Step 1B); and/or

Samples shown below presented their researches indicating their objectives or reasons of conducting the studies.

<p>This study aims to determine the diversity, distribution, population density and relative density, frequency and relative frequency of sea urchin in Barangay Balet, Babak District, and Island Garden City of Samal. <i>Bonalos (2009)</i></p> <p>This study aims to carry an evaluation of the effectiveness of <i>Moringa oleifera</i> in water purification in river water in Brgy. New Malitbog, Davao del Norte. <i>Bag-ao, Cajano (2008)</i></p>
--

Stating the value of the present research (Step 6); and/or

<p>This research hoped that people gain better understanding of the plants surrounding them, specifically medicinal plants and become more aware of the existence of these plants which they could be utilized in helping to cure certain ailments or diseases. <i>Mayol (2010)</i></p> <p>Thus a survey on insect-eating bats would help to evaluate and determine the status of these species and the forest of Mampising. Furthermore, no studies were conducted on insect-eating bats prior to this research. The generated results from this study would contribute to minimize threat practices in Mampising for the protection and preservation of these species and its environment for the benefit of its local people. <i>Lopez (2009)</i></p>
--

Another step that student researchers utilized to introduce their topics was to indicate the overall impact of whatever the results of the study will be (as shown in the previous table). It is on this part that the researchers will have to look at how beneficial their studies to the school, to the community, or to the bigger society.

Announcing Present Research Descriptively (Step 1A); and/or

<p>Because of these, there is a need to establish a baseline data on the distribution of macrobenthic crabs in Mangrovetum. <i>Segura (2010)</i></p> <p>This study determined whether there is a significant difference between and among treatments such as <i>T. harzianum</i>, <i>Impatiens balsamina</i> or ‘Kamantigue’ as biocontrol agents against durian patch canker fungus, <i>P. palmivora</i> as compared with the Fosetyl-al fungicide. <i>Sollano (2010)</i></p>
--

Summarizing Methods (Step 4).

The researcher collected some information on the ecology of sea urchins and provide facts and data for the future researchers who want to conduct the same study.

Mortillero (2009)

The efficacy was determined by measuring the reduction in lesion size over a period of two months after treatment at weekly interval.

Sollano (2010)

Another way to introduce the study is to summarize the methods that the researchers will have to execute to achieve the findings of the study. This step explicates further the procedure they followed for readers to have a clear picture of what the researchers were trying to establish.

In concluding the research outputs, majority of the BS in Biology students tend to be very particular in the benefits their researches will entail in the end of the study.

The Moves and Steps, provided by the framework of Swales, were not arranged accordingly in the sampled research introductions (except for Corpuses 2, 3, 6, 15, 17, 21, 22, 24, and 26). Since Swales' model is purposely for students to be directed in writing the ideas according to its function in a way that will facilitate readers' comprehension, what was apparent in the research introduction samples from the BS in Biology program is that setting the mood for readers to understand the antecedence of any known fact to understanding the present situation and how the present study can address the latter is difficult to establish. Inconsistent from the CARS model, BS in Biology research introductions were evidently choppy, with majority of ideas adopted, however, advantageously succinct. On the other hand, reading the nine (9) previously mentioned corpuses, which are found to be consistent with the framework used in the structural analysis, the researcher noticed the smooth flow of ideas starting from establishing the field of study, relating any previous information regarding the study, highlighting the problem at hand, till the introduction of the present research's implication addressing that problem.

Statistics Research Introductions

Establishing a Territory (Move 1)

For BS in Statistics program, on the other hand, samples establish the field of study commonly by giving a **general statement of the topic under study (Step 2)**; and/or

The academic performance of the students is of great importance not only to themselves but to the university as well.

Nandu (2008)

College entrance tests are a way to predict your ability to perform in College-level classes. Because courses and grading standards differ from high school to high school, entrance tests provide colleges with a standardized method to compare you with other students. These tests are just one of many factors considered in the college admissions process. Most colleges also consider your high school academic transcript, extracurricular activities, essays, and teacher recommendations in the admissions process.

Lavega (2000)

Prerequisites are conditions of enrollment wherein the students are required to take certain subject before he/she could enroll in any particular course or program. The assignment of a prerequisite to a course signifies that a skill or body of knowledge described in the prerequisite is essential to the success of the students. However, in that course and that is highly unlikely that a student who has not met the prerequisite will receive a satisfactory grade in the course which the prerequisite has been established.

Mendoza (2008)

Educators have always been concerned with measuring and evaluating the progress of their students. As the goals of education have become more complex and as the number of students has increased enormously, this task has become much more difficult.

Betinol (2009)

The samples the above clearly show how the student researchers try to convince the readers by indicating the relevance of studying each topic.

Commonly, what comes after ‘claiming centrality’ is **reviewing items of previous research (Step 3)**.

Although anxiety is less specific than fear it should not be taken lightly. A test anxious student often has difficulties in concentration. He continues to operate at two levels one deals with actual questions in the exam; and the other, with continual warnings, predictions, and self-evaluations. Notions such as “your stupid,” “you will never finish it in time,” “you can’t understand,” place a great tax on his cognitive capability and thus reduce efficiency and performance (Sarason and Stoops, 1978).

Capili (2009)

In most cases, undergraduate Grade Point Average and Admission test scores constitute the primary criteria by which admissions officials make decisions regarding acceptance or rejection of applicants (Benson, 1983).

Universities have a history of attempting to predict the academic performance of potential students. Over the last decade or so, reliance on standardized and purely quantitative selection criteria has come under attack (Ravitch, 1989; Murphy, 1992; Zeff, Fremgen, and Martinez, 1994; and Hancock, 1998).

Mosca (2009)

The research introduction samples show tolerable frequency of citations all throughout the corpuses.

Establishing a Niche (Move 2)

Meanwhile, to Establish a Niche, the BS Statistics research introductions commonly utilized **Presenting Justification (Step 1F)**, **Highlighting a Problem (Step 1B)**, and **Indicating a Gap (Step 1A)**.

Student researchers opt in **Presenting Justification/s (Step 1F)**;

In the University of Southeastern Philippines which is one of the best state universities in the Philippines with a vision of producing morally competitive and upright graduates changes its admission test while abiding the regulation that the university admission test must be changed after four to five years.

Since the population of the students who study and wants to study at the University has increased, the administration designed measures to screen the students who will be allowed to enter the university while still requiring good grades from their secondary school education. This is to maintain the good quality of students who will be accepted in the university. The USEPAT, a standardized admission test used as preliminary screening tool so that only students deserve to enter the university are admitted.

Butt (2009)

or they mention existing **problems (Step 1B)**;

Bachelor of Science in Mathematics and Bachelor of Science in Statistics students are facing a big problem about these prerequisites because most of them got a 5.0 or failing grade. It is one of the main reasons why it took a longer time for them to graduate.
Mendoza (2008)

Problems usually have bearing with the present context the study was conducted (i.e. in USeP, in Davao City).

or the researchers mentioned some **gaps (Step 1A)** regarding lack of or insufficient accounts of related studies that has the same bearing with their present studies.

however most of the studies relied on the advanced developed societies as their setting. The predictive validity of the tests declines when they are used to forecast outcomes in later life, such as job performance, salary or even obtaining a job in the first place.
Mosca (2009)

Occupying the Niche (Move 3)

Finally, in presenting the present research, students from BS in Statistics program most commonly introduce the paper either descriptively or emphasizing the researchers' purpose in pursuing the study.

Announcing present research purposefully (Step 1B); or

So, to address the needs of finding the key for academic success among the students, focus of this research is the non-academic factors. Specifically, the purpose of this study is to determine whether there exist a significant relationship between the academic performance of students in Mathematical Analysis subjects and the following indicators namely: Self-Motivation, Self-Esteem, Study Habit, Dwelling Environment, and Peer Influence.
Salla (2008)
In as much as test anxiety poses a real threat on the academic performance of students, the researcher conducted a study that attempts to determine the variables that are good indicators of test anxiety.
Capili (2009)

In concluding the first chapter for BS in Statistics researches, the corpuses have shown that more commonly, they utilized Step 1A and Step 1B (which tied with 44% Or 4 out of 9).

In this step, researchers convey their objectives in choosing the study. They either personally give their reasons why they choose the research topic or they may give well-researched conditions that pave the way for them to choose the topic.

Announcing present research descriptively (Step 1A).

The Third year BS Mathematics and BS Statistics students of the University of Southeastern Philippines, Bo. Obrero Campus was chosen to be the subject of this study.

Nandu (2008)

In this regard, the researcher conceptualized this study and come up with the idea of measuring the predictive value of 2008 USEPAT to the academic performance of first year College of Technology students.

Cavan (2009)

To announce research descriptively, the samples show that some can simply state the title of the study, the respondents, research locale, and brief background regarding the chosen topic.

The research introductions of the graduates of the BS in Statistics for three (3) consecutive school years generally followed the CARS model of John Swales (with 73% of the total number of sampled research introductions). Although, the design has never been taught yet, the research introductions exemplified patterns of the Swales' moves. However, there were few digressions noted in the Steps found from the corpora.

English Research Introductions

Finally for AB in English research introductions, the following patterns are observed.

Establishing a Territory (Move 1)

For Move 1, what is most common is **Claiming Centrality (Step 1)**.

The self is the central ingredient in human personality and personal adjustment (Rogers, 1980). It is the one responsible for making an individual who he or she is. A good self gives someone an identity, which distinguishes him from other individuals. A good understanding of one's self would lead to better understanding of one's self-concept.

Self-concept or self-identity is the mental and conceptual understanding and persistent regard that sentient beings hold for their own existence. In other words, it is the sum total of a being's knowledge and understanding of his or her self (www.wikipedia.org. 2007). An individual's self-concept consists of his impression of himself and his evaluation of his adequacy. Often, he reflects on himself, whether he is good or bad, strong or weak, intelligent or not, and other things that he thinks he is or he is not. The self-concept is an individual's subjective perception of whom he is like of all of his subjective views of life.

Abing (2008)

Like the samples shown above, students set the centrality of the topic by giving a previously known knowledge and then giving emphasis on its impact to the present.

The obligatory **Reviewing Previous Research (Step 3)** has a considerable frequency distributed in the corpora. Also observed are the conscious efforts to as much as possible citing properly the references (i.e. use of *ibid*, *et. al*, *date*, etc.).

Establishing a Niche (Move 2)

English has been a second language for much of the world. According to a 2004 report to a British Council, within a decade, 2 billion people will be studying the English language and half of the world (about 3 billion people by that time) will speak the language to one degree to another (*ibid*).

Alcarion, et.. al. (2009)

For the next move, research introductions of AB in English program show a rich compilation of issues/problems and additional information regarding their research topic.

Primarily, they **Highlight a Problem (Step 1B)**; and/or

Issues with regards to students' acquisition dilemmas; effects of personality, strategies, instruction to academic performance; needs of students; and the likes are few of the problems commonly mentioned in the corpora.

Reading is a vital process essential to augment students' learning. However, it requires motivation for a student to develop this skill towards their particular study.

Gonzales (2009)

In the national situation, students have different personalities. In the University of Southeastern Philippines, particularly in the College of Arts and Sciences, many studies regarding student personality were conducted.

Baite and Benedicto (2010)

they either **Present Justification/s (Step 1F)**; and/or

By imparting other information, the student researchers here try to convince the readers of the need to conduct the study.

According to James (2005) considering the nature of the text and the similarities between the ideal source text and target text reader, an important aspect is to determine how much missing background information should be provided by the translator using different translation methods. ... Thus, formal equivalence should not always be sought as this cannot justify the expectations of the listener.

Niza et. al (2008)

Technologies advent influenced curriculum and introduced innovative instructional strategies for the teacher to reinforce in the classroom (Adams and Hamm, 2000). Student often rely on their visual learning, even when their conceptual knowledge contradicts it. Verbal explanations, personal experience, and active learning in a real classroom would remain essential. However there are times when the video screen can provide potent visual experiences that exhort viewers to acknowledge what is presented. The moving image has as much power to make our thoughts robust as it does to make them feeble.

Lee and Llanderal (2010)

they also **Add to what is known (Step 1E)**.

Furthermore, reading is also a skill to understand the meaning and to what is being stated in the text, and to formulate your own thoughts and ideas and learn from what is being read or what has perceived in the text....

Caballes and Janiola (2009)

It is now well established that children with speech sound disorder (SSD) are at significant risk of concomitant delays in the development of their phonological awareness and literacy skills ...

Cahandig and Canonigo (2010)

Occupying that Niche (Move 3)

In preparing for the present study, research introductions of AB in English, most commonly **Announce Present Research Descriptively (Step 1A)**; and/or

Students either mention the title, research design, respondents involved in the study, and a brief overview of their study.

they **Announce Present Research Purposefully (Step 1B)**; and

In respond to these issues, the study aims to provide needs analysis so as to determine the problems present in the respective areas of learning among the respondents. This needs analysis will shed light and will give an over view of the real thing that the students would want to happen within their learning journey.

Braza, et. al (2009)

In this study, the researchers were encouraged to study in relation to the many issues of communication behavior. This study aims to fulfill the purpose as a resource for future studies on communication behavior. The main focus of this study is to describe the communication behavior of freshmen of University of Southeastern Philippines and somehow give clarifications to the underlying questions of this study.

Berino and Braza (2010)

In the previous examples, student researchers may also give their individual reasons/objectives in conducting their studies.

or they can also **State the value of the present research (Step 6)**.

This study would serve beneficial particularly to students to know their competence in writing as well as the significant factors that weaken their ability to compose. Hence, the researchers would give future researchers the hint and springboard where to derive their investigation with regard to writing problems and so with the teachers to determine what primarily impedes their students from writing.

Buentipo and Garlitos (2010)

Thus, along this premise the researchers were challenged to conduct this study with the aim of determining the AB in English students reading strategies and comprehension, to know their capabilities on what and how they apply reading strategies to improve their reading comprehension and to encourage them in knowing the importance of reading with comprehension that serves as one of the factors in becoming literate. This study is of great help to improve the quality of language learning especially on achieving better reading comprehension at which will lead to the effectiveness of reading strategies of the students.

Gonzales and Inansugan (2010)

In this step, researchers look at the overarching impact of their studies to the bigger community. With this readers will understand the significance of their present studies.

For AB in English program, only 36% of the total number of corpuses tacitly followed Swales' CARS model.

In general, all three (3) Moves proposed by Swales' CARS model occur more frequently in the corpuses under study. And as observed, conformity to the Moves would indeed facilitate reading and understanding, and would prove the research introductions to be effective. However, though a considerable number of corpuses apparently are in concert to Swales' moves, the sequence of steps is not necessarily conforming to the said model.

Summary of Findings

Overall Organization of Research Introductions

Among the three (3) programs, the BS in Biology research introductions were significantly shorter; the BS in Statistics corpora were moderately worded; and the AB in English introductions were the most wordy, based on the average number of words found in the analyzed corpora.

For Cohesion, findings have revealed that among the three programs, the BS in Biology and BS in Statistics corpora were disjunctive compared to the AB in English sampled research introductions.

When talking about COHESION, ideas propounded in the research introductions of the AB in English were more cohesive compared to the other programs under study, considering the high frequency of cohesion resources found in all research introductions. On the other hand, given the low frequency of cohesive resources of the BS in Biology corpora, the samples were apparently disjunctive.

For structure, only 37.5% of all the corpuses implicitly follow the Moves and Steps of Swales. Majority of the research introduction samples were in concert to the Moves of Swales but majority also showed deviations from the Steps.

Discourse Features of Undergraduate Research Introductions:

Content

Halliday and Hasan's framework for Cohesion Analysis has clearly, though not perfectly, sorted out the words/phrases that help in linking semantic meanings within texts.

Most common in the corpuses are the definite articles (with an average of 61.89%). Students find the definite articles easy to use to refer to things mentioned in the texts. Also another lexical item used for referencing are the pronouns (with an average of 52.88%). All the samples showed less frequency of the two equally important cohesive resources – Phoric Adverbs and Synonyms/Near-Synonyms.

Although the AB in English research introductions show cohesion, in general, the undergraduate researchers still have to work on their consciousness regarding cohesion and its effect to the readability and comprehensibility of their outputs.

Structure

Looking at the structure of the research introductions with Swales' CARS model as the basis, only 37.5% of the total number of research introductions from the three (3) programs conform to the said model. Although this number is in concert to Swales' model, it should be noted however, that at the step level, there are divergences.

All three (3) programs, the student-researchers claim centrality by citing previously known facts and then comment on it to provide background for readers, or to indicate the importance of the study.

Citations are found in all research introductions, indication of students' consciousness of establishing the reliability of the claims by citing authorities. Nador (2004) asserts that citations lend support to the arguments of their present studies. Prior studies also help contextualize the research topic.

In preparing for the study, more common to the research introductions are indicating insufficiency or lack of studies which have bearings on the present study, and highlighting existing problems, that eventually pave the way for their choice of the research topic.

Finally, for Move 3 or in introducing the present paper, the student researchers from all programs unanimously prefer announcing the present research descriptively (i.e. giving the title, research design, respondents, etc.), and implicating the goals of the researcher supporting his choice of research topic.

The study showed that through Discourse Analysis, patterns in the structure and content that are inherent in research introductions, as a specific genre, and the conventions that are acceptable to a specific research academic community will become more explicit, thereby providing a much clearer model of a requirement students once dread, and facilitating learning and writing the same.

Conclusions

Based on the findings, research introductions from the AB in English program are the most wordy; the most cohesive based on the frequency of cohesion resources; and follows the Swales' CARS model. The BS in Biology research introductions, on the other hand, were the most abbreviated, the most disjunctive, and showed few moves and steps that were in concert with CARS model. While, the BS in Statistics research introductions were appropriately condensed, moderately cohesive, but only very few research introductions followed the CARS model.

The research introductions from the three (3) programs show patterns of numerous definite articles and pronouns distributed all throughout the corpuses of the study. In all three programs, the Phoric Adverbs and Synonyms/Near Synonyms received the least frequency. Results also revealed that among the three programs, the corpora from the AB in English program were the most cohesive, given the most number of cohesive resources present in the research introductions.

A relatively high percentage of the Undergraduate research introductions apparently followed Swales' Rhetorical Moves but many showed deviations in the Steps.

In designing a lesson for teaching academic writing, teachers can utilize results from discourse analysis since this method allows scrutiny of texts that will make patterns explicit. The

more explicit the patterns of texts are, the easier it would be for students to comply with any academic paper requirement.

Recommendations

Based on the foregoing findings and conclusions, academic writing classes should emphasize the functions of cohesion resources. Students are also advised to be taught that content and structure either enable one to understand and comprehend research output or constrain its readability hence, they should know how to establish cohesion in their contents and apply the structures provided by John Swales. Further, students should discern the value of research in any field of study; For future researchers, the researcher proposes to conduct further studies with regard to Discourse Analysis of Written Texts but explore other areas, analyze more outputs, and consider other fields or discipline.

References

- Almaden, D. O. (2006). *Analysis of the topical structure of paragraphs written by Filipino students*. Published dissertation, De La Salle University, Manila.
- Barton, D. and Hamilton, M. (2004). *Analysis of an exemplar research in this methodologies: Students' memo. Local literacies: Reading and writing in one community*. New York: Routledge.
- Gillian, B., & Yule, G. (1996). *Discourse analysis*. Cambridge.
- Caron, T. (2008). *Teaching writing as a con-artist: When is writing a problem not?* Heldorf Publications.
- Connor, U. (2004). *Intercultural rhetoric research: Beyond texts*. Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 3(4), 291-304.
- Crane, P. (2006). *Texture in Text: A Discourse Analysis of a News Article Using Halliday and Hasan's Model of Cohesion*. Published dissertation. Retrieved June 12, 2010.
- Davies, A. and Elder, C. (2006). *The handbook of discourse analysis*. United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Gaerlan, M. J. M. (2008). *Discourse organization of want ads in Philippine English and Qatari English newspapers*. Published dissertation, De La Salle University, Manila. Retrieved February 26, 2010 <http://www.ejournals.ph/index.php/PJL/article/view/242/345>.
- Luke, A. (no date). *Theory and practice in critical discourse analysis*. University of Australia. Retrieved February 23, 2010 from <http://www.gseis.ucla.edu/faculty/kellner/ed270/Luke/SAHA6.html>.
- Goldman, S. R. & Wiley, J. (2004) *Discourse Analysis: Written Text*. In N. Duke & M. Malette (Eds.) *Literacy Research Methods* (pp.62-91). Published dissertation, New York: Guilford. http://www.carmms.abcusd.k12.ca.us/pdf/English_Dept_Style_Guide.pdf
- Ivanov, Sergej. (2009). *Discourse analysis in EFL reading*. Published dissertation. Retrieved December 1, 2010.
- Jogthong, C. (2001). *Research article introductions in Thai: Genre analysis of academic writing*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. West Virginia University.
- Lacanilao, F. Keynote address at the 27th meeting of the association of systemic biologists of the Philippines, National Museum, Manila, 29-30 May, 2009. Posted June 3, 2009. Retrieved on June 8, 2010.

- Mayer, C. (2004). *English corpus linguistics: An introduction*. Cambridge University Press.
- Mendiola, C. M. (1978). *Analysis of grammatical structures of the written language (English) of grades 4, 5, 6 pupils*. Published dissertation, Philippine Normal University, Manila.
- O'Leary, D. (2009). *The thesis writing process*.
- Paltridge, D. (2006). *Discourse analysis*. Great Britain: MPG Books Ltd.,
- Phillips, L. and Jorgensen, M. (2004). *Discourse analysis as theory and method*. London: Sage Publications.
- Pronin, J. (2008). *Writing as a way to learn*. Retrieved December 29, 2009 from www.articlesbase.com/writing_articles/writing_as_a_way_to_learn_654980.html/
- Samraj, B. (2008). *A discourse analysis of master's theses across disciplines with a focus on introductions*. Published dissertation, Department of Linguistics and Asian/Middle Eastern Languages San Diego State University, 5500 Campanile Drive, San Diego, CA 92182-7727, USA. Retrieved December 18, 2009 from http://www.elsevier.com/authoried_subject_sections/S06/S06_345/misc/journal_english_a_cademic_purposes1.pdf.
- Schiffrin, D., et. al. (2008). *The handbook of discourse analysis*. United Kingdom: Blackwell Publishing Ltd.
- Scientific Writing Tips from a Science Journalist. Retrieved from <http://nebulium.wordpress.com/2010/06/15/scientific-writing-tips-from-a-science-journalist>
- Steinnes, J. (no date). *Questioning the genre-the case of a thesis*. Lillehammer University College, Norway. Retrieved February 26, 2010 from http://www.philosophy-of-education.org/conferences/pdfs/Jenny_Steinnes.pdf.
- Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in academic and research settings*. Cambridge University Press, New York
- Swales, J. M. (2004). *Research genres: Explorations and applications*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

About the Author

Irish Mae G. Fernandez has been teaching in the University of Southeastern Philippines for 8 years now. Aside from teaching general and major English courses, she handles the Techniques in Discourse Development course for the Master of English in Applied Linguistics program. She recently finished her Fulbright Foreign Language Teaching Assistant grant at the University of Michigan in Ann Arbor, Michigan, United States of America. At present she is a Ph.D. student in Applied Linguistics at the University of Immaculate Conception.

Building on Children's Linguistic Resources: A Socio-culturally Responsive Pedagogy for English Language Teaching in Pakistan

Syed Abdul Manan

*Balochistan University of Information Technology, Engineering & Management Sciences
(BUIITEMS), Quetta, Pakistan*

Abstract

The number of private English-medium schools has expanded nearly ten-fold in Pakistan over the last couple of decades. Since public understands the power and value of English language within Pakistan and globally; therefore, such schools are widely spread across the country. This paper focuses on the low-fee private schools, a category of schools which usually appeals to children from middle or lower middle strata of society. The study spans over one year starting from January 2013 to January 2014. Employing a qualitative methodology, the study draws on non-participant observation of the classrooms, and interviews with three pools of stakeholders within the schools: (students, n=30), (teachers, n=8), and (school principals, n=11). Focusing specifically on reading practices, grammar and vocabulary instruction, the study finds that instruction occurs solely through Urdu language while English rarely features in contextualized manner either in formal instruction or in student-teacher interaction. The mother tongues of the students are discouraged; rather they are abandoned. Students are required to memorize rules and definition of grammatical structures without contextualizing their use in real-life situations. Similarly, few vocabulary items are translated in Urdu language in decontextualized manner. Most students find themselves alienated due to an alien language as a medium of instruction which results in poor learning of the language and contents. The study suggests that such teaching methodologies are counterproductive and less effective as they are not founded on the fundamental principal theories of ESL/EFL and content-based instruction. At the end, an alternative pedagogical model of translanguaging and multilinguality has been proposed, which is inclusive and more befitting to the local sociolinguistic and socio-cultural environment. It draws on the optimal utilization and interaction of local languages as resources for construction of new meanings, and for mobilizing different learners' language resources, local knowledge systems, and cultural practices.

Keywords: English-medium policy, low-fee schools, culturally responsive pedagogy, translanguaging and multilinguality

Introduction

This study seeks to explore some of the crucial aspects of teaching English as medium of instruction in the low-fee schools in Pakistan. Those aspects include reading exercises, grammar and vocabulary teaching, and the medium which teachers and students mostly use within the classrooms. The focus is to analyze how teachers in the low fee schools negotiate English, the

Author's Affiliation: Balochistan University of Information Technology,
Engineering & Management Sciences
Quetta, Pakistan
Email address: rm_manan@yahoo.com

purported medium of instruction, and other existing languages such as Urdu, the lingua franca, and children's mother tongues. Negotiation of languages in the present context signifies that how teachers manage the above set of languages, and how much space they allocate to each language to create a favorable environment not only for enhancing children's linguistic repertoire, but also to ensure easy transfer of knowledge. The need for such study arises because one observes that teaching methodologies in such schools suffer from lack of balance between English, Urdu and children's mother tongues. This ultimately results in poor language proficiency particularly in English as well as children's mother tongues while Urdu on the other hand takes the major portion of teaching and learning practices. The main thrust of analysis is premised on theoretical notion that in order to optimize learning of English as a foreign language, and the learning of the course contents, teachers need to build on the linguistic and cultural resources which children bring to the classrooms. This suggests that in multilingual setting such as that of Pakistan where children come from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds, teachers need to synchronize their pedagogies to multilingual principles and translanguaging rather than monolingual forms of instruction (Agnihotri, 2010; Benson, 2013; Canagarajah, 2013; Cummins, 2007; García & Leiva, 2014). These scholars emphasize an inclusive and additive form of instruction where children's linguistic and cultural resources are aligned with the main medium of instruction (in this case English), and the lingua franca such as Urdu to ease the transfer of knowledge, and to establish their linguistic repertoire. While most current policies and practices are characterized by subtraction of children's mother tongues, which runs counter to the essence of an additive multilingual education model (Cenoz, 2009; Cummins, 2009; Skutnabb-Kangas & McCarty, 2008).

In addition, sociocultural theory and social constructivism also underpin this study, which postulates that in order for children to learn a second or a foreign language such as English, learners need to construct and mediate their own meanings, and negotiate learning through social interaction and scaffolding (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007; Swain, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore, in light of the above contextual and theoretical backdrop, this study seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. To what extent do teachers build on children's linguistic and cultural resources as tools for the transfer of course contents and development of linguistic repertoire?
2. To what extent do teachers manage to expose children to the meaningful use of the English language to scaffold English learning and enable them to construct their own meanings?

Background setting

Pakistan is a highly multilingual, multiethnic and multilingual country. The total number of languages used in the country are 77 (Ethnologue, 2015). Urdu is the national language of the country while English functions as the official language. At the same time, English is the most powerful language as it is used in the domains of power such as government, law, corporate sector, higher education, etc. (Rahman, 1996). In view of the institutional powers it wields within the country, and the global powers it holds in the outside world, most people view it as a 'passport to privileges' (Rahman, 2005), and a vehicle for social and economic mobility (Mahboob, 2002; Manan & David, 2013; Mansoor, 2004b; Shamim, 2008). Thus considering the imagined powers of the English language both within and outside the country, the demand for

teaching of the English language remarkably increased over the last two decades. This gave rise to the spread of a large number of private English medium schools across the country particularly in the cities and towns. The increasing public demand also encouraged private entrepreneurs of different types to invest massively on the business of private schools. Critically, the governments' liberalized policy and loose regulatory mechanism also boosted the industry of private education which resulted in exponential increase in the private schools of about ten-fold (Andrabi, Das, & Khwaja, 2008). In a survey conducted by the Ministry of Education's National Education Census and Pakistan Education Statistics, respectively suggest that almost one in every three enrolled children is studying in private schools and colleges (GOP, 2006, 2008). In these circumstances, one finds that although the demand for English language is pragmatic and rational; however, it is also crucial to examine how effective and successful English medium policy remains given the sociolinguistic context of Pakistan, and the quality of teachers, and other academic facilities that the low-fee schools provide.

Methodology

This study took place in 11 low-fee English-medium private schools in Quetta, the capital city of the Balochistan province. The rationale of selecting Quetta city was due to researchers' easy, convenient, and frequent access to the research sites or the schools under survey. In addition, since the researcher belongs to the same city, and has a wider network of colleagues working in the education sector in general and in some low-fee schools in particular; therefore, Quetta was deemed appropriate for research. The low-fee schools which are widely spread around the city have been selected because of their exponential increase, and their popularity amongst public as the English medium schools. Heyneman and Stern (2013) defined low-fee school "as one whose tuition fee was lower than half the minimum wage". Quetta is located close to the borders of Iran and Afghanistan. It is a trade and communication centre between the three countries. Quetta district is highly multilingual and multicultural area that hosts a large number of tribes, ethnic and linguistic groups. The principal ethnic groups in the district are Pashtoon, Baloch, Brahvi, Hazara and Punjabi. Urdu, Punjabi, Pashto, Balochi, Brahvi, Sindhi, Siraiki, Hindko and Persian are the languages spoken in the city and its surrounding. Urdu is commonly spoken by all ethnic groups (UNICEF, 2011). The study draws on qualitative part of a doctoral research utilizing classroom observations and interviews of the participants within 11 low-fee schools. The study spans over one year starting from January 2013 to January 2014. The respondents of the study were students (n=30), teachers (n=8), and school principals (n=11). The sampling procedure was purposive as students were drawn from high secondary classes locally described as grade 9th and 10th. These were the senior most students of the schools. The rationale behind selecting students from the higher secondary level was due to their seniority and the level of maturity in providing informed and valid input to this research. These students were in their final years of schooling and they spent a maximum time in the schools. Purposively, students from lower classes were not included in the process because the researcher believed that given their small age and level of immaturity, they would not be in position to provide rich information and insight as their senior fellows would do. Likewise, teachers and school principals were also purposively selected to gather as in-depth information as possible. The duration of each interview ranged from 13 to 21 minutes. The interview questions primarily sought to elicit respondents' input as to how teachers taught grammar in the classrooms and the methodology they applied. In addition, the

respondents were asked how teachers conducted activities that involved reading and writing in the classrooms and to what extent it engaged students in the learning processes.

In addition, observation was also conducted. The observation was of non-participant in nature which covered 10 classes in 09 different schools, totaling 400 minutes. During the observation, the focus was to analyze the amount of contextualized English used for various classroom activities such as reading, writing, vocabulary instruction, and oral communication. Towards the end, interview transcription and classroom observations were used to help in thematic analysis.

Data analysis

This section focuses towards data presentation and analysis. The focus is on four key areas of English teaching and learning practices: Reading exercises, grammar teaching, vocabulary teaching, and teacher-student communication. Precisely, the thrust of the analysis is to examine whether teachers build on children's linguistic and cultural resources as tools for the transfer of course contents and development of linguistic repertoire. Secondly, it is also analyzed as to what extent teachers manage to expose children to the meaningful use of the English language to scaffold English learning and enable them to construct their own meanings. The following is a detailed description of each of the four aspects:

Reading skills

A vignette from the classroom is presented to demonstrate the reading styles and strategies that teachers execute during their English classes. It is believed that reading is an important facet of language learning as well as academic life. The Natural Approach that Krashen and Terrell (1983) proposed is also premised on developing competence through exposure to comprehensible input, which confirms the scope of reading especially the learners' confidence and competence:

Reading may contribute significantly to competence in a second language. There is a good reason, in fact, to hypothesize that reading makes a contribution to overall competence, to all four skills (Dutcher, 2004, p. 131).

Elsewhere Krashen (2004b) explained that reading is a powerful means of developing reading comprehension skill, writing style, vocabulary, grammar, and spelling. Moreover, Krashen (2004b) argued that reading can be a pleasant activity. Reading also promotes cognitive development and reduces writing apprehension (Krashen, 2004b). In the context of English-medium education policy, this vignette is set to show how the teachers effectively conduct reading activities to enable students to develop reading habits and cultivate understanding of the contents. More importantly, the vignette can also depict the extent to which reading practices utilize children's mother tongues as pedagogical resources to enrich their linguistic repertoire, and to ensure an easy transfer of the knowledge that is originally in the English language.

The classroom observation suggests that all teachers apply conventional teacher-centered approach. It was found that the teachers usually began their lessons with the reading. The

exercise is usually characterized by translation methods in which teachers first read a certain part of the text, which the students either listened carefully or read after him/her in chorus. Having read out part of the text, which normally covered one page of the lesson, teachers subsequently revisited the same part of the text, and provided translation in the Urdu language. In the meanwhile, students silently followed their teachers. Some teachers provided translation sentence by sentence whereas others translated paragraph by paragraph. In this manner, teachers went through nearly one page of the concerned lesson. The mode of translation was nearly literal in form whereby he/she translated the meaning of each single word. After completing the translation in verbal form, teachers later instructed students to take out their notes to write meanings of the difficult words. In this exercise, teachers wrote meanings of what they thought were difficult words on the black/whiteboards. Importantly, in the selection of the difficult words, teachers did not ask students about their opinions. Students compliantly copied the same words and their Urdu meanings in their notebooks.

The following day, some teachers began either the new paragraph or instructed few of the students to read out the remaining part of the lesson. At the completion of the whole lesson, teachers subsequently assigned homework that involved writing answers to the questions given at the end of the lesson. It may be highlighted that other than the prescribed book by the Provincial Board of Examination, no other additional material is taught. When one of the respondents was asked to tell how her teachers exercised reading of the lessons, she described the exercise in the following way:

In our English class, our teacher enters the class, she first takes attendance. After that, she asks students to take out books. When it is the beginning of a new lesson/chapter, she starts reading. We all listen carefully and sometimes we do reading after her. Daily we read nearly one page. When she completes, then she reads out lesson again and tells the meaning in Urdu. We keep quiet. Then she writes the vocabulary words, she gives Urdu translation—word meanings. In this way, she resumes the same lesson the next day. In the end, we write all parts of exercises in our notebooks to memorize for examination (STDT4).

Now, in view of the above observation of the reading exercises, several critical themes may be derived. They include *teacher-centered approach, students' passivity, students' exclusion from the learning process, the use of Urdu as medium for translation, one-kind material, and decontextualized nature of instruction*. Contrary to the practices as observed in the classrooms, Williams (1986) argued that a number of general pedagogical strategies to make the reading process an engaged, effective and meaningful exercise. In addition, those strategies can also potentially cultivate positive reading habits in the learners. William (1986) proposed that in order to cultivate learners' interest in reading, teachers should select an interesting material from the viewpoint of learners. This means including students in the selection of reading material. Besides that, students should not merely be passive listeners in the reading process; rather they should take command of the reading exercises while teachers should keep quiet and allow learners to engage in the reading process (p. 42). In addition, in a study in the Philippines suggested that the use of metacognitive strategies in reading can contribute critically to improved reading performance, enhanced motivation level, and self-efficacy (Cequena, 2015). It concluded that such strategies can help develop better reading skills and learning in learners.

However, in the context of the present study, methodologies are teacher-centered which seldom allow students to engage actively in the reading process. As a result of teacher-centered methodology, students are made to remain totally passive followers rather than critical learners who not only read and comprehend the text, but also assert themselves as engaged analysts of the underlying meanings. The classroom vignette confirms that reading exercises and activities are mere recitation rituals. Thus, the major disadvantage of such reading practices is that students not only face blankness and incomprehension, but it also does not allow them to contextualize meanings, and immerse them in the semantics, syntax, pragmatics, lexicon, orthography, or other attributes of the language as embedded in the text. Jhingran (2009) argues that such reading is only a 'chorus repetition' rather than meaningful and engaged reading.

In addition, the reading exercises do not engage learners to comprehend meanings and think beyond the text. Teachers do not attempt to provide or suggest any extra reading material, which can be interesting, easy, and enjoyable such as stories, fiction and so on. Day and Bamford (2002) offer ten strategies for developing good learning habits and training of the extensive reading. According to Day and Bamford propose the following reading strategies to foster positive reading habits in the students:

...material should be 'easy'; material should be about 'variety and wide range of topics; learners should have autonomy to 'choose what they want to read'; readers must be encouraged and motivated to 'read as much as possible'; reading aims should be related to 'pleasure, information and general understanding; reading should have 'its own rewards'; it should be 'individual and silent'; teachers 'guide students'; teachers should be 'a role model reader' (<http://nflrc.hawaii.edu/rfl/october2002/day/day.html#1>).

In order reading and comprehension to take place, reader should understand the language, the 'comprehensible input' hypothesis proposed by Krashen (1982). Comprehension is also a vital component as Hu and Nation (2009) suggested that learners must know at least 98% of the words in a fiction text for understanding. When students are not provided with comprehensible reading, how are they likely to cope with the meanings of difficult words? Similarly, without knowing the meaning of the text, students' knowledge about the subject matter is likely to remain poor and underdeveloped.

Grammar teaching

Another important aspect of the English teaching and learning processes is grammar teaching. In the schools across Pakistan, English teachers usually practice their own ways of grammar instruction. Importantly, amongst both students and teachers, grammar instruction is conceived as an important basic step towards learning a second/foreign language. Our observation of the classrooms, and input from students and teachers confirm that teachers usually employ traditional grammar translation methods teaching grammatical rules through overt explanation and elaborate definition. Evidence suggests that at the preliminary stages of grammar teaching, teachers introduce the parts of speech. The parts of speech are taught by simple definition and examples. For instance, a student described the way his teachers taught grammar in the class:

First of all, teacher gives how many parts of speech there are. Then he gives definition like what is noun? For examples, 'noun is the name of place, thing or person like Karachi, pen, Imran' (STDT9).

The teacher teaches them all nine parts of speech and their sub kinds. Students then write down the definition in their notebooks and memorize by heart to prepare for final examinations. When students were asked about the purpose of teaching and learning the parts of speech, the respondents mostly said that the purpose was to study for the examinations. For instance, a student explained that, "We memorize parts of speech, tenses, passive/active and direct and indirect for our examination. I do not know about their use in language learning" (STDT14). Few others said that it was important for understanding the structure of sentences. In addition to the parts of speech, the teachers emphasize on grammar and allocate considerable time to the teaching of tenses, voice, and direct/indirect quotation marks. When students were asked as how they were learning the above grammatical items, most of them revealed that they learnt it by learning the rules and their translation. They also said that they were learning the rules with the help of a formula. Teaching with the help of a formula is a traditional method used by teachers especially for teaching tenses. It is when a teacher breaks up a simple sentence into its grammatical units such as 'subject', 'verb', 'object', 'helping verb' and so on. For instance, teachers were observed using traditional methods that involved explicit description of the rules. In doing so, they made students learn the formula of all the tenses. Importantly, teachers teaching the Present Indefinite tense, taught the following tenses:

- Form of the verb used in the tense (Write, wrote, written)
- Helping or auxiliary verbs—does/does, is/am/are
- Tense identification in Urdu language
- Formula for sentence construction—subject + verb + object (simple sentence)
- Identification of the tense in Urdu (تاہے، تی ہے، تے ہے وغیرہ)

To illustrate how teachers traditionally teach grammar with the help of a formula, an example is presented in Table 1. Teachers tend to explain explicitly how to construct a simple, negative, or an interrogative sentence of a certain verb. Teachers were found employing the following methods for teaching tenses:

Table 1: Teaching methodology for tenses

Tense	Formula	English example	Urdu example
Present simple	Subject + 1 st form of verb+ object	I play cricket.	میں کرکٹ کھیلتا ہوں۔
Negative sentence	Subject + do/does+not+1 st form of verb + object	I don't play cricket.	میں کرکٹ نہیں کھیلتا ہوں۔
Interrogative sentence	Do/does + subject + 1 st form of verb + object	Do I play cricket?	کیا میں کرکٹ کھیلتا ہوں۔
Present continuous	Subject helping verb +Verb + ing +Object	Imran is reading book.	عمران کتاب پڑھ رہا ہے۔
Present perfect	Subject + has/have + 3 rd form of verb + object	Imran has read book.	عمران کتاب پڑھ چکا ہے۔

Past simple	Subject + 2 nd form of verb + object	My friend went to Karachi.	میرا دوست کراچی گیا۔
Future simple	Subject + will/shall + 1 st form of verb + object	I will go to city tomorrow.	میں کل بازار جاؤں گا۔

In the examples, teachers usually teach different tenses. They generally provide Urdu to English translation. In doing so, they give a list of Urdu sentences from any local grammar book and provide them with English translation, which students memorize and reproduce during their exams. For instance, a teacher explains her method of grammar teaching in the following words:

When I teach tenses, for example, I first identify name of the tense. Then I draw a graph where all the tenses are lined up. Then I teach them the formula and use of every tense, their identification, forms of verb used, and all things. First, we provide them Urdu sentences, and when they identified tense, they can translate it easily from Urdu to English. In this way I teach grammar (TCHR2).

As observed, their approach towards grammar teaching did not demonstrate any sign of contextualized teaching, an approach the proponents of inductive approach advocate for grammar teaching. Moreover, exponents of communicative approaches and interactionists propose that the isolated use of grammatical rules from the real-life context helps little in communicating in the target language (Brown, 2014; Krashen, 1982; Nasaji & Fortos, 2011; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Notwithstanding the fact that a context-based communicative approach towards teaching grammar has many advantages in language learning; however, teachers in the low-fee schools have not been able to apply such approaches in the classrooms. In fact, teachers are mostly not trained, specialized, and well versed in the field of ELT; therefore, they do not know about any theory, principles or the modern-day approaches towards language teaching. They perceive that students will learn the language by teaching using the English textbooks like any other subject.

In contrast to the way grammar teaching methodologies are conducted, Krashen (2004a) theorized that we do not acquire language by learning about language or by studying of the rules and memorizing vocabulary. Instead, we acquire language when we receive comprehensible input in a low anxiety situation. Likewise, emphasizing the recognition and application of multilinguality in the teaching of English in India, Agnihotri (2010) aptly suggests that,

The role of the teacher is not to teach the rules of grammar or paraphrase texts but as Krashen has often reminded us, to facilitate maximal exposure to languages being used in different domains in anxiety-free situations. The tasks that children undertake should have the message at their centre and children should feel engaged in activities that would challenge their thinking abilities; as thought is not divorced from language, language proficiency will automatically develop (p. 6).

Moreover, Ellis (2006), who has written extensively on grammar teaching also emphasizes on contextualized methods of grammar instruction so that learners could absorb it metalinguistically, and be able to internalize the rules. He defines grammar teaching as,

...any instructional technique that draws learners' attention to some specific grammatical form in such a way that it helps them either to understand it metalinguistically and/or process it in comprehension and/or production so that they can internalize it"(p. 84).

The data in the present case transpires that most teachers in the schools surveyed employ deductive methods of grammar teaching. Deductive method of teaching grammar is also one of the main trademarks of the Grammar-Translation method. While teaching grammar deductively, teachers teach grammar rules and examples and make students to memorize the rules. Subsequently, students are asked to apply the rules to other examples. Students also have to learn grammatical paradigms such as verb conjugations. The opposite of deductive grammar stands inductive grammar teaching. In inductive approach, teachers try to expose learners to examples of language use or immerse learners to the target language, prompting them to generalize the pattern of the language (Thornbury, 1999). The inductive approach towards grammar teaching is context-based instruction. Hadley (1993) explains that context-based teaching of grammar uses logical contexts that may include "authentic discourse-length input or through language learning materials that stimulate authentic input using sentences that follow in logical sequence"(p. 152). Context-based grammar teaching is a useful approach because it can provide a meaningful framework that connects to the reality of the target language (Anderson, 2005).

The issue of whether to teach deductively or inductively has been around for a long time among researchers which implies that "the controversy has always been whether grammar should be taught explicitly through a formal presentation of grammatical rules or implicitly through natural exposure to meaningful language use" (Nasaji & Fortos, 2011, p. 4). Some believe that rather than having simple exposure and meaning-driven communication, adopting explicit teaching approach can have significant results on the acquisition of second language (Ellis, 2008, 2009; Erlam, 2003; Norris & Ortega, 2000). However, many researchers argued that both approaches have strengths and weaknesses (Thornbury, 1999). Similarly, Richards and Rodgers (2001) also highlighted the advantages and disadvantages of Grammar-Translation method, which emphasize on deductive approach. Its disadvantages include the absence of communicative practice, heavy reliance on translation, and focus on reading and translating text. The advantage may be that explicit teaching familiarizes learners with rules and pay attention to forms. Moreover, it stresses accuracy than fluency. Given the advantages and disadvantages, it is believed that the disadvantages are more than the advantages. In the context of India, Patil (2008) narrated the way his teachers had erroneously laid undue emphasis on overt grammar. His explanation is quite revealing in this regard, as he shares the fallouts of learning English through deductive methods in India. He narrated that:

When I was a school and college student, my English teachers would correct my grammar and spelling errors indefatigably. Accordingly, I labored hard to perfect my spelling and grammar. My teachers rewarded me with excellent grades and certificates, which I have preserved with great pride till date. Honestly, I am indebted to my teachers for my lexical, phonological and grammatical competence. However, later I realized that grammaticality alone was not sufficient. The moment I started using English in real life situations, I found my grammatical competence embarrassingly inadequate to communicate effectively

and efficiently. To my dismay, my bookish English occasionally made me a butt of ridicule (p. 229).

To sum up the teaching of grammar and its implications for the students, one would like to argue that the more the teachers make language teaching interesting, the greater it is likely to excite students' interest. The biggest disadvantage of emphasizing grammatical rules robs off students of the opportunities to communicate and participate in the target language. Explicit methods are taxing and tedious because learners have to undergo torturous experience of memorizing flat definitions of grammatical components and study about the rules, which they cannot relate to their real lives and cannot apply practically. In addition, explicit methods are time-consuming too. The worse part of it is that the rules remain at the surface level rather than become internalized in a naturalistic manner. Teachers spend much of their time teaching grammar rules while students waste ample time and energy memorizing the definitions of parts of speech and their sub kinds. In their ignorance of the theory and principals of language acquisition and language and education, there is an unnecessary emphasis on grammar learning, which not only overburdens students, but also proves demoralizing for the learners. In addition, it plays a minor role in making learners fluent and articulate in the language, which certainly backfires in their practical lives as job seekers and job doers. More critically, this segment of teaching and learning English points to the dichotomies that lies between the aspiration for English-medium policy and poor practices in classrooms.

Vocabulary teaching

In the same manner as described in the case of grammar teaching, teachers applied the same methods for the teaching of vocabulary. The following is a snapshot from the classroom. While teaching, teachers highlight a number of words as difficult words, and then go on to provide students with literal translation in Urdu language. Teachers write them on the white/blackboards with Urdu translation, which students copy in their notebooks. Words are taught as isolated items, which is a form of decontextualized teaching where teacher simply translate the English words into Urdu language without providing a contextual use. Teachers list the words and students copy them in their notebooks, which are meant to be memorized for examinations. As a student explains, *"In every lesson we have word meanings. We write down their Urdu meaning and memorize them for exam"* (ST5). Some teachers also teach vocabulary by using them in sentences; however, their number is low. During examination, teachers test students' knowledge of the same words and award grades based on their answers.

Input from students suggests that they mostly learn those words by heart—which means they learn words and their meanings as handed down by teachers through memorization. Apart from the literal meaning of the words in the Urdu language, teachers did not use any context-based activity either oral or written to internalize their practical use. Students told that they did not use those words in any form in their language because they never use the language directly. When students were asked if those words retained in their memory, most students replied that they usually forgot those words after their examination. Students usually memorize those vocabulary items to answer their exam papers. In contrast to the way vocabulary items are taught in the present context, scholars emphasize on context-based inductive approaches towards teaching grammatical forms because this approach can help internalize the meanings. Inductive

approach is useful because learners receive exposure to examples and immerse them in the context (Anderson, 2005; Ellis, 2006; Thornbury, 1999). Ellis (2006) proposed contextualized teaching of grammar and vocabulary items because that can internalize them metalinguistically, and lead to potential processing and production. Pavicic Takac (2008) explained contextualized learning by saying that,

The teacher creates a situation (a sort of a scenario) in which he or she clearly contextualises the lexical item. The context can be given in one sentence only, but the teacher can also give several sentences in which the word appears. Learners then guess the meaning on the basis of the cumulative effect of the sentences (p. 22).

In view of the decontextualized instructional approach in the classrooms, it appears that students might not build their vocabulary and its use in the real oral and written forms than they would have done in contextualized form of learning. Many theorists and researchers have argued that there are positive outcomes from the use of contexts to help learners to learn the target words, recognize the surrounding and contextual meanings, retrieve words, restore them in long-term memory and have more appropriate lexical use in the four language skills (Clarke & Nation, 1980; Krashen, 1989). Such learning involves inferring meanings using contextual clues to guess meanings, which teachers hope will lead learners to activate their schematic knowledge and to enhance understanding for further vocabulary retention (Krashen, 1989; MacCarthy, 1990; Morrison, 1996).

Among the factors that make new vocabulary easy to learn by second language learners is through the frequency with which the word are seen, heard, and understood. Nation (2001) reviewed a number of studies suggesting that a learner needs to have many meaningful encounters with a new word before it becomes firmly established in memory. Research on vocabulary learning through reading without focused instruction confirms that some vocabulary can be learned without explicit instruction. On the other hand, Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) and others provide evidence that vocabulary development is more successful when learners are fully engaged in activities that require them to attend carefully to the new words and even to use them in productive tasks.

Likewise, Creese (2005) warned against the use of mere structural aspects of words, and explained how this approach goes beyond learning words and structures. Language work must go beyond the form (grammar) and teaching of key symbols (vocabulary). As an alternative strategy, language focus must capture the ability to understand the role language plays in the creation of meanings in school life (Creese, 2005, p. 145). Creese also emphasized the role of children's own linguistic resources in mobilizing English as a foreign language. She called for integration of a second or a foreign language with meaningful content offers learners both language input as well as context. This can only be achieved by integrating rather than separating learners from what is being taught in the classroom. Therefore a bilingual or a multilingual use of languages and allowing strategies such as code-switching and language mixing can serve as a useful resource that provides meaningful input from children's own experiences to reinforce development in either L1 or a foreign language.

Discussion

This section discusses some of the main themes that emanate from the data. One of the major themes that may be highlighted, and simultaneously problematized is the apparent mismatch between advertised policy, and actual classroom pedagogy. Such mismatch refers to the way the school owners advertise their schools as English-medium in a bid to fascinate parents as English serves as an attractive selling brand in the context of Pakistan; however, the problem remains that the meaningful and substantive use of English features in rather little quantity and quality in teaching and learning practices. One observes that schools are ambitious, and parents are eager enough to teach children English language as a medium, but how effective this policy remains, and how informed this policy stands in theoretical terms, are serious issues for discussion. Evidently, the policy is fraught with dilemma as teachers fail to implement a genuine English medium policy because they are unable to do that practically as they lack the required training and qualification. Teachers also have little know-how about the theoretical and conceptual aspects of how to engage students in a content-based instruction so that they could internalize not only the grammatical structure and vocabulary items of the language, but also the course content. Decontextualized approach towards reading, grammar and vocabulary instruction signify their lack of theoretical knowledge and the practical needs of the learners. As a result of decontextualized form of pedagogy, students find themselves alienated from the full grasp and internalization of language as well as contents.

More crucially, the alienation can also be seen from the viewpoint of the basic approach towards English teaching and learning. One observes that mostly teachers tend to apply a monolingual pedagogical approach nearly abandoning the linguistic resources which most children bring to the classrooms (Manan, David, & Dumanig, 2014). Drawing on students' level of alienation, and the incomprehension of the language and contents, it may be proposed that teachers need to devise strategies where they could narrow down the gap between the language of the textbook and the languages of the homes. This goal could be achieved by maximizing the use of the local languages and using those languages as useful resources to make the contents in the English language as easy as possible. Some recent studies testified to the proposition of using local languages as pedagogical resources for the teaching of English in contexts such as Pakistan (Mahboob & Lin, in press-a, in press-b). In this connection, an increased amount of scaffolding and extensive input in students' mother tongues could bridge the gap, and possibly bring the level of alienation down. An array of scholars have recently been advocating the enhanced use of the local languages as pedagogical resources for teaching English and its contents in the postcolonial contexts or other countries where English functions as second or a third language (Brown, 2014; Kartika Ningsih, 2015; Mahboob & Lin, in press-a, in press-b). For instance, Mahboob and Lin (in press-a) suggested new ways about languages and their use providing a theoretical as well as a practical overview of a number of key issues and points teachers, teacher educators and researchers should take account of. Emphasizing on the active and systematic planning of the use of local languages, Mahboob and Lin (in press-a) concluded that teachers can build on and affirm the valuable resources that students bring to their classrooms, and in the process demonstrate to their students that their local cultural identities are valued, just as their local languages.

Therefore, given the existing problems and the emerging missing links in the English medium policy and teaching practices, is proposed for a socio-culturally responsive pedagogy towards teaching and learning practices, a pedagogy that builds on children's linguistic and socio-cultural resources rather than eliminating it. By linguistic and socio-cultural resources, it means that pedagogies could be made inclusive where teachers extensively capitalize on the languages of the pupils and contextualize classroom contents within the socio-cultural knowledge which children bring to the classrooms. It is also critical to point out that there is nothing inherently bad about translation from English to Urdu; in fact, the major flaw in the instructional approach is the decontextualized conduct of methodology which fails to synchronize material to real-life situations and enroot it in the cultural milieu of the students. As a result, students are forced to rote learn words rather than cognitively internalize the meanings. One must also bear in mind that the translation is given in children's L2 than in their L1—this might also make the meaningful internalization and full comprehension of the words difficult for those who speak languages other than Urdu, and whose Urdu proficiency is low. This particularly applies to those children who belong to remote rural areas of the country where they have little contact with the Urdu language. More critically, teachers as well as school authorities also discourage the use of children's mother tongues while Urdu and English are strongly forced while at times, school authorities issues explicit instruction forcing students not to use their mother tongues within the schools premises (Manan et al., 2014).

An alternative approach: translanguaging and multilinguality

Theoretically, in view of the emerging Urdu-dominated monolingual classroom environment in a linguistically diverse classrooms, the most appropriate pedagogical response would have been that of translanguaging or multilinguality (Agnihotri, 2010; Canagarajah, 2011, 2013; Creese & Blackledge, 2010; García, 2009; Garcia & Wei, 2013), an approach that utilizes the linguistic and socio-cultural knowledge of students as pedagogical resources for the teaching of other languages. According to Garcia and Wei (2013), Translanguaging , ...is an approach to the use of language, bilingualism and the education of bilinguals that considers the bilingual practices of bilinguals not as two autonomous languages systems as has been traditionally the case, but as one linguistic repertoire with features that have been societally constructed as belonging to two spate languages (p. 2).

Agnihotri (2007) and Agnihotri (2010) also recommended the same instructional approach, which they termed as multilinguality that “subsumes not only linguistic resources but also cultural practices and the local knowledge systems” (p. 3). Likewise, translanguaging can be utilized as a valuable communicative tool in the increasingly diverse multilingual and multiethnic educational settings (García, 2009). In Canagarajah's view (2013), translanguaging or “translingual practices [which] are widely practiced in communities and everyday community contexts... [but are] ignored or suppressed in classrooms” (p. 4). Canagarajah (2013) also emphasized on the deployment translanguaging strategies in the classroom, especially on learners' “ability to merge different language resources in situated interactions for new meaning construction” (pp. 1–2). Cummins (2007) recommended bi/multilingual instructional strategies in the classroom, and proposed that they “can promote identities of competence among language learners from socially marginalized groups, thereby enabling them to engage more confidently with literacy and other academic work in both languages” (p. 10-12). Therefore, teachers may be

required to adopt a multilingual policy within the classrooms facilitating meaningful and contextualized use of English, but also encouraging the use of students' mother tongues and Urdu for greater understanding. It suggests that all languages, which children bring to the class, must be improvised in the classroom to foster learning of more than one language, and also to foster positive attitudes about the value of the marginalized languages. Agnihotri (2010) argued that acquiring languages can best occur in a holistic context. Children should learn English, but not at the cost of their own languages. Children's multilingual and multicultural backgrounds need to be seen as resources rather than obstacles to the acquisition of English. In addition, a socio-cultural approach is needed. Agnihotri (2010) contended that "languages are acquired as the child's Language Faculty interacts with processes of socialisation and language becomes inextricably linked with the social, political, gender and power structures of society".

In addition, several other studies undertaken in identical contexts such as Pakistan also confirm the regressive effects English-medium education leaves on children, and they recommended an additive multilingual education policy as best alternative (Bui & Nguyen, 2016; Coleman, 2011; Kirkpatrick, 2012; Mohanty, 2006). For instance, Kirkpatrick (2012) suggested that primary schools should use local languages at the primary level rather than English as a medium in schools. He observes that English is indisputably an extremely important language for many in the ASEAN region; however, the way English is currently taught is "not only unsuccessful, but also inimical to the welfare and maintenance of other languages". He categorically stated that studies confirm that "the early introduction of English into the primary curriculum – as is the case across the region – far from helping children learn English successfully, may actually militate against this in many cases" (Kirkpatrick, 2012, p. 41). Kirkpatrick (2012) as cited in UNESCO's (2007) report to show the low retention rates up to primary 5 in several ASEAN countries, including Cambodia, Indonesia, Laos, The Philippines and Vietnam. The report calls for more mother tongue and bilingual education in local languages. In addition, in an overview of language-in-education policies in Southeast Asia, Kosonen (2009) concluded that "most members of ethnolinguistic minorities in Southeast Asia have to start their education in a language they neither understand nor speak" (p. 39). Kirkpatrick (2012) proposes that,

...it is far better for the child to acquire proficiency and literacy in the local languages before being asked to learn English... it is much better if that child is able to learn content subjects through the local languages, as this will help the acquisition of literacy and fluency in these languages (p. 35).

A host of scholars has advanced the potential linguistic, cognitive, intellectual, and overall educational advantages of an additive bilingual/multilingual education system. Skutnabb-Kangas and Dunbar (2010) additive teaching, that is, teaching in a bilingual or multilingual mother tongue based school system, leads to 'high-levels of multilingualism', enhanced creativity, divergent thinking, cognitive flexibility, sensitivity to feedback cues, interpreting non-verbal body language, learning of additional languages (p. 74). Pinnock (2009) observed that, "switching completely away from teaching in a language understood by a child is likely to distract and confuse students to a great extent. Good practice involves an additive approach, where increasing time is gradually given to one or two second languages, but the first language continues to play an important role in teaching and learning" (p. 14). Describing the advantages

of additive education, Cummins (2009) proposed that, “Approximately 200 empirical studies carried out during the past 40 or so years have reported a positive association between additive bilingualism and students’ linguistic, cognitive, or academic growth”(p. 26).

Conclusion

This study draws on classroom observations and stakeholders’ voices in the low-fee English medium schools in Pakistan to show how effective teaching and learning practices stand in terms of language and content learning. Focusing specifically on reading practices, grammar and vocabulary instruction in the classrooms, the study found that teaching methodologies are marked by several limitations of which the most outstanding is the decontextualized nature of instruction where teachers exclusively dominate the practices while they fail to engage learners in a meaningful encoding or decoding of the textbooks. Instruction is given solely in Urdu language while the contextualized use of English seldom features either in formal instruction or in student-teacher interaction. The mother tongues of the students are not encouraged; rather they are abandoned from the process. The same goes for grammar teaching and vocabulary. Students are required to memorize the grammar rules and definition of tenses, parts of speech, voice, etc., while the meanings of some words are translated in Urdu language without contextualizing the actual use of the grammatical structures and lexical items within the real-life situations and their socio-cultural milieu. Students largely find themselves alienated from the teaching and learning practices due to an alien language as a medium of instruction. The executed methodologies are counterproductive and less effective as they do not draw on some of the fundamental principal theories and conceptual constructs of second or foreign learning and content-based instruction such as sociocultural theory, social constructivism, input hypothesis, and additive bi/multilingual education. Towards the end, an alternative pedagogical model of translanguaging and multilinguality has been proposed which is believed to be more inclusive, and can be fitting and compatible within the local sociolinguistic and socio-cultural landscape like that of most children in Pakistan. Before summing up the study, it is deemed appropriate to underline the limitations of the study. Admittedly, the study has some limitations of which the most significant is the limited number of schools this study surveyed. Instead, if the study had been expanded to a large number for schools and more diverse classroom situations, the results would have a more representative picture.

References

- Agnihotri, R. K. (2007). *Identity and multilinguality: The case of India*. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum ; London : Eurospan [distributor].
- Agnihotri, R. K. (2010). Multilinguality and the teaching of English in India. *EFL Journal*, 1(1), 1-13.
- Anderson, J. (2005). *Mechanically Inclined: Building Grammar, Usage, and Style Into Writer's Workshop*. Portland Maine: Stenhouse Publishers.
- Andrabi, T., Das, J., & Khwaja, A. I. (2008). A Dime a Day: The Possibilities and Limits of Private Schooling in Pakistan. *Comparative Education Review*, 52(3), 329-355.
- Benson, C. J. (2013). Towards Adopting a Multilingual Habitus in Educational Development *Language Issues in Comparative Education* (Vol. 1, pp. 283-299): SensePublishers.

- Brown, H. D. (2014). *Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy*. White Plains, NY: Pearson Education.
- Bui, T., & Nguyen, H. (2016). Standardizing English for Educational and Socio-economic Betterment- A Critical Analysis of English Language Policy Reforms in Vietnam. In R. Kirkpatrick (Ed.), *English Language Education Policy in Asia* 11 pp. 363-388: Springer International Publishing.
- Canagarajah, S. (2011). Translanguaging in the classroom: Emerging issues for research and pedagogy *Applied Linguistics Review* 2, pp. 1).
- Canagarajah, S. (2013). *Literacy as translanguaging practice : between communities and classrooms*.
- Cenoz, J. (2009). *Towards multilingual education : Basque educational research from an international perspective*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Cequena, M. B. (2015). Metacognitive Strategy Use: Effects on Metacognitive Awareness, Self-efficacy, Reading Performance and Motivation. *Philippines ESL Journal*, 14, 3-26.
- Clarke, D. F., & Nation, I. S. P. (1980). Guessing the meanings of words from context: Strategy and techniques. *System*, 8(3), 211-220. doi: [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X\(80\)90003-2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/0346-251X(80)90003-2)
- Coleman, H. (2011). *Dreams and realities : developing countries and the English language*. London: British Council.
- Creese, A. (2005). *Teacher collaboration and talk in multilingual classrooms*. Clevedon [England]; Buffalo [N.Y.]: Multilingual Matters.
- Creese, A., & Blackledge, A. (2010). Translanguaging in the Bilingual Classroom: A Pedagogy for Learning and Teaching? *The Modern Language Journal*, 94(1), 103-115. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2009.00986.x
- Cummins, J. (2007). Rethinking monolingual instructional strategies in multilingual classrooms. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 10, 221-240.
- Cummins, J. (2009). Fundamental Psycholinguistic and Sociological Principles Underlying Educational Success for Linguistic Minority Students. In T. Skutnabb-Kangas, Robert Phillipson, A. K. Mohanty & M. Panda (Eds.), *Social Justice Through Multilingual Education* (pp. 19-35). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Day, R., & Bamford, J. (2002). Top ten principles for teaching extensive reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 14(2).
- Dutcher, N. (2004). *Language Policy and Education in Multilingual Societies: Lessons from Three Positive Models*: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Ellis, R. (2006). Current Issues in the Teaching of Grammar: An SLA Perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(1), 83-107. doi: 10.2307/40264512
- Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed. ed.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Ellis, R. (2009). *Implicit and explicit knowledge in second language learning, testing and teaching*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Erlam, R. (2003). The Effects of Deductive and Inductive Instruction on the Acquisition of Direct Object Pronouns in French as a Second Language. *The Modern Language Journal*, 87(2), 242-260. doi: 10.1111/1540-4781.00188
- Ethnologue. (2015). Languages of the World Retrieved July 20, 2015, from <https://www.ethnologue.com/statistics/country>
- García, O. (2009). Education, Multilingualism and Translanguaging in the 21st Century.

- In T. Skutnabb-Kangas, Robert Phillipson, A. K. Mohanty & M. Panda (Eds.), *Social Justice Through Multilingual Education* (pp. 140-158). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- García, O., & Leiva, C. (2014). Theorizing and Enacting Translanguaging for Social Justice. In A. Blackledge & A. Creese (Eds.), *Heteroglossia as Practice and Pedagogy* (Vol. 20, pp. 199-216): Springer Netherlands.
- García, O., & Wei, L. (2013). *Translanguaging: Language, Bilingualism and Education*: Palgrave Macmillan.
- GOP. (2006). National Education Census: Highlights. Islamabad Pakistan: Ministry of Education
- GOP. (2008). *Pakistan Education Statistics*. Islamabad Pakistan: Ministry of Education.
- Hadley, A. O. (1993). *Teaching Language in Context*: Heinle & Heinle.
- Heyneman, S. P., & Stern, J. M. B. (2013). Low cost private schools for the poor: What public policy is appropriate? *International Journal of Educational Development*, 35(0), 3-15. doi: <http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ijedudev.2013.01.002>
- Hulstijn, J. H., & Laufer, B. (2001). Some Empirical Evidence for the Involvement Load Hypothesis in Vocabulary Acquisition. *Language Learning*, 51(3), 539-558. doi: 10.1111/0023-8333.00164
- Jhingran, D. (2009). Hundreds of home languages in the country and many in most classrooms-coping with diversity in primary education in India. In A. Mohanty, M. Panda, R. Phillipson & T. Skutnabb-Kangas (Eds.), *Social Justice through Multilingual Education* (pp. 263-282). Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Kartika Ningsih, H. (2015). *Multilingual re-instantiation: Genre pedagogy in Indonesian classrooms*.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2012). English as an international language in Asia: implications for language education. In A. Kirkpatrick & R. Sussex (Eds.), *English as an International Language in Asia* (pp. 29-44). Dordrecht: Springer.
- Kosonen, K. (2009). Language-in-education policies in Southeast Asia: an overview. In K. Kosonen & C. Young (Eds.), *Mother tongue as bridge language of instruction: Policies and experiences in Southeast Asia* (pp. 22-41). Bangkok: The Southeast Asia Ministers of Education Organization.
- Krashen, S. (1982). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. (1989). We Acquire Vocabulary and Spelling by Reading: Additional Evidence for the Input Hypothesis. *The Modern Language Journal*, 73(4), 440-464. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.1989.tb05325.x
- Krashen, S. (2004a). *Explorations in language acquisition and use : the Taipei lectures*. Portsmouth, N.H.: Heinemann.
- Krashen, S. (2004b). *The power of reading : insights from the research*. Westport, Conn.; Portsmouth, N.H.: Libraries Unlimited ; Heinemann.
- Krashen, S., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach : Language acquisition in the classroom*. New York: Pergamon Press.
- Lantolf, J. P., & Thorne, S. L. (2007). Sociocultural theory and second language acquisition. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in second language acquisition : an introduction* (pp. 201-224). Mahwah, N.J. ; London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- MacCarthy, M. (1990). *Vocabulary*. Oxford: Oxford Univ. Pr.
- Mahboob, A. (2002). No English, no future: Language policy in Pakistan. In S. O. B.

- Hartford (Ed.), *Political independence with linguistic servitude: The politics about languages in the developing world* (pp. 1042). New York: NOVA Science
- Mahboob, A., & Lin, A. (in press-a). Local Languages as a Resource in (Language) Education. In A. F. Selvi & N. Rudolph (Eds.), *Contextualizing Education for Glocal Interaction: Issues and Implications*. New York: Springer.
- Mahboob, A., & Lin, A. (in press-b). Using Local Languages in English Language Classrooms. In H. P. Widodo & W. A. Renandya (Eds.), *English Language Teaching Today: Building a Closer Link between Theory and Practice*. New York: Springer International.
- Manan, S. A., & David, M. K. (2013). Mapping ecology of literacies in educational setting: The case of local mother tongues vis-à-vis Urdu and English languages in Pakistan. *Language and Education*, 28(3), 203-222. doi: 10.1080/09500782.2013.800550
- Manan, S. A., David, M. K., & Dumanig, F. P. (2014). Language management: A snapshot of governmentality within the private schools in Quetta, Pakistan. *Language Policy*, 15, 3-26. doi: 10.1007/s10993-014-9343-x
- Mansoor, S. (2004b). The status and role of regional languages in higher education in Pakistan. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*, 25(4), 333-353.
- Mohanty, A. K. (2006). Multilingualism of the unequals and predicaments of education in Inida: Mother tongue or other tongue? In O. García, T. Skutnabb-Kangas & M. E. Torres-Guzmán (Eds.), *Imagining Multilingual Schools: Languages in Education and Glocalization* (pp. 262-283). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
- Morrison, L. (1996). Talking About Words: A Study of French as a Second Language Learners' Lexical Inferencing Procedures. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 53(1), 41-75.
- Nasaji, H., & Fortos, S. (2011). *Teaching Grammar in Second Language Classroom: Integrating Form-Focused Instruction in Communicative Context*. New York: Routledge.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2001). *Learning vocabulary in another language*. Cambridge [u.a.]: Cambridge Univ. Press.
- Nation, I. S. P. (2009). *Teaching ESL/EFL reading and writing*. London: Routledge.
- Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 Instruction: A Research Synthesis and Quantitative Meta-analysis. *Language Learning*, 50(3), 417-528. doi: 10.1111/0023-8333.00136
- Patil, Z. N. (2008). Rethinking the objectives of teaching English in Asia. *Asian EFL Journal*, 10(4), 227-240.
- Pavicic Takac, V. (2008). *Vocabulary learning strategies and foreign language acquisition*. Clevedon, UK; Buffalo, NY: Multilingual Matters.
- Pinnock, H. (2009). *Language and education: The missing link , how the language used in schools threatens the achievement of Education For All*. London, UK: Save the Children.
- Rahman, T. (1996). *Language and politics in Pakistan*. Karachi: Oxford University Press.
- Rahman, T. (2005). Passports to Privilege: The English-Medium Schools in Pakistan. *Peace and Democracy in South Asia*, 1(1), 24-44.
- Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. In K. L. Savage, G. Bitterlin & D. Price (Eds.), *Grammar Matters: Teaching Grammar in Adult ESL Programs*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Shamim, F. (2008). Trends, issues and challenges in English language education in

- Pakistan. *Asia Pacific Journal of Education*, 28(3), 235-249.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T., & Dunbar, R. (2010). *Indigenous children's education as linguistic genocide and a crime against humanity? : a global view*. Kautokeino, Norway: Ga\03011du - Resource Centre for the Rights of Indigenous Peoples.
- Skutnabb-Kangas, T., & McCarty, T. L. (2008). Key Concepts in Bilingual Education: Ideological, Historical, Epistemological, and Empirical Foundations. In N. H. Hornberger (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Language and Education* (Vol. 5, pp. 3-18). New York: Springer.
- Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97-114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Thornbury, S. (1999). *How to Teach Grammar*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited
- UNESCO. (2007). *Education for all by 2015. Will we make it? .* Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- UNICEF. (2011). *District Development Profile Quetta*. Quetta Pakistan: Planning & Development Department, Government of Balochistan in Collaboration with UNICEF
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in Society: The Development of Higher Psychological Processes*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Williams, R. (1986). Top ten principles for teaching reading. *ELT Journal*, 40(1), 42-45. doi: 10.1093/elt/40.1.42

About the Author

Dr. Syed Abdul Manan is a faculty member in the Department of English, Faculty of Arts & Basic Sciences, Baluchistan University of IT Engineering & Management Sciences, Quetta, Pakistan. He has recently completed his PhD from the Faculty of Languages & Linguistics University of Malaya, Malaysia. His areas of interest are general sociolinguistics, language policy & planning, language-in-education, mother tongue based instruction and multilingualism. His Ph.D research is focused on a critical survey of the English medium private schools in Pakistan. His research papers (co-authored) have recently been published and accepted for publication in various prestigious journals. His research papers (co-authored) have recently been published and accepted for publication.

Where is the CR? A Description of Philippine English in Hawaii

Rodney C. Jubilado

University of Hawaii

Abstract

When people migrate, they bring with them their language and culture. In the case of the Filipinos, it means bringing various languages and indigenous or amalgamated cultures. The Filipinos have come to Hawaii with hopeful ideals of economic prosperity, and involuntarily transported the Philippine English that has further enriched the already multiglottal linguistic landscape of Hawaii. This paper aims at the documentation of the existence of Philippine English in Hawaii (PEH). This study focuses on the preliminary description of the sound properties, lexical items, and grammar features of PEH. There are two sources of data in this study: (1) data from the result of direct participant observation among Filipinos for three years and four months (August 2012- December 2015) and (2) data from the unstructured interviews conducted with the 35 Filipino-American students from Spring 2015 to Fall 2015 at University of Hawaii at Hilo (UHH) who are first and second generation Filipinos and residents or citizens of Hawaii. Results showed that Philippine English is spoken among first and second generation Filipinos in Hawaii. The sound properties, lexical items and grammar features of PEH distinguish it from the American English spoken in Hawaii.

Keywords: Philippine English, Hawaii, Filipino identity, English as a Second Language

Introduction

On August 21, 1959, the central Pacific islands of Hawaii became the 49th state of the United States of America. Prior to the statehood of Hawaii, these sovereign islands have been a host to various nationalities that eventually exceeded the indigenous population. Migrants from China, Japan, the Philippines, and the US Mainland have changed the demographics of Hawaii. Aside from the Caucasians, the Filipinos are a majority at 342,095 or 25.1% of the population of Hawaii (Hawaii State Data Center, 2012). This staggering number also translates to the stark presence of Philippine languages and ethnicities in the islands. Other than English, the following languages are spoken at home in Hawaii in descending order: Tagalog, Ilocano, Spanish, Japanese, and Hawaiian (US Census Bureau, 2015). Data further showed that Tagalog (first in rank) and Ilocano (second in rank) outnumbered the other speakers of the more than 100 languages spoken in Hawaii. The other Philippine language in the top 21 on the list is “Bisayan” (18th in rank), which is an all-encompassing label for the Visayan languages spoken in Hawaii. With the presence of Philippine languages in Hawaii, this means also the use of Philippine English in communication. Such communicative functionality of these languages firmly strengthens both national and communal identities of the Filipinos in Hawaii.

Author's Affiliation: University of Hawaii
Hilo, Hawaii, USA
Email address: rcjubilado@yahoo.com

As understood in the preceding paragraph, the migration of the Filipinos to Hawaii has not only brought the indigenous Philippine languages but also Filipino culture into the Hawaiian Islands alongside the Philippine variety of English. This current linguistic variety of English is one of the intangible products of Section 10 of the Education Act of 1901 that explicitly stated, “The English language shall be made, gradually, the basis of all public-school instruction. To this end, provision shall be made by law for English instruction in all schools supported by public funds.” This colonial legal mandate came with financial allotment for the recruitment of English teachers whose ranks included the 530 Thomasites, the term that the Filipinos affectionately called those first formal English teachers who boarded USAT Thomas on their way to the Philippines arriving on August 21, 1901 (Karnow, 1989). In 1974, President Ferdinand Marcos promulgated the Bilingual Education Policy that strengthened the position of English as one of the mediums of instruction alongside Pilipino¹, the national and co-official language. The same status was accorded to English when the Department of Education, Culture, and Sports under the presidency of President Corazon Aquino implemented the 1987 Bilingual Education Policy. As such, the postcolonial language policies attested to the continuation of the teaching of English in public schools in the Philippines (Martin, 2012). English has acquired prestige in the Philippines, and aside from its official status, it is aptly labeled English as a Second Language (ESL) in various works of scholars including Pennycook (2013), Gonzalez (2008), McFarland (2008), Kachru (2005), Tupas (2004), and Bautista (2000) to name a few. As such, Thompson (2003, page 69) correctly stated, “For 100 years Filipinos have embraced the English language as a force that would enrich, ennoble, and empower them.” Fast forward, the Filipino migrants in Hawaii are one of the direct beneficiaries of the colonial and postcolonial language policies that paved the way for the Filipinos to speak English and function as either citizens or residents of the State of Hawaii. Hickey (2005) rightly described the instrumental and integrative motivation of the Filipinos in advancing their learning of English for “...advancement in civil service and the possibility of transfer to the United States...”

English in the Philippines

Geographically located in Southeast Asia, the Philippines shares the same cultural substrate and linguistic cognacy with other Austronesians in Malaysia, Brunei, and Indonesia. Historically and culturally, it is closer to Latin America due to its shared Hispanic heritage in colonial history, religious affinity and cultural superstrate (Lewis & Gates, 2005, p. 475). The Philippines is in fact the only Southeast Asian country with long continuous colonial domination from a single European power from 16th century, lasting for 333 years under the Spanish Empire. However, those long years of colonial domination did not mean the spread of Spanish language in the Philippines compared to their Latin compatriots in South America. Such colonial linguistic landscape is effectively occupied by the English language from America. In the Southeast Asian context, English in the Philippines has its own niche considering that it is the only Southeast Asian variety of English that is not from the United Kingdom. English is transplanted in the Philippines from the United States of America, and it has developed and become a necessary linguistic commodity through its official language status enshrined in the Constitution of the Republic of the Philippines and its pedagogical prominence being one of the mediums of instruction in all education levels. The state of learning English language in the Philippines is a testament to the generative fact that structural and lexical knowledge forms the very basis of preliminary language learning by tapping into the computational features of the language faculty

(Cook, 2013; Nowak, Komarova, & Niyogi, 2002; Bley-Vroman, 1989; White, 2003, 1989). In the Philippine context, this means that the learning of English grammar rules presented in the textbooks and the lexical items from the dictionary and other printed materials can be equated with the general picture of the basic English pedagogy in the Philippines. With the use of communicative language teaching approach in teaching English in the succeeding postcolonial decades, the freedom to commit errors in grammar and lexical use has been uninhibited since this instructional approach advocates understanding in contrast to the learning of rigorous standards of English that requires the replication of the standard variety (Savignon, 1997). Extralinguistic properties can be learned later through media exposure and other social means (Ellis, 2013; Gass, 2013; Lantolf, 2000; Klein, 1986; Krashen & Terrell, 1983). With the majority of the English speakers in the Philippines who communicate in Philippine English, such dialect of English is learned primarily from other Filipino English teachers whose cultural and linguistic contacts with the native speakers of English are virtually nil. So that with very limited cultural and native-English linguistic knowledge, Philippine English is the widely used linguistic variety of English in the Philippines.

A common knowledge at schools in the Philippines is that, more often than not, the English proficiency of the teachers in the early formative years is not on par with that of the English professors at the tertiary level (Malicsi, 2010). At the classrooms, English teachers constantly shift to Filipino and other Philippine languages to facilitate bridging and understanding. Students always equate English with mathematics and sciences, often describing these subjects as difficult. As such, non-mastery of English as seen in the production of erroneous grammatical structures can label a student stupid or slow learner, eliciting laughter and ridicule from fellow students. With the mandate of teaching English for three hours a week, a one-hour session does not come in full English language setting nor is it taught without the appeal towards other languages. Teachers bridge the lectures with Filipino and other Philippine languages to facilitate learning. Moreover, it is also a common knowledge that the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) has never become an institutionalized requirement for English teachers in the Philippines.

Passing TOEFL is never required at universities offering bachelor's degrees in English. This very interesting question appeared in the website www.quora.com: "Do most students take the TOEFL in the Philippines?" The person who answered the same question, Steven de Guzman, bluntly replied: "Definitely not. In general, we just study English at school and become fluent through constant exposure and actual use -- not because we have to pass an external certification." Taking TOEFL is voluntary and becomes necessary for those who are doing graduate studies abroad or those who are applying for nursing jobs in the USA. For TOEFL takers, passing it is normal for Filipinos, and that passing signifies a high level of proficiency among the examinees. The website www.asianscientist.com reported the 2010 TOEFL scores of 163 countries, and it showed that the Philippines ranked at 35th behind India and Singapore. It is no wonder that the columnist Amy Chavez of www.huffingtonpost.com asked this question, "So, how did the Philippines managed to master English?" English is one of the colonial legacies of the United States of America in the Philippines. After more than 100 years of the presence of the English language, this language has become pervasively present in the governmental affairs, academic communities, religious services, street signs, gigantic billboards, brand names and merchandises, broadsheet newspapers, radio and television broadcasts, magazines, social media,

among others. Setting high proficiency aside, English comes handy in communication not only among the English teachers but also among the taxi and tricycle drivers alike when interacting with foreign visitors. The same is said of the 11 million Filipinos working abroad whose English proficiency ranges from basic to near native, and majority of whom have not taken TOEFL.

Philippine English in Hawaii: The Study

This study aims at the documentation of the existence of Philippine English in Hawaii (PEH). This study focuses on the preliminary description of the sound properties, lexical items, and grammar features of PEH. There are two sources of data in this study: (1) data from the result of direct participant observation among Filipinos for three years and four months (August 2012-December 2015) and (2) data from the unstructured interviews conducted with the 35 students from the Spring 2015 to Fall 2015 at University of Hawaii at Hilo (UHH) who are first and second generationⁱⁱ Filipinos and residents or citizens of Hawaii.

Every year, the Filipino Studies Program at UHH celebrates the Filipino-American Heritage Month (FAHM) in October. FAHM was the product of the legislative process at the 111th US Congress through House Resolution 155 on February 11, 2009 bearing this title: “Recognizing Filipino American Heritage Month and celebrating the heritage and culture of Filipino Americans and their immense contributions to the Nation.” FAHM has become a huge annual celebration of the cultural heritage of the Filipinos hosted by UHH. This celebration has become one of the avenues for this study for it starts with eight months of committee meetings and ends with one month of celebration when the community and the university come together. Aside from FAHM, attendance at the Filipino-oriented club meetings and parties as well as Halloween and Christmas celebrations was also contributing data to this study. Recording the data was done by using iPhone 5, iPhone 6, iPad, and notepads. Casual and daily encounters have been also useful in this study since the Filipinos are a majority in the Big Island, and daily interaction is a guaranteed common occurrence.

Among the participating students at UHH, 14 were males and 21 were females who were registered in Spring 2015 and Fall 2015. The average age of the participants was 25 years old. Twenty of them were born in the USA – 18 in the State of Hawaii and two in California. Fifteen were born in the Philippines – 11 from Ilocos Norte, and one each from Ilocos Sur, Isabela, Nueva Ecija, and Tarlac. The average number of years of residence in Hawaii was 19.8 years.

For the languages spoken at home, 35 declared English, 25 for Ilocano, 10 for Tagalog/Filipino, 1 for Tetum, 1 for Bahasa Indonesia, and 1 for Hawaiian Pidgin English. At the first glance, the Filipinos of Ilocano origin were the most dominant group in Hawaii which was also reflective of the demographics of Filipinos.

On awareness of the existence of Philippine English, 25 informants declared that they were aware of it. Twenty-nine informants were affirmative in saying that they could distinguish Philippine English from American English. When asked further to elaborate how they could distinguish between Philippine English and American English, their varied answers were as follows:

“The English spoken is very broken compared to the English counterpart. But in articulation and pronunciation, the speakers from the Philippines are somewhat more refined compared to the English counterpart.” –M20-3

“Filipinos that moved here in the US still speaks grammarily [sic] incorrect. They pronounce the word really hard but still understandable though.” -F22-4

“The Philippine born stutter [sic] more and use broken English. Before they speak English, they stop...and then speak broken.” –M21-7

“People from the Philippines have accent.” –F23-8

“Philippine English isn’t great but understandable.” –F50-9

“Fluent ... but mispronunciation of words or application in their speaking. Sometimes accent comes out.” –M25-16

“I can tell who was born the US versus those not based on how they speak and how their English sounds.” –F23-17

“People from the Philippines have an accent and their English speaking is formal compared to locals who speak pidgin.” –F23-19

“The accent of those born in the Philippines when they speak English is recognizable.” –M20-22

“People from the Philippines have different word choice and grammar. They also have bilingual sentences.” -M22-24

“Some letters... when pronounced ... sound differently because in the Philippines they do not have those letters, so it sounds off. But we can still understand if we listen and just try to understand (that) they are trying their best.” –F19-29

“They speak good, but sometimes they cannot pronounce words that are long. Like me, I can’t really say words that are very long.” –M19-31

“Filipinos have slight accent. Some grammatical nuances that native speakers don’t have...Also, some stressed syllables that native speakers don’t have...” –M21-32

“Filipinos speak English with accent close to Ilocano and Tagalog.” -M27-33

In addition to the description given above, 22 of the informants started their answer with the word “accent” to distinguish PEH and AE. However, there was a consensus that the speakers of PEH tended to “speak formally” when they were at university. They further said that some words in PEH were “not usually found in the local English”. To summarize the descriptive answers, the informants referred to the phonological properties, peculiarity of lexical items, and grammar features of PEH that are discussed in the next section.

Features of Philippine English in Hawaii

This section deals with the features of Philippine English in Hawaii. It presents the peculiarities of sound properties, followed by the lexical choices and the grammatical features.

Sound Properties

In Hawaii, the most noticeable feature of Philippine English is its phonological properties. Even with the untrained ears, it is very easy to distinguish between the Filipinos who speak American English and the Filipinos who speak Philippine English, the latter is locally called *Pinoy English* by Filipinos themselves. Out of 35 students, 29 could distinguish the spoken English of a Filipino speaking non-American English through its “accent”. One informant commented further that “Filipinos pronounce all the letters of the word like *Arkansas*, *Chevrolet*, and *corps*.” This particular informant referred to the concept of spelling pronunciation, one of the facets of non-native English speech (Hilte & Reitsma, 2006; Derwing & Rossiter, 2002; Wade-Woolley & Siegel, 1997; Altenberg & Vago, 1983).

Stress Placement

Stress in the syllable of the Philippine languages is typically penultimate, that is, the second to the last syllable (written in bold italics in the succeeding examples). As such, the Philippine English speaker places the primary stress accordingly especially in multisyllabic words as seen in the following examples: administr**ation**, agricult**ure**, certifi**cation**, communic**ation**, comput**ation**, conj**uring**, element**ary**, explan**ation**, examin**ation**, govern**ment**, hippopot**amus**, invent**ory**, literat**ure**, mand**atory**, oblig**atory**, organiz**ation**, purch**asing**, preced**ence**, prim**ary**, second**ary**, qualifi**cation**, and a host of more examples. However, stress can also be final like in these sample words: advoc**ate**, candid**ate**, chancell**or**, conduct**or**, diffic**ult**, doct**or**, general**ize**, perman**ent**, process**or**, profess**or**, and valid**ate**. Penultimate stress in the Philippine languages is most common, so that it has more available examples compared to stress-final words in Philippine English. Such suprasegmental property exhibited in the Philippine English variety in Hawaii also appeared in the study of Dayag (2012) on Philippine English wherein he made use of the concept “syllable-timed” in contrast to “stress-timed” American and British English to partly describe this particular phenomenon of stress placement.

Vowels

Generally speaking, Philippine English has only five vowels that are reflective of the vowel inventory in Philippine languages (Pillai, Manuelli, & Dumanig, 2010). This is in contrast to the American English that has 12 or more depending on which regional variety is spoken. In Philippine English, there is a very high level of predictability of simplifying high back vowels into the sound of [u], mid back vowel into [o], high central mid vowel into [e], and front vowels into [i]. Furthermore, the vowel sounds [e] and [i] like in the words ‘feel’ and ‘fill’ are more of allophones to each other, and the same can be said of the vowels [o] and [u] like in the words ‘fool’ and ‘full’. As such, the standard use of minimal pairs does not have any bearing on this state of affairs. Moreover, the low open vowels are simplified into low vowel [a]. With the Filipinos in Hawaii often go to the bank to send money to their relatives in the Philippines, the most common heard sample word in the Philippine English is the word *bank*, which is pronounced [bæŋk] in American English, but simply [baŋk] in Philippine English. Suffice it to say that vowel length in Philippine English does not have any phonemic status.

Consonants

The consonant sound inventory of the Philippine English in Hawaii has the following sounds: stops {p, t, k, b, d, g}, affricate {tʃ, dʒ}, fricatives {s, z, h}, nasals {n, m, ŋ}, glides {w, j}, and liquids {l, r}. While the American English [r] is retroflex, the Philippine English [r] is rhotic, which is quite similar to the Spanish and the Indonesian [r]. Focusing on fricatives, full bilabialization of the fricative sounds [f] and [v] is common in Philippine English. The commonly occurring profane word *fuck* is pronounced [pak], and the common superlative degree word *very* is pronounced [bere]. The fricative sounds [θ] and [ð] are also nonexistent, and the same are produced in the same manner as the stops [t] and [d], respectively. Thus, the English words *thick* and *though* are pronounced as *tick* and *do*, respectively. Further, *three* is pronounced *tree*; *mother* is *madder*, and *then* and *den* sound the same. Filipinos commonly produce the voiceless fricative [ʃ] as a series of two sound [s] and [j]. So that, one can hear the Filipinos pronounce *shore* as [sjor] and *nation* as [nejsjon]. In rapid speech, the sound [ʃ] is simply pronounced as [s], the same as in the words *shrimp* as [srimp], *mushroom* as [masrom], and *English* as [eŋgles], respectively. The fricative sound [z] occurs only in the initial position like in the word *zebra*, and it becomes [s] in medial and final positions like in the words *brazen*, which is pronounced [brejsen], and *cars*, which is pronounced [kars] and not [karz]. Furthermore, there is no phonological contrast between the sounds [p] and [f] and so with the sounds [b] and [v]. The latter phenomenon is called betacism, where the fricative sound [v] becomes the stop sound [b]. To make the sample concrete, majority of the students were very eager to volunteer this information about the manner their angry parents uttered the profane words like “Fuck shit!” wherein the students heard “Paksyet!” that made them laugh to the disappointment of their parents.

Intonation

Intonation in Philippine English is best characterized as singsong (MacArthur, 1998). Speakers of Philippine English have no discursive distinction in the intonation between yes-no questions and questions that require factual declarative answers. For example, the question “Are you going to the Christmas party?” has the same intonation with the questions “Who is going to the Christmas party?” and “Why are you going to the Christmas party?” Philippine English has its own intonation pattern, which is an influence from the Philippine substrate languages whose intonation pattern is also predictably similar.

Lexis

In Hawaii, Philippine English has many words that do not usually appear in the dictionary of American English. Such lexical items are culturally loaded words referring mostly to food and kinship terms. It is not uncommon to hear the Filipinos in Hawaii mentioning the word *lechon* ‘whole roasted pig’ during parties and other celebrations. In every cultural celebration, one can always hear the question, “Is there *lechon*, brah?” Next in line are the names of typical Filipino dishes like *pancit*, *adobo*, *pinakbet*, *sinigang*, *abraw*, *halu-halu*, *humba*, *tinola*, *ube*, *halaya*, *maruya*, *binagoongan*, *dinuguan* or *dinardaraan*, *puto*, *kutsinta*, *binignit*, *empanada* and *gisantes*. In the recent Christmas celebration, these preceding words were uttered in similar fashion that the words like cake, spaghetti, lasagna, pie, roast, and casserole are spoken in

American English during the typical American Christmas celebration. Note that the aforementioned names of dishes are coming from various language groups of Filipinos, namely, Ilocano, Tagalog, and Cebuano, in Hawaii that reflect the different regional origins in the Philippines.

Being transnationals, Filipinos in Hawaii also use the words *balikbayan* box ‘box of goodies sent via cargo forwarders to the Philippines’, *pasalubong* ‘gift’, *hand carry* ‘any gift one can carry on board a plane’, and *cash gift* ‘cash remittance’. There is no wonder that the phrase “*Western Union*” and the acronym “*LBC*” among Filipinos are synonymous with sending *cash gifts* and *balikbayan boxes* to the Philippines, respectively.

Other words include *mineral water* (AE: bottled water), *plate number* (AE: license plate), *Xerox* (AE: photocopy), *TFC* (The Filipino Channel), *videoke*, *karaoke*, and *mabuhay*, the latter is a standard Filipino greeting used in all the cultural gatherings at university and in the community. On kinship terms, one can always hear the words *ading* ‘younger sibling’, *apo* ‘grandparent or grandchild’, *anak* ‘child’, *kuya* ‘older brother’, *ate* ‘older sister’, *bunso* ‘youngest sibling’, *lolo* ‘grandfather’, *lola* ‘grandmother’, *tito* ‘uncle’ and *tita* ‘aunt’. The last two kinship terms cannot be confused with the commonly used words *auntie* and *uncle* because these particular terms are used indiscriminately by Filipinos to refer to all unrelated elderly women and men in Hawaii.

From the Hawaiian host culture, Philippine English in Hawaii has also absorbed some local Hawaiian lexical items such as *aloha*, *mahalo*, *brah*, *da kine*, *haole*, *poke*, *manapua*, *pau*, and the peculiar word *stay*. The greetings *aloha* and *mahalo* corresponds to the words *hello* and *thank you* as used in Philippine English. In the written communications at University of Hawaii among Filipinos during the Filipino-American Heritage Month every October, the greetings can be read this way: “Aloha and Mabuhay!” Conversely, the closing is written this way: “Mahalo and Maraming salamat po!” The inclusion of the Hawaiian greetings *aloha* and *mahalo* in Filipino written communication has been in practice for a long time to show respect to the host culture of the Hawaiians and the maintenance of the standard and formal greeting in the Philippines. The expression *da kine* has also gained currency in the speech of the Filipinos when they speak English or even Philippine languages. The word ‘*brah*’ is the clipped version of the English word ‘brother’. It is used to address any male person of similar age to the speaker. *Da kine* originated from the English phrase “*the kind*”, and it is used similarly with the expression “what you may call it”. One can hear a Filipino saying along this line, “I go Walmart, brah. Wanna buy *da kine*.” The term *haole* is used to refer to the Caucasians who are mostly from the Mainland USA. Another term is *poke*, which is the name of the Hawaiian raw tuna fish salad similar to the Japanese sashimi. Among Visayans in Hawaii, *poke* competes with *kinilaw* since this dish has stark similarity. Another competing dish terms are the Hawaiian word *manapua* and the Filipino word *siopao*. The word *manapua* is the shorter version of the compound *mea ono* ‘cake’ + *pua á* ‘pork’. Just like in the Philippines, this food item is of Chinese origin. The word *pau* simply means ‘finished’ or ‘done’ in English. At the workplace, it is commonly heard among Filipinos to greet those leaving workers with this line, “You pau already?” similar to saying “Goodbye” or “Until then.” The peculiar use of the word *stay* has also gained entry into Philippine English. In the question “*Where you stay*”, this actually means “Where are you at right now?” that signifies the current location of the addressee.

Iconic to the Philippine English is the use of the acronym *CR*, comfort room. Hearing such acronym makes every Filipino head turn around when, out of the blue, someone would ask “Where is the CR?” No doubt that person is a Filipino. American English in Hawaii normally has the word toilet labelled on the door signifying the room where customers can to urinate or defecate. The use of that acronym also labels the user as *FOB* or “Fresh Off Boeing (airplane)” that denotes a newcomer to Hawaii directly from the Philippines. So that when one asks “Where is the CR”, one will surely get a reply in Philippine English in this manner, “Aysus! CR... there”, with the typical pursed lips pointing towards the direction of the toilet.

Grammar Features

American English exhibits Subject-Verb-Object pattern in a typical transitive construction, while the Philippines languages have the Verb-Subject-Object or simply verb- initial pattern since post-verbal categories can be reordered depending on the discourse and meaning. Such reordering of post-verbal elements has something to do with the nature of Philippine type of languages, and foremost is the well-known focus system or voice system. Any nominal phrase can function as the subject depending on the argument structureⁱⁱⁱ of the fully inflected verb. Observe the samples from Tagalog below:

1. Bumili ang estudyante ng pagkain sa cafeteria para kay Clark.
The student bought food at the cafeteria for Clark.
2. Bumili sa cafeteria ang estudyante ng pagkain para kay Clark.
The student bought food at the cafeteria for Clark.
3. Bumili ng pagkain sa cafeteria ang estudyante para kay Clark.
The student bought food at the cafeteria for Clark.
4. Bumili para kay Clark ang estudyante ng pagkain sa cafeteria.
The student bought food at the cafeteria for Clark.
5. Binili ng estudyante ang pagkain sa cafeteria para kay Clark.
It was the food that the student bought for Clark.
6. Binilhan si Clark ng estudyante ng pagkain sa cafeteria.
It was Clark whom the student bought food at the cafeteria.

Sentences 1-6 above are all verb-initial with the verb forms of *bili* ‘to buy’ occupying the initial position. Notice that the verb *bili* ‘to buy’ is inflected with the affix *-um* in sentences 1-4, with the affix *-in* in sentence 5, and with the affix *-an* in sentence 6. All of these sentences are in completive aspect as the verbs by virtue of the affix *-um* and *-in*. Notice further that with changes of the affixes, the subject (marked by *ang* or *si* for personal names) also changes. In the agentive transitive construction like in sentences 1-4, the objects are preceded by *ng*, the locatives by the preposition *sa*, and the benefactives by *para kay* or *para sa*. In the objective construction like in sentence 5, the object functions as the grammatical subject marked by *ang*, and the non-specific agent is marked by *ng*. In the benefactive construction like in sentence 6, the benefactive subject is marked by *si*, the agent and the object by *ng*, and the locative by *sa*.

Furthermore, all categories can also be moved towards preverbal position. Using the same sentences in 1-6 above, observe the sentences with preposed elements to show topicalization and focalization in sentences 7-12 below, respectively:

7. Para kay Clark, bumili ang estudyante ng pagkain sa cafeteria.
For Clark, the student bought food at the cafeteria.
8. Ang estudyante, bumili sa cafeteria ng pagkain para kay Clark.
The student bought food at the cafeteria for Clark.
9. Sa cafeteria, bumili ng pagkain ang estudyante para kay Clark.
At the cafeteria, the student bought food for Clark.
10. Pagkain ang binili ng estudyante sa cafeteria para kay Clark.
It was food that the student bought at the cafeteria for Clark.
11. Si Clark ang binilhan ng estudyante ng pagkain sa cafeteria.
It was Clark whom the student bought food at the cafeteria.
12. Ang pagkain na para kay Clark ang binili ng estudyante sa cafeteria.
It was the food for Clark that the student bought at the cafeteria.

Various studies have dealt on the learning and acquisition of tense and aspects inclusive of English and other languages such as those expounded in, for example, Wulff, Ellis, Römer, Bardovi-Harlig, & Leblanc (2009), DeKeyser (2005), Collins (2004), Bardovi-Harlig (2000), and Robison (1995). Whereas, American English has auxiliary verbs to mark tense and aspect, Philippine languages have no lexicalized aspect markers. Just like in the sentences 1-12 above, aspect is inflected with the Philippine lexical verb, and it can also be done periphrastically or by temporal markers within the sentential construction. All these structural differences between American English and Philippine languages have bearing on the sentential construction of Philippine English. The spoken Philippine English in Hawaii has its own features inclusive of fronting, object deletion, copula deletion, and S-V-(dis)agreement, to name a few since these are the most common grammar features.

Fronting

Fronting is a structural process wherein a constituent is preposed to the initial position of the sentence. The commonly fronted constituents are those of verb complements and, in some cases, the agents. From the data gathered through casual encounters and in many parties, observe the sample sentences 13-16 below:

13. "A car ...he buy... Tomorrow he pay..."
14. "Esther, the thin one, she said...."
15. "Balikbayan box....I send already..."
16. "Christmas party, there is.... Come tomorrow...ahh...have *lechon*."

The underlined words in sentences above are all fronted categories that are termed arguments^{iv} in linguistics. These categories are the complementary nominals of the predicate. This structural phenomenon in Philippine English is commonly heard, and it may be attributed to the structural pressure of English, which has the SVO word order and whose subject is a nominal. In information structure, moving a constituent to the initial position elicits a signal of a topic to be discussed. These constituents are moved from the VP^v-internal position to the specifier position of the complementary phrase. This type of fronting is called topicalization where the fronted categories function as topics of the sentences (Carnie, 2010; Haegeman, 2006; Radford, 2004).

Object deletion

Object deletion is a syntactic process when an argument or verb-complement nominal is deleted in the sentential construction (McShane, 2005; Demuth, Machobane, & Moloi, 2000; Lasnik & Fiengo, 1989). It is a syntactic operation that falls under the study of ellipsis (Merchant, 2013; Frazier & Clifton, 2005). In Philippine English, object deletion exists such as in the following sentences 17-21 below:

17. “Yes, later I go Walmart. I go buy...”
18. “You know, *da kine*....ah, yes... Just eat...”
19. “Here ...at the beach.... I stay catch...”
20. “Ah...No... I no study... Tomorrow I take....”
21. “The flip over there just came. He don’t get...”

In sentence (17), the interlocutor did not mention the merchandise to buy. In sentence (18), the edible nominal was not included in the conversation. The same went on in sentence (19) where the nominal presumed to be fish was not heard. In sentence (20), the deleted object referred to exam. In sentence (21), the deleted object is definitely food since the conversation took place in a party. The location or the goal of the conversation gives the context wherein the interlocutors could deduct the identity of the elided objects. Although the deleted objects are recoverable in the context of the conversation and in the location of the ongoing conversation, object deletion is most commonly heard among close-knit groups such as members of language and culture clubs, circle of close friends, classmates, gossip partners, and drinking buddies, among others. In any case, this grammar feature is commonly heard among Filipinos speaking English that can be mind-boggling and challenging to the outsider.

Copula Deletion

Just like object deletion, copula deletion is part of the bigger study of ellipsis in linguistics. In English, the word copula refers to the auxiliary verb *be* that links a subject and the complement. In Philippine languages, there is no lexical equivalent of the copula, and that may contribute to the copula deletion in the speech of Filipinos when they speak English as in the following sample sentences 22-26:

22. “The baby... very cute.”
23. “His wife...beautiful.”
24. “Last night, the party ...full.”
25. “That lechon....no good.”
26. “That uncle...no aloha.”

This copula deletion in the examples above exists in the structure where the nominal subject has to be connected to the complementing descriptive property. In Tagalog, sentences 22 and 23 translate into these forms: “*Ang bata cute talaga*” and “*Ang misis niya maganda*”, respectively. Sentence 24 translates this way: “*Kagabi, ang party puno.*” These translations exhibit the property of spontaneity, which is reflective of daily speech. Sentences 25 and 26 have the same structural properties. So far, copula deletion does not mean auxiliary deletion since

PEH has no auxiliaries in the progressive and the perfective constructions, the latter does not always mean correct construction. As such, one can hear a Filipino saying, “*He is lechoning ...there... Keauu*”, “*My car, am cleaning*”, and “*My shoes been clean yesterday.*”

SV-(Dis)agreement

In linguistics, subject-verb agreement (SVA) falls under the bigger study of agreement or concord (Baker, 2008; Boeckx, 2008; Castens, 2000; Hudson, 1999, Barlow & Ferguson, 1988). In ESL setting, SVA is one of the basic patterns to be mastered among learners of English. Since English is one of the student-perceived “difficult subjects” alongside science and mathematics, committing such errors label the student as slow-learner. Moreover, poor grasp of grammar rules and the non-mastery thereof contribute to the pervasive notion of “wrong grammar” among Filipinos. SV-disagreement in the Philippine English construction is most common as can be seen in the sample sentences 27-30 below:

27. “She tell me...”
28. “The counting of the members are....”
29. “One of the member object....”
30. “There is no children there.”

All of the above examples exhibit the errors in the number agreement. Simple rules of ESL teaching are explicitly taught in grammar lessons that if the subject is singular, the verbs must have the suffix –s or –es or the singular auxiliaries are used. So that, the correct form for sentence 27 is “She tells me”, and for sentence 28 is “The counting of the members is....” Sample sentence 29 has the correct form “One of the members objects”, and just like sentence 28, it has the intervening phrase “of the...” that leads to the disagreement. At a closer look, the expression “one of the PLURAL” in sentence 29 has its equivalence in Philippine languages such as in Tagalog “isa sa mga” and in Cebuano “usa sa mga”. These close equivalences to English do not prevent the Filipinos to commit such disagreement. Sentence 30 has the element of pleonastic expression *there is* just like in the studies expounded in Castillo, Drury, & Grohmann (2010), Gundel, Hedberg, & Zacharski (2005), Lasnik (2003), Martin (1999), and McCloskey (1990). Without dwelling much in then rigor of theoretical syntactic analysis and explication, suffice it to say that the pleonastic subject *there* agrees with the following nominal in the subject position. Such error is fossilized somewhere in the learning process of English, and eventually forms part of the grammatical features of Philippine English.

Remarks on Philippine English Description

This study has presented a preliminary description and discussion of the Philippine English as a transported language variety in Hawaii. The description of Philippine English in the preceding pages points to the fact this transported linguistic variety is a product of language learning, in particular, second language acquisition (SLA), a typical scenario in the ESL context. Classroom instruction of English in the form of lessons and activities form part of the input. With the main objective is to acquire or learn English as a Second Language, the input includes the sounds, grammar, meaning, and vocabulary of English (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 2014; Cook, 2013; Hawkins, 2001; White, 2003, 1989). Such input goes through a gradual process of learning that

leads to the development of an interlanguage, which is a linguistic system used by SLA learners who have not achieved the target linguistic system (Gass, 2013; Selinker & Gass, 1992; Sorace, 1985). In the interview conducted, majority of the informants are aware of the presence of the distinction between PE and AE by pointing to the sound and vocabulary differences and the errors of grammar. At a closer look, there are also informants like M19-31, F23-19, M25-16, and M20-3 who commented on the fluency, clarity, and grammaticality of the Philippine English in some of the Filipino speakers. One of the informants further commented that “some Filipinos speak like newscaster or TV presenters”, which implies high proficiency and professional functionality. This fact clearly shows that some of the Filipinos have attained high proficiency of the target language, while the others are stuck in the interlanguage stage.

Conclusion

This paper deals primarily on the description of the Philippine English (PE) in Hawaii. Its scope includes the phonological properties, vocabulary, and the grammatical features of PE in Hawaii. The presentation of this paper starts from the arrival of the Americans in the Philippines with its colonial policies and governance. It is followed by the discussion on the Philippine English as a product the colonial and postcolonial language policies that have caused the prominence of the English language over some of the Philippine languages. The US colonial experience and the acquired skill of English language have made the migration of the Filipinos to Hawaii possible. The presence of the Philippine English and other Philippine languages is discussed with reference to the idea that people bring with them their language and culture everywhere they go and settle. To aid in the description of PE in Hawaii, data was gathered through direct participant observation and unstructured interview as described in section three of this paper. From the gathered data, the description of the Philippine English in Hawaii is expounded that made these findings possible- the sound inventory, list of lexical items, and the grammar features- that distinguish PE from AE, hence the undeniable presence of PE in Hawaii.

References

- Altenberg, E. P., & Vago, R. M. (1983). Theoretical implications of an error analysis of second language phonology production. *Language learning*, 33(4), 427-447.
- Baker, M. C. (2008). *The syntax of agreement and concord* (Vol. 115). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2000). Tense and Aspect in Second Language Acquisition: Form, Meaning, and Use. *Language Learning: A Journal of Research in Language Studies*, 50, 1.
- Barlow, M., & Ferguson, C. A. (1988). *Agreement in natural language: approaches, theories, descriptions*. Center for the Study of Language (CSLI).
- Bautista, M. L. S. (2000). *Defining standard Philippine English: Its status and grammatical features*. Manila: De La Salle University Press.
- Bautista, M. L. S., & Bolton, K. (Eds.). (2008). *Philippine English: Linguistic and Literary*, 1. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Bley-Vroman, R. (1989). What is the logical problem of foreign language learning. *Linguistic perspectives on second language acquisition*, 4, 1-68.
- Boeckx, C. (2008). *Aspects of the syntax of agreement*. London: Routledge.
- Borlongan, A. M. (2009). A Survey on Language Use, Attitudes, and Identity in Relation

- to Philippine English among Young Generation Filipinos: An Initial Sample from a Private University. *The Philippine ESL Journal*, 3, 74-107.
- Carnie, A. (2010). *Constituent Structure*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Carstens, V. (2000). Concord in minimalist theory. *Linguistic Inquiry*, 31(2), 319-355.
- Castillo, J. C., Drury, J. E., & Grohmann, K. (2010). Merge over Move and the Extended Projection Principle: MOM and the EPP revisited. *Iberia: An International Journal of Theoretical Linguistics*, 1(1).
- Chavez, A. (2014, January 10). *What Asia Can Learn From Philippines About English Education*. Retrieved from <http://www.huffingtonpost.com/amy-chavez/what-asia-can-learn-from- b 4572991.html>
- Collins, L. (2004). The particulars on universals: A comparison of the acquisition of tense-aspect morphology among Japanese-and French-speaking learners of English. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, 61(2), 251-274.
- Cook, V. (2013). *Second language learning and language teaching*. London: Routledge.
- Dayag, D. (2012). Philippine English. In Low, Ee Ling & Azirah Hashim & EBSCOhost (2012). *English in Southeast Asia: features, policy and language in use*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- De Guzman, S. (n.d.) *Do most students take the TOEFL in the Philippines?* Retrieved from <https://www.quora.com/Do-most-students-take-the-TOEFL-in-the-Philippines/answer/Steven-de-Guzman>
- DeKeyser, R. M. (2005). What makes learning second-language grammar difficult? A review of issues. *Language Learning*, 55(S1), 1-25.
- Demuth, K., Machobane, M., & Moloi, F. (2000). Learning word-order constraints under conditions of object ellipsis. *Linguistics*, 38(3), 545-568.
- Derwing, T. M., & Rossiter, M. J. (2002). ESL learners' perceptions of their pronunciation needs and strategies. *System*, 30(2), 155-166.
- Ellis, N. C. (2013). *Second language acquisition. The Routledge Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. London: Routledge.
- Frazier, L., & Clifton, C. (2005). The syntax-discourse divide: processing ellipsis. *Syntax*, 8(2), 121-174.
- Gass, S. M. (2013). *Second language acquisition: An introductory course*. London: Routledge.
- Gonzalez, A. (2008). A favorable climate and soil: A transplanted language and literature. In Maria Lourdes Bautista and Kingsley Bolton. 2008. *Philippine English: Linguistic and Literary Perspectives*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Gundel, J. K., Hedberg, N., & Zacharski, R. (2005). Pronouns without explicit antecedents: how do we know when a pronoun is referential. *Anaphora processing: linguistic, cognitive and computational modelling*, 351-364.
- Haegeman, L. (2006). *Thinking syntactically: A guide to argumentation and analysis*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Hawkins, R. (2001). The theoretical significance of Universal Grammar in second language acquisition. *Second Language Research*, 17(4), 345-367.
- Hickey, R. (Ed.). (2005). *Legacies of colonial English: Studies in transported dialects*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hilte, M., & Reitsma, P. (2006). Spelling pronunciation and visual preview both facilitate learning to spell irregular words. *Annals of Dyslexia*, 56(2), 301-318.
- Hudson, R. (1999). Subject-verb agreement in English. *English Language and Linguistics*,

- 3(02), 173-207.
- Kachru, B. (2005). *Asian Englishes Beyond the Canon*. Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
- Karnow, S. (1989). *Our Image: America's Empire in the Philippines*. New York: Random House.
- Klein, W. (1986). *Second language acquisition*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Krashen, S. D., & Terrell, T. D. (1983). *The natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. San Francisco: The Alemany Press.
- Lantolf, J. P. (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long, M. H. (2014). *An introduction to second language acquisition research*. London: Routledge.
- Lasnik, H. (2003). On the Extended Projection Principle. *Studies in Modern Grammar*, 31(31), 1-23.
- Lasnik, H., & Fiengo, R. (1989). Complement Object Deletion 1974. In *Essays on Anaphora* (pp. 58-89). Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands.
- Lewis, R. D., & Gates, M. (2005). *Leading Across Cultures*. Boston: Nicholas Brealey.
- Malicsi, J. (2010). Philippine English: a case of language drift. *立命館言語文化研究*, 22(1).
- Martin, I. P. (2012). Diffusion and directions: English language policy in the Philippines. *English in southeast Asia: features, policy and language in use*, 189-205.
- Martin, R. (1999). Case, the extended projection principle, and minimalism. *Current Studies in Linguistics Series*, 32, 1-26.
- McArthur, R. (2005). *Concise Oxford companion to the English language*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- McCloskey, J. (1991). There, it, and agreement. *Linguistic Inquiry*, 22(3), 563-567.
- McFarland, C. D. (2008). Linguistic diversity and English in the Philippines. *Philippine English: Linguistic and Literary Perspectives*, 1, 131.
- McShane, M. J. (2005). *A theory of ellipsis*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Merchant, J. (2013). Voice and ellipsis. *Linguistic Inquiry*, 44(1), 77-108.
- Nowak, M. A., Komarova, N. L., & Niyogi, P. (2002). Computational and evolutionary aspects of language. *Nature*, 417(6889), 611-617.
- Pennycook, A. (2013). Language policies, language ideologies and local language practices. *The politics of English: South Asia, Southeast Asia and the Asia Pacific*, 1-18.
- Pillai, S., Manueli, M. K. S., & Dumanig, F. P. (2010). Monophthong vowels in Malaysian and Philippine English: An exploratory study. *Philippine Journal of Linguistics*, 41, 80-93.
- Radford, A. (2004). *English syntax: An introduction*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Robison, R. E. (1995). The Aspect Hypothesis Revisited: A Cross-Sectional Study of Tense and Aspect Marking in Interlanguage1. *Applied linguistics*, 16(3), 344-370.
- Savignon, S. J. (1997). *Communicative competence: Theory and classroom practice: Texts and contexts in second language learning*. New York: McGraw-Hill Humanities Social.
- Selinker, L., & Gass, S. M. (Eds.). (1992). *Language transfer in language learning*. Amsterdam: J. Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Sorace, A. (1985). Metalinguistic Knowledge and Language Use in Acquisition-poor Environments*. *Applied linguistics*, 6(3), 239-254.

- TOEFL: Singapore Third Worldwide In English Proficiency Test, Top In Asia. (2011, April 28). Retrieved from <http://www.asianscientist.com/2011/04/academia/toefl-singapore-worldwide-english-proficiency-top-asia/>
- Tupas, T. R. F. (2004). The politics of Philippine English: Neocolonialism, global politics, and the problem of postcolonialism. *World Englishes*, 23(1), 47-58.
- Wade-Woolley, L., & Siegel, L. S. (1997). The spelling performance of ESL and native speakers of English as a function of reading skill. In *Spelling* (pp. 73-92). Dordrecht: Springer Netherlands.
- Wendt, A., CAE, P., Director, N. C. L. E. X., & Woo, E. A. (2009). *A Minimum English Proficiency Standard for The Test of English as a Foreign Language™ Internet-Based Test (TOEFL® iBT)*. RN, 86, 19.
- White, L. (2003). On the nature of interlanguage representation: Universal grammar in the second language. *The handbook of second language acquisition*, 19-42.
- White, Lydia. 1989. *Universal Grammar and Second Language Acquisition*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.
- Wulff, S., Ellis, N. C., Römer, U., Bardovi-harlig, K., & Leblanc, C. J. (2009). The acquisition of tense-aspect: Converging evidence from corpora and telicity ratings. *The Modern Language Journal*, 93(3), 354-369.

ⁱ Before 1987, the national language was called *Pilipino* (with the initial [p] sound), the name of the standardized and intellectualized Tagalog language. The 1987 Constitution explicitly called the national language Filipino (with the initial [f] sound) that is to be further developed to be inclusive of some features of other indigenous languages.

ⁱⁱ In this study, first generation refers to the Filipinos who migrated to Hawaii, and who are Filipino citizens. The second generation refers to the children of the first generation or those who have at least one Filipino-citizen parent.

ⁱⁱⁱ Argument structure is the lexical information that deals with the complement constituents of the predicate.

^{iv} An argument is the complement nominal category of the verb or the predicate.

^v VP stands for Verb Phrase.

About the Author

Rodney C Jubilado holds the degree of PhD in Theoretical Linguistics, and is a professor at University of Hawaii. He has been a Fulbright grantee through the University of California-Berkeley. His research interests include theoretical linguistics, English in Southeast Asia, heritage education, migration, and Southeast Asian cultural studies. He has spoken in various international conferences in countries such as Australia, Malaysia, Vietnam, Indonesia, the Philippines, Thailand, Singapore, the United States of America, among others. He has published various research articles in internationally peer-reviewed journals and with Routledge. His professional society affiliation includes the Linguistic Society of America, Southeast Asian Linguistic Society, Association for Asian Studies, American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages, among others.