ISSN 1718-2298

THE PHILIPPINE ESL JOURNAL

Volume 18 February 2017

E.L.E PUBLISHING

Published by the English Language Education Publishing

A Division of TESOL Asia Group
Part of SITE Ltd Australia

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

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

 ISSN 1718-2298

Foreword

The current volume of the Philippine ESL Journal showcases various researches done in the fields of language education and applied linguistics.

Two articles examined the narrative patterns and behaviors of novice and adolescent Filipino language learners. The first article, "*Filipino Preschool Narrative Structures: A Look into Male and Female Post- Narrative Scaffolding as a Reflection of Children's Communicative Competence,"* engages the readers to the pre-school narrative structures of Filipino bilingual language learners. Rowena Marie Chua, Kristine Camille Fabella, Leezandra Jae Quijano and Joey Andrew Santos examined the development of communicative competence through story telling among pre-school bilingual learners. The findings suggest that young children's narratives were predominantly composed of basic narrative episodes and that scaffolding assist them in the elicitation of responses, which aids in the development of their communicative competence. Jocelyn S. Navera's article, *"The Influence of Gender and Home Language in the Occurrence of Codeswitching Functions in Adolescent Autobiographical Narratives,"* on the other hand, investigated the influence of gender and home language on the participants' code switching functions of their narratives. She found that instances of code switching were not mainly present in their utterances and that its function was mainly strategic.

Henelsie B. Mendoza and Annie C. Berowa examined the refusal strategies used by ESL learners and the effect of accent of different lectal groups. In their article, "*An Investigation of the Refusal Strategies used by Filipino ESL Learners toward Different Lectal Groups,"* Mendoza and Berowa considered social status and gender and its effect to the directness and indirectness of the refusals.

The article, *"Implicit and Explicit knowledge of Korean learners in the Philippines across contextual shift,"* investigated the changes in Korean students' implicit and explicit knowledge that took place during the course of their learning abroad. Selwyn A. Cruz and Jose Cristina M. Parina found in their study that majority of these learners access their implicit and explicit knowledge for certain grammatical tasks.

Irish C. Sioson's article, *"Lexical Perception of Bilingual Children and Adolescents:*

A Cross-Sectional Study," examined how age becomes a consistent factor in predicting the differences in lexical perception across language and SES. Her findings also revealed that participants have great difficulty in identifying sounds that are not found in the Tagalog language, which supported Lado's (1954) Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis.

Reading comprehension strategies and reading proficiency were the focus of Juan Gabriel Venceslá and Flora Debora Floris in their article, *"Reading Comprehension Strategy, Reading Proficiency Level, and English Department Graduates."* They found that students employed all the reading strategies suggested by Grabe (2009) and that proficient reading level positively correlates with specific reading strategies.

Finally, an examination of Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) was investigated by Tsang Chi Lai and John Trent in their article, "*Factors Influencing ESL Learners' Perceptions towards a Task-based Approach to Speaking: Secondary School Students' Perspectives from Hong Kong."* They found that perceptions of secondary students are

influenced by factors such as usefulness, language proficiency, teacher support, individual characteristics, cultural influence, and schema.

My heartfelt gratitude to all those who contributed to the current volume of the *Philippine ESL Journal.* My special thanks go to Dr. Leah Gustilo of Dela Salle University, Chief Editor of PESLJ; Roselle Pangilinan, PESLJ's copy editor, and the reviewers. All your contributions have made the publication of this journal possible.

Dr. Rochelle Irene G. Lucas

Volume Editor, Philippine ESL Journal

Filipino Preschool Narrative Structures: A Look Into Male and Female Post-Narrative Scaffolding as a Reflection of Children's Communicative Competence

Rowena Marie Chua,[1] Kristine Camille Fabella,[2] Leezandra Jae Quijano,[3] and Joey Andrew Santos[4,*]

[1]*De La Salle University, Manila*
[2] *Singapore School, Manila*
[3] *Reedley International School, Manila*
[4] *Far Eastern University, Manila*

Abstract

One enduring language skill crucial to the development of comprehension that students learn at an early age is telling a story. Although a plethora of studies have determined macrostructures in children's narratives, the role of scaffolding as a reflection of young children's narrative comprehension has yet to be explored. Drawing on Shapiro and Hudson's (1991) macrostructure categories in narratives, the present study aimed to identify the common macrostructures found in the transcribed and coded narratives of sixteen male and female Filipino pre-school students. This paper adapted a modified version of Silva, Strasser, and Cain's (2014, in Paris & Paris, 2003) narrative comprehension questions in the process of post-narrative scaffolding to elicit the participant's actual level of comprehension. Results indicated that children's narrative components were mostly composed of basic narrative episodes and that gender has no particular effect on the construction of children's narratives. The study confirms Shapiro and Hudson's (1991) findings on how scaffolding is necessary in determining the actual level of communicative competence of children in terms of narrating stories. Implications of this study will add to the current knowledge on developing young children's communicative competence and will aid educators in designing improved narrative activities that will elicit more effective responses from children.

Keywords: scaffolding; macrostructures; narratives; language learning; communicative competence; gender

Introduction

Developing language skills among young children is crucial in literacy education, particularly, verbal fluency. It has been the primary focus in most English language classrooms as children are expected to use language in various classroom activities to communicate with each other and show competence and mastery of the language.

In the process of developing communicative competence, children are expected to improve metacognitive and comprehension skills. Although speaking may come as a naturally occurring result of conversing with children both at home and in the classroom, metacognition and comprehension are developed through the guidance of teachers. As Yates

Corresponding Author: Rowena Marie Chua[1]
Affiliation: De La Salle University, 2401 Taft Avenue Manila, 1004.
Email: rowiechua@gmail.com

and Yates (1990, in Muhonen, Rasku-Puttonen, Pakarinen, Poikkeus, & Lerkkanen, 2016) state, a feature of high-quality instructional interactions is their teacher-initiated scaffolding and support.

Comprehension is a constructive skill that is expected to incrementally develop through an elaborate meaning-making process (Beaugrande, 1980; Duke & Carlisle, 2011; Fox & Alexander, 2009; Kintsch, 1998; Pearson, 2009; Rand Reading Study Group, 2001; Smagorinsky, 2001, in Kucer, 2014), which often involves the activation of various language skills. One enduring language skill that children develop at an early age is telling a story. Researchers have thus focused on determining the existing macrostructures found in narratives in order to quantify comprehension as shown in one of the earliest studies on macrostructures by Labov (1972, in Chang, 2004), which states that "a well-formed personal narrative consists of six components: abstract, orientation, complicating actions, evaluation, resolution, and coda" (p. 84). Shapiro and Hudson's (1991) study of narrative macrostructure categories in children's picture-elicited narratives is another example, as well as the commonly used analytical framework known as the story grammar approach (Mandler & Johnson, 1977; McCabe & Peterson, 1991; Peterson and McCabe, 1983; Stein, 1988; Stein & Glenn, 1979, in Ilgaz & Aksu-Koc, 2005). However, it must be taken into consideration that telling a story does not automatically equate to the creation of meaning, and furthermore it may not be used as the sole basis for measuring comprehension. Despite the influx of literature in this area, gender's influence on narrative structures has yet to be determined. This study aims to fill the gap in literature on the influence of gender in the narrative structures produced by preschool children. Furthermore, studies on macrostructures and scaffolding in relation to narratives have relatively been limited in Asia, particularly in the Philippines; hence, the present study sees this gap as a possible contribution to the growing work in this field.

Narratives among Children

A narrative is a type of discourse that focuses on "temporally sequenced" fictional or actual events and tells so much of how the person thinks and makes use of the language (Engel, 1995, in Justice, Bowles, Pence, & Gosse, 2010, p. 219). Specifically, children's narrative is useful in understanding different factors from their environment, such as norms, beliefs, and values, which they have adopted from their caregivers or peers (Gee, 1991, in Chang, 2004). Children's narratives provide a "window for understanding the process of socialization and enculturation" (Chang, 2004, p. 83).

Narratives can also show children's understanding of different events and how they are able to put together the relationships of these events in a structured manner (Justice et al., 2010). Despite their young age, children have been determined to display their own functioning schema as reflected in the stories they formulate. Consequently, narrative skills are also closely linked to reading and literacy and can serve as a predictor of success in those two areas (Feagans, 1982; Reese, 1995; Snow, 1983; Snow & Dickinson, 1991; in Chang, 2004).

Culling from various studies, Kelly (2015; see also Silva et at., 2014) describes the stages of development in children's narratives. Kelly (2015) states that at three years old, young children are able to produce what is known as "Miscellaneous Narratives," wherein unrelated events are linked together and are thus lacking a sense of logical coherence. At four

years, children are said to produce "Leap Frog Narratives" which focus on a single event but lacks temporal coherence. Kelly (2015, in Peterson & McCabe, 1983) cites the "Chronological Narratives," wherein children between the ages of four and five are able to narrate events in temporal order but without correct evaluation of the "high-point" of the events. By the age of five, young children are said to produce what is known as "End-at-High-Point Narratives," which are stories with an identifiable climax but lacking a definite conclusion. Finally, Kelly (2015) details the narrative pattern known as the "Classic Form," which was first described by Labov and Waletzky (1967) as occurring typically among the narratives of developing six-year-old children. The classic form is described as a fully developed narrative wherein the "climatic high point is resolved with a description of how the events concluded" (Kelly, 2015, p. 449).

Chang (2004), however, notes that children as young as two years old have already showed narrative abilities, but prior to actual formal schooling, children are found to exhibit minimal competence in producing well-structured narratives (Bamberg, 1987; Berman & Slobin, 1994; McCabe & Peterson, 1991; Nelson, 1989; in Ilgaz & Aksu-Koc, 2005) and are thus needing further guidance and assistance in developing this skill in order to improve comprehension. Studies show that narratives exhibit episodic structures as is typically observed in stories. These episodic structures are usually identified in school as children encounter stories which they analyze with the teacher. A common and well-documented framework in analyzing children's narrative structures is known as the Story Grammar Approach, which identifies episodes in children's narratives (Mandler & Johnson, 1977; McCabe & Peterson, 1991; Peterson and McCabe, 1983; Stein, 1988; Stein & Glenn, 1979; in Ilgaz & Aksu-Koc, 2005). These episodes were determined by identifying the various macrostructures typically observed in stories produced by young children.

Several studies (Shapiro & Hudson, 1991; Champion, 1998; Chang, 2004; Ilgaz & Akus-Koc, 2005; Kucer, 2014; Silva et al., 2014; Pesco & Gagne, 2015) have also confirmed that young children possess the ability to narrate different stories, whether prompted or from their own experiences. In a classroom setting, Michaels (1981) investigated how the first-graders' "sharing time" provided opportunities for them to make use of the narrative structure. In sharing time, the students were encouraged to tell stories that they found interesting. According to the study, the teacher plays a major role in the narrative structure of the students. The teacher provides constant support by asking clarification questions to enhance the student's narrative and to model what is appropriate when sharing. This scaffolding is needed because children tend to have different associations of one topic to the other, and during sharing time, there has to be a synchronization of the topics in order to create an understanding in this particular speech event.

Cohesion and coherence are two factors that can determine the effectiveness of children's narrative. A study done by Shapiro and Hudson (1991) examined the narrative cohesion and coherence of children from two different age groups. In order to establish coherence, children must be able to use "culturally shared knowledge" in order to organize the sequence of their narrative in a way that their listeners would understand its overall structure. On the other hand, cohesion is the use of connecting devices in order to form sentences together in a sequence. The study showed that preschool children need more support in order for them to achieve coherence and cohesion in their narratives, and as they get older, children's narratives are more coherent and cohesive but still need support in order to improve their stories.

The findings of Shapiro and Hudson (1991) support those of another study that analyzed the narrative structure of children. In Chang's (2004) study, which aimed to look at the narrative development of young Chinese children, it was determined that as children get older, their narratives tend to be longer and to include more narrative components such as evaluation and temporal devices.

Gender Differences in Narrative Structures

Differences in the linguistic skills of males and females are evident as early as six months, wherein girls are shown to be more discriminative of speech sounds (Pivik, Andres, & Badger, 2011, in Kaushanskaya, Gross, & Buac, 2013) as compared to boys. Previous studies on the differences in speech of preschoolers suggest that males tend to be more direct and assertive as compared to females, who show more talkativeness and are more focused on the emotions in their speech (Leaper & Smith, 2004). Maubach and Morgan (2001, in Majidifard, Shomoossi, & Ghourchaei, 2014) however claim as opposed to males, female learners have been observed to produce fewer sentences and prefer simpler sentence structures to prevent mistakes in oral production.

The findings of Leaper and Smith's (2004) study correlates with the results of several studies (Gergen, 2001; Gilligan, 1982; in Andrews, Zaman, Merrill, Duke, & Fivush, 2015) on female narrative production. One particular study done by Grysman and Hudson (2013) on gender differences in retelling autobiographical memories among adults shows the same findings as that of Leaper and Smith (2004). The results indicate that women tend to be more elaborative and to include more specific details with their retelling as compared to men. These findings were evident from a young age until adulthood.

Moreover, similar results were shown in a study by Bohanek and Fivush (2010) that focused on adolescents' personal narratives in relation to gender. According to the study, female adolescents are more emotional in narrating positive and negative events. The females' narrations also indicated that they are more self-reflective when narrating. Although findings from a study done by Maubach and Morgan (2001, as cited in in Majidifard et al., 2014) seem to differ in terms of narrative tendencies of females, there seems to be a wider general consensus among the several researchers stated above that females are inclined to produce more elaborate narratives particularly when they involve emotional or social events. Evidently with the difference in research variables and purposes, possible deviations may be observed when it comes to gender differences in relation to narrative production.

When it comes to factual knowledge and expression, boys are shown to be more engaged and competent especially when talking about their interests (Yliherva, Loukusa, Vaisanen, Pyper, & Moilanen 2009). They are found to be more prone to taking risks in oral conversations due to their self-confidence, despite the lack of preparation (Shomoossi, Kassian, & Ketabi, 2009, in Majidifard et al., 2014), which is in opposition to the findings of Maubach and Morgan (2001, in Majidifard et al., 2014) regarding female tendencies in oral narrative production. Although females have often been found to produce lengthier narratives in most studies, the results of the study of Yilherva et al. (2009) suggests that the topic during narrative production may be considered a factor in the oral fluency of male learners. As Bohanek and Fivush (2010) posits, male adolescents can also produce rich narratives and that

their narratives are indicative of their well-being. On the other hand, the same relationship was not found among the female participants

Several studies (Fivush & Buckner, 2003, Niedzwienska, 2003; in Fivush, Bohanek, Zaman, & Grapin, 2012) also suggest that males are inclined to focus more on achievement and autonomy. This is conclusive with findings of a study done by McLean and Breen (2009, in Fivush et al., 2012), which found that adolescent boys' narratives focus more on the values and the beliefs of the individual, unlike those of female adolescents, who focus on relationships with parents and peers. As Fivush et al. (2012, pp. 313-314) have determined in their study, "narrative meaning-making is an integrated process; meaning is not constructed through one dimension or another, but rather through a combination of integrated narrative devices." Thus, length should not be the sole primary concern in narrative production since females may simply be making use of a wider range of meaning-making devices, which result in a more elaborate narrative as compared to males.

Scaffolding in Narratives

Narratives have been found to be a naturally-occurring evidence of literacy among children as they progressively develop their comprehension skills. As comprehension, has been widely found to be a constructive process (Beaugrande, 1980; Duke & Carlisle, 2011; Fox & Alexander, 2009; Kintsch, 1998; Pearson, 2009; Rand Reading Study Group, 2001; Smagorinsky, 2001; in Kucer, 2014), educators have developed a strategy to structure narratives in a more semantically linear manner to foster productive learning through narratives. First introduced by Wood, Bruner, and Ross (1976, in Muhonen et al., 2016), the concept of scaffolding was used as an "analytical resource" in understanding the assistance and support given by parents to their children in problem-solving tasks (Monjelat, Méndez, & Lacasa, 2016, p. 1). Scaffolding was originally described by Bruner (1975, in Renshaw, 2013, p. 56) as a "social support system for enhancing the development and learning of children within their various cultural contexts." It has been found that scaffolding begins at home through the unconscious efforts of parents to provide a linear learning format for their children. Eventually as the child begins formal education, teachers make use of scaffolding through classroom interaction and recitation.

There is no specific set of rules or guidelines in constructing questions that will aid in the scaffolding of children's learning. What is common is that it is founded with the purpose of aiding the learner in achieving cohesion and coherence. Results from a study conducted by Muhonen et al. (2016) on scaffolding through dialogic teaching in early school classrooms indicate that scaffolding strategies utilized by teachers in the classroom may vary depending on whether the dialogue is teacher-initiated or child-initiated. Hence, with a wide variety of learners and numerous possible incidents of dialogic encounter in the classroom scaffolding questions may prove to be more effective if not constrained by a specific set of rules. As Silva et al. (2014, p. 207) suggest, the act of questioning greatly affects children's learning even more so since it is found to be a common feature evident at home and in school. Hence, it can be stated that young children cannot be expected to independently produce elaborate stories without external support through elicitation strategies, scaffolding being one of them. Furthermore, it has also been found that scaffolding goes beyond teacher-student interaction in the classroom. A study conducted by Kim and Hannafin (2011, in Monjelat et al., 2016) determined that technology-enhanced peer scaffolding also aided scientific inquiry.

Although several previous studies have discovered the presence of macrostructures in children's narratives, there is still a need to answer questions pertaining to the role of scaffolding as a reflection of young children's narrative comprehension. This study aims to fill the gap in literature on the influence of gender in the narrative structures produced by preschool children. Furthermore, with a relatively limited number of studies on narrative macrostructures and scaffolding done in Asia, this research aims to add to the existing literature a more comprehensive knowledge on the communicative competence of children in Asia, particularly in the Philippines.

This study aims to address these issues by answering the following research questions:

1. What macrostructures can be found among Filipino preschool children's narratives?
2. What is the difference in the narrative structures employed by male and female Filipino preschool children?
3. How does post-narrative scaffolding affect Filipino preschool children's communicative competence?

Framework

Theoretical Framework

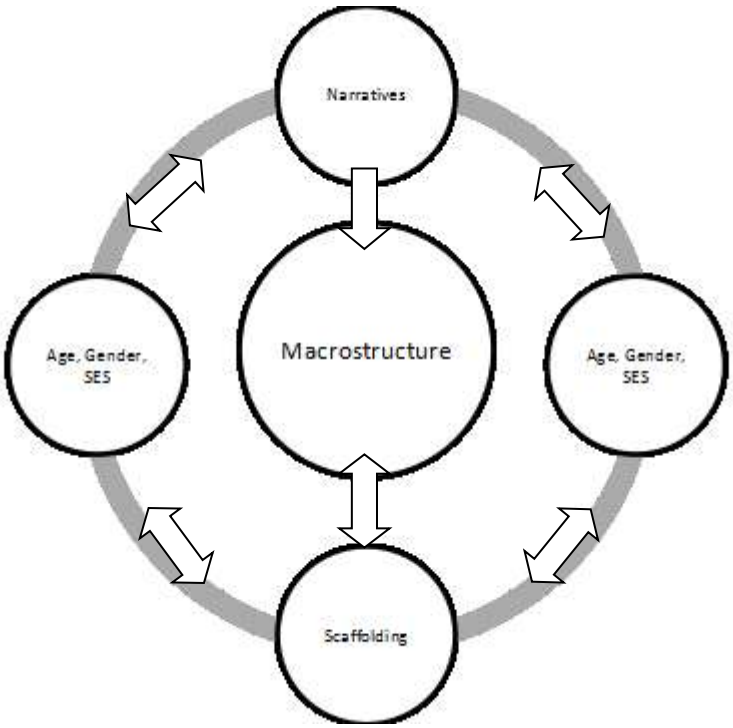
Story grammar, as stated by Gray (1988; Mandler & Johnson, 1977; McCabe & Peterson, 1991; Peterson and McCabe, 1983; Stein, 1988; Stein & Glenn, 1979; in Ilgaz & Aksu-Koc, 2005) consists of rules following a specific hierarchy which involves two categories, namely, Setting and Episode. Both contain several components following the hierarchical approach. The Episode category has five components: initiating event, internal response, attempts, consequence, and goal. Initiating event takes place when the story's character is in motion. Internal response is equivalent to the character's reaction. Attempt appears as the character's action. Consequence is the conditional mood where the character is to attain his goal or otherwise. Goal is the reaction of the character.

Drawing from the five mentioned components, children's narrative is expected to be explicit. Narratives, as defined by Ilgaz and Aksu-Koc (2005, p. 527), are "discourse units representing a sequence of temporal-causally related events." They comprise three important dimensions of narrative skills, namely, narrative structure, evaluation, and temporality. Of the three dimensions, narrative structure is the focus of the present study. One of the earliest descriptions of narrative structure was advanced by Labov (1972, in Chang, 2004), where he established six components: abstract (summary of a narrative), orientation (setting or context of narrative), complicating actions (a series of events), evaluation (the point of narrative), resolution (prompting of complicating events) and coda (end of narrative). However, in accordance with the variables identified as the focus of the study, the researchers employed Shapiro and Hudson's (1991) narrative macrostructure categories due to their detailed format, which was considered more appropriate for the skill level of the chosen participants. The two types of structural categories proposed by Shapiro and Hudson (1991) are the basic narrative components (story beginnings and endings, orientation settings, character descriptions, dialogue, and actions) and episodic components (goals, internal responses, obstacles, and repairs).

In administering children's narratives, scaffolding—a process in which children are assisted towards achieving a task that would be impossible to achieve if they were to work on

their own (Wood et al., 1976, in Clarke-Stewart & Beck, 1999) — was employed as a secondary task to ascertain the evidence of the children's actual comprehension skill through questioning. Questioning, as a form of scaffolding, helps children develop the cognitive skill of narrating their experiences through social interactions. This task was applied post-narrative to avoid the possibility of influencing the narratives that the participants produced, thus keeping the genuineness and authenticity of the data. The researchers decided to make use of an adapted version of narrative comprehension questions (see Table 2) of Silva et al. (2014, in Paris & Paris, 2003) in facilitating the post-narrative scaffolding questions. A study by de Rivera, Girolametto, Greenberg, and Weitzman (2005, in Silva et al., 2014, p. 207) has found that "the use of open-ended and topic-continuing questions promoted the production of more complex utterances in preschoolers." The researchers aim to determine if the said finding is also applicable in this study.

Conceptual Framework



The conceptual framework shows how narratives comprise distinct macrostructures which are semantically linked to scaffolding question in order to determine the participants' actual comprehension of the story. The formulation of the narratives extracted during the process of the study is affected by variables such as age, gender, and socioeconomic status of young Filipino preschool children. Furthermore, it reflects the aim of this study to look into the types of answers given by the preschool children in response to the scaffolding questions administered post-narrative and its relation to their perceived comprehension skills.

In addition, the study attempts to look at the narrative patterns employed by both genders in a guided story narrative activity. Shapiro and Hudson (1991) stated that the macrostructure of young children's narratives is not well developed; hence, there might be a

possible derivation from the perceived macrostructures in children's narratives based on previous studies as well as established gender-based findings on narrative macrostructures. Moreover, studies have found that the lack of formal structures in young children's narratives does not mean that they do not understand the stories; it may also mean that they can still be prompted to elicit the proper components of the structures through scaffolding (Shapiro & Hudson, 1991).

The proponents of this study adapted and translated the narrative comprehension questions of Silva et al. (2014, in Paris & Paris, 2003) to serve as the scaffolding questions to be used post-narrative. Scaffolding, in this paper, attempted to give validation to the claims of Shapiro and Hudson (1991) that children's narratives can be further improved using the appropriate and necessary prompts.

Methodology

Research design

The study employed a qualitative design focusing on descriptive and explanatory analysis combined with a simple quantitative treatment of the data. The qualitative-descriptive design was used in establishing common narrative structures that Filipino preschool children have used in story-telling. This was coupled with a simple quantitative treatment by using percentages and mean to determine the predominance of specific narrative macrostructures among the chosen participants. Data was then analyzed in a qualitative-explanatory design in attempting to provide plausible reasoning behind the narrative structures recorded and their relation to the scaffolding questions utilized during the actual story telling.

Setting

Data-gathering was conducted at the Our Lady of Snow Excel School Inc. located at Pinagsama Village, Taguig City, Philippines. The community-based, private school was established in 1995 and caters to both male and female students from preschool to elementary level. The school espouses a progressive education scheme and promotes the core values of attitude, commitment, and excellence. The majority of enrolled students were residents within the immediate vicinity of the school. The school consisted of two air-conditioned classrooms and included programs such as theater play, art, music, dance, and sports. Classes were divided into morning and afternoon sessions for the kindergarten, as is typical of the Philippine preschool scheduling system. The school population consisted of 40 kindergarten students for the morning sessions, which are divided into two sections with 20 students each. Students mostly came from families belonging to the low-class or middle-class socioeconomic stratum of the society. Based on the progression profile of previous students, most of the children will most likely proceed to study in the public schools within the immediate area due to their socioeconomic background unless scholarships from private institutions will be attained.

Participants of the Study

The study involved a total of 16 participants—eight male and eight female—kindergarten students with ages ranging from five to six years old with a mean age of 5.3 years. The students were enrolled for the academic year 2013-2014. After establishing a concrete plan with the school and since the participants were children, a letter of parental consent (see Appendix) containing pertinent information about the study, such as procedures and sample pictures, was first sent to their parents and guardians. After obtaining the permission of the children's participation, the study commenced.

The children at the time of the study were assessed as developing bilinguals, as is typical among a large percentage of the children from the Philippines as they were all in the process of learning how to speak and understand both English and Filipino. However, with most of the participants belonging to families in the low- class to middle-class stratum of the society, teachers at the school have described the children as preferring to use Filipino, and most, if not all, were more fluent in Filipino as their primary medium of communication. It must be noted however that students were being taught both English and Filipino during class hours and were continually exposed to a bilingual environment both at home and in school.

Materials

Elicitation tool for narratives. The study employed a wordless story sequence adapted from Shapiro and Hudson's (1991) study as an elicitation tool for the narratives of the children. The wordless story comprised six clear black-and-white picture panes without text, presenting a mother and a daughter attempting to bake cookies (see Figure 2). The story progresses with the cookies burning and the mother and daughter ending up buying from the bakery instead. The researchers opted to use a concise elicitation tool to generate narratives from the preschool children in consideration of their age. The wordless story displays a problem-resolution sequence, which may also aid the participants in clearly identifying the narrative structural categories as proposed by Shapiro and Hudson (1991). The tool was first presented to the students only during the actual activity itself and served as the primary tool in eliciting narratives from the children. The parents and the school were provided a sample copy of a wordless story sequence similar but different from the one utilized in the study in the consent letter to give them an idea of the narrative task that the children will be exposed to.

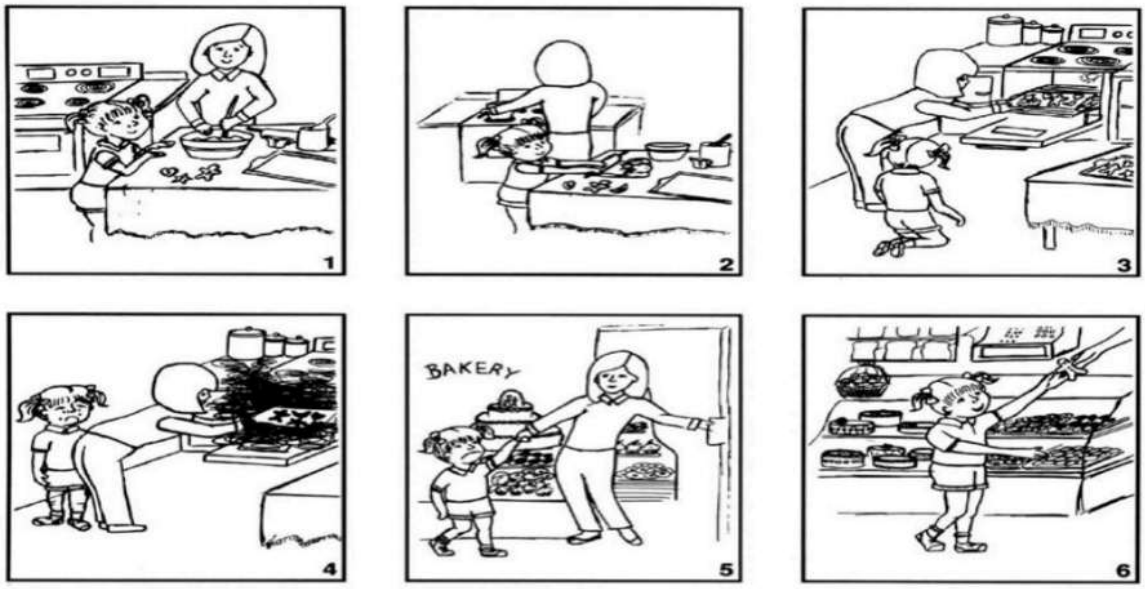


Figure 2. Wordless Story Sequence. (Shapiro & Hudson, 1991, p. 964).

Questions for scaffolding. The study adapted the narrative comprehension questions (see Table 1) of Silva et al. (2014, in Paris & Paris, 2003). These questions involved items that aimed for the child to illustrate the characters, setting, thoughts, dialogue, important events, prediction, and theme by identifying and elaborating the elements in their narratives. However, questions were marginally altered to fit the cognitive abilities of the children in the sample population and were only administered after the actual storytelling of the participants.

As regards the medium of communication, since the chosen participants were all developing bilinguals and upon the recommendation of the subject teachers handling the selected class, the researchers deemed it best to conduct the study in the children's first language, which is Filipino. Although the children were able to understand English and spoke it to some extent, the researchers found it best to use a language that was more familiar to the participants to ensure optimal results and to maintain an accommodating mindset in the pursuit of the best interests of the study.

In terms of scaffolding, questions were adapted based on the assessed cognitive level of the participants and changed from a total of ten questions as proposed by Silva et al. (2014, in Paris & Paris, 2003) to just six as deemed appropriate by the researchers for the level of understanding of the kindergarten students. Another consideration for reducing the number of questions was time constraints since a total of two hours were permitted for the data gathering process, but it must be noted that the participants' cognitive level was put into greater consideration over the issue of time.

Table 1

Narrative Comprehension Questions

Element	**Questions**
Characters	Who are the characters in the story?
Setting	Where does this story happen?
Thoughts	What do you think the frog is thinking here? (Identification) Why would the frog think that? (Elaboration)
Dialogue	What do you think the boy would be saying here? (Identification)
Initiating event	Tell me what happens at this point of the story. (Identification)
Problem	If you were telling your friend this story, what would you say is going on now? (Identification) Why did this happen? (Elaboration)
Feelings	What do you think they are feeling here? (Identification) Why do you think so? (Elaboration)
Resolution	What happened here? (Identification) Why does this happen? (Elaboration)
Prediction	This is the last picture of the story. What do you think happens next? (Identification) Why do you think so? (Elaboration)
Theme	Think about everything that you learned from reading this book. What would you say to the boy or the frog so that the same thing doesn't happen again? (Identification) Why would you say that? (Elaboration)

Note. Silva et al., (2014, p. 209, in Paris & Paris, 2003).

Table 2

Adapted and Translated Version of Narrative Comprehension Questions

Element	**Questions**
Characters	Who are the characters in the story? [*Sino yung mga tao sa istorya? Sino yung mga taong nakikita mo sa picture?*]
Setting	Where does this story happen? [*Saan nangyayari yung istorya? Saan mo nakita yung lugar na ganyan?]*
Initiating event	Tell me what happens at this point of the story (Identification) [*Ano yung ginagawa nila?*]
Problem	If you were telling your friend this story, what would you say is going on now? (Identification) Why did this happen? (Elaboration) [*Ano ung naging problema sa istorya? Bakit umiiyak yung bata?*]
Resolution	What happened here? (Identification) Why does this happen? (Elaboration) [*Ano ginawa nung nanay niya para hindi na siya umiyak?*]
Theme	Think about everything that you learned from reading this book. What would you say to the boy or the frog so that the same thing doesn't happen again? (Identification) Why would you say that (Elaboration) [*Ano ang natutunan mo sa istorya natin?]*

Note. Silva et al. (2014, p. 209, in Paris & Paris, 2003).

Procedure

Prior to the conduct of the study, permission was obtained from the necessary offices, administrators, and concerned individuals, in this case the parents and/guardians, in the

selected school to ensure efficiency and legitimacy in pursuing the study with the selected participants. One of the researchers was acquainted with the son of the school owner; thus, a connection was easily established. As the parents brought their children to school during the day of the actual data gathering, a simple orientation about the study was given. The discussion covered the ethical considerations of the study as it involved young children. The parents who agreed to have their children participate in the study acknowledged and affixed their signature in parental consent letters that were distributed on the day prior to conducting the actual study. Although obtaining the parental consent in advance would have been more ideal, the school advised the researchers that explaining the task to the students and parents in person would be better than sending the letters in advance particularly in consideration of the socioeconomic background of the participants of the study. Researchers decided to obtain parental consent letters to exercise the highest ethical standards and to ensure that no problems were encountered during the actual data-collection and in the process of reporting on the data collected.

Each participant was paired with a researcher who conducted the actual activity. Three out of the four researchers were present during the actual data gathering. A wordless photo sequence consisting of six frames that tell a story as adapted from Shapiro and Hudson's (1991) study was printed on a clear sheet of white paper and shown to the participant. The participants were given some time to study the pictures on their own. Each participant was instructed to observe what was being described by the pictures and to think of a possible story behind it. While the participant was observing the set of pictures, some preliminary questions were asked to establish rapport with the students and provide a springboard for the story-telling activity. When the participant confirmed that he/she was ready, they were told to narrate a story based on the set of pictures provided by the researcher. Participants were encouraged to do the storytelling freely without any interruption from the researcher aside from some prompting and elicitation cues since some of the participants were too shy to talk. Afterwards, the participants were individually asked about the adapted set of narrative comprehension questions based on the framework of Silva et al. (2014, in Paris & Paris, 2003). The researcher ended each session with a few questions to survey the participant's thoughts and feeling about the activity.

Method of Analysis

After having obtained the data, the first phase of analysis involved transcription and translation of data from Filipino to English using the transcription conventions of Sacks, Schegloff and Jerfferson's (1974, in Coates, 1998). Second-level analysis was done through the identification of the macrostructures commonly employed by Filipino children in their narratives. Through an initial frequency count, percentages were computed and compared across the two gender groups. The mean was also extracted based on the collated data to determine and compare standard, and more notably, deviant results among the groups. A parallel analysis of the macrostructures was done based on Labov's (1972, in Chang, 2004) determined macro level structures found in narratives to identify similarities or differences. Then, research questions 1 and 2 were addressed through identification of the predominant macrostructure used by Filipino children. A side-by-side analysis of the male and female macrostructures was undertaken to identify possible variations. Finally, research question 3 was answered through the analysis of the participants' responses to the scaffolding questions administered on the post-narrative, thereby theorizing the possible implications for the students' individual construction and degree of comprehension.

Results and Discussion

Macrostructures in Filipino Narratives

Table 3
Macrostructures in Narratives of Filipino Female Preschool Children

	f	*%*
Basic Narrative Components		
Character Description	7	43.75
Actions	13	81.25
Episodic Component		
Goals	1	6.25
Internal Response	4	25
Obstacles	7	43.75
Repair	6	37.5

Note. Adapted from Shapiro and Hudson's (1991) narrative macrostructure categories.

Coding and frequency analysis of the data indicated that all female participants are inclined to indicate action-based events in their individual narratives. All the participants made use of this narrative component while about 40% included character descriptions in their narratives. As can be noted in previous studies, well-developed narratives are characterized by a "causal coherence between events in a story" (Rumelhart, 1977; Stein & Glenn, 1979; in Ilgaz & Aksu-Koc, 2005, p. 527); thus, it may be suggested that the participants of the study must have made use of the actions in the wordless picture story sequence (Shapiro & Hudson, 1991) to establish connections between and among the events in their narratives, thereby creating their own schematic meaning behind the pictures to produce a story. Furthermore, previous studies have found that preschool children's narratives structurally lack the expected basic components of a narrative but present a chronological description of events (Botvin & Sutton-Smith, 1977; Applebee, 1978; Nelson & Gruendel, 1986; in Shapiro & Hudson, 1991), which is conclusive with the basic macrostructures found in the narratives of Filipino female preschool children. The low percentage of character descriptions in the female preschool children's narrative macrostructures is quite concerning given the age of the participants. It has been posited that five-year-old children are expected to include characters in relation to the events in the story (Berman & Slobin, 1994, in Lofranco, Pena & Bedore, 2006). Although the children were able to identify the action-based events in the story, it seemed like they did not give as much importance to the characters as expected of their age based on previous studies. Perhaps this may be attributed to the children's socioeconomic status, which may have affected the development of their storytelling skills. As Griffin, Hemphill, Camp, and Wolf (2004, in Silva et al., 2014) noted, in comparison to children with less developed narrative ability, young children equipped with better narrative skills at the onset of preschool studying may have been exposed to better educational advantages, and with the participants' socioeconomic status, it may be presumed that although their age dictates that they should exhibit a more advanced narrative skills, there might have been a delay due to the lack of exposure to the necessary input.

The lack of three of the five basic narrative components may be attributed to various reasons. First, story beginnings and endings, although typical of traditional American stories, are not evident in current Filipino narrative storytelling. While the English language typically makes use of the story beginning "once upon a time" and the story ending "the end," Filipino

culture does not. Old Filipino folktales began with story introductions such as *"noong unang panahon,"* which is equivalent to the Americanized "once upon a time," but stories nowadays are not structured in the same manner. As Kucer (2014) noted, culture greatly influences the structure of narrative structures and thus variations may be seen across the production of narratives by participants coming from different cultures. The lack of setting on the other hand is conclusive with findings on how young children seldom indicate time in their narratives (Berman & Slobin, 1994, in Lofranco et al., 2006). This shows how children have yet to develop their focus on details when telling a story. As Stadler and Ward (2005, in Pesco & Gagne, 2015, p. 2) suggest, learners in preschool years are found to produce narratives that are "not fully temporally ordered." Finally, lack of dialogue further supports the description of young children's narratives as being event-focused. As Stein (1979, in Shapiro & Hudson, 1991) suggested, the inclusion of dialogue in narratives often comes with age and thus may not be evident in the macrostructures of young children. Previous studies have ascertained that it is typical of five-year-old children to construct narratives with an incomplete structure (Botting, 2002, in Lofranco et al., 2006). Moreover, as Lever and Sénéchal (2011, in Silva et al., 2014) posits, despite evidence of narrative skill progression among young children there are "individual differences that cannot be explained just because of maturation or age" (p. 206).

Among the predetermined episodic components of narrative macrostructures, data shows that more than 60% of female Filipino preschool children were able to formulate a concept of an obstacle in their individual narratives. This suggests that children are able to identify the problem in the episodes of their narratives. One-half of the total number of participants were also able to determine the episode when repair was undertaken in reference to their identified obstacle, while less than 40% were able to identify the internal response in relation to the events in the story. Data on the frequency of episodic components in the children's narratives show that almost more than half of the children were able to identify the cause-and-effect pattern between the problem and solution. This is conclusive with Shapiro and Hudson's (1991, p. 961) finding on their study that five-year-old children begin to exhibit the ability to narrate stories that provide "motivational explanations for characters' actions." Thus, most of the participants of this study have begun to identify causal reasoning in their narratives as they have perceived from the actions shown in the wordless picture story sequence and as they have inferred from their individual schema. However, several of the participants still lack the skill of identifying the emotions beneath the actions that typically accompany the development of events in a story, which is evident in the results wherein less than half of them were able to pinpoint the internal response as an episodic component. This may be due to the children's tendency to focus on a descriptive, event-focused narrative as previously stated and thus emotional motivations behind the characters' actions were barely considered. The researchers believe however that the minimal occurrence of goal identification must not be taken negatively; rather, it must be taken into consideration that the evidence of one participant who was able to identify the goal in the story is predictive of the progressive development of the children's individual narrative skills. As Peterson and McCabe (1983, in Kelly, 2015) suggests, children "acquire narrative structure incrementally, progressing through a developmental sequence primarily during the preschool years" (p. 149).

Scaffolding in Filipino Preschool Children's Narratives

Table 4
Narrative Components from Scaffolding Questions of Filipino Preschool Children

Story Components	***f***	***%***
Characters	12	75
Setting	9	56.25
Initiating Event	11	68.75
Problem	11	68.75
Resolution	9	56.25
Theme	2	12.5

Note. Adapted from Silva et al. (2014, p. 209, in Paris & Paris, 2003)

According to research on cognitive developmental stages, children as young as five years old have shown the ability to answer scaffolding questions in relation to instruction (Hetherington & Parke, 1999). As can be seen from the data, all female participants were able to identify the problem in the story, which is identified by most of the participants as "*nasunog*" (it got burnt), referring to the cookies that the mother and daughter were baking in the story sequence. Also, close to 90% of the participants were able to identify the characters in the story while in the process identifying the relationship between the characters (*mother and child)*, except for one, who only replied "*dalawang tao"* (two persons). The initiating event, described as an event that is happening in a particular part of the story, as well as the resolution of the problem, received equal distribution of responses with more than 70% occurrence. Of the female participants, more than half were able to identify the correct setting for the story, with *"kusina"* (kitchen) as the most common answer. Notably only one participant was able to give a relatively close answer for initiating event, which is "*nagagawa*" *(*making something). It is possible that the children had no prior knowledge in baking, which explains why they were not able to give a specific answer that may be coded as the initiating event. Among all of the components in the scaffolding questions data shows that the participants had the most difficult time identifying the theme of the story.

Coded data reveal that among all the scaffolding questions, the participants encountered the least difficulty in answering the question that identifies the problem in the story. This may be attributed to the children's accumulated background knowledge. Studies confirmed that a child's schema plays a significant role in comprehending stories (Aloqaili, 2011). It is possible that the participants have been exposed to people who are cooking at home, as well as the concept of fire, allowing them to make connections between their schema and the problem in the story sequence that shows a picture of flames around the oven. Most if not all of the participants already had the information that an oven (or stove) is used in baking or cooking stored in their schema hence they were able to make an inference about it. Another possible reasoning may be because the participants saw the child in the story sequence crying, which if connected to their personal experience, may be related to something negative. The same goes with the initiating event and the characters: the children may already have had some schema on cooking from seeing their mother cooking at home.

It is also likely that the children already had some background knowledge about problem-solving as the majority of them were able to identify that in order to solve the problem in the story, the mother just needed to buy cookies from the store. They could have

had experiences in the past wherein an adult pacified them through a material object. Another plausible explanation is that the scaffolding questions on characters, events, problems, and resolutions mostly make use of identification, which falls on the category of lower thinking skills according to Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of cognitive domains. The process of identifying the answer to a specific question falls under the second level of cognitive domain, which is comprehension. This is conclusive with the children's current age and grade level, wherein the lower order of thinking skills is only starting to emerge and develop. Bloom's (1965) theory on cognitive domains may also be the cause behind the low percentage of answers for the scaffolding question pertaining to the theme. Identifying the theme of a story involves drawing a conclusion about the meaning behind it. Drawing a conclusion is defined as synthesizing meaning from separate but related pieces of information (Bizar & Hyde, 1989, in Aloqaili, 2011). According to Bloom's (1965) taxonomy, this is classified as a higher order thinking skill that requires the learner to "put parts together to form a whole," similar to Bizar and Hyde's description. Hence, this skill may be beyond the preschool children's current cognitive level set for they have yet to fully develop their full range of higher and lower order of thinking skills. Moreover, as Kelly (2015, p. 449) states, five-year-olds often produce narratives known as the "End-at-High-Point Narratives," wherein despite the ability to produce progressive narratives, they often end at the climax and lack a conclusion. This may further explain why most of the participants were not able to identify the theme, as they are still in the process of developing their narrative skills and have yet to learn how to recognize the conclusion of a story.

Gender Differences in Scaffolding and Macrostructures

Table 5
Narrative Components from Scaffolding Questions

Story Components						
	Male		***Female***		***Total***	
	f	***%***	***f***	***%***	***f***	***%***
Characters	5	62.5	6	75	12	75
Setting	4	50	5	62.5	9	56.25
Initiating Event	5	62.5	3	37.5	11	68.75
Problem	3	37.5	8	100	11	68.75
Resolution	3	37.5	6	75	9	56.25
Theme	1	12.5	1	12.5	2	12.5

Note. Adapted from Silva et al. (2014, p. 209, in Paris & Paris, 2003).

The study of Silva et al. (2014) on the effect of scaffolding on children's narratives indicated that scaffolding questions helps children produce more coherent narratives because the questions support the macrostructures they have utilized in their stories. Furthermore, it may be safe to believe that if children can, up to a certain extent, retell a story with the necessary elements in a coherent manner, they may have an understanding of the story. The data above on Table 5 shows the variances between the male and female participants' answers to the different scaffolding questions and how these may be related to their story comprehension.

Table 5 shows that almost 70% of the male participants were able to identify the characters and events in the story. Most of the participants identified the characters as "bata and mama" (child and mom), while another participant generally identified the characters in the story only as "*tao*" (people). The participants recognized the initiating event as "*nagugutom*" (hungry), referring to a possible explanation as to why the mom and child are cooking or baking as "*nagluluto*" (cooking). 50% of the participants were able to answer the question regarding the setting of the story. Some of the statements that were coded as an identification of the setting in the story were "*sa lutuan*" (in the kitchen), "*bahay*" (house), and "*Pilipinas"* (Philippines). Almost 40% of the participants were also able to provide an answer for the scaffolding questions on the problem of the story. The children indicated that "*nasunog ang pagkain*" (the food was burnt) was the problem in the story. On the other hand, there were participants who were not able to provide an accurate answer to the problem scaffolding question. They indicated "*nawala ang laruan*" (the toy was lost) as the problem encountered by the characters in the story. Only 25% were able to identify the resolution in the story, which was "bumili ng pagkain" (bought food) and "bibili" (will buy). Another participant was able to provide an answer, but the researchers considered the "*papalabasin para may kalaro*" (will be let out to play) statement as an inaccurate answer. Most of the participants were not able to give an answer for the theme scaffolding question, and only 13% of them were able to provide an answer indicating that "*dapat kasi sandali lang ito iluluto*" (it should only be cooked for a short time).

The data above also show that all female participants were able to identify the problem in the story, which is identified by most of the participants as "*nasunog*" (it got burnt), referring to the cookies that the mother and daughter were baking in the story sequence. Also, close to 90% of the participants were able to identify the characters in the story while in the process identifying the relationship between the characters (mother and child*)*, except for one, who only replied "*dalawang tao*" (two persons). The initiating event, described as an event that acts as the stimulus of the problem, as well as the resolution of the problem, received equal distribution of responses with more than 70% occurrence. Out of all the female participants, more than half were able to identify the correct setting for the story, with "*kusina*" (kitchen) as the most common answer.

Overall, both male and female participants were able to provide answers for the scaffolding questions dealing with the characters, initiating event, and problem of the story with close to 75% total occurrences. Almost 60% of the sample population responded to the scaffolding questions of setting and resolution of the story.

Generally, the male participants had difficulty identifying the problem and resolution of the story compared to the female participants. On the other hand, only 40% of the female participants were able to recognize the initiating event of the story. As McLean and Breen (2009, in Fivush et al., 2012) found in their study, adolescent females are typically more inclined to focus on relationships when telling a story than males. This may be one of the reasons why the male participants in this study encountered some difficulties in identifying the problem and resolution since both episodes in the story involve interaction between the two primary characters. The problem of the story was about how the cookies that the mother and child were baking got burned, while the resolution was for the mother to bring the child to a bakery to buy cookies instead. The particular story sequence used in this study focused on an event wherein the child and parent are situated in a task that they need to accomplish

together which involves identifying relationships. Furthermore, it may be possible that the males saw the task of baking as a bonding activity typically observed between mother and daughter; hence, they were not inclined to be familiar with it. As results of the study by Fivush et al. (2012, p. 315) indicate, "gender is a critical filter through which adolescent's personal memory and identity are constructed." Wehrwein, Lujan, and DiCarlo's (2007) study about learning differences in gender indicated that male and female undergraduate students prefer different learning styles (visual, auditory, read and write, and kinesthetic). It can then be posited that narrating stories based on a picture sequence may not have appealed to both genders. This may also help explain the differences in the answers of the male and female participants in the study. Although both genders were able to provide answers to the scaffolding questions, the responses of the two groups used in the study greatly varied. Using the results found in the research of Wehrwein et al. (2007), it is safe to assume that the two genders have differentiations in their cognitive abilities.

Clarke-Stewart and Beck (1999) stated that children produce better narratives when they were scaffolded by their mothers; the children were able to elaborate and extend their narratives after being asked questions related to the topic. Their study also found out that gender does not play a role when eliciting narratives. Results from a study by Majidifard et al. (2014) also found that there is no significant relationship between children's gender and narrative proficiency. The current study's data established only a minor difference in the analysis of the narratives of male and female participants, which confirms the aforementioned finding. According to Habermas, Negele, and Mayer (2010), scaffolding might be deemed important because the children have not fully acquired the language in which they will be conversing with in the future, thereby, presenting them with difficulties, especially in the child's communication. The data provided above clearly show that children can respond to scaffolding questions; thus, it can be assumed that although they are progressive bilinguals, they are still clearly able to comprehend picture-based stories even at a young age. However, due to the limited sample population used in this study, further studies might be needed to provide more conclusive evidence to this finding.

Conclusion

Post-narrative scaffolding gives proof that story comprehension should not solely be based on children's narrative formulation. Results indicate that children's narrative components comprised of mostly basic episodes, and scaffolding questions aided in eliciting the actual level of comprehension the children. The study confirms Shapiro and Hudson's (1991) findings on how scaffolding is necessary in determining the actual communicative competence of children in terms of narrating stories. Findings also suggests that there are minimal observable gender differences in the narrative macrostructures of Filipino preschool children.

This study aimed to identify how gender can affect the narrative structure of children. While the results show that there is not much difference in terms of the narrative structures of the male and female participants, it is interesting to note that two of the male participants were not able to make up a story based on the pictures. This slight difference in the results somehow confirms the findings of past studies on gender differences in narratives that females are more expressive and are more capable of telling complete and elaborate stories as compared to males (Grysman & Hudson, 2013; Andrews et al., 2015). As evidenced in the

study all female participants, were able to produce narratives despite a low level of familiarity with the researcher, in contrast to the male participants who expressed more hesitation.

This study attempts to add to the existing literature on gender and its effect on narrative macrostructures and scaffolding in preschool children. Specifically, it aims to give insight into the narrative development and communicative competence of developing bilinguals in the Philippines. As a whole, the present study confirms the findings of past studies on narrative structures, scaffolding, and gender differences. The study shows that Filipino preschool children's narrative development is at par with the narrative progression expected of children using the findings of previous studies (Kelly, 2015; Silva, Strasser, & Cain, 2014) as basis. Despite being raised in a bilingual environment; the students' communicative competence appears to be progressing at the expected phase. There is some minor evidence of the possible effects of socioeconomic status and culture on the children's narrative development, which may further be explored in future studies. In terms of scaffolding, data suggests that although children's narrative development is at the right pace, there is a need to focus more on helping the students identify story themes. Future researchers may also opt to take into consideration the effect of the gender of the researchers who administer the narrative tasks, as one observation in the methodology of this study is that the students tended to be more open with the female researchers as compared to the male researcher who administered the task. However, more evidence is needed to support this theory.

There are some limitations to the present study that could be further considered by future researchers. One of the limitations is the time given to the researchers to conduct the individual sessions with the participants. It would be interesting to see how children would perform the same task if they did it with someone that they are already comfortable with and in a longer period of time. Several sessions prior to the actual recording could be done in order for the children to ease up to the researchers, as well as to prepare them for the task. Another variable which may be reconsidered is the manner of recording the participants' responses. Since the present study only utilized voice recordings, other factors such as body language and facial expressions could provide more information on the children's communicative competence, as attempted by a recent study done by Sibierska (2016). Pedagogical implications of the study may be reflected on how teachers of young learners could provide more literacy activities, such as peer scaffolding or technology-assisted scaffolding, to enhance the students' comprehension and communicative competence seeing that scaffolding plays an important role in the progressive development of their comprehension skills. As Justice and Kaderavek (2004, in Pesco & Gagne, 2015) stated, a combination of explicit instruction and verbal scaffolding has greater effects on student's narrative development. Storytelling as a teaching tool is also encouraged especially for young learners, as it can give teachers a sense of what the child is able to do with the language. Various activities that elicit knowledge from the children and activate their innate curiosity should also be done by both parents and teachers to ensure that children achieve their maximum learning capacity.

References

Aloqaili, A. (2013). The relationship between reading comprehension and critical thinking: A theoretical study. *Journal of King Saud University – Language and Translation, 24*, 35-41.

Andrews, J., Zaman, W., Merrill, N., Duke, M., & Fivush, R. (2015). Gender differences in adolescent birth narratives. J*ournal of Applied Research in Memory and Cognition 4*, 356–362. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jarmac.2015.10.002 2211-3681

Bloom, B. (1956). Taxonomy of cognitive development. *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives: The Classification of Educational Goals*. http://www.msmc.la.edu/include/learning_resources/online_course_environment/discussion_boards/taxonomy.pdf

Bohanek, J., & Fivush, R. (2010). Personal narratives, well-being, and gender in adolescence. *Cognitive Development, 25,* 368–379. doi:10.1016/j.cogdev.2010.08.003

Chang, C. (2004). Telling stories of experiences: Narrative development of young Chinese children. *Applied Psycholinguistics, 25,* 83–104. doi: 10.1017.S0142716404001055

Clarke-Stewart, K. A., & Beck, R. J. (1999). Maternal scaffolding and children's narrative retelling of a movie story. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, *14(3),* 409–434.

Coates, J. (1998). *Language and gender: A reader*. USA: Blackwell.

Fivush, R., Bohanek, J., Zaman, W., & Grapin, S. (2012). Gender differences in adolescents' autobiographical narratives. *Journal of Cognition and Development, 13(3)*, 295-319. doi: 10.1080/15248372.2011.590787

Goodwin, M. (1998). Cooperation and competition across girls' play activities. In J. Coates, (1999). *Language and gender: A reader.* Malden, Massachusetts: Blackwell.

Grysman, A., & Hudson, J. (2013). Gender differences in autobiographical memory: Developmental and methodological considerations. *Developmental Review, 33,* 239–272. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.dr.2013.07.004

Habermas, T., Negele, A., & Mayer, F. B. (2010). "Honey, you're jumping about:" Mothers' scaffolding of their children's and adolescents' life narration. *Cognitive Development*, *25(4),* 339-35. doi:10.1016/j.cogdev.2010.08.004

Hetherington, E. & Parke, R. (1999). *Child psychology: A contemporary viewpoint*. Boston, MA.: McGraw-Hill.

Ilgaz, H., & Aksu-Koc, A. (2005). Episodic development in preschool children's play-prompted and direct-elicited narratives. *Cognitive Development 20,* 526–544. doi:10.1016/j.cogdev.2005.08.004

Justice, L., Bowles, R., Pence, K., & Gosse, C. (2010). A scalable tool for assessing children's language abilities within a narrative context: The NAP (Narrative Assessment Protocol). *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 25,* 218–234. doi:10.1016/j.ecresq.2009.11.002

Kaushanskaya, M., Gross, M. & Buac, M. (2013). Gender differences in child word learning. *Learning and Individual Differences, 27,* 82–89. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.lindif.2013.07.002

Kelly, K. (2015). Insecure attachment representations and child personal narrative structures: Implications for delayed discourse in pre-school children. *Attachment and Human Development, 17 (5),* 448-471. doi: 10.1080/14616734.2015.1076011

Kucer, S. (2014). What retellings can tell us about the nature of reading comprehension in school children. *Australian Journal of Language and Literacy, 37(1),* 31-44. Retrieved from www.sciencedirect.com

Leaper, C., & Smith, T. (2004). A meta-analytic review of gender variations in children's language use: Talkativeness, affiliative speech, and assertive speech. *Developmental Psychology, 40(6),* 993-1027.

Lofranco, L., Pena, E., & Bedore, L. (2006). English language narratives of Filipino children. *Language, Speech & Hearing Services in Schools*, *37*(1), 28-38.

Majidifard, E., Shomoossi, N., & Ghourchaei, B. (2014). Risk taking, gender and oral narrative proficiency in Persian learners of English. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences, 98,* 1085-1092. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2014.03.520

Michaels, S. (1981). "Sharing time": Children's narrative styles and differential access to literacy. *Language in Society, 10(3),* 432-442. Retrieved from http://www.jstor.org/stable/4167263

Monjelat, N., Méndez, L., & Lacasa, P. (2016). Becoming a tutor: Student scaffolding in a game-based classroom. *Technology, Pedagogy and Education.* http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/1475939X.2016.1210538

Muhonen, H., Rasku-Puttonen, H., Pakarinen, E., Poikkeus, A., & Lerkkanen, M. (2016). Scaffolding through dialogic teaching in early school classrooms. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 55,* 143-154. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.tate.2016.01.007

Pesco, D., & Gagné, A. (2015). Scaffolding narrative skills: A meta-analysis of instruction in early childhood settings. *Early Education and Development*. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/10409289.2015.1060800

Pivik, R., Andres, A., & Badger, T. (2012). Effects of diet on early stage cortical perception and discrimination of syllables differing in voice-onset time: A longitudinal ERP study in 3 and 6-month-old infants. *Brain and Language, 120 (1),* 27-41.

Renshaw, P. (2013). The social cultural and emotional dimensions of scaffolding (Comments). *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction 2,* 56–60. http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.lcsi.2013.01.002

Shapiro, L., & Hudson, J. (1991). Tell me a make-believe story: Coherence and cohesion in young children's picture-elicited narratives. *Developmental Psychology, 27(6),* 960-974. Retrieved from www.sciencedirect.com

Sibierska, M. (2016). Storytelling without telling: The non-linguistic nature of narratives from evolutionary and narratological perspectives. *Language and Communication*. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.langcom.2016.10.005

Silva, M., Strasser, K., & Cain, K. (2014). Early narrative skills in Chilean preschool: Questions scaffold the production of coherent narratives. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 29,* 205-213.Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.ecresq.2014.02.002

Wehrwein, E. A., Lujan, H. L., & DiCarlo, S. E. (2007). Gender differences in learning style preferences among undergraduate physiology students. *Advances in Physiology Education*, *31*, 153-157. doi:10.1152/advan.00060.2006

Yliherva, A., Loukusa, S., Vaisanen, R., & Pyper, A., & Moilanen, I. (2009). Development of communication skills in Finnish pre-school children examined by the Children's Communication Checklist. *Child Language Teaching and Therapy*, *25(2)*, 235-249.

Appendices

Sample Female Transcribed Data: Sample 1

Participant: (Zel)
Researcher (R): Jayzel. Okay Jayzel ako si Teacher Rowie meron tayong activity today. Nakikita mo ba yung pictures?
Participant (P): Opo.
P: Anong nakikita mo dito sa pictures Jayzel?
R: Mm:::may bumibili. May tumutulong.
R: Ah::: May nakikita ka ba dyan Jayzel na nakikita mo din sa bahay?
P: Opo.
R: Ano yun?
P: Parang mabait na bata po.
R: Ah::: mabait na bata (0.2) Jayzel pwede mo bang kwentuhan si Teacher Rowie? Kwentuhan mo ko tungkol sa kung ano nakikita mo dito sa picture (0.2) tignan mo o, tignan mo lang tong pictures tapos kwento mo kay Teacher Rowie kung ano nangyayari (0.2) kaya mo ba yun? pwede ba yun?

P: Opo.
R: Dali simula na tyo ha. Okay.
P: Yung po yung bata tapos yung nanay naghahalo po tapos to naman ung bata po tumutulong sa nanay nya po (0.3) tas binake nila po yung yung pagkain
R: Mm
P: Tapos yung (0.2) nasunog po yata.
R: Ah tapos?
P: Bumili po sila ulit (0.3) un na po yung binili nila.
R: Ano yung binili nila?
P: Gingerbread men.
R: Ah okay tapos na ba? Tapos na ba yung story?
P: Opo
R: Okay Jayzel sino yung mga taong nakita mo dito sa story?
P: Yung nanay po tas yung (0.1) bata.
R: Ah, saan kaya to nangyayari Jayzel?
P: Mm, sa mga bahay pwede din po.
R: Ah sa bahay oo nga no (0.1) anong ginagawa nila?
P: Yung bata po?
R: Sila si mommy at yung bata anong ginagawa nila?
P: Nagluluto po.
R: (Nagluluto) eh ano yung naging problema Jayzel?
P: Kasi po nasunog.
R: Ah nasuno:::g kaya ba umiiyak yung bata?
P: Opo
R: Anong ginawa para ma-solve yung problema para di na umiyak yung bata?
P: Bumili po ng gingerbread men.
R: Bumili ng gingerbread ma:::n para ma-solve yung problem okay Jayzel ano yung natutunan mo dito sa story natin?
P: Mmm (0.2) mabait po.

R: Ano yung mabait po? Ano ibig sabihin nun?
P: Wag magpapasaway.
R: Wag magpapasaway sino yung wag magpapasaway?
P: Yung bata po
R: Yung bata po::: very good ah Jeyzel nagustuhan mo ba yung activity natin?
P: Opo
R: Ah mahirap ba?
P: Hindi po
R: Ano yung nagustuhan mo?
P: Yang pong lahat
R: Meron bang part na nahirapan ka?
P: Mmm wala po
R: Thank you Jayzel (#). Ilang taon ka na pala?
P: Five po
R: Five (#). Thank you.

Sample Female Transcribed Data: Sample 2

Researcher (R): Hello (0.3) Nahihiya ka ba? Medyo konti lang? (0.3) Anong pangalan mo?
Participant (P): Sarah Mae Kaye Buntuyan.
R: Sarah Mae Buntuyan? Okay, ilang taon ka na?
P: Six.
R: Six okay very good (#). So ang gagawin natin may ipapakita ako sayong picture tapos kukwento mo sakin kung ano yung nakikita mo okay? (0.2) Okay, so uhm anong nakikita mo sa mga dito sa mga picture? (0.4) Okay lang gusto mo hawakan (#) para nakikita mo (0.10) can you tell me kung
P: (0.2) (nagluluto)
R: Nagluluto tapos?
P: (0.4) (xxxx)
R: Lakasan mo (#) mmm?
P: Naghahalo yung bata ng ganun
R: Nagaganun yung bata oka:::y
P: Nagluluto (xxxx)
R: Ano ano ul-sorry ulit? (0.4) It's okay. Ano yun ano ulit nakikita mo?
P: (0.3) Gagawa yung gagawa yung cookie.
R: Kinukuha nung babae yung cookie okay so wait lang ano yung- may nakikita ka ba dito na nakikita na nasa bahay niyo din?
P: (0.9) uh (nasunog)
R: Nasunog okay (0.4) so? Uh
P: (xxxx)
R: Hmmm? (0.2) Pwede mo ba akong kwentuhan kung ano yung nakikita mo dito? 0.5 kwentuhan mo naman si Teacher kung (#) ano yung nakikita mo dito (.) (xxxx) (0 .15) Kaye, Kaye pangalan mo Kaye? Kwentuhan mo naman si teacher (0.2) kung anong nakikita mo (.) Mmm?
P: Babae nag-gaganun.
R: Naghahalo and then?
P: Nagluluto yung babae tapos yung bata nag-roroll.
R: Wow very good.
P: Tapos nagluluto bata yung babae i-ikukuha yung cookies.

R: Nagkuku-kinukuha yung cookies.
P: Nasunog.
R: Mm-mm.
P: (0.4) Nagpunta sa bakery.
R: Mm-mm.
P: Tapos may (xxxx) cookies.
R: Binigyan ng=
P: =Binigyan ng cookies yung bata
R: Okay very good. So sino yung nakita mo sa story? Sino yung mga tao na nandito?
P: Mommy tapos yung bata
R: Mo-mommy tapos yung bata (#) saan nangyari kaya tong kwento? (0.4) alam mo ba kung san nangyari yung kwento? Ok lang yun anong ginaga-ay sorry anong ginagawa nila sa kwento?
P: (0.4) Naghahalo.
R: Naghahalo (#) may naging problema ba sila sa kwento? (0.3) anong problema nila?
P: Nasunog
R: Nasuno:::g very goodano ginawa nila para maging okay na yung problema? (0.3) nagluto na lang ulit? Okay may natutunan ka ba sa kwento? (0.3) wala okay lang? Nagustuhan mo ba yung ginawa natin? Yes? Bakit mo nagustuhan? (0.3) may nahirapan ka ba? (0.3) nahirapan ka ba Kaye? (0.4) medyo? Okay ano ulit apelyido ni Kaye?

Procedure of the Activity

1. The purpose of the study will be explained to the participant. They will be informed that the entire activity will be tape-recorded (not videotaped) and transcribed afterwards by the researcher.
2. Each of the students will be paired with a researcher, who will guide them during the activity.
3. A photo set consisting of six frames that tell a story will be shown to the participants. They will be given about three to five minutes to study the pictures and will be asked to observe what is being described by the pictures and to think of a possible story behind it.
4. While they are observing the set of pictures, some preliminary questions will be asked by the researcher.
5. When the participants are ready, they will be asked to narrate a story based on the set of pictures shown them. They will be encouraged to do this freely without any interruption from the researcher.
6. The participants will then be asked a set of reflection questions after they narrate the story. The questions are asked for the purpose of clarifying the story that the participants have narrated.
7. The researcher will end the session with a short survey of the participants' thoughts and feelings about the activity.

About the Authors

Rowena Marie R. Chua is a professional licensed educator from the Philippines who graduated with a Bachelor's degree in Secondary Education major in English at the University of Santo Tomas. She is currently pursuing a master's degree in English Language Education at De La Salle University, Manila. She has presented and published research papers on topics such as second language acquisition, language learning and genre analysis in countries such as Korea, Vietnam and the Philippines.

Kristine Camille Fabella earned her Bachelor of Secondary Education major in English in De La Salle University. She has been teaching since 2010 in different private educational institutions in Metro Manila. Fabella is currently taking up her Master of Arts in English Language Education also in De La Salle University.

Leezandra Jae Quijano is a faculty in the High School Department of Don Bosco Technical Institute, Makati. She has earned her of Bachelor of Science in Educational Psychology degree from De La Salle University, Manila where she is pursuing her Master of Arts in English Language Education degree.

Joey Andrew L. Santos obtained his Bachelor of Arts in English Language (*cum laude*) degree from Far Eastern University, Manila where he teaches Linguistics, English, Public speaking, Accent Neutralization and Speech Communication subjects. He recently earned his Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) from *TESOL.*Asia and his Master of Arts in Teaching English Language from De La Salle University, Manila. He has presented papers both in national and international conferences on topics such as Genre Analysis, Systemic Functional Linguistics, Second Language Acquisition, Media Discourse, Syntax, In-group (gay) language, and Discourse Analysis.

The Influence of Gender and Home Language in the Occurrence of Codeswitching Functions in Adolescent Autobiographical Narratives

Jocelyn A. S. Navera

De La Salle University, Manila

Abstract

The present study aimed at determining whether gender or home language influenced the functions of codeswitching in the autobiographical narratives of ten (10) adolescents. Using Fivush, Bohanek, Zaman, and Grapin's (2012) prompt in eliciting information, adolescent participants were asked to produce autobiographical narratives, which were then analyzed using Auer's (1984) sequential approach to codeswitching by and Wei's (1998) concept of meaning that is brought into and brought about by conversation. Aided by statistical treatment, the results showed that there was no significant difference in the narratives of male and female participants. The differences were more noticeable when the respondents' home languages were considered. The narratives revealed that the respondents chose their home language as the main language of the narratives, and those who used a particular language had a different way of employing codeswitching narratives. There were differences in the use of temporal markers, theme markers, and plurality markers between those who had Filipino as their home language and those who had English as their home language. The findings may be due to the inherent differences in the structures of the languages involved; nevertheless, the study affirmed that codeswitching was not a random occurrence and its linguistic purposes were largely strategic. Since research on the impact of one's home language to codeswitching was scarce, it was recommended that further explorations on the subject be conducted.

Keywords: autobiographical narrative, narrative, codeswitching, gender, bilingualism

Introduction

From the time men could speak, they have told many stories. Narratives are a way in which human beings could make sense of their world and relay this process of making sense to others. Because of this, narratives have always been a focal point of linguistic study, and consequentially so, narrators have been under the spotlight as well. There has been extensive research on the finer points of story-telling, its context, its producers, and its listeners (Reeds & Rocca, 2013; Nadeem, 2015; Riggs, 2013). This present study aims to contribute to the study of storytelling by looking at it from a different point of view.

Author's Affiliation: De La Salle University
2401 Taft Avenue, Manila, Philippines 1004
Email Address: jocelyn.navera@dlsu.edu.ph

Background of the Study

Codeswitching is already a widely researched field, and in a multilingual country like the Philippines, there is no dearth of studies regarding it. Pan (1975) analyzed the orthographic, lexical, syntactic, and sociolinguistic aspects of codeswitching. This was a starting point for other explorations, such as English lexical borrowings in Filipino written texts (Macansantos, 1996), its functions in certain domains (Pascasio, 1978; Bautista, 1999; Chanco, Jr., Francisco, & Talamisan, 1999), its functions in spoken and written media (Marasigan, 1983), in comics (Balaguer, 2005), and even in "Chick Lit" (Ciubal & Itona, 2006). However, no Philippine-based research has been recently done on codeswitching in autobiographical narratives, more specifically, its functions in the autobiographical narratives of adolescents, and how their gender and home language may affect the occurrence of these different functions. Because of this narrower scope, the study ambitions to initiate an inquiry regarding possible gender- and home language-motivated linguistic choices in the production of stories about oneself.

The next section outlines a portion of pre-existing explorations regarding narratives, gender, and adolescents with the goal of establishing the research gap afterwards.

Review of Related Literature

Fivush et al. (2012) explored gender differences in adolescent's autobiographical narratives. They chose adolescents because they considered this period as critical in identity and narrative formation. They found that "13- to 16-year old racially and economically diverse females told more elaborated, coherent, reflective, and agentic narratives than did adolescent males" (p. 295). Fivush et al. (2012) also cited previous studies they conducted where females showed different patterns in retelling narratives, such as the use of more "specific positive emotion words . . . more general positive affect . . . more specific negative emotion words . . . and more general negative affect" (p. 299). Through coding elaboration, coherence, and theme, Fivush et al. (2012) found that "adolescent females told more coherent, more elaborative, more reflective, and more agentic narratives than did males . . . before controlling for length" (p. 310). In addition, they noted that females told longer narratives and even if it was tempting to conclude that the results came about because females talked more, they argued that it was only because the females were more invested in meaning-making and more willing to divulge life experiences, which then drove narrative length.

Gender differences were also observed in the study of Schulkind, Schoppel, and Scheiderer (2012), in which they found through sport narratives that females "emphasized evaluative information," while "men's narratives were factually oriented" (p. 958). They mentioned an important study by Nelson and Fivush (as cited in Schulkind et al., 2012), which pointed to parental conversational style as highly contributive to the development of gender differences in narrative construction. Nelson and Fivush (as cited in Schulkind et al., 2012) differentiated between elaborative and pragmatic conversational styles used for female and male children, respectively. Elaborative conversations included extended, detailed, and feedback-giving parts, whereas pragmatic conversations focused on facts, such as the five "W" questions (why, where, who, when, what). For data, they asked the respondents to write accounts about athletic games according to their gender (females told narratives on a game played by females, while males told narratives on a game played by males). The researchers

acknowledged that a cause of differing narratives may be what happened in these games and were not necessarily gender-based. However, they concluded that the analysis showed that as expected, men remembered more factual information as opposed to females who, as observed in Fivush et al. (2012), told lengthier narratives, which also concentrated more on evaluation than facts.

What males and females remembered in stories was also touched on in Grysman (2016), who examined episodic encoding of autobiographical memory. She had a different approach to it by making 95 participants of mixed race undergo two retellings of the same event: the first retelling happened on the day the event happened; the next retelling, however, happened 10–13 weeks after the said event. Through encoding, Grysman (2016) concluded that there were gender differences in the internal details of Time 1 (first retelling) that were still present in Time 2 (second retelling). These differences mainly consisted of females giving more details than males. Although these details decreased by Time 2 for all respondents, females still had more detail information since they took in more of it, as observed in Time 1. Grysman (2016) mentioned another study by Nelson and Fivush (2004) which attributed some of these gender differences to parental influence "whereby, in early childhood conversations, commonly with mothers, girls are asked more elaborative questions than boys" (p. 7; also Grysman & Hudson as cited in Grysman, 2016).

This autobiographical narrative line of inquiry continued in the research involving emotions and language. Fioretti and Smorti (2015) tested 35 males and 37 females using a Memory Fluency Task and personal narration to see if their emotions on the said events changed depending on the form of recall. "Therefore, the basic aim of this study was to analy[z]e memories' changes, comparing the emotions connected to the memories before and after the narration" (p. 49). To analyze the written data, they coded the emotions participants chose as simple positive, simple negative, complex, and neutral (p. 46). The results showed that more emotions and greater complexity were illustrated in narratives than in simple recall. However, unlike the previous studies highlighting gender differences, the study found none, contrary to the researchers' expectations. The researchers pointed to the aim of the study as the cause of this because they did not count the amount of memories retrieved, but rather concentrated on the changes in the amount of emotions attached to these memories (both in recall and narrative form). Hence, they believed that "[their] findings of no gender differences do not contradict those of previous authors" (p. 51).

To balance the studies involving gender differences that were exhibited in narratives, Grysman and Hudson (2013) proposed in their study titled "Gender differences in autobiographical memory: Developmental and methodological considerations" that gender differences could not always be present because there are other variables that may influence their saliency in narratives. The researchers stated that although there were studies that illustrated the female tendency to include emotional details and meaningfulness in their retelling of memories, developmental process of the respondents and the chosen methodological processes in the studies themselves could greatly affect the replicability of these results. When it came to development, Grysman and Hudson (2013) echoed the previous points concerning parent-child conversations, as well as the respondent's sense of self. However, they advised more longitudinal studies to accurately prove any variances in narrative production. When it came to method, the authors suggested that even specific instructions could impact the outcome of narratives. Apart from that, the "number and gender of people present during recounting can change the way a person narrates an autobiographical

memory" (p. 265). The relatedness of gender in the narrative topics highlighted differences, as well. Grysman and Hudson (2013) then recommended appropriate methodology and context to control these confounding variables and make sure that any assertions could stand up to closer scrutiny.

When it comes to codeswitching, three recent Philippine studies involved the social role of Taglish and trilingual codeswitching. Bugayong (2011) studied Taglish in which she identifies the mixed variety as not a sign of deficiency but as a discursive strategy. Go and Gustilo (2013), on the other hand, looked at Tagalog and Taglish as probable lingua francas of Filipino urban factory workers. In Gonzales's (2016) research, he focused on something that had been a gap in Philippine codeswitching literature by introducing Hokaglish (Hokien, Tagalog, English), wherein the code involved three languages instead of the usual two. In the study, he determined which combination of the languages more frequently occurred and the domains in which it occurred, and also elaborated on the morphological aspect of the linguistic phenomenon. However, all studies did not touch on narratives.

A local study that combined emotion and codeswitching is a seminal work by Bautista (1996) regarding Filipino apologies, compliments, directives, and probes, where she made the claim that a language may be used for very specific instances that carried equally specific emotional weight. For example, Bautista (1996) asserted that *patawarin mo ako* is reserved for more serious situations where the speaker committed a grave mistake, whereas "sorry" could be used for other circumstances where the speaker apologized for considerably less serious situations. This claim inspired other studies which tried to see if it could be proven, one of which is an unpublished master's thesis by Navera (2013). In her study, she examined the professions of love in Tagalog romance novels to see if the gravity of the situation could be directly related to language choice. The hypothesis was that if Bautista (1996) was to be followed, then the characters in the novels would prefer *mahal kita* over "I love you" given that the former is associated with weightier emotion (and it could be argued that the weightiest of these would be romantic love). However, Navera (2013) found that most of the main characters professed love using "I love you," thereby concluding that the emotion was not the only consideration in choosing the language. In a similar way that Grysman and Hudson (2013) said that context could factor in the development of a narrative, Navera (2013) emphasized that conversational context, as influenced by Auer's (1984) sequential approach to codeswitching, also mattered in linguistic decision-making in a sense that language choice could be used as a contextualization cue that could "lift" a particular part of a conversation and direct the listener's attention towards it.

Despite the ubiquity of studies regarding autobiographical narratives, codeswitching, and emotion-related language choice, the combination of all three is rare. Perhaps the closest the author of this research could get to is Altman's (2015) "Two Measures of Bilingualism in the Memories of Immigrants and Indigenous Minorities: Crossover Memories and Codeswitching." Her study consisted of five groups of immigrant and indigenous respondents: English-Hebrew, Georgian-Hebrew, Russian-Hebrew, Arabic-Hebrew, and Hebrew-English (p. 187). They were asked to recall a memory through cue words. These memories were then elaborated on through narratives, and the researcher examined whether they would narrate the story in the same language in which the event happened or if the two variables crossed over. She defined crossover memories as "memories reported to be retrieved in a language different from the experimental session/cue word" and "are unique to bilinguals" (p. 190). In her analysis of codeswitching patterns, she found that "crossover

memories were . . . more frequent in L2 sessions, and same language memories were more frequent in L1 sessions" (p. 196). She made a very good point for this result in saying that: "[d]espite the fact that the participant is instructed and cued in one language, s/he reports memories from the other language, evidence that traces of language cues remain in long term memory" (p. 197). Here, then, language choice is associated with the memory, making the relationship between codeswitching and narratives a bit more transparent than the other studies.

These studies hint at what can be expected from the output of the current respondents' narratives. However, since there are studies that particularly foreground the nuances that can occur in autobiographical narratives, especially with the added dimension of language contact and bilingualism, the current research hopes to contribute much needed support to these prior publications.

Research Questions

To address the gap identified in the Introduction and Review of Related Literature, the current research aims to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the functions of codeswitching in the autobiographical narratives of selected adolescents?
2. Are there significant differences in the occurrence of codeswitching functions between the autobiographical narratives of male and female adolescents?
3. Are there significant differences in the occurrence of codeswitching functions depending on the participant's home language?

To aid in answering the first research question, this study adopted Auer's (1984) sequential approach to codeswitching, where he asserts that linguistic choice depends on situational context. What comes before and after a statement is crucial in determining the purpose (or in this case, function) of that statement. Auer's (1984) data largely covers conversation, i.e., there are a minimum of two interlocutors engaged in an interaction. Because of this, the application of the sequential theory in a narrative context becomes novel in that the previous and following statements do not come from a separate, secondary speaker; all statements come from the same, individual narrator. In this case, if he or she is to situate all his or her utterances, they will all be within the context of his or her own statements. In a way, then, categorizing codeswitching functions would be much easier in that the researcher, apart from solely relying on the text itself and veering away from her own interpretation of it, only has to think about one goal in analyzing the data, which is to concentrate on how the respondent is trying to realize a single train of thought (or event) using the narrative.

This text-based approach will clearly be evident in the categorization of functions in that as Auer (1984) stressed, there should be no a-priori motivations assigned to codeswitching; they should be constructed based on the conversational context. Therefore, the first research question will be answered using this approach.

The second and third research questions will, on the other hand, adopt a part of Li Wei's (1998) network concept, where both gender and language fall under a different type of context. If Auer (1984) covers conversational context, Wei (1998) covers what is beyond

that. More specifically, if the narrative itself is what is brought about by the conversation, then gender and home language are what are brought in to the conversation. They are pre-existing structures that may impact how the respondents construct their narratives. Wei (1984) delineates these two contexts in saying that meaning is not solely created simply in the course of interaction; the participants also bring in meaning from larger constructs that surround the interaction (in this case, the narrative). The probable influence of gender and home language, then, is expected to be seen in the different frequencies of occurrence of the identified codeswitching functions, realized through statistical treatments.

Conceptual Framework

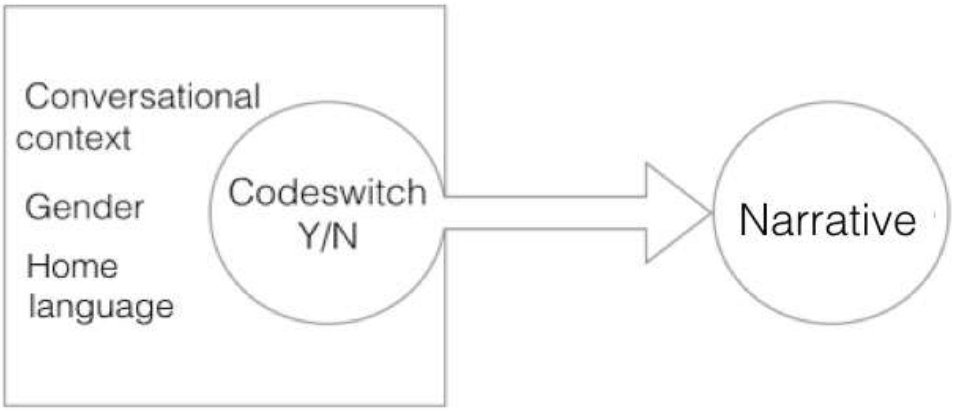


Figure 1. Conceptual Framework influenced by Auer (1984) and Wei (1998).

This conceptual framework explains the hypothesis that conversational context (e.g., setting, interlocutor, topic, and most especially, previous statements by the speaker), gender, and home language affect a person's choice to codeswitch (Y/N = Yes/No) in a narrative. The conversational context influence is taken from Auer's (1984) sequential approach to codeswitching, while the inclusion of gender and home language is adopted from Wei's (1998) concept of meaning that is brought in versus meaning that is brought about, as discussed in the Theoretical Framework. The inclusion of gender demonstrates the hypothesis that there may be gender differences in the use of codeswitching functions since the studies in the Review of Related Literature show evidence of gender difference in narrative construction. Lastly, the presence of home language in the diagram addresses the third question. Although there is scarce literature regarding this topic, the researcher hypothesizes that like gender, home language may affect the frequency and function of codeswitching. With the inclusion of this aspect, it is the researcher's hope that the study will contribute to this facet of bilingualism research.

Significance of the Study

The main significance of the study is that it adds a new dimension to the analysis of codeswitching, which is home language. The study acknowledges the probability that a speaker's home language might dictate how he codeswitches and why. There is no seminal work on this topic; hence, this paper's main contribution is on this aspect. Apart from this, the

study also aims to augment pre-existing literature on gender and language, as well as language in narratives.

From a pedagogical standpoint, although the effects might seem indirect, the study can also become a resource for teachers of language to better understand how students process events and how this processing can become evident in their linguistic choices. If, indeed, gender and home language have an impact on how narratives are constructed, then perhaps it can allow a rethinking of how certain classroom practices may seem restrictive towards learners and their linguistic choices, thereby necessitating adjustments in the current instructive practices.

Methods

Research Design

The current study is a largely quantitative study supported by qualitative discussions. The results were analyzed using different statistical treatments to answer the three research questions. The quantitative treatments were chosen to concretely demonstrate statistically significant differences instead of merely relying on frequency counts and subtracting totals to show a comparison in the gathered data. It was easy to show that there were differences in the frequencies, but the essential part was to prove if these differences were statistically significant, hence the reliance on statistical treatments. Strictly numerical results, however, glossed over nuances in the data. This is where qualitative discussions come in. They complement the statistics by supporting or raising disagreements with the computed data.

Research Setting

The research setting is situated within a prominent university in Manila, but it is more commonly referred to by students and faculty as Senior High or SHS. Since the implementation of K to 12 just began, the students are the first batch of senior high schoolers in the university. The sections are divided into three strands: STEM, HUMSS, and ABM. The number of students in one class usually ranges from 35 to 45. Since the students are technically not college students, they are forbidden from leaving the campus unless they are on their way to PE or if there is a special school function they must attend. Because of this restriction, all interviews were held in campus. Most of the interviews were held in faculty lounge areas for privacy, except for one which was held in the participant's classroom after the researcher's class.

Participants

The study used a combination of convenience and random sampling to determine the participants. There was convenience sampling in that the students belonged to two (2) SHS sections that the researcher was teaching. To address issues of consent, letters of permission to the SHS principal and the two class advisers were sent. When the school authorities agreed, respondents were then chosen using a random name online generator: five female respondents were taken from the first section, while five male respondents were taken from the second section, for a total of 10 respondents.

The respondents were aged 15–17 years at the time of the interview (mean = 16.5; SD = 0.17). Eight were bilingual (spoke Filipino and English), one was trilingual (also spoke Chinese), and the last one spoke four languages (Filipino, English, Chinese, and Cebuano). Seven had Filipino as their home language, while the other three had English as their home language. Out of the seven whose home language is Filipino, four are female and three are male. Out of the three whose home language is English, two (2) are male and one (1) is female.

Instruments and Data Sets

For the narrative prompt, the researcher modified the prompt of Fivush et al. (2012) in eliciting information. Since the original study did not cover the bilingual aspect of the speakers, the researcher had to include the part where the respondents could choose the language they wished to use. However, they were only limited to Filipino, English, and both. Another modification is the language of the prompt. The original was in English but so that the language of the prompt does not influence the respondent's linguistic choice, a Filipino translation was created to be read to the participants during data-gathering. The present study also limited the years included in the narrative for two reasons: first, the students may no longer remember events that happened five years ago or later, and second, so that the topics could be similar or related events, eliminating the possibility that topic might be a confounding factor in the occurrence of codeswitching.

This prompt was shown to the instructor for approval and had been duly approved.

Procedure

Before the interviews, consent had to be obtained. As mentioned in the Participants subsection, letters were sent out to both the principal and the advisers. After consent was granted from these authorities, the researcher then used the random name generator to choose participants. Those whose names were picked out by the name generator were sent messages to ask for their consent to become participants in the study. Some of the chosen participants declined, so more names were drawn using the name generator until the consent of 10 respondents were secured. After this, the researcher and the participants agreed on times, dates, and venues for the interviews to be conducted.

The researcher was also the interviewer for the study since she was already acquainted with the respondents and had been teaching them for more than two months. The respondents were asked to meet with the researcher during their free time after class to conduct data-gathering. During these sessions and before the students were asked to retell their stories, the respondents were engaged in small talk to decrease any affective filters they still had. This was also when they were asked regarding their family and educational backgrounds; afterwards, the prompt was read to the participants, first in English, then in Filipino. They were also told that there was no time limit, and they could speak for as long as they wanted. They were then given time to think of two events for the prompt. When they were ready, they were informed that the recording would begin.

All narratives were audio-recorded using an iPhone 5s. As mentioned, they were also mostly held in faculty lounge areas for more privacy; however, one interview was held in the classroom after class for convenience. The participants were given food as tokens.

After data-gathering, the researcher transcribed the narratives in Microsoft Word omitting researcher input (e.g., prompting, verbal nods), non-word fillers, incomprehensible false starts, and exact duration of pauses so that it would be easier to code the switches in the narratives.

Data Analyses

Coding. All recordings were transcribed. The researcher did not use a specific transcription system since the goal was just to capture the utterances and not any other aspect of spoken communication, such as duration of pauses and filler usage. The switches were then highlighted and tabulated. Most of the recordings ranged from 2 to 16 minutes; however, one lasted 50 minutes. So that this recording does not skew the average, only the first 16 minutes of it was analyzed. Also, because there were only a few switches that formed independent clauses, all switches, even one-word switches, were included in the analysis. Because the study followed Auer's (1984) sequential approach, there was no a-priori set of codeswitching functions, so the researcher had to make her own, although Bautista's (2004) suggestions influenced the researcher's approach. These categories were not based on the functions of the words as parts of speech (e.g., noun, verb), but were based on their functions in the conversational context (e.g., temporal marker, location marker) to again be in accordance with the study's theoretical framework.

Statistical Treatment. After the initial frequency count of the categorized functions, the results were tabulated, then a one-way ANOVA with a confidence interval of 95% (α = .05) was used to compare the differences in the frequency means, as well as see if there are differences when gender and home language are considered. Tukey HSD was supposed to be run to be more specific in interpreting any statistically significant difference; however, it was not possible since the test required more than three groups for the independent variables. Since both gender (male/female) and home language (Filipino/English) did not meet this criterion, SPSS did not show any Post Hoc test results.

In summary, the first research question was answered through categorization, while the second and third research questions were answered through frequency counts followed by a One-Way ANOVA test.

Results and Discussion

Results

All interviews had a mean length of 10.30 minutes (SD = 4.32). For a more detailed breakdown, Table 1 shows the mean lengths of the narratives segregated by gender and then by home language:

Table 1
Interview Mean Length

Category	Mean Length (SD)
Male interviews	11.64 (3.7)
Female interviews	8.98 (4.9)
Interviews with Filipino as Home Language (FHL)	10.15 (3.31)
Interviews with English as Home Language (EHL)	10.68 (7.14)

As seen above, the results show that contrary to previous studies (Fivush et al., 2012; Nelson & Fivush; as cited in Schulkind et al., 2012), it seems that male interviews were lengthier than female interviews, not counting the one female outlier whose response was reduced to 16 minutes. However, this difference in length is not significant. The table also illustrates that the participants who spoke with Filipino as the base language (their codeswitches were in English) and the participants who spoke with English as the base language (their codeswitches were in Filipino) have very similar means, showing only a noticeable difference in their standard deviations. It is difficult to conclude anything concrete from this data because apart from having only a small number of participants, the number of participants who had Filipino as their home language (7) and the number of participants who had English as their home language (3) are not equal.

First research question. For the question of what codeswitching functions are seen in the autobiographical narratives of the selected participants, the researcher came up with a total of 21 codeswitching functions in the 10 narratives. Table 2 enumerates these functions, at the same time giving sample occurrences of each (the examples included all occur in the data):

Table 2
Codeswitching Functions and Examples

Functions	Examples
1. **Cohesive Marker**	so, and then, tapos
2. **Temporal Marker**	years, competition, nung
3. **Location Marker**	classroom, school
4. **Description**	super annoying, small things
5. **Relationship/Position Marker**	classmate, best friend, first
6. **Numerical Values**	seven, eight, ten
7. **Action Marker**	nagte-train, i-approve
8. **Theme Marker**	letter, context, ang problema
9. **Quotation Marker**	sabi niya, "You're my best friend"
10. **Response Marker**	yeah
11. **Evaluative Statement/Marker**	I think, maybe
12. **Common Expressions**	thank you, sorry
13. **Declarative Statement/Marker**	I learned a lot, that's it
14. **Politeness Marker**	po, opo
15. **Filler**	like, ano

16. **Intention Marker**	gusto
17. **Plurality Marker**	mga
18. **Reference Marker**	yun, ganon
19. **Emphasis Marker**	nga, still
20. **Option Marker**	or
21. **Question**	what year was that?

As mentioned in the Methodology, the categorization was not dependent on parts of speech but rather on how the words or phrases were used in the context of the narrative. They were also named with this concept in mind to maintain transparency and to avoid confusion on how exactly these switches functioned in the narratives. This, however, brings up one limitation of the study, and that is that the researcher had no interrater to recheck the consistency or correctness of the categories. To make up for this, the researcher went over the categories a handful of times to ascertain that there were no overlaps or redundant categories.

One observation to be noted in these results is that there are functions that are present not based on gender, but based on the base language. This will further be analyzed in the Discussion section.

Second research question. To answer the question of whether there is a significant difference in the occurrence of codeswitching functions with gender as the independent variable, a One-Way ANOVA test was performed with a 95% Confidence Interval ($\alpha = .05$). This means that for the results to reject the null hypothesis (i.e., there is no difference in the occurrences of codeswitching functions based on gender), the *p* value (represented by *Sig.* in the SPSS outputs) must be less than or equal to α ($p \leq .05$). However, the SPSS results show that all p values are greater than α, leading the researcher to accept the null hypothesis and conclude that there is no significant difference in the occurrences of codeswitching functions based on gender. In other words, gender did not influence when and how the respondents codeswitched.

Third research question. To find the answer to the question of whether home language (which dictates the base language of the narratives) influences the type and/or amount of codeswitching functions present in the narratives, another One-Way ANOVA test was performed with the same confidence interval ($\alpha = .05$) and same criteria (Reject null hypothesis if $p \leq .05$). The SPSS outputs revealed that with the home language as the independent variable, there is some significant difference in the occurrence of codeswitching within 3 out of 21 functions. Table 3 shows these three, as well as their corresponding *p* values:

Table 3
Codeswitching Functions that Show Significant Difference Based on Home Language

Codeswitching Function	**Sig. (*p* value)**
Temporal Marker	.033
Theme Marker	.004
Plurality Marker	.020

When it comes to temporal markers, theme markers, and plurality markers, there is significant difference based on home language. Another interesting thing to note is that for all

10 respondents, their home language became the base language that they used in the narratives. The seven whose home language is Filipino used Filipino as the base language of their narratives and their switches were in English, whereas the three whose home language is English used English as the base language of their narratives and their switches were in Filipino. In fact, one of these three EHL (respondent M2) did not even codeswitch and narrated his stories strictly in English.

Discussion

Although statistical measures ascertain that differences in frequencies are not overestimated, they not cover the nuances that exist in the data. For example, as mentioned in the Results section, despite not showing significant differences overall, there were functions that only occurred in certain conditions, such as when the base language was English and the switches were in Filipino. One of these functions was the politeness marker. This was easily explained by the fact that there were no English politeness marker equivalents. Hence, when the participant (e.g., M4) wanted to show politeness in his narrative, he had to switch from English to Filipino. The same went for plurality markers, with the statistical data coinciding with this observation. In English, the plural marker is a bound morpheme and therefore does not occur by itself and needs to be attached to a free morpheme (e.g., student = student*s*). In Filipino, on the other hand, even though *mga* is also a bound morpheme in that it does not occur by itself, it is not attached to the word and therefore can be effectively used in intersentential codeswitching (e.g., student = *mga* student). In fact, it is possible to use both Filipino and English plurality markers at the same time (e.g., *mga* student*s*), and the FHL respondents have done so in their narratives. However, this was no longer noted in the tabulation because in cases where the switch is an English noun and the base language is Filipino, the Filipino plurality marker is no longer counted. On the contrary, the use of an English plurality marker is not seen when the base language is Filipino (e.g., *magulang* did not become *magulangs*). Ergo, plurality markers did not occur in the narratives of EHL respondents.

Statistical measurements also did not show the differences in the type *within* these functions. This means that even though the treatments might point to a significant difference, the difference only accounts for numerical differences and not qualitative differences. For example, both FHL and EHL respondents made use of codeswitching to mark time (i.e., temporal marker). But how they did it was different. The EHL respondents did not use content words to exhibit measurement (e.g., using *buwan* for month, or *taon* for years). Instead, the switches involved just introducing the main word for time (e.g., *nung* grade 10). On the other hand, FHL respondents whose base language for the narrative was Filipino used codeswitching to mark the specific period of time (e.g., *nung* competition*,* last year, summer). And perhaps this can partly account for why there is a significant difference even in the frequency of temporal marker occurrences. Like in the case of plurality markers, words like *nung* are not counted in FHL narratives and are rarely used in EHL narratives because in the latter, temporal introducers are no longer necessary. The respondents did not have to often say "*nung* last year" when they could just say "last year."

These findings are aligned with previous codeswitching studies (Bugayong, 2011; Go & Gustilo, 2013; Gonzales, 2016; Pascasio, 1978; Bautista, 1999; Chanco, Jr. et al., 1999; Balaguer, 2005) that assert that the phenomenon is a discursive strategy rather than a demonstration of linguistic deficiency. However, the results do not support Bautista's (1996)

claim that a certain language corresponds with a certain emotion and its use may amplify or understate it. In the data, emotions associated with the memories did not play a significant role in the functions of codeswitching.

On the other hand, there is evidence of significant differences when home language is concerned as supposed to when gender is. It is because despite the respondents' genders, they had the same prompt. And although the content of their narratives differs, this does not mean that the functions of the language changed as well. On the other hand, when the medium of these narratives changes (i.e., base language), the differences in *how* the story was told become more prominent. To simplify, it is not *what* the narratives are about that leads to noticeable differences in codeswitching functions; it is *how* the narratives are told that makes these differences statistically visible, which echoes the reviewed literature on narratives. This is enhanced by the fact that the two languages in contact (Filipino and English) are syntactically different. Ergo, there will be some functions that either language cannot perform that the other has to supplement.

This, of course, does not explain all the linguistic choices of the respondents. This explanation does not account for why FHL respondents still chose to say *year* instead of *taon* when both options are perfectly equivalent. This is where the concept of *what is brought in versus what is brought about* becomes applicable (Wei, 1998). These choices seem to involve not just strictly conversational context but even the background of the respondents. Perhaps they are used to saying *year* instead of *taon*, or they are more used to using Filipino fillers such as *parang* instead of the English filler *like*. These choices, then, are what they *bring in* to the conversation instead of being something that is *brought about* by the interview. Here, Bautista's (1996) claim that one language can be correlated with an emotion or situation is not supported because for both positive and negative emotions, the respondents codeswitched all the same and did not "reserve" a particular language for a particular topic.

Conclusions

In sum, the results show that adolescents make good use of codeswitching in their autobiographical narratives as evidenced by the 21 functions gathered from the data. However, contrary to the hypothesis, gender does not noticeably affect the frequency and type of codeswitching functions in these narratives. This does not support the assertions of gender differences in narratives as seen in the studies of Fivush et al. (2012), Grysman (2016), and Schulkind et al. (2012), granted that these works focused on other aspects of the autobiographical narrative. It is the home language, the language that became the base language of the narratives, that shows some influence on codeswitching use. It has also been observed that these significant differences are more likely when the languages in contact are syntactically different from one another because this leads the speakers towards switching since there are functions that the base language is deemed not to fully or easily realize, such as marking plurality or time. It does not have anything to do with a particular emotion or the gravity of a situation, as Bautista (1996) illustrated in her work. However, it has also been noted that syntactical differences do not account for all linguistic choices; there are choices that may be explained by the respondents' own linguistic practices, as explained by Wei's (1998) concept of how what is brought in a conversation is different from what is brought about by a conversation. Nevertheless, the present study contributes to the literature by including home language as part of the factors that answer why and how codeswitching occurs.

Given these claims, the study still needs to be supplemented by further research for these observations to become more generalizable. First, there is a need for more respondents to ensure that conclusions come from a representative sample. Next, future studies can involve different topics and different age ranges to see if these assertions hold true across these variances. More languages can also be included in future research (i.e., trilinguals instead of bilinguals) to also prove if this study's statements still hold true.

Implications for Language Teaching

As mentioned in the Significance of the Study section, the pedagogical implications of this study are more indirect in that they mainly give insight on how these learners reflect on and realize their histories using language. However, what is evident is that all the respondents showed skill in manipulating their linguistic resources and found functions for them all, stressing the view that a strictly monolingual approach in language-teaching not only hampers the linguistic development of students but also restricts them from fully communicating the extent of their experiences. Hence, this study reiterates the perspective that bilingualism should not be discouraged in the academic setting and in fact should be nurtured to enable learners to expand their world views and make full use of the cultural and social capital different languages may afford them.

References

Altman, C. (2014). Two measures of bilingualism in the memories of immigrants and indigenous minorities: crossover memories and codeswitching. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research, 44*(2), 187-200.

Auer, P. (1984). *Bilingual conversation.* Philadelphia: J. Benjamins Pub. Co.

Balaguer, W. G. (2005). *The functions of codeswitching in the comic strip beerkada* (Unpublished undergraduate thesis), University of the Philippines, Diliman, Quezon City.

Bautista, M. L. (1996). An analysis of the functions of Tagalog-English code-switching. In M. L. Bautista & G. O. Tan (Eds.), *The Filipino bilingual: A multidisciplinary perspective* (pp. 19-31). Manila: Linguistics Society of the Philippines.

Bautista, M. L. (1999). Apologies, compliments, directives, and probes in Pilipino radio dramas: An exploratory analysis of Pilipino speech acts. In M. L. Bautista (Ed.), *Readings in Philippine sociolinguistics* (2nd ed.) (pp. 139-157). Manila: De La Salle University Press.

Bautista, M. L. (2004). Tagalog-English code switching as a mode of discourse. *Asia Pacific Education Review, 5*(2), 226-233.

Bugayong, L. K. (2011). Taglish and the social role of code switching in the Philippines. *Philippine Journal of Linguistics, 42*, 1-19.

Chanco, A. Jr., Francisco, E., & Talamisan, T. (1999). A look at the code-switching patterns of some television hosts in Metro Manila. In M. L. Bautista & G. O. Tan (Eds.), *The Filipino Bilingual: A Multidisciplinary Perspective* (pp. 32-35). Manila: Linguistics Society of the Philippines.

Ciubal, L. P., & Itona, J. T. (2006). *A comparative analysis of code switching in the chick lit novels of Tara FT Sering and in the register of selected Filipino young adults* (Unpublished undergraduate thesis), University of the Philippines, Diliman, Quezon City.

Fioretti, C., & Smorti, A. (2015). How emotional content of memories changes in narrating. *Narrative Inquiry, 25*(1), 37-56.

Fivush, R., Bohanek, J. G., Zaman, W., & Grapin, S. (2012). Gender differences in adolescents' autobiographical narratives. *Journal of Cognition and Development, 13*(3), 295-319.

Go, M.A., & Gustilo, L. (2013). Tagalog or Taglish: The lingua franca of Filipino urban factory workers. *Philippine ESL Journal, 10,* 57-87.

Gonzales, W. D. W. (2016). Trilingual code-switching using quantitative lenses: An exploratory study on Hokaglish. *Philippine Journal of Linguistics, 47*, 109-131.

Grysman, A. (2016). Gender differences in episodic encoding of autobiographical memory. *Journal of Applied Research in Memory and Cognition*, http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.jarmac.2016.07.012

Grysman, A., & Hudson, J. A. (2013). Gender differences in autobiographical memory: Developmental and methodological considerations. *Developmental Review, 33*, 239-272.

Macansantos, M. E. A. (1996). *Sociolinguistic patterns in lexical borrowing in Filipino written texts* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation), University of the Philippines, Diliman, Quezon City.

Marasigan, E. (1983). *Code-switching and code-mixing in multilingual societies.* Singapore: Singapore University Press for SEAMEO Regional Centre.

Navera, J. A. S. (2013). *The language of love: A macro-micro analysis of code switching in English in selected Filipino romance novels* (Unpublished master's thesis), University of the Philippines, Diliman, Quezon City.

Nadeem, N. (2015). Autobiographical narrative. *Narrative Inquiry, 25*(2), 224-241.

Pan, G. S. (1975). *An analysis of code switching in Filipino short stories and some sociolinguistic implications for Pilipino and English language development* (Unpublished master's thesis), University of the Philippines, Diliman, Quezon City.

Pascasio, E. (1996). Dynamics of code-switching in the business domain. In M. L. Bautista (Ed.), *Readings in Philippine Sociolinguistics* (2nd ed.) (pp. 76-87). Manila: De La Salle University Press.

Reeds, K., & Rocca, A. (2013). *Women taking risks in contemporary autobiographical narratives*. New Castle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Riggs, T. (2013). *The literature of autobiographical narrative.* Detroit: Gale, Cengage Learning.

Schulkind, M., Schoppel, K., & Scheiderer, E. (2012). Gender differences in autobiographical narratives: He shoots and scores; She evaluates and interprets. *Memory Cognition*, *40*, 958-965.

Wei, L. (1998). The why and how questions in the analysis of conversational code-switching. In P. Auer (Ed.), *Code-switching in conversation* (pp. 156-176). London: Routledge.

About the Author

Jocelyn A.S. Navera finished her BA and MA degrees in English Studies Major in Language at the University of the Philippines Diliman. She is currently pursuing her PhD in Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University. Her research interests include codeswitching, stylistics, and translation.

An Investigation of the Refusal Strategies used by Filipino ESL Learners toward Different Lectal Groups

Henelsie B. Mendoza
Annie Mae C. Berowa

De La Salle University, Manila, Philippines

Abstract

Given the multitude of languages present in the Philippines with differences in accents, it can be safely assumed that along with these outward linguistic markers are differing language attitudes that may probably affect an interlocutor's speech act. Since refusal is considered as the most face-threatening speech act, the present study investigated the different refusal strategies employed by the Filipino ESL learners toward speakers with different accents which were classified by Llamzon (1997) as acrolect, mesolect and basilect. In addition, the aspects of social status and gender were also examined to determine their influence in the participants' choice of direct and indirect refusal. The data were gathered through the use of discourse completion task (DCT) and individual interviews and were analyzed by referring to the refusal strategies developed by Beebe et al. (1990). It was found that the participants generally prefer indirect refusal strategies. Furthermore, the study revealed that differences in the use of refusal strategies are only significant toward the mesolect and basilect speakers. Additionally, it was found that social status affects the refusal strategies of the students.

Keywords: refusal strategy, accent, acrolect, basilect and mesolect

Introduction

Background of the Study

Language allows people to convey information, to share thoughts and feelings, and to maintain relationships. They may either employ the linguistic or non-linguistic modes of communication depending on what is required in the given situation. Thus, it is important to understand the different factors in a certain context which may include gender, social relations, and social status to attain successful communication.

However, effective communication does not happen all the time. There are circumstances when people find themselves in a situation when they fail to communicate with each other because of personal, social and cultural differences. Since individuals vary on their backgrounds, they have different frames of understanding and different social expectations on how one should accept or reject speech acts. These variations can send wrong impression as found in the refusal speech act that causes tension between the speaker and the interlocutor.

Corresponding Author's Affiliation: De La Salle University, 2401 Taft Avenue, 1004 Manila

Email: henelsie_mendoza@dlsu.edu.ph

This study was conducted because the researchers believe that the concept of refusal is one of the most significant issues that surround intercultural or cross-cultural communication. The increase of international intercultural interactions because of the movement of the people due to factors such as business and migration may potentially increase misunderstanding through misinterpreted refusals. The study of refusal is particularly important in the context of the Philippines where Filipinos highly value interpersonal relationships. Filipinos, generally, do not want to be unpleasant to others and they cannot say "no" or disagree, reject or confront when a superior is involved to avoid any misunderstanding that may harm their relationship (Hunt, Espiritu, Quisumbing & Gree, 1998).

The present paper looked into the different refusal strategies employed by Filipino English as Second Language (ESL) learners from different backgrounds toward speakers of different backgrounds as well. The investigation included the aspects of gender, social status and accent in the choice of refusal strategies.

Review of Related Literature

Human beings have to communicate their needs, wants and desires without jeopardizing their relationships with others. Sustaining these relationships demand a specific set of skills in utilizing speech acts such as complaints, apologies, requests and refusals. There are instances that despite careful production of these speech acts, they may not come across as intended because of different social and cultural values. Apart from dissimilar social and cultural expectations, unintended responses are probably influenced by one's attitude toward the speaker and the interlocutor. The languages used in any of the speech acts arealways accompanied by attitudes and values held by the users (Grosjean, 1982). Some context specific norms somehow regulate behaviors and perceptions of people's interaction with others (Hassani, Mardani & Dastjerdi, 2011). Thus, it is then necessary for speakers to refine their sociolinguistic and socio-cultural abilities to distinguish which speech act strategies to utilize to control the language forms that are deemed suitable in a given speech context (Cohen, 1983). Given that most speech acts require deeply held values to be carried out in a complicated, face-threatening situation, speakers should equip themselves a certain amount of culture-specific knowledge most especially if it contradicts listeners' expectations such as refusals.

Refusal has been the most challenging to produce among the different speech acts. Refusal is a reaction to another individual's request, invitation, offer or suggestion (Hassani, Mardani & Dastjerdi, 2011). Its "inherent risk" in offending the listener causes threats that go along with this speech form (Eslami, 2010). Refusal can be classified as direct, indirect and adjuncts. Direct refusal strategy means stating a direct 'NO' while indirect strategy signifies refusal in a more subtle manner. Furthermore, there are adjuncts or expressions that may be added to supplement a refusal depending on how the speaker would wish to downplay the directness of the refusal. The cross-cultural study of Beebe et al. (1990) yielded a range of semantic formulas of refusals (Table 1) which is now widely used. These semantic formulas of refusal can be seen as a series of: (1) pre-refusal (strategies that prepare the addressee of the upcoming refusal); (2) main refusal (head act that expresses the refusal); and (3) post-refusal strategies. The series may be flexible depending on the speech context. Other cross-cultural studies were also patterned on this taxonomy.

Table 1
Classification of Refusals by Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990)

Semantic formulas	
Direct	A. Performative (e.g., "I refuse.") B. Nonperformative 1. "No" 2. Negative willingness/ability (e.g., "I can't" "I don't think so")
Indirect	A. Statement of regret (e.g., "I'm sorry. . ."; "I feel terrible. . .") B. Wish (e.g., "I wish I could help you. . .") C. Excuse, reason, explanation (e.g., "My children will be home that night."; "I have a headache.") D. Statement of alternative 1. I can do X instead of Y (e.g., "I'd rather. . ." "I'd prefer. . .") 2. Why don't you do X instead of Y (e.g., "Why don't you ask someone else?") E. Set condition for future or past acceptance (e.g., "If you had asked me earlier, I would have. . .") F. Promise of future acceptance (e.g., "I'll do it next time"; "I promise I'll. . ." or "Next time I'll. . ." — using" will" of promise or "promise") G. Statement of principle (e.g., "I never do business with friends.") H. Statement of philosophy (e.g., "One can't be too careful.") I. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor 1. Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester (e.g., "I won't be any fun tonight" to reuse an invitation) 2. Guilt trip (e.g., waitress to customers who want to sit a while: " I can't make living off people who just order coffee.") 3. Criticize the request/requester, etc. (statement of negative feeling or opinion); insult/attack (e.g. "Who do you think you are?"; "That's a terrible idea!") 4. Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request. 5. Let interlocutor off the book (e.g., "Don't worry about it." "That's okay." "You don't have to.") 6. Self-defense (e.g., "I 'm trying my best." "I'm doing all I can do.") J. Acceptance that functions as a refusal 1. Unspecific or indefinite reply 2. Lack of enthusiasm K. Avoidance 1. Nonverbal a. Silence b. Hesitation c. Do nothing d. Physical departure 2. Verbal a. Topic switch b. Joke c. Repetition of part of request, etc. (e.g., "Monday?") d. Postponement (e.g., "I'll think about it.") e. Hedging (e.g., "Gee, I don't know." "I'm not sure.")
Adjuncts	A. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement ("That's a good idea. . ."I'd love to. . .") B. Statement of empathy (e.g., "I realize you are in a difficult situation.") C. Pause fillers (e.g., "uhh"; "well"; "oh"; "uhm") D. Gratitude/Appreciation

Several studies were conducted to investigate the different refusal strategies in various contexts employed by speakers of diverse backgrounds. They have spanned to examine the different sociolinguistic variables that may affect a speaker's choice of refusal strategy.

One of the studies that compared the refusal strategies employed by people from two different countries was made by Boonkongsaen in 2013. She investigated the use of refusal strategies conducted in English between Filipinos and Thais. The findings indicated that although both groups preferred to use indirect strategies than direct ones, Filipinos were more direct than Thais. She explained that some cultural values can possibly explain the differences. She observed that Filipinos value equality while Thais value social hierarchy.

Moreover, there are different reasons in employing various refusal strategies as expressed by language researchers around the globe. For Felix-Brasdefer (2006), they found the prominence of family-oriented excuses in support of a refusal in most collectivist cultures like Mexicans and Egyptians. In addition, the study between Iranian and Australian ESL students of Shishavan & Sharifian (2016) and Tickle (1991) ascribed social and situational factors, apart from social status, to greatly influence refusal strategies. Furthermore, Abarghoui (2012) and Demirkol (2016) reported poor language proficiency which resulted to a limited pragmatic capacity to transfer skills from L1 to L2has affected a speaker's choice of refusal strategies.

Refusal Strategies and Gender

Several studies have been done to discover the relationship between refusal strategies and gender. In the study conducted by Mohammad, Alizera & Shirin (2013) among native Persian and English speakers' refusal utterances, they found that females were inclined to guilt- trip statements while males used non-performative statements. This suggests that males tended to be direct when refusing s females were indirect. Furthermore, they discovered that there were significant differences in refusing among the participants. Males had more preference to use formulas that relates to unspecific reply and excuse while females used excuse, reason and explanation.

However, the preliminary study conducted by Moaveni (2014) proved otherwise when he investigated the refusal strategies used by the Americans and international college students as well as gender variations at an American university. The results showed that all groups preferred to use preference for direct refusal strategies.

Similarly, Hedayatnejad, Malekiand & Mehrizi (2016) added the effect of gender in their study regarding refusal realizations among Iranian EFL intermediate learners. They found no significant difference between male and female refusal realizations in the three levels of social status.

Refusal Strategies and Social Status

Studies have also shown that refusal strategies used are influenced by the social status of the speaker and of the interlocutor. Tuncer (2016) studied the role of social status in the refusal strategies favored by 20 English instructors in a university in Turkey. It was discovered that indirect refusal strategy was more favored by the participants than direct

refusal. It was also verified that the social status of the interlocutor plays a role in the different semantic formula used in the act of refusing. It was found that speakers with lower status either receive criticism about themselves or about their requests. On the other hand, when refusing with higher interlocutor, participants employed self-defense whereas negative willingness or ability is used to refuse an equal interlocutor.

In a similar study, Montero (2015) also studied on how social status can affect the refusal strategies of the students who specialize in English teaching. The study found that participants preferred indirect refusal strategies across different social status which was attributed to the speaker's desire to maintain a positive image towards the person requesting or offering. In addition, Chojimah in 2015 pursued the same study among Indonesian students where she explored the effect of one's social status to interlocutor's choice of refusal strategies. She labeled status relationship among participants as lower-to-higher social status (LHSS), higher to lower social-status (HLSS), and equal social-status (ESS) relationships. While social-status does not influence the choice of refusal strategy, politeness strategies contributes to one's refusal.

Refusal Strategies and Accent

Most studies conducted to examine refusal strategies consider social status in consensus as the most significant sociolinguistic variable that may affect a speaker's choice of refusal strategy. Based on the knowledge and readings made by the researchers on the study of refusal strategies, there are studies that explore the effect of accent but they very few explored the spectrum of linguistic variation regarding accent that may somehow affect people's perception regardless of one's social status. The starting point of this study will investigate whether the value judgments encoded on one's accent would most likely affect one's choice of refusal strategy towards these interlocutors.

It is important to highlight that accent is one of the most outward linguistic markers that is vulnerable to stereotypes. Ong, Liao & Alimon (2009) highlighted the benefits of accent towards comprehensibility citing that learners performed better in problem-solving activity if the speaker uses the standard accent (acrolect). Furthermore, they emphasized that voice creates a sense of a social presence. Speakers who use Received Pronunciation or RP are rated highly in intelligence, leadership, self-confidence, wealth and ambition; while non-standard speakers often scored higher in solidarity qualities. Therefore, different sounds encode value systems (Honey, 1988 in Coulmas, 1998).In the same way, Ou (2016) presupposes that phonetic categories of L1 have persistent effects on speech perception.

Llamzon (1997), for instance, cited well-known personages and those professionals whose work necessitate the use of spoken English to describe acrolectal speakers. The acrolect's phonological features closely resemble the General American phonemes sounding "American-like."Mesolectal speakers are those who use English rarely except during job or school related discussions and whose phonological features display an increased number of differences. Basilectal speakers consist of non-professionals such as clerks, janitors and security guards where the speaker's ethnic tongue forms more substitutions than in mesolect and acrolect.

There is indeed a hierarchy of attitudes to accents (Honey, 1998 in Coulmas, 2008). It is evident that each lectal group is not only a category describing one's pronunciation but

implies groupings based on one's educational attainment and socioeconomic status. From the findings of these previous studies, it is evident that the use of refusal strategies is influenced by different factors. However, most of the respondents in the different research endeavors discussed involved either college students or professionals. The researchers think that it can be more interesting to explore ESL high school learners' choice of refusal strategies because they come from different backgrounds and carry with them various beliefs and attitudes towards English (Lucas & Sicam, 2016). This study then presupposes the existing stereotypes of Filipinos towards those whose accent are far from what most considers "the standard."

Research Questions

Adopting the methods of the previous research, this study continues the investigation of the refusal strategies used by Filipino ESL learners towards acrolect, mesolect and basilect speakers. This aims to answer the following questions:

1) What are the different refusal strategies employed by Filipino ESL learners towards different lectal groups?
2) Are there differences in the refusal strategies employed by the ESL learners towards different lectal groups?
3) Is there a significant relationship between the refusal strategy used by the ESL learners and the following variables: gender, social status and the different lectal groups?

Theoretical Framework

This study is anchored on the Speech Act Theory of Austin (1962) and developed by Searle (1969 as cited in Montero, 2015)), and the Politeness Theory as formulated by Brown and Levinson (1987).

The Speech Act Theory

Speech act refers to the utterance and the context in which such utterance is made (Austin, 1962 as cited in Hedayatnejad, Malekiand & Mehrizi, 2016). Speech act is simultaneously composed of three acts: locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary (Abarghoui, 2012). The locutionary act refers to the speech act per se, where as the ilocutionary act is a reflection of the speaker's intention, and the perlocutionary act, is the effect obtained through such speech act. Searle (1969 as cited in Montero, 2015) enumerated categories according to their definition and usage in communication: requests and orders belong to the category of *directives*, assertions and claims fall under the category of *representatives*, *commissives* include promises and threats, *declaratives* include acts like declaring a war or marrying a couple and *expressives* cover acts such as apologies, complaints and expressions of gratitude. With this, refusal falls under the category of directives where there is an effort on the part of the speaker to have the hearer do something.

Politeness Theory

Early work on politeness by Goffman (1967) describes politeness as the amount of regard people show to their partners through avoidance or presentation of formal performances. *Politeness Theory*, as originally formulated by Brown and Levinson in 1978 posits the interplay of politeness and other three variables namely: *distance, power* and *threat* (known also as risk of imposition or extremity). In the work of Roberts (1992), *distance* refers to the degree of social familiarity of the two people. People who are more familiar to one another are more casual and polite with each other. Distance consists of elements of feeling, or liking, and interactive closeness (Brown, 1989). In addition, *power* refers to the ranking, status, or social situation of the two persons, while *threat* may center on the importance of what is being requested.

Politeness and the Concept of Face

The idea of *face* provides a better understanding on the concept of politeness which is very important during interpersonal interaction and is necessary to be preserved (Brown, 2015). Positive face is the person's desire to be liked by others while negative face refers to each person's want not be imposed upon or not to be coerced (Roberts, 1992).

The Concept of Face and Refusal

Abarghoui (2012) explained that a number of scholars provided that asking for a favor may possibly communicate threat to the receiver's face because it may impede his/her choice of response. On the other hand, refusals can be a source of threat to the positive face of the addressee as he/she may respond opposite to the expectation of the speaker. Gass and Houck (1999) further explain this by highlighting that refusals involve planning because of its complex nature. It would require assessment in the part of the interlocutor.

These theories and concepts will used to support the arguments that will be provided by this present study.

Significance of the Study

This study recognizes the different factors that affect the way people deal with the act of refusing in their daily conversations. These include gender (same gender, opposite gender), social status (low, high, equal) and accent (acrolect, mesolect, and basilect speakers).The study of refusal is very important since it occurs in everyday communication. It is important to know how people coming from different backgrounds refuse and what factors influence their strategy of refusing in order to provide intercultural understanding. Admittedly, refusing is a difficult thing to do since it does not only need linguistic knowledge but pragmatic knowledge as well. And it is more difficult to reject in a language which is not one's native tongue without the risk of offending the interlocutor.

This study is very important since this is the first attempt, as to the knowledge of the researchers, in looking at accent as a vital factor in the choice of refusal strategies. This further provides understanding on the attitudes and perceptions toward an accent that make people refuse the way they do.

The present inquiry is also significant in the teaching and learning of English as a Second Language as this study provides the manner of how ESL learners refuse to different

interlocutors. The results can be a basis in teaching and learning polite expressions in the English language in the act of refusing. Morrow (1995) highlights that instruction of speech-acts motivated learners to use speech-acts in a more native-like manner which will improve the quality of their interactions.

Methodology

Research Design

The study employed a quantitative-qualitative research design methods on the patterns of refusals by Filipino ESL learners. For the quantitative part of the study, the data collected through Discourse Completion Test (DCT) adopted from Chojimah (2015) which was modified to accommodate audio-recordings to assess the effect of the speaker's accent using the three lectal groups suggested by Llamzon (1997). In order to determine the significant differences in the refusal patterns used by ESL learners toward each lectal group, the T-test was used while Chi-square was utilized to examine the relationship between the refusal strategies vis-à-vis gender and social status. The researchers conducted individual interviews through to support the results of the DCT. The questions for the interview were derived from the study of Shishavan & Sharifian (2016).

Research Setting

In this study, the data were collected from a private institution located in Intramuros, Manila on November 2016. The school was chosen for convenience purposes since one of the researchers is a faculty member of the institution. The school is one of the oldest in the Philippines which cater to students who come from different parts of Metro Manila. Admission requirements include vocabulary and reading comprehension before students are admitted. The school is one of those which offered senior high school classes right after it was implemented by the Department of Education.

The data elicitation activity was done with audio facilities that were used in the classrooms for instruction. To ensure the audibility of the files, audio facilities were tested and the classrooms used were strategically located far from loud noises.

Participants

A total of 139 ESL learners from Accountancy and Business Management (ABM) and Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) strands participated in the study. The participants were chosen based on the criteria set in this study and availability. Randomly, two classes were selected per educational strand. The ABM group consisted of 61 students (41 males, 20 females) while the STEM group has 70 students (44 males, 26 females). The age ranges were from 15 to 18 years, with a mean of 16. All respondents attended at least ten years of formal English instruction in their elementary and junior high school years.

Since the level of proficiency is not a variable in the study, the respondents did not take any standardized test. However, it is important to assure that the participants are not hindered by their language proficiency in understanding the given task. Thus, the number of years of learning English indicated in the personal information section of the DCT (Discourse

Completion Task) was taken into account. All the respondents passed the school's entrance exam which also measured language proficiency. Successful placing in this test implies that the student has average to intermediate language proficiency. Additionally, English is one of the official languages in the Philippines. Along these lines, the students were assumed to have average to intermediate command of the English language.

All participants were asked to complete a personal information sheet regarding their sex, age, academic track, language spoken at home, number of years in the Philippines and the number of years in studying English. All participants completed the DCT in English only. Fifteen of the respondents also participated in one-on-one interview.

Instrument

The data were collected through a Modified Discourse Completion Test (DCT) adapted from Chojimah (2015). It is a written questionnaire in which situation is first described and then the respondent is asked to write his/her response in a blank space that is provided on the questionnaire (Moaveni, 2014). This instrument is often used in the area of pragmatics. However, despite its popularity, its advantages were questioned because it cannot capture real-life natural occurring discourse (Billmyer & Varghese, 2000). Responses elicited from DCT, however, reflect the awareness of the speaker on how to respond given a specific context (Kasper & Rose, 2002). Given the efficiency and consistency offered by this instrument (Moaveni, 2014), it is still popularly used as a data collection instrument.

In this study, the situations were not described on the DCT. The requests, offers and invitations were audio-recorded. Only the descriptions of the social status of the speakers and the interlocutors are indicated in the DCT (See Appendix A). The social roles and situations of the interlocutors in the DCT were adjusted to fit the context of the ESL learners (i.e. "Employee" to "Student"; "Employer" to "Teacher"). The social status relationships and the nature of the invitations, offers, or requests, however, were maintained. There were 18 situations (please refer to Appendix C) which consisted of 6 LHSS (lower-to-higher social status), 6 HLSS (higher-to-lower social status) and 6 (equal social status) situations in the DCT. Two scenarios per social status relationship were recorded by each lectal speaker. The respondents were informed to only refuse from all invitations, offers and requests in English.

Since one of the objectives of this study is to assess the effect of accent on the ESL learner's choice of refusal strategy, the prompts in the DCT were audio-recorded to capture accent of the speaker. Three speakers (1 male and 2 females) were asked to do the audio-recorded requests, invitations and offers. One basilectal, one mesolectaland one acrolectal speakers whose L1 are Philippine native languages were chosen for the study. Aside from their noticeable accents when they speak in English, they were classified based on their demographic profile taking into account social variables such as (1) reported frequency of use of PE in different domains; (2) reported preference for English for different activities; (3) the respondent's self-assessment of their ability to use English (Tayao, 2004). Also, they have to be at least (1) 18 years of age, (2) university students or graduates, (c) and must be born and raised in the Philippines (Dayag, 2007). For verification, the speakers were asked to read a passage and fifteen sentences in English to check their pronunciation. Dayag (2007) describes mesolectal speakers use syllable-timed rhythm, substitution of interdental fricatives /th/ by alveolar stops /t/ and /d/ and the movement towards the second syllable, dropping of final consonants (Gonzales 1997; Tayao 2004). The audio recordings were evaluated by the

researchers to determine whether the accent abide to the phonological features described by Llamzon (1997) for each Filipino lectal speaker.

After conducting the DCT, interviews were conducted one-on-one to verify and substantiate some of the answers in the DCT. The questions in the interview were derived from the study of Shishavan & Sharifian (2016).

Data Collection Procedure

Before the study was conducted, permission was secured first from the principal and the advisers of the classes who participated in the study. The researchers administered the DCT during the English period of the respondents. To reduce the discrepancies in the test administration, the researchers gave standard instructions. The students were informed that their answers in the test will not affect their grades but their honest response would be greatly appreciated. All parties involved (principal, teachers and students) were informed clearly about the purpose of the test and told that participation was voluntary.

Each participant answered a background questionnaire at the beginning of the test. The students were then given a sample scenario and a sample answer to model how they are going to answer the items. The students were then asked to read the social roles assigned to them first before listening to the audio-recorded offer, requests and invitations. After listening to the recording thrice, the respondents were asked to write their answers on the DCT questionnaire.

A total of 131 completed questionnaires were returned. To ensure measurement validity, initial data cleaning was carried out by the researcher. As a result, six problem questionnaires were excluded because the credibility if the answers were dubious (e.g. the same answers to all questions; most items were left blank). In the end, 129 questionnaires were used for statistical analysis.

Method of Analysis

To identify the refusal strategies used by Filipino ESL learner's, the written responses to the audio-recorded request, offers and invitations from speakers of different accent were first classified according to the Beebe et al. (1990) taxonomy of refusal strategies. The subjects' refusal strategies were analyzed by classifying word(s), phrase(s) and sentence(s) that satisfy the particular semantic criterion or strategy. Data analysis was guided by Beebe et al. (1990) with some modifications in classification. Originally, adjuncts were classified as the third type. In this study, adjuncts are classified as indirect refusal strategies only when it appears with other refusal acts. Other than the classification, the refusal types were retained and used in the analysis.

The order and frequency of the refusal strategies were determined after they were classified as either direct or indirect. For example, in a situation in which a participant refused an invitation from the club president by stating [*I am busy] [please ask someone else*], this response is coded as [*Statement of excuse*] plus [*statement of alternative*] and classified as indirect refusal. To assure the validity of the coding, two inter-raters coded all the questionnaires separately and compared their coded data to reach an agreement on items that were coded differently. The data were encoded to SPSS software as nominal values. This

was done by coding academic track, gender, social status, and refusal strategies with numbers. The following are the codes used:

Table 2
Coding entries used in SPSS

Code	**Gender**	**Refusal Strategy**	**Social Status**
1	Male	Direct	HLSS
2	Female	Indirect	ESS
3			LHSS

To address the second research question, the frequency of the refusal strategies were obtained based on responses towards each lectal group to assess the significant differences in the refusal strategies used by the respondents. Finally, each situation, content and frequency of refusals used by participants were compared by social status relationship and gender. T-test was used to assess the significant differences of the refusal patterns used by ESL learners used towards each lectal group.

To satisfy the third research question, Chi-square was used to establish the relationship between gender and social status and the choice of refusal strategies used by ESL learners. Statistical data of frequencies, cross tabulations and correlation were generated using the SPSS software, with the help of a reliable, statistician and educational researcher.

Fifteen participants were interviewed one-on-one with the permission of the class advisers. The interview was conducted by both interviewers with a standard questionnaire. Responses were audio-recorded and transcribed for analysis.

Results and Discussion

The mean scores of the refusal strategies used in each lectal group were computed and compared as presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Refusal strategies used by Filipino ESL learners towards the acrolect speaker

Situations	**Direct**		**Indirect**	
	f	%	F	%
A. You are the club president.	87	67.4	42	32.6
B. You are the teacher.	78	60.5	51	39.5
C. You are his/her child.	50	38.8	79	61.2
D. You are student taking community service.	41	31.8	88	68.2
E. You are another parent.	59	45.7	70	54.3
F. You are his/her friend.	64	49.6	65	50.4
Total	379	49	395	51

The percentage found in the table shows that the respondents generally prefer using indirect refusal strategies (Total = 395, 51%) in addressing the acrolect speaker except on

situations when the respondents themselves have a higher social status (*Situations A and B*) than the speaker.

The data show that social status has greatly affected the choice of refusal strategies of the respondents which support the findings of Tuncer (2016) and Montero (2015) which showed the significant role of social status towards the respondents' choice of refusal strategy. Consistently, those who belong in the lower-to-higher social status relationship were more indirect to show respondent's politeness towards the individual (Brown & Levinson, 1987). An interlocutor's social status was deemed important in the respondent's choice of refusal strategy because of its possible repercussions on the relationship of the speaker and the interlocutor. Also, it is worth noting that the degree of closeness of the relationship seems to affect the directness of the refusal strategies used (Nguyen, 2006). Respondents who are in an LHSS relationship tend to be more indirect to strangers, for instance, the student refusing the community leader while respondents tend to be less indirect with their friends. Surprisingly, students are more direct to their friends than to their parents, since respondents are mostly teenagers. This is quite expected given that there is more detachment from parents and more attachment to friends in this particular stage of life.

Tables 4 and 5 show the choice of refusal strategies used towards themesolect and basilect speakers.

Table 4

*R*efusal strategies used by ESL learners towards the mesolect speaker

Situations	Direct		Indirect	
	f	%	F	%
G. You are also a member of the same club.	47	36.4	82	63.6
H. You are his/her classmate.	33	25.6	96	74.4
I. You are a student.	21	16.3	108	83.7
J. You are the lodger.	33	25.6	96	74.4
K. You are the principal.	47	36.4	82	63.6
L. You are the house owner.	58	45.0	71	55.0
Total	239	31.1	535	68.9

Table 5

Refusal Strategies employed by ESL learners towards the basilect speaker

Situations	Direct		Indirect	
	F	%	F	%
M. You are the new member of the organization.	23	17.8	106	82.2
N. You are his/her student.	42	32.6	87	67.4
O. You are his/her co-teacher.	48	37.2	81	62.8
P. You are his/her roommate.	79	61.2	50	38.8
Q. You are the parent.	64	49.6	65	50.4
R. You are the village leader.	34	26.4	95	73.6
Total	290	37.5	484	52.5

In Tables 4 and 5, the choice of refusal strategies used towards the mesolect and basilect speakers was consistently indirect regardless of social status relationship.

This may mean that although social status may affect one's choice of refusal strategy, other factors such as social relationship and cultural orientation may affect the directness of the respondent's refusal. It can be noted in Table 5, the respondents tend to be direct in refusing their roommate who may be perceived as the closest to the respondent in terms of social relationship. Shishavan and Sharifian (2016) proposed that those who have closer relations tend to talk in a more direct way.Respondents tend to be more direct because interlocutor's refusal may well be understood based on the respondent's background about the speaker.Also, adjusting to listener's expectations is easier for respondents who are more familiar with their interlocutors. Tickle (1991) also supports the idea by highlighting in his investigation the role of social power and social relationship in the choice of refusal strategies among the respondents.

Apart from social relationships, cultural orientations seem to be evident in the data shown in Tables 4 and 5. Boonkongsaen (2013) pointed out the indirectness of Filipinos.However, in comparison to Thais, Filipinos are more direct because they value equality. This may explain why there are instances where Filipinos are more direct than indirect in their choice of refusal strategies. While the reason for indirectness may differ from one culture to another, Filipinos are more conscious of saving face and in trying to maintain good relations with other people. Listeners in this study find it difficult to use a socially unacceptable act like refusal to a socially valued act like hospitality.

Table 6 shows that the respondents are generally indirect in their choice of refusal strategies.

Table 6

Refusal strategies used by ESL learners towards three lectal speakers

Speakers	**Direct**	**Indirect**

	F	%	F	%
Acrolect	379	49.0	395	51.0

Refusal Strategy	**Mean**	**Computed**	**p-value**	**Conclusion**
Mesolect	239	31.1	535	68.9
Basilect	290	37.5	484	52.5
Over-all	908	39.1	1414	60.9

Among the lectal groups, it can also be observed that among the lectal groups, the acrolect speaker obtained the highest number of direct refusal strategies (379/908) or 41.74 percent of the total number of direct refusals and the lowest number of indirect refusal strategies (395/1414) or 27.93 % of the total number of indirect refusals.

Since the acrolect variety is somehow a close approximation of the native American accent, perceptions, motivations and attitudes towards the speaker may be associated with American identity. The acrolect accent, therefore, is accompanied by attitudes which results to judgments and stereotypes (Grosjean, 1982). Filipinos have prevalent values like shame (*hiya*) and sensitivity to personal affront (*amorpropio*) which are norms of socialization (Hunt, Espiritu, Quisimbing& Green, 1998). These were evident in the dominant number of indirect refusals of the Filipino respondents. Since refusal threatens self-esteem, disagreements are commonly avoided. Thus, direct refusals which may signal dispute is not often used. Although Filipinos were known to be indirect in their refusals (Boonkongsaen, 2013), the ESL learners may have been influenced by their perception towards acrolect speaker. It can be recalled that apart from differences in accent, the lectal group presupposes its members socioeconomic status and educational attainment. Thus, listeners tend to attach these expectations towards their interlocutors. This distance in expectations is explained by Brown (2015) saying that distance consists of elements of feeling, liking and interactive closeness. This may be difficult to achieve if there are phonological barriers where the respondents fail to understand the basilect speaker most of the time.

In order to determine the significant differences between mean scores of direct and indirect refusal strategies used by the interlocutors, the mean scores were averaged according to the speaker's lectal group and thereafter compared using T-test to establish significant differences in Table 7.The use of T-test was decided upon scrutinizing the homogeneity of variances, sampling technique and the normality assumptions of the data collected.

Table 7
T-test results comparing refusal strategies used towards lectal speakers

Acrolect	Direct	63.17	0.27	.793	Not Significant
	Indirect	65.83			
Mesolect	Direct	39.83	6.44	.000	Significant
	Indirect	89.17			
Basilect	Direct	48.33	2.75	.020	Significant
	Indirect	80.67			

*p<.05.

Table 7 presents the results of T-test to assess the significant differences in the refusal patterns used by ESL learners towards each lectal group. It can be gleaned on the table that the p-value for mesolect and basilect which are 0.000 and .020 respectively, are both less than the significant level. Thus, the hypotheses are rejected. Therefore, there are significant differences in the refusal strategies used by ESL towards acrolect and basilect. However, the p-value for Acrolect which is .793 is less than the significant level, then the hypothesis is accepted. Therefore, there is no significant difference in the refusal patterns used by ESL learners towards acrolect speaker.

These results suggest that the respondents would use either direct or indirect refusal strategies towards an acrolect speaker but would tend to choose indirect refusal strategies towards the mesolect and basilect speakers. As stated earlier, this may have been influenced by the perception of the respondents towards the acrolect speaker who based its choice of refusal strategies on his/her perception about the speaker who may more likely to be more open to direct refusals than the Filipino-sounding English speaker. Grosjean (1982) highlights that language attitudes often reflect attitudes towards the users of those languages. Language users adjust their language attitudes based on the expectations commonly associated to English users. Ou (2016) highlights that indeed phonetic categories presupposes phonetic perceptions. Since Americans are known to be more direct in their communication style, speakers somehow adjust to this style.This is reaffirmed by the two interviewees who mentioned that it was easier for them to reject the offer of the acrolect speaker than the mesolect and basilect because they sound foreign and they were more sympathetic of those who are less fluent:

I: Among the three speakers, who would you most likely refuse? Why?

S04: Acrolect, I will refuse the one who have the US accent because it sounds foreign.

S10: Acrolect, I would likely refuse the first one because I have sympathy to those people who can't express themselves that well.

Another possible reason for the choice of indirect refusal strategies towards mesolect and basilect speakers may be to preserve one's face. Since the Filipino ESL learners feel that they are more likely talking to a fellow Filipino if the speaker uses mesolect and basilect accents, they are more or less careful or critical about how they respond leading to more indirect statements. Out of 1414 indirect refusals, the most common indirect refusal strategy content and formula is *Regret* plus *Explanation/Reason/Excuse* for Mesolect and *Criticism*

towards the request or requester for the basilect speaker. These interaction clearly activate the negative and positive face of the respondents. While some respondents would like to be desired by showing regret and providing an explanation to their fellow Filipino; others would wish to be free from this imposition because the speaker is less intelligible.

The following responses in the DCT would show how respondents accommodate the mesolect speaker

Situation: A student has to refuse an invitation to birthday party from the principal.

S10: Sorry, wrong timing sir. It's my dad's birthday also.

S51: I'm sorry, Ma'am, I have something to do later.

Others would openly criticize the basilect speaker as explained in the interview responses of the following students:

I: Among the three speakers, who would you most likely refuse?

S06: It's just unbelievable when you hear someone with that kind of accent.

S08: Basilect, I do not discriminate those people who have that kind of accent but it's just difficult for me to understand.

S12: Basilect, because it seems difficult for me to talk to someone who has that kind of accent.

S15: Basilect, it is very difficult for me to understand the speaker.

The relationship between the preference of the refusal strategies used by the respondents and gender and social status relationship were determined through the use of Chi-square. Some significant relationships were noted in the refusal strategies used by ESL learners towards the acrolect speaker where the interlocutor has a higher social status, as shown in Table 8.

Table 8

Refusal strategies used by ESL learners towards each lectal speaker by social status relationship

Speakers	Social Status	Direct		Indirect		Total
		f	%	f	%	

	HLSS	165	64.0	93	36.0	258
Acrolect	ESS	123	47.7	135	52.3	258
	LHSS	91	35.2	167	64.8	258
	HLSS	58	45.0	71	55.0	129
Mesolect	ESS	134	26.0	382	74.0	516
	LHSS	47	36.4	82	63.6	129
	HLSS	98	38.0	160	62.0	258
Basilect	ESS	127	49.2	131	50.8	258
	LHSS	65	25.2	193	74.8	258
Total		908	39.1	1,414	60.9	2,322

Table 8 shows that only with the acrolect speaker in an HLSS (higher-to-lower social status) relationship did the respondents choose to refuse directly. This matches the earlier findings (please refer to Table 6) where the most number of direct responses where obtained by the acrolect speaker in an HLSS relationship. Clearly, social status relationship is influential in this regard.

According to Chojimah (2015), the use of direct and indirect refusals were not influenced by the social status but that it contributes to politeness strategies. In the social status relationship, the respondents in this study would tend to use indirect refusal strategies towards ESS and LHSS as a form of respect and would most likely be more direct to their subordinates. The social status relationships show that in cases where the speakers are faced with more possible negative consequences for being impolite like probably losing the job, opportunity or relationship, they tend to be indirect leaving the interpretation of rejection to the interlocutor. However, when there are no consequences for being impolite in the case of HLSS, respondents would most likely be unaffected even if they offend their interlocutor.

Table 9 shows the refusal strategies used by ESL learners towards each lectal speaker by gender.

Table 9

Refusal strategies used by ESL learners towards each lectal speaker by gender

Speakers	Gender	Direct	Indirect	Total

		f	%	f	%	
Acrolect	Male	227	45.6	271	54.4	498
	Female	152	55.0	124	45.0	276
Mesolect	Male	155	31.1	343	68.9	498
	Female	84	30.4	192	69.6	276
Basilect	Male	188	37.8	310	62.2	498
	Female	102	37	174	63	276
TOTAL		908	39.1	1,414	60.9	2,322

In terms of gender, Table 9 shows that both genders are consistently indirect in their choice of refusal strategies across lectal groups except for females (55%) who are inclined to be more direct in their refusal towards the acrolect speaker. Generally, Filipinos have difficulty in saying "no," disagree, reject or be confrontational when superior is involved—not to deceive but rather to avoid confrontation and please (Skouhus, 2013). This explains why indirect refusal strategies are still dominantly used across lectal groups.

On the other hand, the prominence of the use of direct refusal strategies towards the acrolect speaker by female respondents is contrary to the claim of Nguyen (2006) and Mohammed (2013) who described female respondents to prefer indirect refusal strategies. However, in the preliminary study conducted by Moaveni (2014) proved otherwise. He investigated on the way Japanese (four males and four females) and Americans (eight females and three males) refuse an invitation to a social gathering. The study found that American female demonstrated similar patterns in their use of directness and variety of refusal strategies. In this study, female tend to use similar patterns of refusal strategies as their male counterparts. The most compelling reason why females, in this case, became more direct was how they adjusted to the cultural orientation of their interlocutor who happens to be American-sounding, acrolect. Other than their responses to the acrolect speaker, the female respondents were used to choosing indirect refusal strategies.

Table 10 shows the refusal strategies used by ESL learners towards each lectal speaker by gender. To determine the relationship between gender and social status relationship of the ESL learners vis-à-vis their choice of refusal strategies towards different lectal groups, Chi-square is used. The sampling method and categorical variables made the statistical treatment fir for examining the relationship amongst variables.

Table 10

T-test results comparing refusal strategies used towards lectal speakers

Demographic Profile	Computed	P-value	Conclusion

Social Status	Acrolect	42.73	.000	Significant
	Mesolect	19.68	.000	Significant
	Basilect	31.84	.000	Significant
Gender	Acrolect	6.40	.011	Significant
	Mesolect	.04	.842	Not Significant
	Basilect	.05	.827	Not Significant

*p<.05.

Table 10 shows the Chi-Square results of the relationship between gender and social status relationship of the ESL learners vis-à-vis their choice of refusal strategies towards different lectal groups. It is shown from the table that the p-values of the choice of refusal strategy when related to social status towards lectalspeakers are all less than the significant level. Thus, social status affect the choice of refusal strategies used by ESL towards different lectal groups. Most studies in refusal strategies which investigate social status as a sociolinguistic variable that can affect one's refusal prove this to be significant (Chojimah, 2015; Tuncer, 2016; Montero, 2015, Shisavan&Sharifian, 2016).

In addition, the P-value of 0.11 for gender towards acrolect is less than the significant level, gender affects the choice of refusal strategies used by ESL learners towards acrolect. However, the p-values of .842 and .827 for mesolect and basilect respectively, are both greater than the significant level. Therefore, gender does not affect the choice of refusal strategies used by ESL towards mesolect and basilect. Since acrolect is approximately closer to the RP pronunciation, this may explain why there is always a deviation in the acrolect variety.

The acrolect accent has been accorded with prestige and is often associated with American culture. Received pronunciation, (an approximation of the acrolect accent), are always perceived more highly in terms of "status" and "competence". While "non-standard" accents, (like mesolect and basilect), are often scored higher in terms of solidarity qualities (Honey, 1988 in Coulmas, 1998 p. 6). This may somehow explain why in refusing the acrolect speaker, the status of the accent is also reciprocated in the way the interlocutor declines the offer, invitation or requests of the acrolect speaker.

On the other hand, the Filipino ESL learners would most likely be indirect to mesolect and basilect speakers because they resemble the accent of the respondents. Honey (1988, in Coulmas, 1998) proposes that the speaker's accent signals the value system that they identify with. When talking to a Filipino-sounding English speaker, respondents tend to keep the value of solidarity by being "indirect" in their refusals. Since directness is a characteristic of American culture (Zhang, 2011), preference of direct refusals would be contrary to the social expectations set by non-standard RP speech communities like the Philippines. Enriquez (1977) asserts that Filipinos has much regard for others and that they value smooth interpersonal relationships, causing others to be offended (Hunt, Espiritu, Quisimbing, & Green, 1988).

On the other hand, this may also agree with the findings of Hedayatnejad, Maleki and Mehrizi (2016) where they did not find any significant difference between male and female refusal realizations.

Conclusions

The results suggest that the choice of refusal strategy may be influenced by the accent of the speaker. Refusal strategies may also vary among different social status relationships and gender.

First, it was found that the indirect refusal strategies were preferred in refusing offers, requests and invitations to speakers of different lectal groups. Generally, Filipinos are generally indirect in their choice of refusal strategies because they value self-esteem and face. Hunt, Espiritu, Quisimbing and Green (1998) highlighted that Filipinos avoid putting their face and self-esteem at stake. Since refusal will post risks (Eslami, 2010) on a Filipino's face and self-esteem, they would rather be indirect in their refusals. In a closer look, students refuse more directly to the acrolect speaker. This may be due to the set of perceptions and attitudes they have towards the accent and language. Since acrolect accent is closer to RP, students have the tendency to reflect the attitudes expected by the American-like speaker.

Second, the study revealed that the differences in the use of refusal strategies is only significant towards the mesolect and basilect speakers. This supports the previous finding that students would most likely refuse the mesolect and basilect speakers indirectly most of the time. However, it does not affect them that much whether they refuse the acrolect speaker direct or indirectly. The indirectness of the Filipino ESL learners is more socially acceptable in the Philippines. As previously mentioned, a non-RP speakers, mesolect and basilect speakers, are often regarded with accents that foster solidarity (Honey, 1988 in Coulmas, 1998). Thus, in using indirect refusal strategies one would be able to maintain relationships and identity with the group.

Third, it was found that social status affects the refusal strategies used by the students. This is supported by most cross-cultural studies conducted on refusals where social status relationship is concerned (Chojimah, 2015; Tuncer, 2016; Montero, 2015, Shisavan&Sharifian, 2016). This is not surprising especially in the Philippine context where respect is deemed important to keep one's face and self-esteem (Hunt, Espiritu, Quisimbing& Green,1998). A trait that has been passed on to Filipinos since Spanish colonization. \

In terms of gender, only female respondents employed direct refusal strategies towards the acrolect speaker. The rest of the lectal speakers were refused indirectly. Again, the indirectness of the refusals may be attributed to the face-work common among Filipinos. The directness of American females were noted in other refusal studies conducted by Moaveni (2014). Although Filipino females were expected to be indirect, in cases where foreign-sounding speaker is concerned, they accommodate and reciprocate the values and expectations of the speaker.

Finally, the Filipino ESL learners were consistent in terms of how they refuse towards acrolect speaker. This means that students are more likely aware of the values and expectations of the speaker towards them as interlocutors. It is also possible that the

participants of the study who are more likely part of the post-millenials are more aware of the cultures and values often attached to RP accents.

Implication to Language Teaching

This present study has shown that the act of refusing an offer, invitation, suggestion and opinion is a difficult task since it demands good communicative and intercultural competence. These are necessary to maintain good relationship between the speaker and interlocutor/s amidst refusal. The results of the study implied that indeed, gender, social status and accent trigger different refusal strategies among ESL students. This discovery suggests that ESL teachers have important roles to play to teach ESL learners the appropriateness of the different refusal strategies depending on the context, participants and situations. By doing such, ESL students would better understand the concept of the different refusal strategies and the refusal markers that can improve the quality of their sociolinguistic competence in L2. In addition, this study implies that ESL teachers need to include classroom activities that deal with real-life situations which require students to refuse and to perform different speech acts in an L2. In doing such, teachers can guide them to be more sensitive in the different environments and communication participants. The findings also imply that something has to be done in the preparation of the learning materials in the different schools. The results suggest that educational/instructional materials in the teaching and learning of the English as a second language must include discussions that can better improve the pragmatic competence of the learners.

The researchers encourage other scholars to engage on similar study of much larger scale and of an expanded framework to affirm or negate the findings provided in this investigation.

References

Abarghoui, M.A. (2012). A comparative study of refusal strategies used by Iranians and Australians. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 2*(11), 2349-2445

Austin, J.L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. London: Oxford University Press.

Beebe, L., Takahashi, T., &Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals. In R.C. Scarcella, E. Anderson, and S. Krashen (Eds.), *Developing communication competence in a second language* (pp. 55-73). New York: Newbury House.

Billmyer, K., & Varghese, M. (2000). Investigating instrument-based pragmatic variability: Effects of enhancing discourse completion tests. *Applied Linguistics*, *21*(4), 517-552.

Boonkongsaen, N. (2013). Filipinos and Thais saying "no" in English. *Journal of Humanities Regular, 16* (1), 23-40.

Brown, P. (2015). *Language and politeness*. Max Planck Institute of Psycholinguistics. The Netherlands: Elsevier Ltd.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). Politeness: Some universals in language usage. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. Specific pages retrieved from http://books.google.com

Bulaeva, M. (2016). Multivariate analysis of refusal strategies in request situation: The case of Russian JFL learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 7*(5), 829-840.

Cohen, A. (1983). Speech Acts. In S. McKay & N. Hornerberger (Eds.) (1996), *Sociolinguistics and Language Teaching* (pp. 383-416). UK: Cambridge University Press.

Chojimah, N. (2015). Refusal and politeness strategies in relation to social status: A case of face-threatening act among Indonesian university students. *Theory and practice in Language Studies, 5*(5), 906-918.

Dayag, D.T. (2007). Exploring the intelligibility of Philippine English.*Asian Englishes, 10*(1), 4-23.

Demirkol, T. (2016). How do we say "no" in English? *Procedia—social act and behavioral sciences, 232*, 729-799.

Eslami, Z. (2010). How to develop appropriate refusal strategies. In A. Martinez-Flor& E. Uso-Juan (Eds.) (2010), *Speech Act Performance: Theoretical, empirical ad methodological issues* (pp. 217-236). Amsterdam John Benjamins Publishing.

Enriquez, V. G. (1977). Filipino psychology in the third world. *Philippine Journal of Psychology, 10*(1), 3-18.

Felix-Brasdefer, J. (2006). Linguistic politeness in Mexico: Refusal strategies among male speakers of Mexican-Spanish. *Journal of Pragmatics, 38*, 2158-2187. DOI: 10.1016/j.pragma.2006.05.004.

Gass, S. & Houck, N. (1999). Interlanguage refusals: a cross-cultural study of Japanese-English. New York: Mouton de Gruyter.

Goffman, E. (1967). *Interaction ritual: Essays on Face-to-face behavior*. New York: Pantheon Books.

Gonzales, A. (1997). The history of English in the Philippines. In M.L.S. Bautista (ed.), *English is an Asian Language: The Philippine Context (Proceedings of the Conference held in Manila on August 2-3, 1996).* NSW, Australia: The Macquarie Library Pty Ltd. 25-40.

Grosjean, F. (1982). *Life with two languages: An introduction to bilingualism*. Harvard University Press.

Hassani, R., Mardani, M. &Dastjerdi, H.V. (2011). A comparative study of refusals: Gender distinction and social status in focus. *Language Society and Culture*, 37-46.

Hedayatnejad, F., Maleki, R., &Mehrizi, A. (2016). The effect of social status and gender on realization of refusal of suggestion among Iranian EFL intermediate learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 7*(1), 99-109.

Honey, J. (1988). Sociophonology. In F. Coulmas (Ed.). (1998), *The Handbook of Sociolinguistics*. Blackwell Reference Online.

Hunt, C. , Espiritu, S. C., Quisumbing, L. R., & Green, J. (1998). *Sociology in the Philippine setting* (5th ed.). Mandaluyong, The Philippines: SIBS PublishingHouse, Inc.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2002). Pragmatic Development in a Second Language. Language Learning: *A Journal of Research in Language Studies, 5*2, 1.

Kitamura, N. (n.d.). Adapting Brown and Levinson's 'Politeness' Theory to the analysis of casual conversation. *Proceedings of ALS2k, the 2000 Conference of the Australian Linguistic Society,* 1-8.

Llamzon, T. (1997). The phonology of Philippine English. In M.L.S. Bautista (Ed.), *English is an Asian Language: The Philippine Context.* Sydney: The Macquarie Library Pty. Ltd., pp. 41-84.

Lucas, R., & Sicam, F.P. (2016). Language attitudes of adolescent Filipino learners towards English and Filipino. *Asian Englishes, 18*(2), 109-128.

Moaveni, H. (2014). A study of refusal strategies by American and international students at an American university. *Cornerstone: A collection of scholarly and creative works*. Minessota State University: Mankota.

Mohammad, G., Alireza, B. &Shirin, M. (2013). Investigating cross-linguistic differences in refusal speech act among native Persian and English speakers.*International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning, 2* (4), 49-63.

Montero, R. L. (2015). Most common refusal strategies used by students of English teaching as a foreign language. *Revista de LenguasModernas 23*, 137-148.

Morrow, C. K. (1995). The pragmatic effects of instruction on ESL learners' production of complaint and refusalspeech acts. Unpublished Doctoral dissertation, University of New York at Buffalo, Amherst, NY

Nguyen, T.P. (2006). Cross-cultural Pragmatics: refusals of requests by Australian native speakers of English and Vietnamese learners of English. The University of Queensland,.

Nhu, D. T. T (2010). *A contrastive analysis of invitation's refusal strategies in American and Vietnamese* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Ho Chi Minh City University of Pedagogy, Vietnam.

Nureddeen, F. A. (2008). Cross cultural pragmatics: Apology strategies in Sudanese Arabic. *Journal of pragmatics, 40*(2), 279-306.

Ochs, E. (1996). Linguistic resources for socializing humanity. In J.Gumperz& S. Levinson (Eds.), *Rethinking Linguistic Relativity* (pp. 401-431). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ong, P.K., Liao, V., &Alimon, R. (2009). Effects of speaker accent on students' learning and speaker rating: a replication. *Philippine ESL Journal 2*, 51-69.

Ou, S. (2016). Perception of English lexical stress with a marked pitch accent by native speakers of Mandarin. *Taiwan Journal of Linguistics 14*(20), 1-31.

Roberts, J. (1992). Face threatening acts and politeness theory: Contrasting speeches from supervisory conferences. *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 7* (3), 287-301.

Searle, J.R. (1969). Speech acts—An essay in the philosophy of language. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Shishavan, H. B. &Sharifian, F. (2016). The refusal speech act in cross-cultural perspective: A study of Iranian English-language learners and Anglo-Australian speakers. *Language and Communication, 47*, 75-88

Tayao, M. L. (2004). The evolving study of Philippine English phonology.*World Englishes (Special Issue on Philippine English: Tensions and Transitions*) 23:1.77-90

Tickle, A. L. (1991). Japanese refusals in a business setting. *Papers in Applied Linguistics, 6*(2), 84-108.

Tuncer, H. (2016). Refusal strategies used by Turkish university instructors of English. *Novitas—ROYAL (Research on youth and language)*, 10(q). 71-90.

Zhang, J. (2011). Linguistic, ideological, and cultural issues in Chinese and English argumentative writing. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 2* (1), 73-80.

Appendix A: Survey Questionnaire Copy / Discourse Completion Test Questionnaire
(Patterned from the study of Moaveni, 2014)

Gender: _____ Age: _____ Native language: _____

Educational Strand: (___) STEM (____) ABM (____) HE (____) ICT

How long have you been studying English? (Please mark one.)

(___) less than a year
(___) 1-2 years
(___) 3-5 years
(___) 5-10 years
(___) more than 10 years

How long have you lived in the Philippines?

(___) less than a year
(___) 1-2 years
(___) 3-5 years
(___) 5-10 years
(___) more than 10 years

Modified Discourse Completion Test

*The one in blue are audio recordings and will not appear in the actual DCT.

Situation A: Speaker (Club President - Basilect); You are a new member of the organization.

Recording: Since the member assigned to watch the booth is not available, would you mind taking over?

Your Answer: _____

Situation B. Speaker (Teacher - Basilect); You are his/her student.

Recording: I know of a part-time job that fits your qualifications. Would you be interested to take it?

Your Answer: _____

Situation C. Speaker (New Club Member - Acrolect); You are the club president.

Recording: I would like to suggest that we change the protocol in submitting reports to the student council. Can we possibly do something about it?

Your Answer: _____

Situation D. Speaker (Student -Acrolect); You are the teacher.

Recording: I know it's been a long day for you sir/ma'am and you are tired from all the work. Can we possibly discuss my project over a cup of coffee where you will be more comfortable?

Your Answer: _____

Situation E. Speaker (Club Member - Mesolect); You are also a member of the same club.

Recording: I know you are quite busy but can you accommodate another task for the club?

Your Answer: _____

Situation F. Speaker (Classmate – Mesolect); You are his/her classmate

Recording: I know it is difficult to answer the items without a copy. Why don't you use my book later after I finish?

Your Answer: _____

Situation G. Speaker (Principal- Mesolect); You are a student.

Recording: It's my birthday and only a few people can actually come and celebrate. Why don't you join us for dinner?

Your Answer: _____

Situation H. Speaker (House Owner – Mesolect); You are the lodger.

Recording: Our neighbor is inviting everyone for a despedida party. Why don't we attend? Everyone's invited.

Your Answer: _____

Situation I. Speaker (Student – Mesolect); You are the principal.

Recording: The judge for the essay writing competition told us that he will not be available later during the activity. Can you fill in the spot for him sir?

Your Answer: _____

Situation J. Speaker (Lodger - Mesolect); You are the house owner.

Recording: The common bathroom has been very messy lately. Can we set stricter rules for its use?

Your Answer: _____

Situation K. Speaker (Teacher- Basilect); You are his/her co-teacher.

Recording: I have to attend a conference during our meeting with the principal. Can you do the minutes for me?

Your Answer: _____

Situation L. Speaker (Friend – Basilect); You are his/her roommate.

Recording: It's my sibling's 18th birthday. I asked if you can come over. He/She said yes, what do you think?

Your answer: _____

Situation M. Speaker (Parent – Acrolect); You are his/her child.

Recording: The compensation in this company is really competitive. I suggest you apply there.

Your answer: _____

Situation N. Speaker (Village leader – Acrolect); You are a student taking a community service course.

Recording: Tourist guides here are having a hard time speaking in English to foreigner visitors . Why don't you run an English course in our village?

Your answer: _____

Situation O. Speaker (Child – Basilect); You are the parent.

Recording: I would like to be with my classmates after the prom. Can I stay with them until 12 midnight?

Your answer: _____

Situation P. Speaker (Student taking community service - Basilect); You are the village leader.

Recording: We would like to initiate a project here in your community. Can I possibly set an appointment next week?

Your answer: _____

Situation Q. Speaker (Parent – Acrolect); You are another parent.

Recording: I need to travel over the weekend. I will not be able to attend the Parent-Teacher Conference. Can you get my child's card for me?

Your answer:_____

Situation R. Speaker (Friend - Acrolect); You are his/her friend.

Recording: I have difficulty understanding the topic. Can you let me copy your assignment?

Your answer: _____

APPENDIX B. Questions for the Interview

Opening questions

1. Please introduce yourself.
2. What are your areas of interest?

Introductory questions

3. When do you think you should refuse an invitation, an offer, a request, or a suggestion?
4. Do you feel uncomfortable when you refuse to accept an invitation, an offer, a request, or a suggestion? Why?
5. Do you feel annoyed or disrespected when you receive a refusal? Why?

Transition questions

6. To what extent is it important for you to use direct or indirect strategies while giving refusals?
7. Have you ever accepted an invitation, offer, suggestion, or request despite your willingness to refuse it? What was the reason?
8. Have you ever refused an invitation, offer, suggestion or a request despite your willingness to accept it? What was the reason?

Key questions

9. When receiving an invitation, an offer, a request, or a suggestion from the following people, who among the following people is the most difficult to refuse?
   _____ Colleague / Classmate
   _____ Professor / Boss
10. Which social and cultural norms do you think affect your production of refusals in English?
11. Does accent affect the way you interact with other people? In what way?
12. Of all the speakers you heard, who do you like/dislike the most? Why?

Ending question

13. Do you have any further comments on what we talked about today?

APPENDIX C. Description of DCT

Social Status Relationship	Social Roles		Addresser's Lectal Group	Situations
	Addresser	Addresee		
LHSS	New Club Member	Club President	BASILECT	A club member has to refuse an immediate assignment from the club president to watch the club booth. **(Situation A)**
	Student	Teacher		A student has to refuse a part-time job offer given by his/her teacher. **(Situation B)**
	Student	Principal	MESOLECT	A student has to refuse an invitation to birthday party from the principal. **(Situation G)**
	Lodger	House Owner		The lodger has to refuse an invitation to a despedida party from the house owner. **(Situation H)**
	Child	Parent	ACROLECT	The child has to refuse his/her parent who is asking him/her to apply to a particular company. **(Situation M)**
	Student Taking a Community service course	Village leader		The student has to refuse the request of the village leader who is asking the group to give an English course for the tourist guides in the village. **(Situation N).**
HLSS (Acrolect)	Club President	New Club Member	ACROLECT	The club president has to refuse to grant the suggestion of the new club member. **(Situation C)**
	Teacher	Student		The teacher has to refuse the student's invitation to discuss his/her project outside school premises. **(Situation D)**
				The principal has to refuse

	Principal	Student	MESOLECT	a student who is requesting for him/her to judge in an essay writing competition. **(Situation I)**
	House Owner	Lodger		The house owner has to refuse the lodger in implementing stricter rules for the common bathroom. **(Situation J).**
	Parent	Child	BASILECT	The parent has to refuse the child who is requesting to stay with his/her friends after the prom. **(Situation O)**
	Village leader	Student Taking a Community service course		The village leader has to refuse the student's request for an appointment. **(Situation P)**
ESS (Mesolect)	Club member	Club member	MESOLECT	The club member has to refuse to accommodate another task given to him/her by another club member. **(Situation E).**
	Student	Classmate		The student has to refuse his/her classmate's offer to use his/her book. **(Situation F)**
	Teacher	Teacher	BASILECT	The teacher has to refuse his/her co-teacher who is asking him/her to write the minutes of the meeting. **(Situation K).**
	Student	Roommate		The student has to refuse his/her roommate's invitation to go to his/her sibling's party. **(Situation L).**
	Parent	Parent	ACROLECT	The parent has to refuse another parent's request to get his/her child's report card. **(Situation Q)**
	Student	Friend		The student has to refuse his/her friend's request to copy his/her assignment. **(Situation R).**

**Legend: B- Basilect, M-Mesolect, A-Acrolect*

About the Authors

Annie Mae C. Berowa is a graduate student of Doctor of Philosophy in Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University-Manila, Philippines. She received her Master of Arts in English Language Teaching in 2012 and Bachelor of Secondary Education Major in English in 2004 from the Mindanao State University, Main Campus.

Henelsie B. Mendoza is a faculty in the Department of English, Colegio de San Juan de Letran, Intramuros Manila, Philippines, where she teaches language and literature courses in the senior high school level. She is currently pursuing her doctorate degree in Applied Linguistics in De La Salle University-Manila, Philippines. She received her master's degree in English in 2012 and undergraduate degree in Secondary Education major in English from Ateneo de Davao University.

Implicit and Explicit knowledge of Korean learners in the Philippines across contextual shift

Selwyn A. Cruz[1] and Jose Cristina M. Pariña[2]

[1]*De La Salle –College of St. Benilde*

[2]*De La Salle University, Manila*

Abstract

Stemming from issue of migration for education, the study explored the language learning experience of Korean university students who come to the Philippines for education. Specifically, it documented the changes in the students' implicit and explicit knowledge that occurred in the preactional until the actional phase of their learning journey in a study abroad context. Using a free written task and a grammaticality judgment test, the study found that majority of the learners was able to access their implicit knowledge for free production tasks and their explicit knowledge for grammaticality judgment tests. The said findings confirm the effectiveness of Ellis' (2005) instruments in measuring implicit and explicit knowledge and the existence of the said types of knowledge. It was also found that statistically, the differences were significant but not correlated.

Keywords: Implicit Knowledge. Explicit Knowledge. Grammaticality Judgment. Preactional. Actional.

Introduction

In 2012, the London-based news agency British Broadcasting Company (BBC) tagged the Philippines as the World's budget English teacher (McGeown, 2012) which seconded a Philippine Bureau of Immigration report that more than 24,000 foreigners applied for study permits in 2011. The figure went to show that there were approximately 61,000 foreigners enrolled in Philippine schools. The BBC report adds that the foreigners studying in the Philippines were from Iran, Libya, Brazil, Russia, Japan, Taiwan, Korea as well as those from, North Africa, South America and the Middle East. Although the number is also influenced by learners who have applied for graduate and post-graduate courses, it is claimed that the dramatic increase in the number of foreign learners who have immigrated to the Philippines is attributed to the country's relatively cheaper cost of education. It is said that a learner may need only $500 (£313) for a 60-hour class which is about a third of the price of

Corresponding Author's Affiliation: De La Salle University, 2401 Taft Ave., Manila, 1004 , Philippines.

Email: jose.cristina.parina@dlsu.edu.ph

an equivalent course in the United States or Canada. On a more crucial perspective, the Filipinos' use of English as the medium of instruction in Philippine schools is reported to be the primary reason of the diaspora. Despite adversities such as bureaucracy, corruption and living conditions, the trend in foreign education migrant influx is consistently increasing. A huge percentage of these learners come from South Korea.

With the influx of the Koreans in the Philippines, it is noted that that EFL learners are able to use the target language in and outside the classroom conversations due to the multi-ethnic mix of people around them. On another note, EFL learners are able to receive a more consistent and well-developed instruction and course development since the teachers are natives of the ESL context environment.

One important facet of language learners is their ability to use the appropriate type of grammar knowledge (Gustilo, 2013; Gustilo & Magno, 2015). In the field of second language acquisition, the implicit and explicit knowledge are known to be the type of knowledge that learners possess. Hence, the study focuses on the two types of grammar knowledge used by Koreans in presented situations while on a study abroad context.

In language education, differing assumptions about the nature of language representation and its promotion motivated different teaching traditions. Traditional grammar translation instruction and the cognitive code method popular in the 1960s and 1970s capitalized on the formal operational abilities of older children and adults to think and act in a rule-governed way. These explicit methods were motivated by the belief that perception and awareness of L2 rules necessarily precedes their use. Thus, explicit knowledge is a kind of knowledge that can be acquired consciously by learners, which means learners know the knowledge. Explicit language knowledge consists of knowledge related to language including general language knowledge and specific grammar knowledge.

Implicit knowledge, on the other hand, refers to tacit knowledge. During the process of acquiring mother tongue, children unconsciously master the characteristics and regulation of mother tongue, and knowledge concerning mother tongue implies implicit knowledge. Sun Ju (2006) defines implicit knowledge as occasionally acquired, implicitly stored, automatically used knowledge.

It can be observed that the distinction of implicit and explicit knowledge have been concerned with the development of the two types of knowledge as well as how each can be of aid in the development of the other. There is also an observed disagreement in the conceptualization of both types of knowledge (Ellis & Shintani, 2014); and this reflection is echoed by Sun, Matthews and Lane (2007) in suggesting that both types of knowledge differ on a number of characteristics.

The effectiveness of explicit instruction in developing explicit and implicit knowledge of a second language has been intensively studied during the past decades. However, the extent to which explicit instruction can lead to implicit knowledge is still a matter of debate. Ellis (2005, 2009) argues that this debate is partly due to the difficulty of operationalizing implicit knowledge on the one hand, and as its direct consequence, not having appropriate tests to measure it on the other. An important matter to be discussed in this study is how to operationalize the constructs of L2 implicit and explicit knowledge.

Hence, both the explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge have a role to improve the level of language; the two complement each other and neither of them can be missing. When learning conditions are favorable, these two forms of learning can be transformed into each other, and they can be both rational and intuitive. Pedagogically, only the two kinds of learning mechanisms are organically integrated in the most EFL contexts.

Taking into consideration Ellis' (2009) call for more studies on learners' implicit and explicit knowledge, it may be timely to explore this area among EFL learners such as Koreans in a study abroad context and focus on how it changes over time. Andringa and Rebuschat (2015) add that studies on differences in implicit learning is at its infancy. Also, in response to Ellis' (2008) challenge to validate existing instruments to measure the two types of knowledge, the current study adopts Ellis' (2005) instrumentation. The present study also responds to Ellis' suggestion that there is a need to apply triangulation method to assess the interrelations of the concerned variables. Finally, implicit knowledge is known to be at the core of automated language processing and that the development of these types of representations is the ultimate goal of L2 acquisition (Doughty, 2003). With the Koreans' development of the implicit knowledge of English as they take formal education in the Philippines, it is vital to investigate the depth of learning, and so, the following questions were sought: (1) How has the implicit and explicit knowledge of Korean students changed after the EFL to ESL shift? (2) Is there a significant difference between implicit and explicit knowledge in the EFL and ESL contexts?

Methods

Participants

Croker (2009) mentions that a mixed method study is carried out with a group of learners as the research participants; in the same way, Ellis (2002) recommends that learners with considerable exposure to grammar lessons shall take a grammar test to measure the implicit and explicit knowledge. Given the said parameters and the nature of the study, higher education students from South Korea who migrated to the Philippines were considered to participate in the data collection. For convenience, the students come mostly from Seoul and nearby cities. Around 70-80% of them come from government high schools; however, diversity of the socio-educational backgrounds were also targeted. Most of the student participants originated from major cities such as Suwon, Gimpo and Pyongtaek, but mostly come from Seoul, city capital of South Korea, acting as the center for business and commerce. Prior to the Koreans' arrival in the Philippines, it was verified that all of the participants was their first time to study in the country.

Instruments and Data Sets

One hundred twenty copies of the three questionnaires and a grammar test were distributed to the target participants. Compared to other quantitative studies of the same nature, the number of the sample is relatively smaller. This is due to the probability that the researcher would locate a certain percentage of would-be education migrants in the Philippines.

The interviews of eight participants were conducted after seeking their consent. The interviewees were requested to participate in the interview to share their experiences of learning English in relation to the context of the study. Thirty students were requested to participate in the interview after the 2nd round of questionnaire. Among the initial eight targeted participants, only seven were either agreeable in participating or available for the interview. The interviews were conducted in August 2016 after they have reached the 10 to 12-week period or their actional phase. The procedure of the selection was based on the premise that the results of their quantitative data were salient. Ten students were chosen for each psycholinguistic structure on the basis of the remarkable and lack or absence of changes. The main purpose of the interviews was to find consistency in the quantitative findings. Further, it sought to obtain narratives regarding the learning experience of the students. Two sets of interviews were done in each time frame of the study, i.e. EFL and ESL. This two-fold procedure was done to describe the differences or similarities in the grammar knowledge in both periods.

To let the participants focus on meaning rather than on form, a free written task had to be administered. In the said task, the participants were not required to write fast. Instead, they were instructed to finish their writing within or in at least thirty minutes. According to Hu (2002), this method prevents off-line monitoring. They were instructed to write only one draft and not to revise it after they finished composing. Additionally, they were not allowed to consult any reference materials during their writing so as to make sure that all target uses are generated by the participants themselves. The prompts for the essay were presented before the task. The handwritten compositions are typed, and accuracy is ascertained. The writing prompts for the preactional stage is their language learning experience in Korea and the actional stage is concerned with their language learning experience in the Philippines. The scores were rated on a 10-point basis in order to quantify the outputs. A marking of 9 or 10 is considered 'excellent'; 7-8 is 'very good'; 5-6 is 'good' 3-4 is 'fair '; and 1-2 is poor. The same ratings were used for statistical interpretation.

Additionally, a two 20-item grammaticality judgment tests (GJT) were written for the data gathering. The nature of the test is based on Ellis' (2005) proposed instrument in measuring the explicit knowledge of the participants. The grammatical aspects were based on Bautista's (2000) and Bauman's (2010) studies that identified the features of Philippine English and Korean English. Table 1 shows the details of the said features. It should be noted that the questions were also used in Cruz (2013); thus, it can be said that the GJT has been verified for validity and reliability. However, since two phases are involved in the study, it was thought that it would be wise to produce a second set of questionnaire instead of reutilizing the first one. This eliminates possible familiarity with the first set of question which defeats the purpose of testing the respondents' explicit knowledge. The test made the participants judge the correctness and deviance of the sentence based on grammar. To allow testing of their knowledge of the deviances, only four grammatical sentences were included. The test also asked the participants to indicate whether they used their feeling or knowledge of rule in answering each item. The answers would be verified by the qualitative data. Finally, compared to the instruments for the measurement of the ideal self and ought to self, the GJT was written in English because the grammatical focus is English.

Table 1

Grammatical aspects measured in the study

Structure	Examples of learners' mistakes
Article	I want to encounter *the* different people in different country(ies).
Preposition	I have a lot of friends whom I can learn *on*.
Subject-verb agreement	Some also *says* that cheating is part of the "High School Life".
	I am happy because I *finish* answering all the difficult test(s) I encountered.
Transitive-Intransitive verbs	I hope you will *visit* again here.

To properly measure the scores, a score of 17- 20 is considered 'excellent; 13-16 is 'very good'; 9-12 is 'good'; 5- 8 is 'fair; and 1-4 is 'poor'. The same ratings were used for statistical interpretation.

Data Analyses

For the statistical treatment of the present study, dependent T-test was used to determine if there would be significant changes in the implicit and explicit knowledge of the Korean learners. The dependent t-test compares the means of two related groups to detect whether there are any statistically significant differences between these means. In the study, the groups are the Koreans in the EFL and ESL contexts. The means of the results of the sample's FWT and GJT in the preactional and actional phases were compared to determine the significance of the changes. It has been observed that the 30 minute-Free Writing Test generated different written outputs. Apparently, the participants constitute variation in writing fluency and length of the output. Since it was a free writing task, the participants had freedom in choosing what to write and how much to write within the time framework set.

Results and Discussion

Resulting from the FWT results, Table 2 discusses the development of the Korean students' implicit knowledge of English. As previously discussed in this study, the possession of implicit knowledge is an important benchmark in determining the learner's mastery of the second language since it elevates grammatical rules and linguistic conventions as innate.

Table 2

Implicit Knowledge of the Korean Students after the EFL to ESL shift

RATING	EFL		ESL	
	F	%	F	%
EXCELLENT (9-10)	0	0	0	0
VERY GOOD (7-8)	0	0	85	75.8
GOOD (5-6)	77	64.2	29	24.2
FAIR (3-4)	43	35.8	0	0
POOR (1-2)	0	0	0	0
Total	120	100	120	100

The need for the explicit recollection and express mastery of English's grammatical rules runs contrary to the learners' very high implicit knowledge scores on both the EFL and ESL stages, pointing at their likely unawareness of their development:

> *Whenever I write, I remember grammar lessons I learned in the academy or in school. There are a lot of them so I am always confused that's why I need to master all of them.*

From responses such as above, and the apparent disparities with the quantitative scores, it could be gleaned that the respondents' development of implicit knowledge has either eluded explanation in its entirety or has been superseded by anxieties.

On the other hand, when learners allude to their implicit knowledge of English, it is to remark that such knowledge is insufficient and requires a better grasp of the explicit rules of the language:

> *I think grammar is important for us Koreans so I need to remember it when I write. But I do not remember everything that is why I have lot and lots of mistakes.*

With a sum of 120 respondents, it is very noticeable how, even at the outset, the learners have high implicit knowledge of English. An overwhelming majority, 99% or 119 respondents, has been accorded a score of 7 or higher signifying a very good or even an excellent implicit knowledge of the language. Responses graded as "above average" constituted many of the responses relative to those who were scored as "above average". A similar trend in the overall responses is observed during the ESL phase. This reflects that learners still have a high implicit grasp of English. Delving into the processed results, we see a small but still significant increase of "very high" scores, from a 21% during the EFL phase to a 28%.

In turn, Table 3 unveils the explicit knowledge of Korean students. As explored elsewhere in

this study, explicit knowledge is knowledge which can be expressed through descriptive language conscious of the linguistic rules and conventions of English. A free written test is applied and the outputs are graded against set criteria.

During the EFL stage, most of the respondents, numbering 77 individuals or 64% of the total sample size, have earned a "fair" score. In addition, 23% of the respondents have a "good" understanding of linguistic norms and grammatical fragments. Finally, a good 10% of learners have exhibited an inadequate understanding of explicit knowledge. ESL learners, however, have a different and overall improved comprehension of explicit knowledge which reflects on their scores indicated below. The improvement is stark, with the majority of respondents, at 60% or 72 individuals, now being granted "good" scores coupled with the absence of "poor" results. To further highlight the improvement, 8% of the learners now have a "very good" rating when their EFL selves failed to reach such a mark.

Table 3

Explicit Knowledge of the Korean Students after the EFL to ESL shift

RATING	EFL		ESL	
	F	%	F	%
EXCELLENT (17-20)	0	0	0	0
VERY GOOD (13-16)	4	3	10	8
GOOD (9-12)	27	23	72	60
FAIR (5-8)	77	64	38	32
POOR (1-4)	12	10	0	0
Total	120	100	120	100

On the matter of the explicit knowledge of English, a student shares how the need to explicitly master the grammatical rules of a language has been imparted during his education in Korean, and even before he began studying English.

> *Since elementary, our teachers taught us grammar. Everything is all about grammar. As Korean, we need to memorize the rules because that's the character of grammar.*

The students also reported that they are aware that they use grammar knowledge and at the same time admit their lack of competence in the said area.

> *I am not too confident about my grammar skills but that is what I use when answering that kind of test. I am sure I have seen those kinds of questions before, but I am still not good, that is why my score is not good.*

> *My grammar is not really good but it is helpful if I use it in grammar tests. I remember what my teacher tells me because if I forget these rules I fail my course.*

The quantitative and qualitative data demonstrated changes in the implicit and explicit knowledge of grammar of the Koreans. In particular, the explicit knowledge of the Koreans slightly improved based on their scores in the grammar test during the actional phase. Additionally, their implicit knowledge also improved with reference to content of the free writing task. A prominent finding of the study is the consistent change in both types of knowledge from the preactional to actional stages, and this finding was backed by the Koreans' interviews.

To take into account the changes that emerged in the implicit and explicit knowledge of the Koreans, it was necessary to revisit their educational experience. It is possible that the learners' implicit knowledge in the actional stage was statistically higher than that of the preactional due to the repeated tasks they had undergone in the class and in certain instances, informal education. A huge amount of learning tasks in Philippine education are focused on writing, and Koreans in mixed ability classes are undoubtedly obliged to take part in doing the same task. Another possible reason for this occurrence is the internalization of knowledge by the learners. Ellis (2009) mentioned about full internalization of implicit knowledge such as in SLA; however, constraints such as age may come as a hindrance in achieving it.

On the other hand, the difference in the explicit knowledge of the learners in a span of approximately three months may be caused by the explicit instructions given by teachers in their classes. Typical syllabi of English courses in the pre-K12 curriculum in colleges and universities contain lessons that focus on grammar. It is then possible that explicit learning segued to the development of the students' explicit knowledge. Based on their interview, however, it was noticed that not all of what they explained to be wrong in the sentences were accurate. Sorace (1985 as cited in Ellis, 2009) postulates that a learner may have an idea about the ungrammaticality of a sentence but may not be very precise about it, but notes that as proficiency improves, the accurate notion on rules follows.

Meanwhile, based on the item analysis, it appears that the errors were mostly focused on prepositions, articles and transitive verbs which are in contrast to previous findings (e.g. Bautista, 2000) that subject-verb agreement and tenses are problematic for English L2 learners. This development could be due to the fact that because of the prevalence of errors on subject-verb agreement and their existence in almost all sentences, it has become imperative for language curricula to include the said lessons. As a result, the Koreans in the current study have perhaps been oriented with the said grammatical rules.

To answer RQ2, Table 4 establishes the significance of the difference of the learners' implicit and explicit knowledge of the learners in both the EFL and ESL stages. The data presented below does not only reiterate the previously recorded occurrence of differences in the Korean learners' knowledge of English but affirms that these differences are also valid and acceptable for this research.

Table 4

Difference of Implicit and Explicit Knowledge in the ESL and EFL contexts

Knowledge	Mean/SD		Computed	P-Value	Decision	Conclusion
	Before	After				
Implicit Knowledge	4.86/.75	7.04/.73	25.59	0	Reject Ho	Significant
Explicit Knowledge	8.03/2.40	9.48/2.05	7.88	.000	Reject Ho	Significant

*significant at 0.05

Differences in the FWT

The outputs of the students in the FWT demonstrated the changes and the non-changes of their use of implicit knowledge. The output of Student 20 and Student 116 were randomly picked for the purpose of discussion on how changes occurred in their use of implicit knowledge. Student 20's score in the FWT in the preactional period was marked as "poor" both by the researcher and the inter-rater. In the actional stage, the output was rated as "good" by the researcher and "moderate" by the inter-rater. It was agreed that it was to be marked as "good" based on few considerations. Evidently, the implicit knowledge of Student 20 has improved on the basis of the markings. It has to be noted that the basis of implicit knowledge is dependent mostly on the overall meaning of the essay. As the scores suggest, the student has developed written skills with focus on meaning over form, thus improving his implicit knowledge.

Comparing the output of S20 in the preactional and actional stage, several changes can be noticed in terms of the criteria initially set in the study. In the preactional stage, it can be seen that there was development of idea since it focused on a central theme. The essay's theme was on the learner's English language learning experience in high school and the prompt was evidently addressed. In terms of the organization, there were sudden shifts in almost all sentences that made the essay quite jumpy. For instance, although the second sentence elaborates the learner's classmates and how he assesses their English speaking skills, it is proceeded by a sentence that talks about the student's teacher's residency in the United States. The essay also proved to be flawed in terms of its providing support to its main idea. Each sentence appeared to have independent thoughts that no further elaboration was provided. The overall communicability of the essay was somewhat shown as one can obtain a grasp of the learner's undertaking in learning English in his hometown. This assessment is still justifiable despite the erroneous arrangement of words and phrases in the sentences In terms of grammar and mechanics, it may be safe to say that errors may be expected. The background of the students may be the primary reason for the said deviations. A common error would be the incorrect verb tenses. There were also errors on punctuation and capitalization as seen in the second and fourth sentences. One evident error is the incorrect word choice which can be seen in the second sentence as the student describes his age, and these errors may result in confusion for the readers.

When interviewed about their outputs, S20 and S116 validated the outcome of their free writing tasks. S20 acknowledges that he thought that his writing skills have remained almost the same

as he finds it a daunting task.

> *S20: Writing essays is really very hard. I cannot write long essays because I do not know what to put there sometimes. So I just write what I think is about the topic so that I can submit something to my teacher when I need to pass it.*

Meanwhile, S116 admits his assumption that he might have improved his writing skills. He owes his supposed progress to overwhelming load of schoolwork given to him in school.

> *When I started going to school here in Philippines, I wrote a lot of essays. Almost everyday or every week, we have to write something in different classes. I consider that as practice so I think I have improved even if I am here for only a short time.*

Based on the perspectives of Students 20 and 116, implicit knowledge was used by the students in the free writing task. With this finding, the learners were also asked on possible causes or sources of their use of implicit knowledge.

The changes in the explicit knowledge shows that there was a general increase in scores of the grammar test in the ESL shift which can be an indication that their grammar knowledge has improved with reference to their initial scores in the EFL phase. It should be noted that there was a different set of questions in both questionnaires; hence, the analysis does not focus on a per item basis but on a general perspective. All of the items in the EFL questionnaire were somewhat challenging for the learners, as there was no item in which at least 50% of the participants answered it correctly. Meanwhile, when the learners answered the ESL questionnaire, 12 of the 20 items incurred at least 50% correct responses.

According to the results of the GJT in the EFL context, more students got sentence number 10 correctly, and the grammatical aspect in the said sentence is subject-verb agreement. Several participants also found ease in identifying grammatical sentences as evident in sentences 7 and 12. Meanwhile, it appears that the learners had difficulty judging grammaticality of sentences with error in preposition and transitivity of verbs based on the turnout in sentences 19 and 20. The ESL context GJT appears to be a similar story. The easiest item for the participants was the item number 5 which is an indicative sentence with an error in tense. Also, more students were able to answer items 7 and 12, with a higher percentage compared to the EFL context, which were about subject-verb agreement and an error-free sentence. The most challenging part appears to be item number 20 which has an error in the use of article.

To determine their use of explicit knowledge, the participants were asked to declare if they used their feeling or grammar rule in analyzing the correctness of the sentences presented in the GJT. The Koreans indicated that in the EFL phase, they used their explicit knowledge 60-70% of the time. It was an entirely different story as they claimed to use their explicit knowledge 70-80% of the time that they answered the test. Based on the frequency count, the Koreans used their knowledge of grammar more than their use of feeling in both instances. The difference is that the number pertinent to the use of explicit knowledge is greater in the ESL stage compared to the EFL stage. It can be therefore theorized that the access of grammar knowledge is greater after exposure to formal education.

To verify the claims that they used their explicit knowledge, some of the students were asked

questions. Those with most number of utilization of explicit knowledge in the GJT were chosen. They were asked about what could have been the cause of errors in the sentences. In their responses, it could be deduced that the learners made an overall attempt to recall their knowledge of grammar. In both the EFL and ESL contexts, there were learners who showed ability to verbalize grammar awareness to a certain extent. It would be noticed that their rationalization is not comprehensive more especially during the EFL context.

When asked about the GJT for the ESL context, elicitation of grammar rules from the Koreans was easier compared to the EFL context interviews. The knowledge of grammar for some students, in some grammatical areas was more overt. There were also instances when it was noticeable that they could not fully verbalize the said rules, and all they did was give hints on the perceived errors. Some of the answers were directly targeted to the real error, and some do not perfectly describe the error.

Some of the responses also proved how the students seem to have no explicit knowledge of grammar. In the interview, there were instances that no acceptable rationalization was provided regarding their answers. This is particularly true when the learners were asked about the use of articles and transitive and intransitive verbs.

While the significant differences in the changes concerning the three variables have been acknowledged due to its preponderant nature, it may be wise to also explore possible explanation on the disestablished relationship of the said psycholinguistic structures. The statistical differences are not too challenging to rationalize due to the change in learning conditions experienced by the learners. Additionally, previous studies such as those of Cruz (2013) and Mamhot, Martin and Masangya (2013) have noted the factors in an ESL context that cause positive changes in the learning experience of the EFL learners. Overtly, this particular aspect is what the Philippines can offer. Apart from its English speaking culture, it is equipped with mechanisms that help develop the language skills of foreign students. With these things said, it also has to be mentioned that the psycholinguistic structures are dynamic in nature which means that these cognitive structures change overtime (Dornyei, 2001; Van Dijk, Verspoor, & Lowie, 2011).

Conclusion

This study has revealed the changes in the psycholinguistic abilities of Korean university students in the Philippines before and during the shift in the learning context, specifically during the learners' EFL and ESL environment. Based on the results of the study, it is deduced that the Koreans appeared to have utilized their implicit grammar knowledge more than their explicit grammar knowledge at the onset of their language learning journey. However, they seem to have gained explicit grammar knowledge during the actional stage. This shift may imply that the formal education during the actional period prompted their increased knowledge in grammar. Hence, it may be safe to say that the learners access their explicit knowledge when they are prompted to verbalize their knowledge of linguistic structures and their implicit knowledge in activities like oral production and written tasks.

Additionally, the qualitative data do not entirely reflect the quantitative data as there were claims in the interview that were different from the survey. It may be due to the non-awareness of the learners' use of their inherent psycholinguistic abilities such as the implicit and explicit knowledge that they do not recall such concepts. This preponderance among the majority of the interviewees may

be expected due to the unconscious nature of psycholinguistic abilities (Tartter, 1986).

Overall findings indicate that the Korean learners' implicit and explicit knowledge changed positively. An implication of these changes is that there are dynamics necessary for learners to develop certain psycholinguistic mechanics perceived to be vital in learning a language. Further, the shifts suggest that the Philippines may serve as an effective venue for foreign students who intend to learn English. This sentiment is shared by Gustilo (2016), who posits that "writing instruction has to consider implementing an integrative teaching model that enriches students' resources and text production processes" (p. 38). For future studies, further empirical research may be conducted regarding the linguistic achievements of the Koreans in the post-actional stage in relation to their psycholinguistic abilities. Also, it is suggested that learners of English be made aware of their psycholinguistic abilities that they can use to improve their language learning experience. In doing so, an inventory of a learner's psycholinguistic capability may be advantageous. The same is true with regard to the teachers' awareness of the learners' psycholinguistic abilities. Lastly, Similar to previous studies, it is suggested that implicit knowledge is more preferable compared to implicit knowledge; hence, implicit knowledge must be given more emphasis especially in the formative years.

References

Andringa, S., & Rebuschat, P. (eds). (2015). New directions in the study of implicit and explicit learning: An introduction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 37*(2), 185-196.

Bauman, N. (2010). A catalogue of errors made by Korean learners of English. Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages. *Korea Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages (KOTESOL) Proceedings 2006.*

Bautista, M.L.S. (2000a). *Defining standard Philippine English: Its status and grammatical features*. Manila: De La Salle University Press.

Croker, R. A. (2009). An introduction to qualitative research. In J. Heigham & R. A. Coker (eds.), *Qualitative Research in opplied linguistics: A practical introduction.* Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cruz, S. (2013). Rule or Feel?? The application of implicit and explicit knowledge of Filipino and Korean college students in responding to English tests. *Asian Journal of English Language Studies, 1,* 61-85.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001a). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Harlow: Longman.

Doughty, C. (2003). Instructed SLA: Constraints, compensation, and enhancement. In C. Doughty & M. H. Long (eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition and language* (pp. 256-310). Oxford: Blackwell Publishing.

Ellis, R. (2002). Does form-focused instruction affect the acquisition of implicit knowledge?: A review of the research. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 24*. 223-236.

Ellis, R. (2005). Measuring implicit and explicit knowledge of a second language. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 27*, 141-172.

Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2009). Implicit and explicit learning, knowledge and instruction. In R. Ellis, S. Loewen, C. Elder, R. Erlam, J. Philp & Hayo Reinders. *Implicit and Explicit Knowledge in Second Language Learning, Testing and Teaching.* Multilingual Matters: Ontario.

Ellis, R., & Shintani, N. (2014). *Exploring language pedagogy through second language acquisition research.* London: Routledge.

Gustilo, L. E. (2013). An Analysis of Writer's Performance, Resources, and Idea Generation Processes: The Case of Filipino Engineering Students. *Language Testing in Asia, 3* (2), 2229-0443.

Gustilo, L. (2016). Differences in Less Proficient and More Proficient ESL College Writing in the Philippine Setting. *Philippine ESL Journal, 16*, 27-45.

Gustilo, L., & Magno, C. (2015). Explaining L2 performance through a chain of predictors: A SEM approach. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies, 21(2),* 115-130.

Hu, G. (2002). Psychological constraints on the utility of metalinguistic knowledge in second language production.*Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 24*. 347-386.

Mamhot, A.M., Martin, M.H., & Masangya, E. (2013). A comparative study on the language anxiety of ESL and EFL learners.*Philippine ESL Journal, 10*, 200-230.

McGeown, K. (2012, November 12). The Philippines: The world's budget English teacher. *British Broadcasting Company*. Retrieved from www.bbc.com/news/business/-20066890

Sun Ju (2006). Study of new progress in implicit and explicit learning of the second language.*Foreign Language World,* 39–45.

Sun, P., Mathews, R., & Lane, S. (2007). Implicit and explicit processes in the development of cognitive skills: A theoretical interpretation with some practical implications for science education. In: E. Vargios (ed.), *Educational Psychology Research Focus*. Nova Science Publishers, Hauppauge, NY.

Van Dijk, M., Verspoor, M.H. & Lowie (2011). Variability and DST. In Verspoor, M., De Bot, K., & Lowie, W. (2011). *A dynamic systems approach to second language development: methods and techniques*. Amsterdam, Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

About the Authors

Selwyn Cruz obtained his PhD in Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University Manila. He has been invited in numerous conferences to impart his knowledge in Stylistics and World Englishes – his two fields of interest. Currently, he is teaching English at De La Salle University – College of St. Benilde.

Jose Cristina M. Pariña is a full-time faculty in the Department of English and Applied Linguistics, De La Salle University Manila and is currently the coordinator of English for Research in the department. She finished her undergraduate at De La Salle University Manila with a double degree in Literature and BSE English. She took her Masters in Teaching English at De La Salle University Dasmarinas and her PhD in Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University, Manila. She has published research articles in the field of Language Teaching, Sociolinguistics, and Second Language Acquisition and has been invited in numerous paper presentations abroad in the said fields.

Lexical Perception of Bilingual Children and Adolescents: A Cross-Sectional Study

Irish Chan Sioson

Thaksin University, Songkhla, Thailand

Abstract

This study aimed to determine whether there were significant differences in the lexical segmental and suprasegmental perceptions of bilingual children and adolescents in relation to their age (9, 11, 13), socio-economic status and their L1 (Tagalog) and L2 (English). It also investigated which segmental contrasts the learners had the most difficulty in. Results show that age seemed to be the most consistent factor in determining the significant differences in lexical perception across language and SES, while the SES yielded significant differences in certain conditions. Furthermore, the most common sources of difficulty among the participants were sounds that are not found in the Tagalog language, thus, lending support to Lado's (1954) Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis.

Key words: lexical perception, bilingualism, socio-economic status

Introduction

As reading is the foundation for other learning, it is therefore necessary to build on children's basic skills, specifically phonological awareness and lexical perception, to help learn how to read and to read successfully. Studies show that there is a strong relationship between phonemic awareness and other linguistic areas. For instance, phonemic awareness is linked with spelling development (Eldredge, 2005), reading development (Ball & Bachman, 1991 in Eldredge), acquisition of phonemic awareness in another language (Kelley, Roe, Blanchard & Atwill, 2015). It has also been found that phonemic awareness is a predictor of later reading, writing and spelling achievement (Eldredge, 2005; National Association for the Education of Young Children [NAEYC], 2009). Furthermore, phonological processing, print knowledge, and oral language were found to have a strong relationship with later reading achievement (Shonkoff & Phillips, 2000 in McDowell et al., 2007). It has also been found that for EFL learners, phonological awareness also plays a significant role in their reading performance (Jafari & Rad, 2016). Good readers tend to read more; thus, they acquire more knowledge in a variety of content areas (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1998 in McDowell et al., 2007). For instance, "expert" readers could often recognize gaps in the texts that they read, making them self- monitor their understanding (Weinberg, Wiesner, & Barr, 2016). The relationship between the oral language (listening and speaking) and the printed language (reading and writing) have also been established, so that anything heard may be said or produced, and what may be said may be written, and what may be written may be read. For instance, it has been generally viewed that perception precedes production in first and second language acquisition (e.g., Detey, & Racine, 2015; Rungruang, 2014; De Wilde, 2010).

Author's Affiliation: Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Western Languages Department
Thaksin University, Songkhla, Thailand

Email Address: sioson.irish@gmail.com

Factors in Phonological awareness

Various studies on phonological awareness in relation to a number of variables have also been conducted. Since phonological awareness is directly linked to reading achievement, another strong predictor of reading achievement found was SES (National Assessment of Educational Progress [NAEP], 2005 in McDowell, 2007). In their survey of the literature on SES and reading, Buckingham, Beaman, and Wheldall (2014), they asserted that the influence of SES on reading may be attributed to several factors. Some of these factors include experiences that promote skills for reading such as word recognition and language comprehension, school attendance, and the home environment. For instance, in Lundberg, Larsman, and Strid's (2010) study involving 6-year-old children, SES was found to have an effect on the preschoolers' development of phonological awareness, citing the significance of having a "stimulating home environment" (p. 318) as well as the parents putting pressure on language training in schools for high SES market as possible explanations for the results.
Another related study is that of McDowell et al's (2007) cross-sectional investigation in which factors such as socioeconomic status (SES), age, speech sound accuracy and vocabulary were examined in relation to phonological awareness. It was found that age amplified the effects of speech sound accuracy and SES on phonological awareness. Age also plays an important role in phonological awareness skills and speech sound accuracy. Foy and Mann (2001 in McDowell, 2007), for instance, found that age was significantly correlated with phonemic awareness, rhyme awareness, naming speed, vocabulary, letter recognition and articulation. McDowell et al., 2002 (in McDowell, 2007) also found that the relationship between speech sound accuracy and phonological awareness increased over time, and that the stability of phonological awareness skills also strengthened as children aged (Lonigan et al., 1998 in McDowell, 2007).

Infants have demonstrated the ability to discriminate native and nonnative sounds, but as they age, their sensitivity to sound contrasts gradually deteriorates, which is termed as *perceptual reorganization* and is deemed as language-specific (Mattock & Burnham, 2007). The decline becomes noticeable when infants reach one year of age. While most studies on speech perception have focused on segments (i.e. vowels and consonants) (Mattock & Burnham, 2007; Ya-Ju, 2008), Mattock and Burnham (2007) investigated infants' perceptual reorganization for tones as they tested infants from tone (Chinese) and nontone (English) languages. They found that in speech and nonspeech (violin sound) tone discrimination, Chinese infants at 6 and 9 months performed equally well. On the other hand, there was an observable decline or difference in the speech discrimination of the English infants aged 6 to 9, but that their nonspeech tone discrimination remained the same, further supporting the assumption that perceptual reorganization is language-specific. Based on various studies cited by Mattock and Burnham (2007), perception reorganization occurs in segmental (vowels and consonants) and suprasegmental (prosody, stress patterns) features of the language (e.g. Hirsh-Pasek et al., 1987; Jusczyk et al., 1993, Jusczyk & Nelson, 1996). Other studies (e.g. Werker & Logan, 1985 in Mattock & Burnham, 2007), however, attributed the perceptual reorganization to cognitive and attentional factors instead of sensorineural loss.

However, perhaps, one of the most essential areas that need to be considered is the perception of speech sounds which rely on the linguistic experience of the listener. Such linguistic experience may become more problematic in the bilingual or multilingual context as other factors need to be considered, especially considering that language background plays

an important role in language acquisition (Yu & Andruski, 2010). There have been numerous factors that play significant roles in learning a second or foreign language, and much of the literature has been devoted to establishing the relationship between language acquisition and factors such as language learning strategies (e.g. Griffiths & Parr, 2001; Oxford, 1990), self-concept, self-efficacy and self-perception (e.g. Chapman, & Tunmer, 2002; Slavin, 2003 in Brown, 2007), anxiety (e.g. Oxford, 1999 in Brown), instruction (e.g. Doughty, 2003 in Brown), and motivation (e.g. Yihong, Yuan, Ying & Yan, 2007). Word knowledge also has a significant effect in phoneme perception. For example, the sounds /d/ or /t/ tend to be perceived as /d/ when 'ask' follows it as in the word "task" but are perceived as /d/ when "ash' follows it as in the word "dash" (Ganong, 1980 in Mirman et al., 2005).

Contrastive analysis and cross-linguistic influence

The fields of contrastive analysis and cross-linguistic influence account for the role of transfer in second language acquisition. Both segmental and suprasegmental features of speech alter the meaning and information conveyed by a word, and knowledge of these features are very important in the lexical perception and later on, production of the target language. Much of this lexical perception may be traced from the linguistic background of the learners. Yu and Andruski (2010) cited numerous studies (e.g. Best et al. 1988; Jusczyk 1993; Nusbaum and Goodman 1994; Polka & Werker 1994; Kuhl 2000; Goto 1971; Miyakawa et al. 1981) that investigated the common difficulties of second language learners when dealing with nonnative segmental contrasts. For example, Japanese native speakers experience difficulty in the /r/- /l/ listening discrimination due to the absence of the phoneme /l/ in their native language. According to studies in contrastive analysis, (e.g. Lado, 1957), Tagalog speakers tend to produce the voiceless, dental, fricative [th] or [ɵ] as the voiceless, alveolar, stop [t] which may be explained by the absence of such sound in the Tagalog language, and the transfer of whole sound system (Lado, 1957).

In L2 phonology, for instance, when similar phonemes are present in both languages, it is believed that there would be no difficulties on the part of the L2 learner, but that errors are expected when phonemes are absent in L1. It was then later pointed out that allophonic variations would pose problems to learners, when two sounds are considered an allophones of one phoneme, but that they are treated as two different phonemes in L2 (De Wilde, 2010). For example, Kanokpermpoon (2007) investigates consonant sounds that would likely pose problems for Thai learners of English in that those sounds in English that are absent in Thai phonology are predicted to be sources of difficulties for the students. This is similar with Phimsawat's (2013) point that the phonemes that do not exist in Thai phonology are likely to pose challenges to the Thai learner.

Not only are the segmental features of the language become one of the sources of difficulty due to linguistic transfer, but suprasegmentals may also be troublesome for most second language learners. Because of the suprasegmental differences between the native and target language, learners tend to perceive nonnative suprasegmental information based on their native language (Lehiste & Fox, 1992 in Yu & Andruski, 2010). For example, Yu and Andruski (2010) tested the effects of language background on lexical perception of stress among English and Chinese native speakers and found that both groups differed in their responses in three different stimuli, indicating that lexical and segmental effects may be accounted for by language background. Another research that supported such finding is Lehiste and Fox's (1992 in Yu & Andruski, 2010) study on syllable prominence in which Estonian and English listeners significantly differed in their responses since the Estonians

relied more on duration of the syllable as basis for prominence while English listeners used amplitude (or volume) as their basis for prominence. This shows that language background has a significant role in language learning.

Another cross-linguistic study by Dupoux et al. (1997 in Yu & Andruski, 2010) examined differences in suprasegmental perceptions between French and Spanish speakers. The researchers found that French listeners are apparently "'deaf' to speech contrasts" (p. 324) as they had difficulty in distinguishing the placement of stress in nonwords. This finding was further supported by Peperkump and Dupoux's (2002 in Yu & Andruski, 2010) proposed stress-deafness typology based on their studies on stress perception among adult speakers of several languages such as Finnish, French, Hungarian, and Polish.

Moreover, not only is linguistic perception affected by linguistic experience, but speech production is influenced by language background as well (Yu & Andruski, 2010). Archibald's (1997) study found that Chinese and Japanese both had difficulties in placing stress in English words since both are non-stress languages, Chinese being a tonal language and Japanese being a pitch-accent language. Yu and Andruski (2010) cited numerous studies (e. g. Cutler and Norris 1988; Mattys and Samuel 1997, 2000; Baum 1998; Emmorey 1987; Baum and Pell 1999; Shah and Baum 2006) on suprasegmental perception which found the key function of lexical stress in linguistic processes. Yu and Andruski (2010) articulated that the research gap on the listeners' lexical perception in identifying stress place with or without contextual information still remains.

As mentioned, in a bilingual, even multilingual context, as Tagalog native speakers in an ESL context, there are factors that need to be considered. For one, the differences in the segmental phonemes between English and Tagalog are very much evident since there are certain sounds in the English language that are not found in the Tagalog language. As cited, the sound /t/ is usually substituted by Tagalog speakers for the sound /ə/ in the English language (e.g., /t Ɛ n/ for /əƐ n/ - then). This is also an observed feature even in Philippine English in which /ə/ is substituted by /t/ (Bautista and Gonzales, 2006, as cited in Regala-Flores, 2014). In vowels, Tagalog language only has one sound for the phoneme /a/ represented by the letter "a" as opposed to the different sounds of the same letter "a" in English such as /æ/ (e.g., /bæg/- bag), /a:/ (e.g. /a:rm/- arm , or /ə/ (e.g., /əweɪ/- away) sounds in the English language are not present in the Tagalog language. Tagalog, however, has included ñ in the Filipino alphabet which is not found in English. Another aspect to consider is the differences in phonemic distribution between the two languages. One case is the phoneme /ŋ/ which is present in both languages; however, such sound is not produced in the initial position of English words. In Tagalog, words such as "ngayon" and "nguya" begin with this sound.

In terms of suprasegmental features, the two languages are also different since syllable prominence is determined by stress in the English language; while Tagalog depends on vowel length or duration to mark syllable prominence. This is because English is a stress-timed language which means that stress makes a difference in meaning; while Tagalog, on the other hand, is syllable-timed language wherein it is the vowel length of the syllable that makes a difference in meaning. For any language learner, it is very important to understand the differences in such suprasegmental features since they may cause confusion or ambiguity, and such features become the bases for the students' speech segmentation (Nolasco et al., 2010).

Figure 1 shows the relationship between and among the variables. The assumption is that both age and the SES are related to the lexical perception of both segmentals and suprasegmentals of the first and second language.

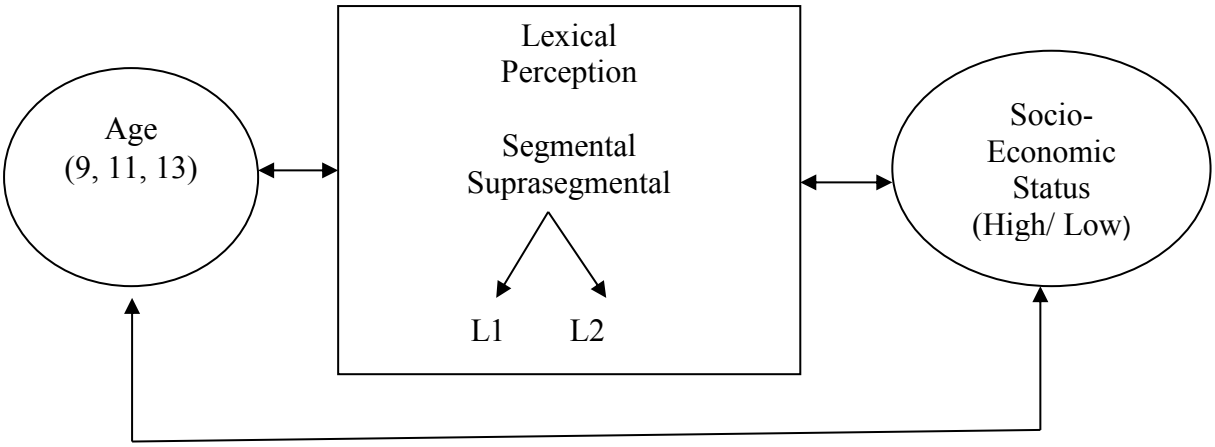


Figure 1 Bilingual Children and Adolescents

As the Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis (Lado, 1957) predicts that that the more similarities the two languages (L1 and L2) have, the easier it is for the second language learners to learn the target language and the more differences the two languages have, the more difficult it is to learn the target language, it would then be interesting to investigate whether Filipino, specifically, Tagalog speakers from different age groups and socioeconomic status would have difficulties in acquiring a "distant" language as English in terms of their lexical perceptions. Moreover, it would also be interesting to test perceptual reorganization in the context of bilingualism among children and adolescents i.e. assuming that at age 1, the sensitivity in sound discrimination between native and nonnative contrasts declined when their perception is reorganized or has grown accustomed to their first language. It would also then be interesting to determine whether this reorganized perception becomes *re-reorganized* once they become more exposed to their second language as they aged, and therefore more input for both first and second language is provided to them in both the home and school environment and whether perception reorganization is born out of language-specificity or cognitive maturation, or whether SES may also help explain their lexical perception.

Specifically, this study aims to address the following questions:

1. Are there significant differences in the lexical perceptions of segmental contrasts in the three age groups (9, 11, and 13 years old) belonging to two SES groups (high and low) in the following:
    a. first language (Tagalog words)?
    b. second language (English words)?

2. Are there significant differences in the lexical perception of suprasegmental contrasts in the three age groups (9, 11, and 13 years old) belonging to two SES groups (high and low) in the following:
    a. first language (Tagalog words)?
    b. second language (English words)?

3. What segmental contrasts did each group have the most difficulty in?

Methods

Research Design

The study employed descriptive-quantitative research design to account for the significant differences between the segmental and suprasegmental contrasts in lexical perceptions of bilingual children and adolescents in their first and second language in relation to their age and socioeconomic status. The results of the study were subjected to the paired difference test and item analysis to

Participants

Thirteen (13) students per age group (9, 11, and 13 years old) in high and low SES from heterogeneous classes were the participants in the study, for a total of 78 participants. High and low socioeconomic status was based on the type of school the participants were enrolled in, that is, either public or private school and was also based on the highest educational attainment and the type of profession (blue or white-collar jobs) of the parents/guardians who financially support them. Such were the bases for identifying socio-economic status, instead of the annual net income of the families, due to the confidentiality and inaccessibility of the data as the schools had strict policies with regard to such matters. Another criterion considered in selecting participants includes their first and second language. Their first language must be Tagalog and that their second language is English as this study is conducted in an ESL context, and in certain cases, for the high SES group, there is a considerable possibility that some students consider the English language as their first language. Furthermore, only those who live in a Tagalog-speaking place or environment for most of their life were considered. The participants came from four different schools . Grade 3 and first year high school students were taken from one private institution in Manila and grade 5 students from a private school in Las Piñas, while grade 3 and 5 students were taken from a public school in Las Piñas and first year high school from a public school in Las Piñas.

Instruments

Language background questionnaire. A language background questionnaire based on Sioson (2011) was developed to identify their demographic background which included questions about their age, language/s they speak at home, their first language, and the age they started leaning the second language. A section where the respondents had to rate their listening, speaking, reading, and writing in the languages they know was also included. Certain modifications in the instrument, however, were made. One of which was the addition of the amount of exposure to Tagalog, as the original questionnaire only included the amount of exposure to English language as this study aimed to compare the results in the lexical perception test in both languages. Another item that was added was their family background, which included questions on the number of siblings, position in the family, parents' or guardian's highest educational attainment and occupation. Such data on family background

helped to determine their socio-economic status which is one of the factors considered in this study. Finally, the open-ended questions which asked about their perceived strengths, weaknesses and strategies were omitted for this study as they were deemed unnecessary to the nature of the present study.

Lexical perception test. The test used in the study included four parts with 20 items for each part to assess the participants' lexical perception. The first and third parts of the test aimed to test their segmental lexical perceptions in both languages, while the second and fourth parts assessed their suprasegmental, particularly the vowel length in Tagalog and stress in English, lexical perception. For both segmental parts, 10 items involved vowel contrasts (e.g. buhay-bahay; laughed-left), especially because there are only five vowel sounds in Tagalog while there are 12 vowel sounds in English with 8 diphthongs. On the other hand, 10 test items involved consonant contrasts (e.g. sulat-sugat; bus-buzz). For the suprasegmental parts, all 20 items were composed of 2-syllable words; and the participants were asked to encircle which syllable received the stress/ vowel length (e.g. TAla; conTRACT). As the study tested the students' lexical perception, an audio recorded text of the items was also developed to help control other extraneous variables, such as volume, speed and gap between items that are present when students listen to an oral reading of the items. Furthermore, there was a 3-second gap in between each item for consistency. The items were recorded in the sound recorder of the computer which was played through Windows Media Player. For the actual testing, the computer was attached to an amplifier to add volume to the recorded items.

The items were developed by the researcher in consultation with two language teachers, one is a Filipino and the other is an English teacher, to check whether the items were minimal pairs, or the pairs of word differed in one phonological element or sound. Two sample items for each part was used to help ensure that the respondents understood the instructions.

Procedure

There were four schools where the study was conducted. Grade 3 and first year high school students were taken from one private institution in Manila and grade 5 students from a private school in Las Piñas, while grade 3 and 5 students were taken from a public school in Las Piñas and first year high school from a public school in Las Piñas. The language background questionnaire was administered to one heterogeneous section in all the three age groups for both high and low SES groups. This was then followed by the administration of the test. The participants listened to the recorded text while answering the test, after which, both the questionnaire and the test was collected. The thirteen participants from each group were then purposively selected based on their responses in the language background questionnaire to ensure that the criteria set for the participants were adhered. Afterwards, the results of the test were subjected to analyses.

Method of Analysis

The study determined the mean scores and standard deviation of the results of the test. Such results were then subjected to the paired difference test to determine whether statistical differences in all categories from the two groups existed. Moreover, item analysis was done to determine which of the segmental contrasts most of the participants had difficulty by

coding what items most of them had answered incorrectly. For such purpose, 50% of the total population per age and SES group was used as basis for identifying that a particular item was deemed difficult due to the number of participants who committed an error in such item. In other words, only those items which were answered incorrectly by 7 participants or more were considered source of difficulty.

Results and Discussion

Lexical Perception of Segmental and Suprasegmental Contrasts

Table 1 shows the mean and standard deviation in relation to age and SES.

Table 1
Mean and standard deviation in segmental contrasts in relation to age and SES

	Tagalog		English	
	M	SD	M	SD
9 years old				
Low SES	14.23	2.49	12.62	2.10
High SES	19.77	0.60	17.08	1.66
11 years old				
Low SES	19.62	0.65	15.23	1.69
High SES	18.85	1.57	18.08	1.12
13 years old				
Low SES	19.76	0.83	16.46	1.81
High SES	19.92	0.28	18.31	1.25

Sixty percent (60%) of the total number of items per section i.e. 12 out of 20, (segmental-Tagalog, suprasegmental-Tagalog; segmental-English, suprasegmental-English) was set as the passing score which is statistically high and would mean that the scores obtained were not by pure chance. As can be seen, the youngest from the low SES (LSES) group barely made it to the passing score with 12.62 as the mean, while the highest from the high SES (HSES) obtained the highest mean in Tagalog segmental which was almost perfect score.

It could also be observed that the scores somehow declined when tested in their lexical perception in the English language (L2) which is evident across age groups and SES. This is apparently due to several possible causes such as their use of their L1 more often in both the home and school environment than their L2, much exposure to their first language and the slightly varied ages that they started learning the English. This age factor may also be attributed to the exposure, and thus, familiarity of students to certain words or sounds. As pointed out by Barrot (2012), as students' grade level increases, certain words become more and more familiar to them.

For the LSES group, as predicted, the scores improved as the age progresses. The HSES group, on the other hand, did not seem to yield the same pattern as of the other group. It may be observed that there was a slight decrease, in the mean score from the 9-years-old group and the 11-years-old group. This may be due to the difference in the schools where the 11-years-old group and the 9-years-old group from HSES were taken; hence, it may be attributed to the variation in the instruction and location of the schools, as compared to the LSES 9 year old and 11-year-old groups who were taken from the same public elementary school which had relatively the same instructional system. Another factor that may be considered was the time of the day that the test was conducted. While the 9-year-old and 11-year-old groups were tested midday since the former was tested in their last period (11: 30 am- 12 nn) and the latter was tested in their first period (12 nn- 12:30 pm), the 11-year-old group was tested after eating their lunch which might have affected their physiological condition or might have induced them to sleeping. This is because unlike the public school only which had daily half-day sessions, the private institution had whole-day sessions.

Table 2 shows the mean scores and standard deviation in suprasegmental contrasts in relation to age and SES.

Table 2
Mean and standard deviation in suprasegmental contrasts in relation to age and SES

	Tagalog		English	
	M	SD	M	SD
9 years old				
Low SES	10.46	3.15	9.54	2.22
High SES	12.23	2.58	9.39	2.53
11 years old				
Low SES	10.61	1.89	11.62	1.89
High SES	12.31	3.01	12.74	3.49
13 years old				
Low SES	10.69	2.63	11.77	2.65
High SES	12.92	3.04	14.46	3.41

Expectedly, as the age increased, the scores increased, albeit slightly, regardless of the SES and the language. However, it may be noted that the 11-year-old and 13-year-old groups of both SES had better scores in the English language, in contrast to the trend in the segmental feature where they had better scores in Tagalog. This may be due to the seemingly consistent determinant of stress in the English language in which a syllable pronounced louder than the rest is considered the stress or prominent syllable, as compared with the Tagalog language where the pronunciation may become different due to the variations in the placement of the vowel length, for example, a Tagalog word or syllable is pronounced as “maragsa”, “malumi”, or “malumay”. This feature of the Tagalog suprasegmentals may have affected their lexical perception and may help account for such results in the study. Such finding may also lend support to the language-specificity assumption of the lexical reorganization which may be true for the suprasegmental features and nuances of Tagalog and English language.

To determine whether there were significant differences between and among the SES in all age groups, paired difference test was computed. The results are shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3
Statistical difference between low and high SES in the contrasts

	p-value (segmental)	p-value (suprasegmental)
9 years old		
Tagalog	0.004*	0.07*
English	0..0002*	0.87
11 years old		
Tagalog	0.13	0.15
English	0.0002*	0.26
13 years old		
Tagalog	0.33	0.03*
English	0.0002*	0.04*

* $p < 0.05$

As can be seen, there were significant differences between the LSES and HSES in both language in *some* of the age groups. For example, in terms of segmentals, only the 9-year-old of both LSES and HSES group had significant differences in both languages. This means that for younger bilinguals, SES becomes a significant factor as the HSES significantly outperformed the LSES group regardless of the language. This could be attributed to the exposure of the HSES to language, as more language materials may have been made available to students who come from average or high SES or that they come from print-rich environment which may be associated with improved oral literacy (Hermosa, 2002) or language development which then involves lexical perception and phonological awareness. Having a "stimulating home environment" could play a significant role in children's development of phonological awareness (Lundberg, et. al, 2010).

Moreover, as such result was found among the youngest group, the LSES group could have comparatively more limited exposure or use of language, especially in the English language, as compared to the other older groups. Another factor that perhaps needs to be considered is the age they started learning English. The participants in the LSES group were introduced to the English language at grade 1 (or 7 years old) while most of the HSES started at a younger age, possibly were enrolled in preschool (nursery, kinder, prep) which may have put them at an advantage over the other group. The home environment might have also been a factor as some participants in the LSES group had parents who did not finish school, for a few, did not finish elementary level while all the parents from the HSES group were college graduates which would somehow influence their school performance and may have helped them prepare for such tasks. Casillas and Simonet (2016) pointed out the important role of early experience in the speech perception and production of bilingual L2 learners of English as the "formative years appear to have a lifelong impact on phonetic behavior (in L2 learners), even when speakers are not bilingual" (p. 192).

Other possible reasons that may account for such differences may be related to instruction and school setting where the seemingly common differences between the private and public schools include discrepancies in the class size which may or may not be

proportion to the classroom size, availability of resources, differences in the content and skills taught.

It is also evident that for the older age groups (11 and 13), there was no longer significant difference in their segmental lexical perception, at least in their first language. This may have been attributed to the fine tuning of the segmental linguistic features of the Tagalog language they acquired from their home environment as both groups had Filipino subjects that may have further refined their lexical perception in their L1. For both groups, such is not the case for the English language, though as the significant differences continued to exist in their lexical perception of English segmentals. Again, this may be attributed to their differences in the amount of exposure and the age they started to learn the English language.

In terms of suprasegmental features, on the other hand, the same reasons identified may help explain the significant differences between the two SES groups. .While both groups received relatively low scores in the suprasegmentals in both languages, there were still significant differences between the two groups at 9 and 13 years of age. This may be attributed again to the differences in the way the stress or vowel length is placed in the syllabus. Interestingly, the middle group (11-years-old) had no significant difference in their scores as the groups yielded closer gaps in their scores in both languages. This may be so as they were in the critical stage or at the intermediate level that bridges the primary and the secondary levels. According to Hermosa (2002), it is at the stage where the transition from the learning to read to reading to learn happens, since lexical perception is related to reading development. As this seems to be a critical stage for learning, another possible contention is that it may be the stage when perceptual re-reorganization for the suprasegmental sounds may have occurred as they seemingly both have almost the same low scores. Hence, it may probably at this stage when they had to "unlearn" or "relearn" skills similar with McLaughlin's (in Lightbown & Spada, 1999) restructuring hypothesis where backsliding of the linguistic features occurs as a result of the interaction between what they already learn and what they are currently learning (e.g. explicit teaching of suprasegmentals). In this case, however, the sounds they perceive, specifically with the English language.

That SES as a factor found in the study is consistent with Rubin's (1982 in Hermosa, 2002) finding that children whose parents had elementary education were usually at a disadvantage, and Loban (1982 in Hermosa, 2002) claim that factors such as SES, parents' education influence children's verbal ability.

In terms of age, a significant difference of 0.02 * ($p < 0.05$) among the three groups existed. Such finding further confirms previous studies (e.g.Foy & Mann, 2001 in McDowell, 2007) that age amplified the effects of speech sound accuracy and that the stability of phonological awareness skills also strengthened as children aged (Lonigan et al., 1998 in McDowell, 2007).

Difficulties in Segmental Contrasts

Finally, to answer the third question, the test was subjected to item analysis to determine which of the segmental contrasts most of the participants had difficulty by coding what items most of them had answered incorrectly. For such purpose, 50% of the total

population per age and SES group was used as basis for identifying that a particular item was deemed difficult due to the number of participants who committed an error in such item. In other words, only those items which were answered incorrectly by 7 participants or more were considered source of difficulty.

For Tagalog segmentals, no item was deemed as a source of difficulty in all the three age groups and two SES groups. This is probably because of the regular pronunciation of segments (i.e. one segment corresponds to only one sound) in Tagalog, aside from the familiarity of the language to the participants; hence, no difficult item was identified in the Tagalog segmentals.

In case of English segmentals however, both LSES and HSES in the youngest group deemed the segmental contrasts /v/ and /b/ in the pair "voice-boys" difficult, while only the LSES group had difficulty contrasting / æ/ and /ɛ/ in the item "laughed-left/ and /i/ and /I/ in the item "seek-sick". For grade 5 students, the HSES group had difficulty distinguishing / ʧ/ and /ʃ/ in "chin-shin," while the LSES group had difficulty distinguishing /ɛ/ and the diphthong /eI/ in "per-pair", the short /I/ and long /i/ sounds in both "seek-sick"and "dim-deem". Finally, for the 13 year old group, the HSES did not have difficulty in any particular item as their mistakes were both fewer and more varied. The LSES counterpart, however, had difficulty distinguishing / æ/ and /ɛ/ in the item "laughed-left". All of these sources of difficulty may be traced from the absence of such sounds in the Tagalog language and perhaps the irregular orthography of the English language, providing additional support to Lado's (1954) Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis. Even though /b/ and /d/ sound similar, the participants did not have difficulty distinguishing the two sounds because both sounds are found in Tagalog and English languages.

Conclusion

Of the three areas investigated in this study—age, SES, language (L1/ L2)-- age seemed to be the consistent factor that relates to lexical perception of both segmental and suprasegmental contrasts. While SES was also found to be a significant factor, it did not, however, account for all the age groups, indicating that other factors need to be considered, aside from age, which are the segmental differences between the first and second language and the family background of the learners. Furthermore, the linguistic background and the school setting need to be considered as well. While the findings in relation to the aforementioned factors lend support to existing literature, it is hoped that the study's cross-linguistic investigation provides additional contribution to the local literature, especially with regard to the segmental and suprasegmental aspects of the two languages examined. By considering the phonological differences between the languages, the study hoped to shed some light on the nature of language that could guide learning and instruction.

Some pedagogical implications may then be drawn from the study in terms of instruction, materials development and assessment minimal pairs contrasts and explicit instruction of the differences between L1 and L2 be taught to draw the students' attention on such distinguishing features and a print-rich environment should be provided in schools especially for the LSES learners as the school may be the main source of materials and knowledge for them.

Finally, it is recommended that future studies on the age-based differences and other factors (e.g. sex, parents' educational background, interest, personality, etc.) in bilingual and multilingual contexts be done. It would also be interesting to identify the sources of difficulty among language learners in terms of suprasegmental features (including not only stress but pitch, volume or juncture) and whether the difficulties in such features and perhaps other segmental features may be attributed to reasons other than the presence or absence of features, the assumptions made by Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis.

References

Barrot, J.S. (2012). Exploring the lexical and syntactic features of the learners' narratives. *Philippine ESL Journal, 9,* 38-55.

Brown, D. H. (2007). *Principles of language learning and teaching.* NY: Pearson Education, Inc.

Buckingham, J., Beaman, R., & Wheldall, K. (2014). Why poor children are more likely to become poor readers: The early years. *Educational Review, 66,* 428- 446.

Casillas, J.V. & Simonet, M. (2016). Production and perception of the English / æ/ - /a/ contrast in switched-dominance speakers. *Second Language Research, 32,* 171-195.

Chapman, J.W. & Tunmer, W.E. (2002). *Relations between self- perceptions and literacy achievement: Developmental factors and Matthew effects.* Retrieved from www.self.uws.edu.au/Conferences/2002_CD_Chapman_&_Tunmer.pdf

Detey, S., & Racine, I. (2015). Does perception precede production in the initial stage of French nasal vowel quality acquisition by Japanese learners? A corpus-based discrimination experiment. Retrieved from https://www.internationalphoneticassociation.org/icphsproceedings/ICPhS2015/Papers/ICPHS0894.pdf

De Wilde, E. (2010). Perception and production in second language phonology: The effect of audiovisual training on the acquisition of the English dental fricatives. Retrieved from http://lib.ugent.be/fulltxt/RUG01/001/457/822/RUG01001457822_2011_0001_AC.pd

Eldredge, J. L. (2005). *Teach decoding: Why and how*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education Inc.

Fromkin, V., Rodman, R. & Hyams, N. (2010). *Introduction to linguistics.* Singapore: Cengage Learning Asia Pte. Ltd.

Ganong, W.F. (1980). Phonetic categorization in auditory word perception. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Human Perception and Performance, 6,* 110-125

Griffiths, C. and Parr, J. (2001) Language learning strategies: Theory and perception. *ELT Journal, 1,* 247- 254.

Jafari, A.M., & Rad, N.F. (2016). The influence of phonological and grammatical awareness on EFL students' reading performance. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 7,* 1164- 1173.

Kelley, M. F., Roe, M., & Blanchard, J. (2015). The influence of Spanish vocabulary and phonemic awareness on beginning English reading development: A three-year (K-2nd) longitudinal study. *Journal of Research in Childhood Edcuation, 29,* 42- 59.

Lado, R. (1957). *Linguistic across cultures: Applied linguistics for language teachers.* Michigan: The University of Michigan.

Lundberg, I., Larsman, P., & Strid, A. (2012). Development of phonological awareness during the preschool year: The influence of gender and socio-economic status. *Read Writ, 25,* 305- 320.

Mattock, K. & Burnham, D. (2007). Chinese and English Infants' Tone Perception:

Evidence for Lexical Reorganization. *INFANCY, 10*(3), 241–265.
McDowell, K.D., Lonigan, C.J., & Goldstein, H. (2007). Relations among socioeconomic status, age, and predictors of phonological awareness. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research, 5,* 1079- 1092.
National Association for the Education of Young Children (2009). Phonological awareness is child's play!. *Young Children Journal*. Available in http://www.niu.edu/ccc/resources/phonologicalawareness.pdf
Nolasco, R.D., Guevara, R.C., Garcia, I.D. & Santos, T.I. (2010). A computational approach to Filipino speech rhythm [*1st MLE Conference, "Reclaiming the Right to Learn in One's Own Language," Capitol University, Cagayan de Oro City, Feb 18-20, 2010]*.
Oxford, R. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know*. New York: Newbury House Publishers.
Phimsawat, O. (2013). The effects of the Thai phonological and writing systems on spelling and writing in English: A case study of Burapha University students. Official Conference Proceedings, 2013 The Asian Conference on Language Learning.
Regala-Flores, E. (2014). Phonological features of basilectal Philippine English: An exploratory study. *Journal of Research in Childhood Education, 5,* 128- 140.
Rungruang, A. (2014). The relationship between the perception and production of English coda clusters by EFL Thai learners. *International Journal Humanities and Management Sciences, 2,* 167- 171
Sioson, I.C. (2011). *Language learning strategies, beliefs and anxiety in academic speaking task. Philippine ESL Journal, 7,* 3- 27.
Weinberg, A., Wiesner, E., & Barr, J. (2016). Sense-making practices of expert and novice readers. In E., Civil, M., & Eli, J. A. (Eds.). (2016). *Proceedings of the 38th annual meeting of the North American Chapter of the International Group for the Pyschology of Mathematics Education*. Tucson, AZ: The University of Arizona.
Ya-Ju, Y. (2008). A cross-language study in perception of lexical stress in English. *ETD Collection for Wayne State University*. Paper AAI3315605. Retrieved from http://digitalcommons.wayne.edu/dissertations/AAI3315605
Yihong, G. Yuan, Z., Ying, C. & Yan, Z. (2007). Relationship between English learning motivation types and self-identity changes among Chinese students. *TESOL Quarterly,* 41(1), 133- 155.
Yu, V.Y. & Andruski, J.E. (2010). A cross-language study of perception of lexical stress in English. *J.Psycholinguist Res*, 39, 323-344.

Appendix A

Language Background Questionnaire

1.) Nationality: _____ 2.) Age:___ 3) First Language: _____

4.) Language/s commonly used at home: _____

5.) Age started to learn English or a second language: ____

6.) Please indicate languages you know and rate your ability as **3= very good, 2= good, and 1= not so good**

Language	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
Tagalog				
English				

7.) Please check how often you are exposed to the **Tagalog** language

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
Family				
Friends				
Books				
Newspapers				
Magazines				
Music				
Television				
Movie				
Radio				
internet				

8.) Please check how often you are exposed to the **English** language

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely
Family				
Friends				
Books				
Newspapers				
Magazines				
Music				
Television				
Movie				
Radio				
internet				

9. Family Background

a. No. of siblings ____

b. Position in the family (eldest, middle, or youngest) _____

c. Father's Highest Educational Background _____

Father's Occupation _____

d. Mother's Highest Educational Background _____

Mother's Occupation _____

if not living with parents,

c. Guardian's Highest Educational Background _____

Guardian's Occupation _____

Appendix B

Sample Items for Segmental and Suprasegmental Contrasts in Tagalog and English

Part 1. Bilugan ang salitang narinig mula sa ni-rekord na teksto. Ang bawat salita ay may pagitan ng tatlong segundo

1. luha	liha
2. buko	biko
3. bahay	buhay
4. suya	saya
5. kilay	kulay
6. kami	kimi

Part 2. Bilugan ang bilang **1** kung ang diin ng salitang narinig ay nasa unang pantig at bilugan ang bilang **2** kung ang diin ng salitang narinig ay nasa ikalawang pantig. Ang bawat salita ay may pagitan ng tatlong segundo.

1. 1 2

2. 1 2

Part 3. Encircle the letter the word that is heard from the recorded text. There is a 3-second gap in between words/ items.

1.	has	hash
2.	voice	boys
3.	bus	buzz
4.	lash	latch

5. ban van
6. boot booth

Part 4. Encircle the number **1** if the stress of the word heard is in the first syllable and encircle the number **2** if the stress of the word heard is in the second syllable. There is a 3-second gap in between the words/items.

1. 1 2
2. 1 2

Appendix C

Sample Items for Suprasegmentals in Tagalog and English

Items for Part 2

1. BUhay
2. PiTO
3. PuSOD
4. TAla
5. HaPON
6. BAka

Items for Part 4

1. OBject
2. reCORD
3. CONtract
4. deSERT
5. PROgress
6. CONvert

About the Author

Irish C. Sioson is a full time lecturer at the Western Languages Department of Thaksin University, Thailand. She obtained her Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University, Manila. She has taught graduate and undergraduate students specializing in the English language and has conducted seminars and workshops to students and educators in the fields of language pedagogy and research. Her interests include ELT, sociolinguistics and discourse analysis.

A Study of the Reading Comprehension Strategies and Reading Proficiency Levels of English Department Graduates

Juan Gabriel Venceslá
Flora Debora Floris

Petra Christian University, Indonesia

Abstract

This study explores the reading comprehension strategies and reading proficiency levels of 30 recent English Department (ED) graduates of a private university in Surabaya, Indonesia, whose reading proficiency levels were in Basic, Independent and Proficient levels. The graduates' reading scores of their in-house English Proficiency Test (EPT), their responses to the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002), and interviews were used as the data for this study. To analyze the data, descriptive statistics, one-way ANOVA, Tukey HSD Test, correlation test, and thematic analysis were performed. It was found that all reader respondents employed all the reading strategies proposed by Grabe (2009). There was a statistically significant difference across the three reading proficiency groups related to the use of monitoring comprehension. There was also a statistically significant positive correlation between the proficient reading level and the strategy of using visual graphics and graphic organizers. The findings of this study may expand the knowledge of the readers on reading strategies and help them become more aware of their own reading strategies usage.

Keywords: reading strategies, reading comprehension, reading proficiency, English Department graduates, Indonesia

Introduction

The literature has highlighted that reading is a complex, multifaceted, and active process in which the reader has to create meaning from the printed words (Goodman, 1976; Smith, 1973). Reading is defined as "a thinking process which requires a response from the reader, may it be through making generalizations, drawing new inferences and planning succeeding steps based on what was read" (Blay, Mercado, & Villacorta, 2009, p. 5). The prime objective of reading is comprehension, which is considered as the essence of reading (Durkin, 1993), or "the very heart and soul of reading" (Reutzel & Cooter, 2004, p. 155). Comprehension itself is understood as "intentional thinking during which meaning is constructed through interactions between text and reader" (Harris & Hodges, 1995, p. 207), or "the process of making meaning from text" (Woolley, 2001, p. 15). Grabe (2009) identifies nine reading strategies that may help English language learners (ELLs) achieve stronger comprehension skills: (1) summarizing; (2) forming questions; (3) answering questions and elaborative interrogation; (4) activating prior knowledge, (5) monitoring comprehension; (6) using text-structure awareness; (7) using visual graphics and graphic organizers; (8) inferencing; and (9) mental translation.

Corresponding Authors' Affiliation: Petra Christian University
Siwalankerto 131, Surabaya 60236, Indonesia
Email Address: debora@petra.ac.id

Reading comprehension in the academic field is closely related to reading proficiency. As stated by Mahfoodh (2007, cited in Floris & Divina, 2009), "having good reading proficiency means the reader has abilities to understand written statements or any type of written texts accurately and efficiently" (p. 37). Having good reading proficiency also means having the ability to "read, interpret, and comprehend written materials that are appropriate to the student's grade level" (Orange, 2014, p. 2).

The level of one's reading proficiency is often shown by his/her scores on reading tests. In this study, for example, the level of each participant's reading proficiency is shown by the score he/she obtained for the reading section of the in-house-English proficiency test. Proficient readers would earn 63–67 for the reading section, independent or intermediate readers would earn 48–62, while Basic readers 31–47 (Educational Testing Service, 2014). Some researchers also have demonstrated a relationship between reading fluency and reading comprehension development in both L1 and L2 contexts (Samuels, 2006; Sawaki & Sabatini, 2007). The findings of some published studies done in different countries (Block, 1986; Schunk & Rice, 1992; Salataci, 2002; Wong, 2010; Griffin, Care, Francis, Hutchinson, & Pavlovic, 2012; Park, 2015) indicate that reading strategies may have a significant positive influence in promoting one's reading comprehension and reading proficiency. Some other reputable published studies, however, have shown that there was no statistically significant correlation between reading strategy use and reading comprehension or proficiency (Lahuerta, 1999; Ngan, 2016).

It is interesting to note though that in the past ten years, there have not been many studies published in reputable journals or books examining the application and/or the correlation between reading comprehension strategies and reading proficiency of ELLs in Indonesia (Cahyono & Widiati, 2006; Wahyuni & Wahyudi, 2012; Masduqi, 2014; Pammu, Amir, & Maasum, 2014; Nurlaelawati & Dzulqodah, 2014), and relatively little research data was taken from college students or graduates (Pammu et.al., 2014).

This study was conducted to explore the use of reading comprehension strategies and the influence it brings to the reading proficiency level of college graduates. The fact that ED students are exposed to more readings in English has also encouraged the present researchers to carry out a study focusing on the ED graduates' reading strategies and proficiency.

This present study aims at answering the following research questions:

- Which reading comprehension strategies were used by ED graduates of Petra Christian University (PCU) when they read academic materials?
- Were there any significant differences in terms of the use of reading comprehension strategies by the graduates?
- Were there any correlations between reading comprehension strategies and reading proficiency?
-

Methods

Participants

We collected the data from the ED batch 2012 graduates of PCU in Surabaya, Indonesia. From a total of 3,320 universities in Indonesia, PCU is the 15th best university and the 1st

Best Private University in Indonesia (Indonesian Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education, 2016), while the ED of PCU has a Level A accreditation status based on the Decree of the Board of National Accreditation of the Ministry of Education number 1151/SK/BAN-PT/Akred/S/XI/2015 (BAN-PT, 2016).

We chose the department and the university because of personal involvement and professional obligation as we both work and study at the ED of PCU. The information related to the use of reading strategies and the influence that reading comprehension strategy use has on reading proficiency will hopefully expand the knowledge of the reading lecturers and our pre-service teachers on reading strategies, clarify the relationship between reading strategy use and reading comprehension or proficiency, and help individuals to be more aware of their own reading comprehension strategies.

Instruments

In this study, we used a mixed method approach, which is defined by Dörnyei (2007) as "a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods within a single research project" (p. 44). The qualitative instrument used was semi-structured interview, and the quantitative instruments were questionnaires and the PCU's in-house EPT.

In-House-EPT. This test resembles the Paper-based Test – Test of English as a Foreign Language (PBT TOEFL). The test has three sections: listening comprehension (50 questions for 30–40 minutes), structure and written expression (40 questions for 25 minutes), and reading comprehension (50 questions for 55 minutes). All final year students of PCU have to take this EPT as one of the graduation requirements. Petra Language Center (PLC) is in charge of administering the test; therefore, we contacted the Head of PLC to collect the reading scores of the batch 2012 graduates.

Questionnaire. The questionnaire was originally developed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) as SORS, and it was in line with the nine reading strategies proposed by Grabe (2009). The graduates were asked to respond to 30 statements using a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("I never or almost never do this") to 5 ("I always or almost always do this"). It took 10–15 minutes to fill in the questionnaire.

Interview. A total of six main interview questions were prepared for each 15–20-minute semi-structured interview. The results of the interview were later used to support the findings of the questionnaire and to gather more insights into the interviewees' reading strategies. Some of the interview questions were as follows: 1) What is your purpose for reading academic texts in English?; 2) How do you read academic texts in English?; and 3) What is your favorite strategy (or the most common strategy that you often use)? Before conducting the interviews, we asked two of our senior colleagues to review the questions and 2 ED students (batch 2014) to participate in our pilot interview. Minor adjustments were then made based on their feedback.

Procedure

The data collection was done in September–October 2016. All 32 graduates were offered to participate in this study because they earned their (EPT) scores in their final college year, or several months before their graduation in 2015 and 2016. The fresh scores earned hopefully provided a more accurate picture of their current proficiency level.

We asked all 32 graduates to fill out an online questionnaire that would show the profile of the graduates' reading strategies. The response rate was high (93.75%) because 30 out of 32 graduates filled out the questionnaire.

After we collected the questionnaire responses from the 30 graduates, we contacted six of them for an interview. The stratified random sampling was used in selecting the interviewees as the representatives of three different proficiency groups. To select a sample from each group (or stratum), we used convenience sampling. All interviews were transcribed using clean transcription, which, according to Elliot (2005), focuses on the content of the interview without paying attention to other details like the way the information is conveyed by the interviewee.

Data Analysis

To determine the reading proficiency level of the batch 2012 graduates, we looked at the EPT (reading) scores earned by the respondents and consulted the TOEFL equivalency table (Educational Testing Service, 2014). The reading proficiency levels of the graduates were later grouped into three levels based on the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) namely basic, independent, and proficient readers.

To find out the reading strategies used by each group of readers, we used descriptive statistics to analyze the responses given towards the online questionnaire. The mean (M) and the standard deviation (SD) values of each strategy were calculated and the final results were ranked based on frequency of use. We determined the frequency scale of each reading strategy based on Oxford's criteria to classify learning strategies (Oxford, 1990).

The transcription of the interviews was analyzed using thematic analysis to identify patterned meaning. The results were used to gather more in-depth insights on the graduates' thoughts and actions and to examine the extent to which these qualitative data shared any common ideas from the results of the questionnaire.

To figure out whether there were any significant differences in the use of language reading strategies across the three reading proficiency groups, we used a one-way ANOVA and Tukey HSD Test. To measure the strength of the relationship between the reading strategies and the reading proficiency level, we conducted a correlation test to find the Pearson correlation coefficient r) and the p-value of two tailed test. All statistical analyses were carried out using the VassarStats online application.

Results and Discussion

This section is divided into two major parts. The first one presents the findings and discussion on the reading strategies used by the graduates. The second one discusses the correlation between the reading strategy and the reading proficiency level.

Reading Comprehension Strategies Used

The results of the descriptive analysis are shown in the following table:

Table 1

Reading Comprehension Strategies Use

Level of Reading Proficiency	Frequency Scale	Strategy Categories	M	SD
Basic (9 strategies)	High (2 strategies)	Inferencing	3.63	0.68
		Activating prior knowledge	3.50	0.00
	Medium (7 strategies)	Monitoring comprehension	3.36	0.45
		Mental translation	3.25	0.00
		Using text-structure awareness	3.17	0.71
		Summarizing	3.00	0.00
		Answering questions and elaborative interrogation	3.00	0.00
		Forming questions	2.75	0.00
		Using visual graphics and graphic organizers	2.75	0.55
	Low	N/A	N/A	N/A
Independent (9 strategies)	High (6 strategies)	Inferencing	3.97	0.49
		Summarizing	3.92	0.00
		Monitoring comprehension	3.92	1.01
		Activating prior knowledge	3.83	0.00

		Using text-structure awareness	3.56	0.97
		Using visual graphics and graphic organizers	3.55	1.25
	Medium (3 strategies)	Answering questions and elaborative interrogation	3.33	0.00
		Mental translation	3.31	0.68
		Forming questions	2.71	0.00
	Low	N/A	N/A	N/A
Proficient (9 strategies)	High (8 strategies)	Inferencing	4.25	0.4
		Summarizing	4	0.04
		Activating prior knowledge	4	0.67
		Monitoring comprehension	3.93	0
		Using text-structure awareness	3.5	0.34
		Mental translation	3.5	0
		Forming questions	3.5	0
		Answering questions and elaborative interrogation	3.5	0
	Medium (1 strategy)	Using visual graphics and graphic organizers	3.1	0
	Low	N/A	N/A	N/A

Basic, independent and proficient readers involved in this study used all reading strategies proposed by Grabe (2009) in high or medium frequency. This finding was similar to the one reported by Park (2015), who found that both proficient and less proficient students made use of reading strategies. All of these findings were supported by Grabe (2009), who stated that "good readers and poor readers use the same types of strategies" (p. 227).

The results of the questionnaire analysis also showed that "inferencing" was used by all three groups in three ways: usually, always or almost always, and sometimes. This might be because inference is done on a regular basis as stated by Kurland (2000, par. 2), who said that "inference is essential to, and part of, being human. We engage in inference every day." In reading, it has been suggested that readers infer from the text during and after reading. That might be one of the reasons why all readers reported that they always/almost always/usually did inferencing.

When asked about the strategies that they most frequently used in reading academic texts, all interviewees stated three common techniques; namely, finding the meaning of difficult vocabulary, skimming, and scanning, which according to Grabe (2009, p. 211) fit under "monitoring comprehension." This is in line with the result of the questionnaire survey. Monitoring comprehension was used by all basic, independent, and proficient readers. Basic readers put it under the medium frequency scale, while independent and proficient readers put it under high frequency scale. Though basic readers put monitoring comprehension under the medium frequency scale, it was ranked first among other reading strategies which were sometimes used by the readers. Thus, the interviewees' reading strategy was in accord with the results of the questionnaire survey.

Monitoring comprehension is essential to successful reading since it is "a process in which students determine whether they understand what they are reading. If they realize that they cannot articulate the main idea of the passage, they can take steps to repair their comprehension before continuing to read" (The IRIS Center, 2012, par. 1). Monitoring comprehension should be done repeatedly during the reading process; however, some studies have indicated that poor or unskilled readers show lack of monitoring comprehension capability (Yu-Fen, 2002). Compared to proficient readers, poor or less proficient readers tend to be less sensitive in monitoring their reading performance. They, for instance, often do not look back when they cannot obtain the text ideas or when they detect inconsistencies in their reading (Yu-Fen, 2002). The studies cited by Yu-Fen (2002) seem to be some evidence to support the finding that independent and proficient readers in this present study use monitoring comprehension more frequently compared to basic readers, and that the frequency use of monitoring comprehension among proficient readers is slightly higher than among independent readers.

Several studies (Craig & Yore, 1995; Persson, 1994; as cited in Yu-Fen, 2002) suggest that further research is needed to find out "whether it is the lack of comprehension monitoring alone that leads to unskilled readers' failures in understanding texts" (p. 21). Moreover, Perfetti, Marron, and Foltz (1996, as cited in Yu-Fen, 2002) suggest that vocabulary might be one of the factors that influence one's reading comprehension and proficiency.

The statement of Perfetti et al. (1996) is relevant to what the interviewees of this study said when they were asked to share what they usually did first after being assigned to read a text. Basic readers stated in their interviews that in order to understand a text, they first try to understand what most of the words mean. After that, they read the text slowly to find the required details. Independent and proficient readers did not mention "understanding vocabulary" as their first technique in understanding a text. They preferred "skimming" first before reading in detail. As stated by one of the interviewees (ID-001) ". . . it's easier for me to do skimming because I can get the main idea of the text beforehand so I can handle the text easily." A possible explanation for this might be related to the importance of the readers' word knowledge. The independent and proficient interviewees probably had sufficient vocabularies to understand the academic texts, while basic readers seemed to have more limited lexical knowledge.

One of the basic readers (ID-023) said, "Because my vocabulary is limited, I must be honest, and that's why sometimes when I read the academic texts, I don't understand, I don't really understand what the text is about". If a reader does not know the meaning of a sufficient proportion of the words in the text, comprehension is not likely to occur. Knowing

between 90 and 95 percent of the words in a text will enable readers to achieve adequate reading comprehension (Hirsch, 2003). This helps further understand why it seems that the basic readers gave much importance to learning the meaning of vocabulary when reading academic texts.

Another interesting finding that we got from the interviews was that two interviewees (independent and proficient readers) mentioned "asking friends" as their reading strategy. Such strategy was not stated by Grabe (2009). An interviewee (ID-025) said, "Sometimes, I cannot understand because the word is really strange. So, I ask my friends, can you explain it to me." This might be explained by the fact that Asians (including Indonesians) rely more on others, so it was not unusual to discover that two of the interviewees made use of that strategy.

In order to determine any significant differences in terms of the use of reading strategies by basic, independent, and proficient readers, a one-way-ANOVA was used. The results are presented in the following table:

Table 2

Level of Significance on the Use of Each Reading Comprehension Strategy by Different Groups of Readers

Reading Strategies	Basic Readers	Independent Readers	Proficient Readers	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p	Significant
	M value	M value	M value							
Summarizing	3.00	3.92	4.00	Among or between groups	2.5333	2	1.2667	0.83	0.44687	N
Forming questions	2.75	2.71	3.50		1.1583	2	0.5792	0.34	0.71477	N
Answering questions & elaborative interrogation	3.00	3.33	3.50		0.4667	2	0.2333	0.2	0.81993	N
Activating prior knowledge	3.50	3.83	4.00		0.4667	2	0.2333	0.22	0.80394	N
Monitoring comprehension	3.36	3.92	3.93		1.1104	2	0.5552	4.95	0.01474	Y
Using text-structure awareness	3.17	3.56	3.50		0.5185	2	0.2593	0.69	0.5102	N
Using visual graphics and graphic organizers	2.75	3.55	3.10		2.4047	2	1.2023	2.76	0.08117	N
Inferencing	3.63	3.97	4.25		0.5958	2	0.2979	0.44	0.64857	N
Mental translation	3.25	3.31	3.50		0.0854	2	0.0427	0.04	0.96085	N

As stated earlier, it was found that each group of readers used all of the nine strategies proposed by Grabe (2009) in high or medium frequency. The result of the one-way-ANOVA test, however, showed that the only statistically significant difference was in the use of Monitoring Comprehension across the groups ($F = 4.95$; $p = 0.01$). The p-value of this strategy was 0.01 (or less than 0.05), which implied that a significant difference did exist. This finding might be consistent with that of Block (1986), who states that good readers monitor their comprehension better than poor readers do; thus, it could be the case that the statistically significant difference that occurred in the study was related to the use of monitoring comprehension by basic and proficient readers.

To find out which groups differed in terms of the use of monitoring comprehension, the Tukey HSD test would be needed. The VassarStats online application that we used for statistical analysis, however, could not perform the test as the F value of our data was not

statistically significant enough. As written on the VassarStats website, the test will be run only if "the analysis of variance yields a significant *F*-ratio" (Lowry, 2016, par. 7). Since the Tukey HSD test could not be performed, it was not known exactly which groups differed in terms of the use of monitoring comprehension.

The *p*-value of using visual graphics and graphic organizers was higher than 0.05 but lower than 0.08. This indicated weak evidence of a statistically significant difference in the use of this particular reading strategy. However, the *F*-value (2.76) was not statistically significant enough to run the Tukey HSD test.

The *p*-value of the other strategies was higher than 0.10, indicating that there was no significant difference in the use of these seven reading strategies. Furthermore, the *F*-value of each of these seven strategies was not significant; thus, the researcher was unable to conduct the Tukey HSD test.

Correlation between Reading Strategies Used and Reading Proficiency Level

To determine whether there was any correlation between the reading strategies employed and the reading proficiency levels, we tried to find two values: the *r*-value (or the Pearson's correlation coefficient) and the *p*-value of the two-tailed test. The *r*-value was used as a measure of the strength of a relationship between variables, while the *p*-value was used to determine whether the correlation between variables was significant or not.

Table 3

Correlation between Reading Comprehension Strategy and Reading Proficiency Level

Reading Comprehension Strategy	Basic Readers			Independent Readers			Proficient Readers		
	r	Df	*p*-value (two-tailed)	r	Df	*p*-value (two-tailed)	R	df	*p*-value (two-tailed)
Summarizing	0.58	2.00	0.43	-0.07	22.00	0.61	0.00	0.00	0.001
Forming questions	-0.37	2.00	0.63	0.00	22.00	0.99	-1.00	0.00	0.001
Answering questions and elaborative interrogation	-0.09	2.00	0.91	0.09	22.00	0.66	-1.00	0.00	0.001
Activating prior knowledge	0.52	2.00	0.48	0.13	22.00	0.53	-1.00	0.00	0.001
Monitoring comprehension	0.92	2.00	0.08	0.13	22.00	0.54	-1.00	0.00	0.001
Using text-structure awareness	0.94	2.00	0.06	-0.04	22.00	0.86	-1.00	0.00	0.001
Using visual graphics and graphic organizers	-0.21	2.00	0.79	-0.39	22.00	0.06	1.00	0.00	0.001
Inferencing	0.42	2.00	0.58	0.07	22.00	0.75	-1.00	0.00	0.001
Mental translation	0.66	2.00	0.34	-0.17	22.00	0.43	0.00	0.00	0.001

Regarding the basic readers, two very strong positive relationships were observed between monitoring comprehension ($r = 0.92$; $p = 0.08$) and using text-structure awareness ($r = 0.94$; $p = 0.06$). There were also four strong relationships observed; mental translation ($r = 0.66$; $p = 0.34$); summarizing ($r = 0.58$; $p = 0.43$); activating prior knowledge ($r = 0.52$; $p = 0.48$); and inferencing ($r = 0.42$; $p = 0.58$). However, the *p*-values of these strategies, which were higher than 0.05, indicated that the correlations were not statistically significant. The relationships between the other reading strategies and reading proficiency were moderate negative (forming questions), weak negative (using visual graphics and graphic organizers),

or negligible (answering questions and elaborative interrogation). The correlation values for all of these strategies and the reading proficiency were not significant.

Concerning the independent readers, a moderate negative relationship was found between using visual graphics and graphic organizers, and reading proficiency (r = -0.39). The p-value of 0.06 indicated a weak evidence of a correlation between using visual graphics and graphic organizers and reading proficiency. In addition, there were no relationships observed between reading proficiency and mental translation, inferencing, using text-structure awareness, monitoring comprehension, activating prior knowledge, answering questions and elaborative interrogation, and summarizing. None of these relationships were significant either because their p-value was higher than 0.05. Regarding the independent readers, there was no relationship between forming questions and reading proficiency (r = 0).

A very strong positive relationship between using visual graphics and graphic organizers, and reading proficiency (r = 1.00) was observed among proficient readers. Very strong negative relationships between reading proficiency and forming questions, answering questions and elaborative interrogation, activating prior knowledge, monitoring comprehension, using text-structure awareness, and inferencing were also observed. It was also found that there was no relationship between reading proficiency and summarizing, and mental translation. The p-value for these relationships was 0.001, indicating a statistically highly significant value.

It is interesting to note that there is a significant positive correlation between the use of visual graphics and graphic organizers and the proficiency level of proficient readers. The positive correlation between these two variables indicates that participants who used visual graphics and graphic organizers performed better in their reading. This result somehow supports the findings of some other studies that visuals and graphic organizers would "facilitate comprehension of macrostructures and recall of main ideas for an immediate text" (Armbuster, Anderson, & Meyer, 1987; Guri-Rosenblit, 1989; Tang, 1992; as cited in Jiang & Grabe, 2007, p. 42). In addition, several studies (Berkowitz, 1986; Moore & Readence, 1984; Spiegel & Barufaldi, 1994; as cited in Jiang & Grabe, 2007) reveal that graphic organizers which are constructed by students themselves would lead to better comprehension than those constructed by teachers.

To summarize, there was no statistically significant correlation between basic and independent reading proficiencies, and the use of reading strategies. As for the proficient readers, it was found that there was a very significant strong positive correlation between using visual graphics and graphic organizers and reading proficiency, and no significant correlation relationship between reading proficiency and summarizing, and mental translation. There were six very strong significant negative correlations between reading proficiency and reading strategies usage.

The findings somehow indicate that reading strategy may contribute to reading proficiency level. However it may not be the only factor that can bring significant influence to the level of reading proficiency. Other factors such as motivation, age, type of task, and self-efficacy should also be taken into consideration. As stated by De Corte, Verschaffel, and Van De Ven (2001), reading comprehension (understanding, gaining meaning, and interpreting the text) depends on a variety of reader-related, text-related, and situational factors.

The statistics on the correlation between proficiency and strategy used also reminds us of Singhal's findings that students might report that they use reading strategies when in fact they do not (Singhal, 2001). This may also help explain why no correlation between some reading strategies and reading proficiency was found in this study. For example, graduate ID-034 gave 7 times a 5-point Likert-scale response and 5 times a 4-point Likert-scale response. Those are very high responses, a characteristic of proficient readers. However, the student was a basic reader with an EPT reading score of 47. This may further suggest that the questionnaire responses are not enough to get a complete picture of the participants' reading strategies usage. As Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002) observed in their study, a questionnaire alone is not enough to confirm whether students truly make use of the reading strategies reported by them.

Additionally, there is a possibility that readers do not use one strategy at a time but various kinds of strategies, as shown in some other studies. To this, Pressley and Harris (2008) state that effective readers make use of various strategies as they read. However, the present writers did not consider combinations of strategies in the correlation test, so this may be another reason why a correlation was not found between some reading strategies and reading proficiency.

Conclusion

This study gives an insight into the use of reading comprehension strategies by 30 graduates of the English Department batch 2012 of a private university in Surabaya, Indonesia. The results showed that the majority of the graduates were independent readers or at their intermediate level.

All of the nine reading comprehension strategies proposed by Grabe (2009) were used by basic, independent, and proficient readers with different frequencies. Inferencing was the only strategy that was usually/always/almost always used by all readers (ranked #1). However, the findings of this study demonstrate that the only statistically significant difference in terms of the use of reading strategies by different groups of readers was in the use of monitoring comprehension ($p = 0.01$). It was not known exactly which groups differed since the F value was not sufficient to run the Tukey HSD Test.

Some very strong and positive correlation between particular reading strategies and reading proficiency were found among basic and independent readers. However, the p values of the relationships indicated that the correlations were not significant.

Regarding the proficient readers, a very strong positive significant relationship between using visual graphics & graphic organizers, and reading proficiency was observed ($r = 1.00$; $p = 0.001$). Other strategies had very strong negative relationships or no relationship with the reading proficiency, and these correlations, as shown by the p-value, were significant.

The findings of this study yielded some recommendations for reading instruction in the classroom. First of all, the SORS could be used to help students become more aware of their reading strategies usage. The results of this questionnaire may also help teachers to determine which reading strategies their students are not using yet. Secondly, the recommendations from Almasi and Hart (2011) are also encouraged in this present study, namely, create a safe

environment for strategy use, include opportunities for student verbalization that encourage learners to share how they process text, vary the types of texts and tasks used during instruction, and vary the amount of cognitive effort needed by students.

For future research, this study may be replicated using a larger sample size, with participants either from primary or secondary education, and using other instruments such as the think-aloud protocol. Another suggestion is to investigate factors influencing reading proficiency other than reading strategies, such as motivation, age, gender, culture, aptitude, and length of exposure to language-learning or strategy-learning. Future research may also focus on students' awareness and perception of reading comprehension strategies, or factors that prevent them from not using reading comprehension strategies. Another suggestion is to research the effectiveness of strategy instruction. This can be done by conducting strategy-training sessions to assess whether such training would bring impact on the reading proficiency level of the participants.

References

Almasi, J. F., & Hart, S. J. (2011). Best practices in comprehension instruction. In L.M. Morrow & L.B. Gambrell (Eds.) *Best practices in literacy instruction* (*4th ed.) (*250-275). New York: Guilford Press.

BAN-PT (2016) *Hasil pencarian akreditasi program studi Sastra Inggris Universitas Kristen Petra.* Retrieved December 20, 2016 from http://ban-pt.kemdiknas.go.id/hasil-pencarian.php.

Blay, R., Mercado, K. A., & Villacorta, J. (2009). The relationship between motivation and second language reading comprehension among fourth grade Filipino students. *Philippine ESL Journal*, *2*, 5-30.

Block, E. (1986). The comprehension strategies of second language readers. *TESOL Quarterly*, *20*(3), 463-494. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3586295

Cahyono, B. Y., & Widiati, U. (2006). The teaching of EFL reading in the Indonesian context: The state of the art. *TEFLIN Journal, 17*(1), 36-58.

De Corte, E., Verschaffel, L., & Van De Ven, A. (2001). Improving text comprehension strategies in upper primary school children: A design experiment. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, *71,* 531-559.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Durkin, D. (1993). *Teaching them to read* (6th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Educational Testing Service. (2014). *TOEFL ITP® Test score descriptors*. Retrieved

November 24, 2016, fromhttp://www.ets.org/s/toefl_itp/pdf/test_score_descriptors.pdf

Elliot, J. (2005). *Using narrative in social research* (1st ed.). London: SAGE.

Floris, F. D., & Divina, M. (2009). A study on the reading skills of EFL university students. *TEFLIN Journal, 20*(1), 37-47.

Goodman, K. S. (1976). Reading: A psycholinguistic guessing game. In H. Singer and R. B. Ruddel (Eds.), *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (2nd ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Grabe, W. (2009). *Reading in a second language: Moving from theory to practice.* New York: Cambridge University Press.

Griffin, P., Care, E., Francis, M., Hutchinson, D., & Pavlovic, M. (2012). The influence of teaching strategies on student achievement in higher order skills. Paper presented at the *ACER Research Conference 2012: School improvement: What does research tell us about effective strategies?* Sydney Convention and Exhibition Centre, Darling Harbour, NSW. Retrieved 1 October 2016 from http://research.acer.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1149&context=research_conference.

Harris, T., & Hodges, R. (1995). *The literacy dictionary* (1st ed.). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.

Hirsch, Jr., E. D. (2003). Reading comprehension requires knowledge—of words and the world: Scientific insights into the fourth-grade slump and the nation's stagnant comprehension scores. *American Educator, 27*(1), 10-13.

Indonesian Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education. (2016). *Decree of the Indonesian Ministry of Research, Technology, and Higher Education number 492.a/M/Kp/VIII/2015 on classification and ranking of universities in Indonesia for the year 2015*. Retrieved November 18, 2016, from http://ristekdikti.go.id/sk-klasifikasi-dan-pemeringkatan-perguruan-tinggi-di-indonesia-tahun-2015/

Jiang, X., & Grabe, W. (2007). Graphic organizers in reading instruction: Research findings and issues. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *19*(1), 34-55.

Kurland, D. (2000). *How the language really works: The fundamentals of critical reading and effective writing.* Retrieved December 5, 2016, from http://www.criticalreading.com/improve_reading.htm

Lahuerta, A. C. (1999). L2 Students' metacognitive awareness of reading strategies and its relationship to reading comprehension. *LFE: Revista de Lenguas para Fines Específicos, 5,* 107-130.

Lowry, R. (2016) *One-way analysis of variance for independent or correlated samples.* Retrieved January 10, 2017, from http://vassarstats.net/anova1u.html

Masduqi, H. (2014). EFL reading in Indonesian universities: Perspectives and challenges in cultural contexts. *Journal of Teaching and Education, 3*(3), 385-397.

Mokhtari, K., & Sheorey, R. (2002). Measuring ESL students' awareness of reading strategies. *Journal of Developmental Education, 25*, 2-10.

Ngan, M. H. (2016). *The relationship between reading strategy use and reading proficiency of Vietnamese students in the UK* (master dissertation), Northumbria University, UK.

Nurlaelawati, I., & Dzulqodah, S. (2014). Reading aloud strategies in reading English texts. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 3*(2), 89-99.

Orange, V. B. (2014). *A bill in the council of the District of Columbia: Reading development*. Retrieved from http://focusdc.org/civicrm/file?id=322&eid=66446

Oxford, R. L. (1990). *Language learning strategies: What every teacher should know.* New York: Newbury House Publishers.

Pammu, A., Amir, Z., & Maasum, T. N. R. T. M. (2014). Metacognitive reading strategies of less proficient tertiary learners: A case study of EFL learners at a public university in Makassar, Indonesia. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *118*, 357-364.

Park, J. (2015). Insights into Korean EFL students' reading motivation, proficiency, and strategy use. *English Teaching, 70*(1), 57-74.

Pressley, M., & Harris, K. R. (2008). Cognitive strategies instruction: From basic research to classroom instruction. *The Journal of Education, 189*(1/2), 77-94.

Reutzel, D., & Cooter Jr., R. B. (2004). *Teaching children to read: Putting the pieces together* (4th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education.

Salataci, R. (2002). Possible effects of strategy instruction on L1 and L2 reading. *Reading in a Foreign Language, 14*(1), 1-16.

Samuels, S. (2006). Toward a model of reading fluency. In S. Samuels & A. Farstrup (Eds.),

What research has to say about fluency instruction (pp. 24-46). Newark, DE:

International Reading Association.

Sawaki, Y., & Sabatini, J. (2007). *Reading efficiency and reading comprehension*. Princeton,

NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Schunk, D., & Rice, J. (1992). Influence of reading-comprehension strategy information on children's achievement outcomes. *Learning Disability Quarterly, 15*(1), 51-64. doi:10.2307/1510565

Singhal, M. (2001). Reading proficiency, reading strategies, metacognitive awareness and L2 readers. *The Reading Matrix, 1(1).* Retrieved on November 1, 2016 from http://www.readingmatrix.com/articles/singhal/

Smith, F. (1973). *Psycholinguistics and reading*. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.

The IRIS Center. (2012). *Secondary reading instruction: Teaching vocabulary and comprehension in the content areas*. Retrieved November 20, 2016, from http://iris.peabody.vanderbilt.edu/module/sec-rdng/

Wahyuni, I., & Wahyudi, A. (2012). Eleventh graders' reading strategies in reading English texts at SMA Negeri 8 Malang. Retrieved October 17, 2016, from http://jurnal-online.um.ac.id/data/artikel/artikel595C302014C90CA30FB3874EDF409C22.pdf

Wong, M. (2010). *Effectiveness of comprehension strategies instruction on developing secondary 4 students' reading abilities*. (Thesis). University of Hong Kong, Pokfulam, Hong Kong SAR. Retrieved from http://dx.doi.org/10.5353/th_

Woolley, G. (2011). *Reading comprehension: Assisting children with learning difficulties*. London: Springer Science & Business Media.

Yu-Fen, Y. (2002). Reassessing readers' comprehension monitoring. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, *14*(1), 18-41.

About the Authors

Juan Gabriel Venceslá was born in Spain and is now a BA graduate majoring in English Education Business at the English Department of Petra Christian University, Surabaya, Indonesia. Juan is a passionate teacher who loves teaching general English courses to primary and secondary school students. He believes that that a key quality of a good teacher is the ability to motivate his/her students. Juan's current research interests are in TESL/TEFL methodology and teacher professional development.

Flora Debora Floris is currently a lecturer at the English Department of Petra Christian University, Surabaya, where she teaches English Education Business subjects. She has published and presented her papers on the integration of technology in English language teaching, teachers' professional development, and the teaching of English as an international language. Flora actively manages an online teacher professional development forum called *Teacher Voices*: http://www.facebook.com/groups/teachervoices/.

Acknowledgments

The first draft of this paper was presented at the *8th National English Language Teachers and Lecturers (NELTAL 2016) Conference* hosted by State University of Malang, Indonesia. We would like to thank the conference participants for their feedback to improve the quality of our writing. Our gratitude also goes to the Head of English Department and the Head of Petra Language Center of Petra Christian University for supporting our research and publication.

Factors Influencing ESL Learners' Perceptions towards a Task-based Approach to Speaking: Secondary School Students' Perspectives from Hong Kong

Tsang Chi Lai and John Trent

The Education University of Hong Kong

Abstract

Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT) has been practiced in contemporary English language Teaching (ELT), and its impact on ESL and EFL learners' speaking complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF) development has been well researched (e.g. Ellis, 2009b; Foster & Skehan, 2013; Skehan & Foster, 2012; Yuan & Ellis, 2003). Yet, there are few analyses of how secondary ESL learners perceive this approach.This article contributes to filling this gap in the literature by investigating learners' reactions to a task-based speaking course at a Hong Kong secondary school. Detailed qualitative data were collected over a one month period through four rounds of semi-structured focus-group interview with six secondary ESL learners. Content data analysis was conducted, and main themes that emerged from the interview transcript were identified, refined and categorized accordingly. Results show that learners' perceptions are dynamically shaped by several intertwining factors: usefulness, language proficiency, support from teacher, individual characteristics, cultural influence, and previous experience. Drawing upon the factors, a tentative explanatory framework for secondary ESL learners' perceptions towards a task-based approach to speaking is proposed. It is suggested that this study may also shed light on the facilitation of TBLT in Hong Kong and in a variety of other contexts.

Keywords: Task-based Language Teaching; teaching speaking; learner perceptions.

Introduction

Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT), an offshoot from the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach (Kumaravadivelu, 2006), is "a new orthodoxy" (Carless, 2007, p595) within contemporary English language teaching (Carless, 2012; Ellis, 2009; Littlewood, 2004; Nunan, 2003; Thomas, 2015). TBLT, founded on the fundamental principle of 'learning by communicating' (Ellis,

Corresponding Author's Affiliation: *The Education University of Hong Kong*

Email: jtrent@eduhk.hk

2009a), emphasizes the provision of meaningful communicative opportunities in the form of tasks (Ellis, 2003; Littlewood, 2004). It is suggested that tasks, if designed and administered appropriately, promote the negotiation of meaning and the purposeful exchange of information, ideas and opinions (Ellis, 2003; Littlewood, 2004; Skehan, 2007).

In Hong Kong, educational policy makers have endorsed the use of TBLT in the English language classroom. For example, a 2003 plan to raise language standards in Hong Kong emphasized the need to assist learners "enhance their vocabulary building skills through purposeful tasks in meaningful contexts" (SCOLAR, 2003, p. 43). This emphasis on the use of tasks is also reflected in Hong Kong's senior secondary school English language curriculum, which encourages teachers "to adopt the task based approach", thereby providing learners "with a framework that allows them to learn in purposeful and authentic situations" (Education Bureau, 2007, pp. 52-53). Task based assessment has also been promoted as an essential component of the English language curriculum in Hong Kong (Education Bureau, 2005).

Despite the endorsement of some educational policy makers, recent research has identified conceptual, classroom and societal level challenges confronting the implementation of TBLT in Asian educational settings (Butler, 2011). These challenges imply the need, as Harris (2016) points out, for more in-depth research into the implementation of TBLT in Asian classrooms. Such research, however, should include learners' perceptions of TBLT, a perspective that has been relatively neglected in current investigations into the implementation of TBLT in Asia. This is surprising given recent attention to the need to account for the contributions of learners to language teaching and learning (Breen, 2014). The aim of this study, therefore, is to contribute to our understanding of the implementation of TBLT in Asian educational contexts by exploring the perspectives of one group of English language learners in Hong Kong who took part in a series of language learning activities based upon principles of TBLT. The current paper begins by reviewing the perceptions of key educational stakeholders concerning the implementation of TBLT in Asia. Next, the current study is described and the perceptions of one group of learners about their experiences of TBLT are reported. A framework for understanding these perceptions is suggested and implications for teachers and teaching as well as future research considered. In doing so, the study could contribute to the emergence of what Smith (2016) terms the "Facilitator-People" English language teaching perspective, in which classroom activities are shaped by the need to "facilitate the person's ability to use the language in a real environment outside the classroom for real world tasks" (p. 72).

Literature Review

Recent literature addressing the perceptions of stakeholders towards TBLT in Asian educational settings has predominantly considered the views of teachers (Carless, 2004; Carless, 2007; Harris; 2016; Littlewood, 2007; Nishino, 2008; Woods & Çakır, 2011). In many of these studies the limited implementation of TBLT in schools throughout Asia has been attributed to a range of teacher-perceived challenges on conceptual-, classroom-, and societal-institutional-levels (Butler, 2011). These factors include perceived difficulties in classroom management (Butler, 2011; Carless, 2004; Littlewood, 2007), learners' avoidance of English (e.g. Carless, 2004; Littlewood; 2007), learners' language proficiency (Adams & Newton, 2009; Carless, 2003; Luo & Yi, 2013), conflicts with educational traditions (e.g. Butler, 2011; Carless 2003; Hu, 2004), and incompatibility with public examinations (Butler, 2011; Butler & Lino, 2005; Harris; 2016; Littlewood, 2007).

Studies that have considered the perspectives of learners in Asia towards TBLT have placed particular emphasis on language proficiency: learners with better language proficiency are thought to benefit more from the communicative tasks and are, thus, more likely to favor TBLT (e.g. Carless, 2002; Tseung, 2006). On the contrary, learners with lower language proficiency, who are often afflicted with senses of embarrassment and helplessness (Burrows, 2008), have a higher tendency to reject TBLT (Carless, 2008; Rao, 2002; Littlewood, 2007). This finding is confirmed by Hsu (2015)'s study in which Taiwanese university freshmen attributed their minimal verbal involvement during tasks to their perceived poor English listening and speaking proficiency. Similarly, Rao (2002) found the same phenomenon among the Chinese university students, whose negative perceptions of TBLT were based on the belief that their limited language competence impeded their capacity to participate in TBLT.

Cultural factors are also identified as shaping learners' perceptions of TBLT. Asian language learners, for instance, have been reported to be in favor of teacher-oriented, textbook-based approaches (Carless, 2004; Hu, 2005; Littlewood, 2007) owing to the prevailing Confusion culture of learning under which "education is conceived as a process of knowledge accumulation than as a process of using knowledge for immediate purposes" (Hu, 2005, p653). Thus, Asian learners have been found to be uncomfortable with the learner-centered approach at the heart of TBLT (Burrows, 2008; Carless, 2004; Littlewood, 2007; Rao, 2005). In the case of Japanese language learners, Burrows (2008) suggests that such views limit their capacity to initiate discussions, make contributions, and respond to the teacher during tasks.

Finally, the privileging of students' success in high stakes public examinations has also been raised as a possible factor limiting the appeal of TBLT in some Asian educational contexts. For instance, Samimy & Kobayashi (2004) describe the rejection of TBLT by secondary school Japanese learners as a result of the mismatch between TBLT's focus on the communicative aspects of the language and grammar-based college entrance examinations. Asian learners have also expressed concern over the possibility of a lack of systematic form-focused instruction in TBLT (Littlewood, 2007; Loewen et al., 2009; Zhang, 2007). Mcdonough & Chaikitmongkol (2007) report a strong desire for explicit grammar instruction amongst university students in Thailand, who requested more teacher-led explanations about grammar within the context of a task-based course.

The current study contributes to understanding the implementation of TBLT in Asian educational settings by addressing the following research question:

> *What are the perceptions of one group of Hong Kong secondary school English language learners towards TBLT?*

The Study

Participants

A total of six English as a second language learners were invited to join the study, which is consistent with Duff's (2008) observation that frequently four to six participants are selected for case study research. The participants, aged between 16 to 18 years old, were all Year 11 (Secondary 5) male Hong Kong Chinese ESL learners from an English as Medium of Instruction (EMI) Boy's government secondary school in Hong Kong in which, at the time of the study, the first author was

completing a teaching internship. A purposive approach to sampling was adopted (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Thus, the participants were invited to join the study based on their English Language proficiency: two high proficiency learners, two average learners, and two low proficiency learners, based upon their scores in the 2015 English Language examinations conducted within their school and taking into account feedback on their performance from their English language teacher. The profiles of the participants can be found in Table 1. It should also be noted that the participants had minimal prior experience with TBLT as their school insistently adhered to a teacher-centered textbook- and knowledge-based teaching approach.

Participant	Gender	Age	Year of Study	English Language Proficiency
S1	Male	17	Secondary 5	High
S2	Male	17	Secondary 5	High
S3	Male	17	Secondary 5	Average
S4	Male	18	Secondary 5	Average
S5	Male	17	Secondary 5	Low
S6	Male	16	Secondary 5	Low

Table 1 Profiles of the Participants

The Task-based Course

A task syllabus was created by the first author in accordance with the Education Bureau's (2007) TBLT guideline which emphasizes that language learning is the result of meaningful and purposeful interaction. Taking up a total of four 40-minute sessions, the task syllabus was designed around four speaking tasks that targeted fluency: (1) spotting the differences between two sets of photos (the old and new Hong Kong), (2) presenting a text about urban development, (3) discussing whether a landmark in Hong Kong should be demolished, and (4) proposing a development plan for a rural area. The choice of topics for the tasks was based upon a recent topic the participants had studied in their English language lesson (urban development) and was designed around the TBLT principle of approximating the types of linguistic behaviour expected of participants beyond the classroom (Nunan, 2004), in this case creating a reasoning gap which necessitates negotiation until a consensus is reached. The task syllabus was evaluated and approved by an experienced English language teacher within the school before it was implemented with the participants over four consecutive Mondays during the lunch hour.

Data Collection

This study drew on qualitative data from four semi-structured focus-group interviews to gain an in-depth understanding of the participants' perceptions towards the task-based course. Semi-structured interviews were used because they allow the flexibility to incorporate the respondents' emerging worldview as well as new ideas on the topic (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Focus-group interviews, in which "one participant's reaction to a question draws out another's response" (Kelly, 2003, p55), were simultaneously employed in view of how it facilitates the generation of rich data (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). The four interviews, lasting between 16 minutes and 19 minutes, were conducted by the first author in Cantonese, the language the group preferred, immediately after each TBLT session at a time when the participants' memory of the task was still fresh. Interview questions addressed participants' perceptions of the strengths and weaknesses of each TBLT session for language learning, whether they had enjoyed the TBLT experience, as well as any suggestions they might have for

changing the teaching materials or lesson delivery. Each interview was audio-recorded, transcribed and translated.

Data Analysis

This study took an inductive approach to data analysis in which themes emerge naturally from the data (Silverman, 2013). To begin with, the author studied all the transcripts and compiled a list of 17 initial themes (see Table 2). Once these isolated themes had been identified, the authors started identifying and pulling together illustrative segments of information under each theme across respondents and rounds of interviews (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). As more segments were added and the overlaps of certain themes were identified (e.g. grammar input and teacher-led grammar instruction), the list of initial themes was refined by grouping related themes together and subsequently renaming the combined category whenever necessary. The final step of the data analysis was to have another unbiased researcher to check the validity of the refined list and supporting segments. The differences in opinion (n=5) were then identified and ultimately resolved through discussion. Finally, a list of finalized themes under which supporting segments are grouped was generated (see Table 2).

Initial Themes	Final Themes
1. Relation to real-life situations	1. Usefulness
2. Relation to public examinations	
3. Speaking ability	2. Language proficiency
4. Listening ability	
5. Difficulty in communication	
6. Language anxiety	
7. Grammar input	3. Support from teacher
8. Teacher-led grammar instruction	
9. Error correction	
10. Catering for learner diversity	
11. Personality	4. Individual characteristics
12. Confidence	
13. Self-esteem	
14. Views on learner autonomy	
15. Chinese culture	5. Cultural influence
16. Previous educational experience	6. Previous experience
17. Previous experience with TBLT	

Table 2 A List of Initial and Finalized Themes

Findings

Analysis of data revealed that learners' perceptions towards the task-based speaking course centered were shaped by six intertwining factors: (1) usefulness, (2) language proficiency, (3) support from teacher, (4) individual characteristics, (5) cultural influence, and (6) previous experience. Table 1 is a summary of the findings which are discussed in greater detail below.

Factor	Reported by Participant(s)	Frequency
1. Usefulness		
- Real-life relevance	1, 2, 4	3 out of 6
- Public examination relevance	1, 3, 4, 6	4 out of 6
2. Language proficiency		
- Proficiency in speaking	1, 3, 5, 6	4 out of 6
- Proficiency in listening	2, 4, 5	3 out of 6
- Ease of communication	5, 6	2 out of 6
- Confidence in using the language	3, 4, 5, 6	4 out of 6
3. Support from teacher		
- Grammar input	2, 3, 4	3 out of 6
- Error correction	2, 6	2 out of 6
- Management of learner diversity	3, 5, 6	3 out of 6
4. Individual characteristics		
- Personality	1, 3	2 out of 6
- Self-esteem	2, 5, 6	3 out of 6
- Learning style	2, 4	2 out of 6
5. Cultural influence		
- Chinese culture	1, 3, 4	3 out of 6
6. Previous Experience		
- Previous experience with TBLT	1, 6	2 out of 6
- Previous educational experience	3	1 out of 6

Table 3 A Summary of the Findings

Usefulness

Usefulness, as mentioned by all the six participants, emerged from the data as a prominent factor that determined learners' perceptions towards a task-based approach to speaking. According to the participants, the notion of usefulness was two-fold as it referred to the extent to which the tasks were useful in preparing them for two distinctive occasions: real-life situations (real-life relevance) and public examinations (public examination relevance). In terms of real-life relevance, three out of six participants expressed their appreciation of the tasks' authenticity and resemblance to real-life interactions in which the use of language, unlike the prescribed textbook exercises, is contextualized, unrestricted, purposeful, and meaningful. Sample extracts are shown below.

Extract 1

S1: I think the discussion we did… is like what we do in real-life… Unlike the textbook exercise, I think this [the task] is particularly useful because we are not relying on the textbook knowledge but constructing knowledge from our own minds.

Extract 2

S4: Thanks to the given situation, I feel like this activity is real in the sense that we are really discussing… but not reciting from the textbooks… It [the task] is an example of real communication. I think I was using the language to my own advantage.

Yet, despite the acknowledgement of the tasks' real-life relevance, four out of six participants across all levels of abilities went on to criticize the tasks' minimal public examination relevance by underscoring how the tasks deviated from and failed to exert a direct and immediate effect on their HKDSE speaking examination:

Extract 3

S1: The activity is interesting but it doesn't resemble what we are going to do in the HKDSE Speaking Exam.

Extract 4

S3: While I like the activities a lot, I think my experience in doing these activities can hardly be useful for HKDSE speaking examination.

In the most extreme case as in that of S6, the minimal public examination relevance alone led to an instant deliberate rejection.

Extract 5

S6: Honestly I would prefer HKDSE practice, the eight-minute group discussion and the one-minute individual response, to this type of activity [tasks].

Language Proficiency

Language proficiency was another detrimental factor suggested by all the six participants. The participants' responses (see Extracts 6 and 7) underscored their unanimous belief that both speaking proficiency and listening proficiency were the prerequisites to a task-based approach to speaking.

Extract 6

S1: You really need to be able to speak well, at least up to the level where people can understand you, or else you can't even play a part in the activity.

Extract 7

S2: … you also have to be able to listen or else there would be no interaction. Without any interactions, there is no point of doing the activity.

While these two more-able learners were confident and were able to complete the tasks at ease, the other learners, especially the two less-able learners, expressed that they were struggling and could hardly participate even if they wanted to. Their predicament was marked by the following extracts.

Extract 8

S6: All you have is a stretch of silence if you can't speak English.

Extract 9

S5: Sometimes I don't really understand what my group members said because of the difficult words or idioms they used so I couldn't really follow the activity.

Extract 10

S3: The good English speakers took over the discussion while the others can't really participate much even if they want to.

The two less-able learners elaborated further their sense of unease and frustration over their failure to get the intended meaning across during tasks owing to their low language proficiency:

Extract 11

S5: With my limited vocabulary and sentence pattern, I find it hard to get my meaning across.

Extract 12

S6: What I said the most was "I agree with you" but indeed I don't really agree with everything. The reason I did so is that I don't know how to make a sound disagreement in English.

Three out of six participants, who were the average and less-able learners, also remarked that they lacked confidence in using the language. Their sense of anxiousness in reflected in the following extracts:

Extract 13

S3: I think I am not a bad language user but then I admit that I panicked when I was asked to present in front of my friends, especially given that I had no input of what I was supposed to say.

Extract 14

S5: My mind was blank when I had to use my own words to express complex ideas that could hardly be expressed in English.

Support from Teacher

Support from the teacher, including grammar input and error correction, was acknowledged by five participants as another influencing factor that shaped their perceptions. Indeed, three advanced and intermediate learners argued that a lack of grammar input from the teacher could be a significant limitation of the task-based approach:

Extract 15

S2: I don't see much grammar input from the teacher… I believe it is always important for any activities in an English class to have, at least, some elements of grammar.

Extract 16

S3: I feel like I haven't really learnt anything in terms of grammar through this activity.

To these learners, explicit teacher-led grammar instruction was perceived as an integral component of any English activity and thus to reduce the portion of grammar input was unreasonable. The desire to have explicit instruction from the teacher was also echoed in two of the participants' disappointment of not having their errors corrected immediately (see Extract 17 and 18).

Extract 17

S2: Actually I would love to have my errors corrected on the spot... However, my errors… only some of them… are corrected at the end of the lesson.

Extract 18

S6: It is rather disappointing not to have my mistakes corrected right away. The teacher never stops me even if I know I have made a lot of mistakes.

Three participants, who were less-able learners, argued in favour of greater teacher support for students during a TBLT class:

Extract 19

S6: I would like to receive more help from the teacher when I am struggling but this wasn't how it went.

Extract 20

S5: … the teacher should give more encouragement and guidance to the weaker ones.

Individual Characteristics

The factor 'individual characteristics', which encompassed the traits of personality, self-esteem and learning style, was noted by all six participants. Two participants explained how their personality decisively shaped two opposing attitudes towards the task-based approach:

Extract 21

S1: I guess I enjoyed the task and spoke a lot because I am an out-going person who loves to talk. However, as for those who don't like to (talk), they will probably find this [participating in tasks] uncomfortable.

Extract 22

S3: I am not a talkative person so I don't really say much in reality, not to say in the activity.

In addition to personality, two less-able learners also emphasized, how self-esteem which was in this case closely tied to language proficiency came to become a significant inhibiting factor:

Extract 23

S5: I think my words are not only less intelligent than the others but also nonsense so sometimes I intentionally refrain from speaking.

Extract 24

S6: There are times in which I question the worthiness of what I said.

Moreover, learning style was also found to be influential. Two participants expressed how their affection for tasks was grounded on the alliance between their appreciation for self-directed independent learning and the learner-autonomy granted by the task-based approach:

Extract 25

S2: I feel like and I do enjoy that I am empowered to think and talk on my own without the instructions about what I should do or say from the teacher.

Extract 26

S4: It actually feels great to take charge of our own learning… we identify, discuss, and learn from the things that we… believe to be worthwhile…

Cultural Influence

Three participants reported the traditional Chinese culture, which was largely conservative, had prohibited them from actively participating in the communicative tasks. Such a belief was expressed by S4:

Extract 27

S4: Thanks to the Chinese culture, I think I am, and indeed most of us are, very conscious of our self-image so we won't allow us to embarrass ourselves in front of the others. Therefore, we would choose not to say a word instead of making an attempt to talk when we are struggling.

Chinese culture, which emphasizes harmony, was also seen as contributing to the lack of disagreement which some participants noticed characterized their participation in TBLT:

Extract 28

S3: As Asians, we would avoid disagreeing with one another unless his/her opinion is really ridiculous. For most of the time, we tend to agree with the others and build on their ideas. This, however, does kill the possibility of having a lively and fruitful discussion.

Previous Experience

Another factor cited by three participants was previous experience. One of them, a less-able learner, reported that his uneasiness towards tasks was predetermined by his previous negative language learning experiences:

Extract 29

S6: My sense of unease towards these uncontrolled speaking activities stems from my previous negative experiences in which I felt like I was left out by the others.

Similarly, S1 demonstrated, in the opposite way, the strong impact previous experience had on his perceptions.

Extract 30

S1: I have always enjoyed these sort of activities in which you have a role to play… I will try my best to do them [tasks] whenever I have the chance.

Another participant remarked the traditional teacher-centered, textbook-based learning was what stopped him from adjusting to the learner-centered task-based approach:

Extract 31

S3: I think maybe I am so used to traditional mode of teaching in which learning is led by the teacher and is based solely on the textbook… We seldom have to speak on our own.

Discussion

This study investigated Hong Kong secondary ESL learners' perceptions towards a task-based approach to speaking. The findings suggest that learners' perceptions were shaped by six factors: usefulness, language proficiency, support from teacher, individual characteristics, cultural influence and previous experience.

Learners' concern over the usefulness of TBLT, particularly in terms of its public examination relevance, is in agreement with previous studies conducted in the Asian EFL contexts (e.g. Rao, 2002; Samimy & Kobayashi, 2004). The learners' dissatisfaction with TBLT's minimal public examination relevance is understandable and accounts for the learners predominately negative perceptions towards TBLT despite their mutual acknowledgement of its authenticity and real-life relevance.

The way in which learners' language proficiency predetermined their task experience confirms Carless (2003)'s hypothesis and Tseung (2006)'s conclusion that learners' varying language proficiency yields differentiated learning outcomes in TBLT: the more proficient a learner is, the more likely he or she is to participate in and benefit from the tasks. The reason behind this outcome could be explained by the less-able learners' predicament in this study. These less-able learners, even if they have the desire to participate and to learn, end up being mentally confined in a situation where what is told by the others cannot be understood and what should be said cannot be verbalized. TBLT, in this sense, is interpreted by learners according to their language proficiency.

The preference of some learners for teacher support in TBLT, especially in the forms of grammar input and error correction, reflects the findings of previous studies conducted in Asian ESL and EFL contexts (e.g. Loewen et al., 2009; Mcdonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007). To the Asian learners, the teacher may be positioned as the transmitter of knowledge whose primary job is, simply, to teach the English Language in a way that is direct, systematic and form-focused (Zhang, 2007). This stereotypical perceived role of the teacher thus explains the learners' criticism of the lack of teacher support in TBLT in which the teacher is more an observer and facilitator, and their preference for explicit teacher-led grammar instruction and error correction over the less-restricted, integrative, learner-centered TBLT. From the eyes of the learners, learning in TBLT is minimal if no such support is offered by the teacher.

In this study, it was reported that individual characteristics of learners, such as personality and self-esteem, represents one of the key constituents of learner's perceptions of TBLT. While the power of self-esteem in shaping learners' perceptions was acknowledged in previous studies (e.g. Hsu, 2015; Rao, 2002), personality is a construct that has not been fully explored in the literature on Asian learners' attitudes to TBLT. In the existing studies, the learners' personality is often examined collectively, often as the 'learner characteristics of Asian learners' (e.g. Butler, 2011), but not individually. Yet, as the findings of this study suggest, learners' personality can play a role in shaping their perceptions towards TBLT. For example, learners in this study who positioned themselves as extroverted learner appeared more likely to have positive perceptions of TBLT.

Learners' beliefs about how traditional Chinese culture could impose constraints on students' participation in communicative tasks adds a new dimension to the notion of cultural influence by extending its scope beyond the 'traditional culture of learning' (Hu, 2005). For example, the findings in the present study suggests that cultural values such as the concern for 'face' and the emphasis on harmony are also integral aspects of cultural influence which might be overlooked in previous studies. For instance, it was found in the study that the lack of attempts to speak in times of uncertainty and the limited disagreements in discussion tasks were surprisingly yet precisely the outcomes of these cultural values. Thus, cultural influence should encompass not only the learning culture but also cultural values.

Finally, the finding that some learners' previous educational experience led to biased perceptions about TBLT is consistent with Rao (2002)'s interpretation that some learners were too accustomed to the traditional, teacher-centered and textbook-based learning styles and habits that they could hardly accommodate the astonishingly different TBLT. If, as Littlewood (2007) suggests, TBLT is the inversion of the traditional and conventional way of teaching in Asia, learner's failure to quickly adapt to TBLT is understandable. In addition to the teaching conventions, the findings of the present study also suggest that learners' previous experience with TBLT, both positive and negative, continues to influence their perceptions of TBLT.

Drawing upon the six factors that emerged from the present study, a tentative explanatory framework for secondary school ESL learners' perceptions towards a task-based approach to speaking (see Figure 1) is proposed. In this framework, the six surrounding circles each represents one of the influencing factors perceived by the learners: usefulness, language proficiency, support from teacher, individual characteristics, cultural influence, and previous experience. These circles are purposefully and strategically placed to intertwine and overlap with one another in order to illustrate the probable existence of a certain degree of interplay among the factors.

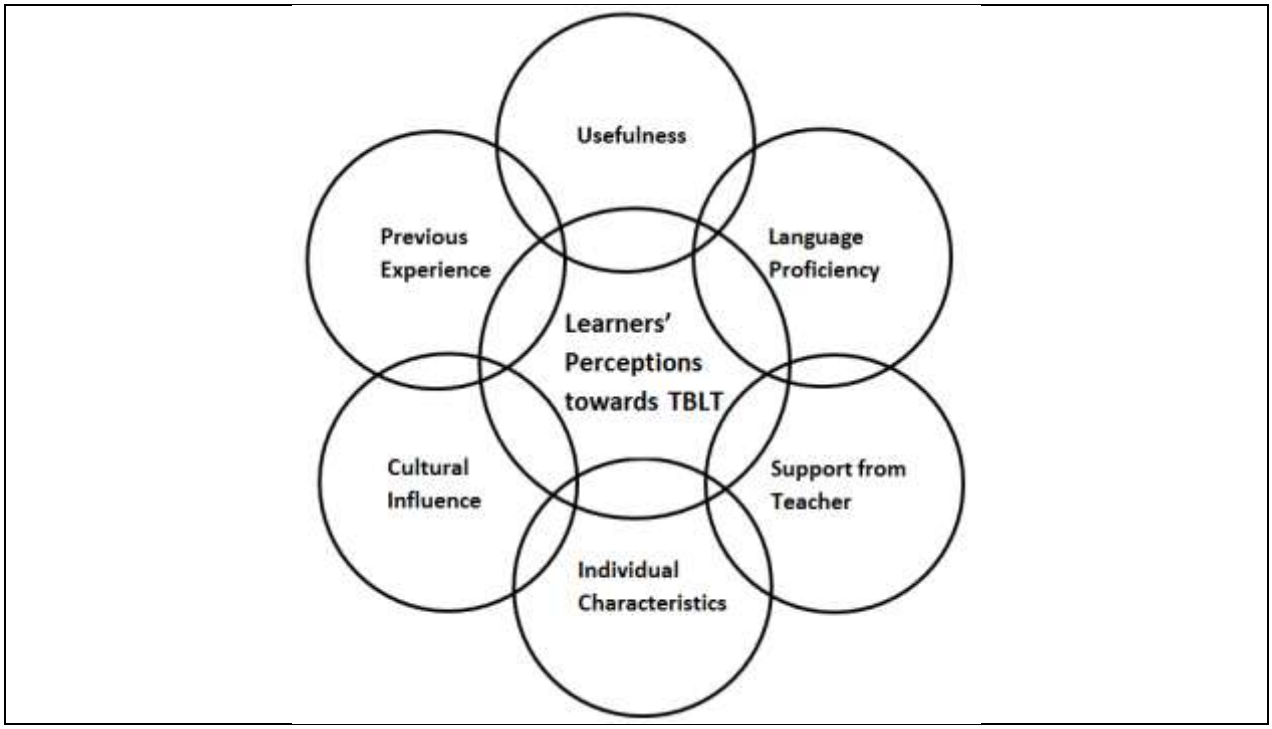


Figure 1 A Framework for Secondary School ESL learners' Perceptions towards a Task-based Approach to Speaking

TBLT in Asian English Language Classrooms

It is believed that the present study can shed light on the facilitation of TBLT in Hong Kong and in a variety of other ESL and EFL contexts in Asia. For instance, this study offers teachers a comprehensive and systematic overview of the possible influencing factors that shape Hong Kong secondary ESL learners' perceptions towards TBLT. These factors, though collected from Hong Kong learners, are believed to be useful for other Asian countries as they share similar cultural values and "the culture of learning" (Littlewood, 2007, p245).

Knowledge of the factors that shape learners' perceptions of TBLT can assist teachers in the design and implementation of TBLT in Asian English language classrooms. Upon a closer look at these factors, a distinction can be drawn between manipulative factors, that is, factors that are subject to change and non-manipulative factors, those that are less likely to be altered in the short term. Thus, a teacher looking to implement TBLT might begin by observing the non-manipulative factors (individual characteristics, cultural influence and previous experience) and utilizing the manipulative factors (usefulness, language proficiency, and support from teacher). Turning to the non-manipulative factors, given how influential they are in determining learners' perceptions and the fact that they are not subject to change, they should be taken to heart at all times so that the tasks are shaped and implemented in a way that such factors are accounted for. Thus, a teacher could adopt a weaker form of TBLT with a class of quiet, introverted learners as it matches more closely with learners' characteristics and expectations. As for the manipulative factors which are open to change, they should be exploited to create and to reinforce favorable conditions for TBLT. For example, a teacher could offer extra language input to a class of beginning or intermediate learners so as to both satisfy students' desire for explicit grammar instructions and to ensure they are linguistically ready for the subsequent task(s).

Conclusion

As noted at the beginning of this article, Hong Kong secondary ESL learners' perception towards TBLT has been under-researched. The present study is a modest attempt to bridge this gap by empirically investigating these learners' perceptions within the context of a Hong Kong secondary school. The findings of the study suggest that learners' perceptions centered on and were dynamically shaped by six intertwining factors: usefulness, language proficiency, support from teacher, individual characteristics, cultural influence, and previous experience. It is hoped that these findings, as well as serving as a framework of reference, can offer insights into how TBLT can be practically facilitated in the challenging language classrooms of Asia.

A limitation of this exploratory study is its sampling as the participants were only six Band One EMI Secondary five male learners. Therefore, future research studies can further explore how TBLT is perceived by a larger number of secondary ESL learners across different gender and age ranges, as well as different types of schools in a variety of educational contexts in Asia and beyond. Such studies could also explore learners' perceptions in response to variations in task design, goals and level of difficulty. In this way, it should be noted that the factors identified in this study are by no means exhaustive and more factors are likely to be identified as more comprehensive studies are conducted.

References

Adams, R., & Newton, J. (2009). TBLT in Asia: Constraints and opportunities. *Asian Journal of English Language Teaching*, *19*(1), 1-17.

Block, D. (1996). A window on the classroom: classroom events viewed from different angles. In K.M. Bailey, D. Nunan (Eds.), *Voice from the Language Classroom: Qualitative Research in Second Language Education (pp. 168-194).* Cambridge University Press: Cambridge.

Burrows, C. (2008). "An evaluation of task-based learning (TBL) in the Japanese classroom". *English Today*, 24(4), 11–16.

Butler, Y. G. (2011). The implementation of communicative and task-based language teaching in the Asia-Pacific region. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *31*, 36-57.

Butler, Y. G., & Lino, M. (2005). Current Japanese reforms in English language education: the 2003 "action plan". *Language Policy*, *4*(1), 25-45.

Carless, D. (2002). "Implementing task-based learning with young learners". *English Language Teaching Journal*, 56(4), 389–396.

Carless, D. R. (2003). Factors in the implementation of task-based teaching in primary schools. *System: An International Journal of Educational Technology and Applied Linguistics, 31*(4), 485–500.

Carless, D. (2004). Issues in teachers' reinterpretation of a task-based innovation in primary schools. *Tesol Quarterly*, 639-662.

Carless, D. (2007). The suitability of task-based approaches for secondary schools: Perspectives from Hong Kong. *System*, *35*(4), 595-608.

Carless, D. (2008). Student use of the mother tongue in the task-based classroom. *ELT journal*, *62*(4), 331-338.

Carless, D. (2012). TBLT in EFL settings: Looking back and moving forward. *Task-based language teaching in foreign language contexts: Research and implementation*, 345-358.

Cheng, L. (2008). Washback, impact and consequences. In *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 2479-2494). Springer.

Cheng, L. (2014). Consequences, impact, and washback. *The companion to language assessment*. III:9:68:1130–1145.

Duff, P. (2008). *Case study research in applied linguistics*. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Education Bureau (2005). *Task-based Assessment for English Language Learning at Secondary Level.* Hong Kong Government Printer: Hong Kong.

Education Bureau (2007). *English Language Curriculum and Assessment Guide (Secondary 4 - 6)*. Hong Kong Government Printer: Hong Kong.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching*. Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2009a). Task-based language teaching: Sorting out the misunderstandings. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 19(*3), 221-246.

Ellis, R. (2009b). The differential effects of three types of task planning on the fluency, complexity, and accuracy in L2 oral production. *Applied Linguistics*, *30*(4), 479-509.

Freyd, M. (1924). Introverts and Extroverts. *Psychological review*, *31*(1), 74.

Foster, P., & Skehan, P. (1996). The influence of planning and task type on second language performance. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *18*(03), 299-323.

Foster, P., & Skehan, P. (2013). Anticipating a post-task activity: The effects on accuracy, complexity, and fluency of second language performance. *Canadian modern language review*, *69*(3), 249-273.

Harris, J. (2016). Teachers' Beliefs About Task-Based Language Teaching in Japan. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, *13*(2), 102-116.

Hatch, E. (1978). Acquisition of syntax in a second language. *Understanding second and foreign language learning*, 34-70.

Hu, G. (2004). Pedagogical practices in Chinese EFL classrooms. *Asian Englishes*, *7*(1), 42-59.

Hu, G. (2005). Contextual influences on instructional practices: A Chinese case for an ecological approach to ELT. *TESOL Quarterly*, *39*(4), 635-660.

Kelly, B. T. (2003). Focus group interviews. *Research in the college context: Approaches and methods*, 49-62.

Krashen, S. (1981) *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*. Oxford: Pergamon.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006). TESOL methods: Changing tracks, challenging trends. *TESOL Quarterly*, *40*(1), 59-81.

Lee, S. M. (2005). "The pros and cons of task-based instruction in elementary English classes". *English Teaching*, 60, 185–205.

Littlewood, W. (2004). The task-based approach: Some questions and suggestions. *ELT Journal*, *58*(4), 319-326.

Littlewood, W. (2007). Communicative and task-based language teaching in East Asian classrooms. *Language Teaching, 40*(3), 243-249

Long, M.H. (1980) *Input, interaction and second language acquisition*. Unpublished PhD. Dissertation, UCLA.

Loewen, S., Shaofeng, L., Fei, F., Thomson, A., Nakatsukasa, K., Ahn, S., & Chen, X. Q. (2009). "Second language learners' beliefs about grammar instruction and error correction". *Modern Language Journal*, 93, 91–104.

Luo, S., & Yi, B. (2013). "TBLT in China (2001–2011): The current situation, predicament and the future". *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(2), 147–156.

Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2014). *Designing qualitative research*. Sage publications.

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. John Wiley & Sons.

Nishino, T. (2008). Japanese secondary school teachers' beliefs and practices regarding communicative language teaching: An exploratory survey. *JALT Journal*, *30*(1), 27.

Nunan, D. (2003). The Impact of English as a Global Language on Educational Policies and Practices in the Asia-Pacific Region. *Tesol Quarterly, 37*(4), 589-613.

Nunan, D. (2004). *Task-based Language Teaching.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rao, Z. (2002). Chinese students' perceptions of communicative and non-communicative activities in EFL classroom. *System*, *30*(1), 85-105.

Samimy, K. K., & Kobayashi, C. (2004). Toward the development of intercultural communicative competence: Theoretical and pedagogical implications for Japanese English teachers. *JALT Journal*, *26*(2), 245-261.

SCOLAR (2003). *Action Plan to Raise Language Standards in Hong Kong*. Standing Committee on Language Education and Research: Hong Kong.

Skehan, P. (2007). Task research and language teaching: reciprocal relationships. *Form-focused instruction and teacher education: Studies in honor of Rod Ellis*, 55-69.

Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (2005). Strategic and on-line planning: The influence of surprise information and task time on second language performance. *Planning and task performance in a second language*, 193-216.

Skehan, P., & Foster, P. (2012). Complexity, accuracy, fluency and lexis in task-based performance. In A. Housen, F. Kuiken, & I. Vedder (EDs.) *Dimensions of L2 performance and proficiency: Complexity, accuracy and fluency in SLA* (pp. 199-220). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

Silverman, D. (2013). *Doing qualitative research: A practical handbook*. SAGE Publications Limited.

Smith, J. (2016). Three TESOL perspectives: A proposed shift in paradigms. *Philippine ESL Journal*, 16, 65-79.

Thomas, M. (2015). *Contemporary Task-Based Language Teaching in Asia*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Tong, S. Y. (2005). Task-based learning in English language in Hong Kong secondary schools. *HKU Theses Online (HKUTO)*.

Todd, R. W., & Shih, C. M. (2013). Assessing English in Southeast Asia. *The Companion to Language Assessment*.

Tong, S. Y. A, Adamson, B., & Che, M. M. W. (2000). Tasks in English language and Chinese language. In B. Adamson, T. Kwan, & K. K. Chan (Eds.), *Changing the curriculum: The impact of reform on primary schooling in Hong Kong* (pp.145-73). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press

Tseng, C. Y. (2006). 'A study of the effect of task-based instruction on primary school EFL students.' Unpublished Master's thesis. National Chung Cheng University, Taiwan.

Woods, D., & Çakır, H. (2011). Two dimensions of teacher knowledge: The case of communicative language teaching. *System*, *39*(3), 381-390.

Yuan, F., & Ellis, R. (2003). The effects of pre-task planning and online planning on fluency, complexity and accuracy in L2 monologic oral production. *Applied Linguistics, 24* (1). 1-27.

Zhang, E. Y. (2007). *TBLT innovation in primary school English language teaching in Mainland China*. In K. Van den Branden, K. Van Gorp & M. Verhelst (Eds), *Tasks in action: Task-based language education from a classroom-based perspective* (pp. 68–91). Newcastle, UK: Cambridge Scholars Press.

About the Authors

Tsang Chi Lai completed a degree in education at The Education University of Hong Kong and is currently pursuing a postgraduate degree in the United Kingdom.

Dr. John Trent is an Associate Professor in the Department of English Language Education at The Education University of Hong Kong. His research interests include teacher identity, discourse analysis and teacher education.