

THE PHILIPPINE ESL JOURNAL

THE BEGINNING OF KNOWLEDGE

Volume 2, February 2009

Foreword

Carlo Magno

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The Philippine ESL Journal: Volume 2, February 2009

Published by the Asian EFL Journal Press

Asian EFL Journal Press

A Division of Time Taylor International Ltd

TTI College

Episode Building 68-2

Daen Dong, Pusan, Korea

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

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Editors: Dr. Paul Robertson and Dr. John Adamson

Journal Production Editor: Marcus Otlowski

The Philippine ESL journal is indexed in the Asian Education Index.

The Philippine ESL journal (ISSN 1718-2298) is published two times a year by Time Taylor International.

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 <http://www.philippine-esl-journal.com/index.php> for details.



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Foreword

I would like to welcome the readers to the Volume 2, February 2009 edition of the Philippine ESL journal. I am very proud to introduce the empirical reports produced by the distinguished experts in ESL and psycholinguistics studies that went through extensive reviews. The articles selected for this volume manifest strength in theorizing for learners about ESL. The Philippines being one of the countries occasionally visited by Koreans, Japanese, Chinese, and others for training and education in English courses is an indicator of the countries' reputation as competent English speakers. Dr. Paul Roberston mentioned in his foreword that "The Philippines has become the Mecca for English language learning." This viewpoint makes Filipino English speakers accountable in developing and providing effective educational programs for fellow Asians. In this regard, the studies in this volume highlight some of the strengths of ESL in the Philippines. The study by Ralph Blay, Kathleen Ann Mercado, and Jobell Villacorta used a motivational framework to predict competency in reading comprehension. The study by Elaine Masangya and Louella Lozada provided a new insight on exposure to the English language that resulted to less error frequencies in writing an English essay. The study by Paul Ong, Vernese Liao, and Rosemarie Alimon further extended theory by showing that English speaking Filipinos have better retention of the learning material if exposed to American-English accent and transfer is better when exposed to a standard-English accent. And lastly, my article provided four perspectives that teachers need to realize in teaching learners who speak EFL.

The success of this volume was made possible with the initiative, dedication, and passion of Dr. Paul Roberston in taking part in the enrichment of knowledge in the field of ESL studies in the Philippines. Dr. Paul Robertson conceptualized the journal as very specialized about English as a Second Language and the best place in Asia to concentrate the researches is in the Philippines given the Filipinos rich background and history in the use of the language. I would also like to acknowledge the efforts of Dr. Rochelle Lucas in co-editing the articles in this volume. It is our goal to bring the journal as one of the leading top tier journals in ESL and studies in Asia and the Pacific.

Carlo Magno
Senior Associate Editor
Philippine ESL Journal

The Relationship between Motivation and Second Language Reading Comprehension among Fourth Grade Filipino Students

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Abstract

Success in first language reading comprehension is said to be influenced by one's own motivation to read. With an attempt to prove this claim in second language reading, this study aims to (1) identify whether Grade-4 Filipino students' motivation has a significant relationship with their L2 reading comprehension, and (2) determine which of the five aspects of motivation – challenge, curiosity, involvement, competition and compliance – influences students' reading comprehension as assessed by the reconstructed version of the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) by Wigfield and Guthrie. Out of the five motivation factors included in the study, two factors namely, competition and challenge, emerged as having a positive relationship with reading comprehension.

Introduction

One of the four macro skills taught in an English language classroom is reading. 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. The act of reading is a process which involves steps to achieve and reinforce understanding namely; word perception, comprehension, reaction and integration (Zintz & Maggart, 1986). Of all these steps, research on the

field has focused on comprehension and the issues that revolve around it. Zintz and Maggart (1986) define comprehension as the ability to build relevant ideas from individual words read in a particular context. With comprehension come two perspectives on reading as explained by Bernhardt (1991): Reading as a cognitive process and reading as a social process. The cognitive perspective sees reading as an “intrapersonal problem-solving task that takes place within the brain’s knowledge structures” (p. 6). Its text-based nature or focus on surface characteristics of the text seemingly shows the value for perception rather than meaning. Hence, it could be inferred that in reading as a cognitive process, it seems that the key factor is knowledge of the building blocks of the text (syntax) rather than its contextual meaning. The second perspective which Bernhardt (1991) explicates on is reading as a social process. Bloome and Greene (1984 as cited in Bernhardt, 1991) states that the sociolinguistic perspective on reading entails an understanding of how the act builds a social context while at the same time realizes its effect on the comprehension of meaning. In this view, reading is seen as a tool for cultural transmission and socialization among people in a sense that texts are viewed as cultural artifacts which could be interpreted in various ways. Therefore, text processing depends on a unique cultural context for each culture contributes to different ways of reading a text (Bernhardt, 1991).

An integration of the cognitive and social perspectives on reading establishes a more interactive and dynamic reading process that is revealed in L2 reading: The sociocognitive view. In the sociocognitive view, a text is interpreted in its pragmatic level rather than in its basic syntactic and semantic level. Also, intentionality and content are given more emphasis. Furthermore, the sociocognitive view on reading perceives readers’ differences in responding to different contextual references in texts being

read as those that contribute to the varying interpretations of such texts (Bernhardt, 1991). Thus, a process of “reconstruction” is involved in L2 reading whereby cognitive processes and skills used in L1 reading as well as pragmatic and cultural knowledge of the text help facilitate L2 reading, accounting for varied interpretations of meaning from one L2 reader to another. Aeberson and Field (1997) further explains that skilled L1 readers have the potential of using their L1 reading skills in improving their L2 reading. He adds that if a reader learned to be more adaptable, dynamic, inquisitive and comprehension-monitoring in his or her L1, it is more likely that he or she will be the same when it comes to L2 reading. Therefore, it can be assumed that skills used in L1 reading are transferred during L2 reading while at the same time knowledge of context further contributes to an L2 readers’ comprehension of meaning.

Though knowledge of comprehension as well as different reading perspectives are vital in understanding the L2 reading process, questions concerning comprehension, specifically how it is achieved, should also be addressed. Previous studies have put emphasis on the primary factors that relate to comprehension: schema, knowledge of vocabulary and motivation. Researchers on L1 reading have claimed that there is a significant relationship between comprehension and any of these factors. Though schema and vocabulary knowledge have been found to exert great influence on L1 reading comprehension, success in reading comprehension has always been believed to originate from the readers themselves. Following the same standpoint in understanding L2 reading, this study aims to determine the relationship between reading comprehension and what drives L2 students to successful comprehension – motivation. Motivation could be defined as an internal state which drives one’s behavior to a certain direction; an aspiration which prompts goal-oriented behavior; and an

influence of a person's needs and desires which establishes direction to his or her behavior (Kleinginna and Kleinginna (1981 as cited in Huitt, 2001). Children's engagement in reading could not only be explained based on cognitive skills that are at work during the reading process but could also be understood based on motivational factors that influence reading activity (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). However, where do these motivational factors come from? There are two types of motivation namely, intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is said to be established when a person is driven by the task or learning environment itself (Brandt, 1995) as well as the idea of learning new skills and experiences (Jacobs & Newstead, 2000). On the contrary, extrinsic motivation is when rewards, punishments and other extraneous variables are employed to seemingly manipulate motivation (Ryan & Deci, 1996). However, there are instances in which extrinsic motivation is said to disrupt the development of intrinsic motivation, one of which is when rewards are given to children even if they have done the task regardless of receiving something in return (Sime, 2006).

The effectiveness of reinforcing intrinsic motivation in the classroom through stimulating tasks promises greater success in reading and further demonstrates that students who are motivated by the present learning situation they are in are more likely to achieve success in L1 reading comprehension (Guthrie, Wigfield, Humenick, Perencevich, Taboada & Barbosa, 2006). The seemingly significant influence of motivation on reading achievement has been further realized by Baker and Wigfield (1999), revealing that all scales or factors related to different dimensions of reading motivation are significantly related to reading achievement and activity. Children's motivation to read is also seen as multidimensional. Motivation has been able to predict reading breath as well even if it was previously manipulated. Thus, motivation, specifically intrinsic motivation,

exerts greater influence not only in reading comprehension but in other aspects of reading as well, for instance, reading breadth (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997).

Studies on motivation in relation to L2/FL reading also provide significant results – may they be positive or negative – on comprehension. Attitudes of Japanese students regarding reading and studying in both Japanese and English did not seem to change even after undergoing an Extensive Reading Program, the effectiveness of which may be dependent on time as well as students' motivation towards reading in that if they are already motivated enough to read texts, the ER program seems unnecessary (Apple, 2005). On the contrary, Turkish students seem to have a positive attitude towards reading for they read both for intrinsic and extrinsic purposes and are not intimidated of difficult reading tasks (Tercanlioglu, 2001). In terms of native speakers of English and their L2 reading, Kondo-Brown (2006) claims that knowledge of the L2 (in this case, Japanese) and reading comprehension are both directly related to one's self-perception of L2 reading ability, professed difficulty in learning the L2 and the intensity for motivation in reading in the L2. In addition, students who have greater motivation in learning the L2 (Japanese) in general was found to be more intrinsically and extrinsically motivated to read in the L2.

Based on the related literature discussed, it may be assumed that motivation may be different depending on the language involved. Moreover, it appears that intrinsic motivation exhibits a greater relationship not only with L1 but also L2 reading activities, seeing as based on the studies, intrinsically motivated students tend to have more success in either L1 or L2 reading. The findings of the literature discussed as well as their implications have helped initiate the present study's goal to determine

whether such conclusions would hold true particularly in the Philippine setting.

Though previous research concerning the relationship between motivation and reading comprehension in both L1 and L2 reading have been accomplished, using the aspects of reading motivation identified by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) as bases in analyzing the relationship of reading motivation with L2 reading comprehension have not been widely used in local contexts. Hence, with the aid of this framework, this study aims to: (1) identify whether Grade-4 Filipino students' reading motivation has a significant relationship with their L2 reading comprehension, and; (2) determine which among the five aspects of reading motivation covered in the reconstructed version of Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) originally developed by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) Grade-4 students consider as most influential in their reading.

Since it is one of the study's goals to determine whether reading motivation of Filipino students relates to their L2 reading comprehension, aspects of reading motivation as reflected in the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) constructed by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) serves as the present research's underlying framework. The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire covers 11 aspects of reading motivation which are grouped into three major categories of motivation namely: self-efficacy, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation and social motivation for reading. Due to certain limitations of the study, the researchers opted to revise the MRQ which resulted in covering only five aspects of reading motivation as deemed most intrinsically reliable by Wigfield and Guthrie themselves: challenge, curiosity, involvement, social competition and compliance. Challenge is an aspect under the self-efficacy category. Challenge refers to the fulfillment of having been able to understand complex ideas in a text. On the other hand,

curiosity, involvement and competition are classified under intrinsic & extrinsic motivation. Aspects that fall under intrinsic motivation are curiosity and involvement; curiosity is defined as one's drive to learn about a topic of interest while involvement is the enthusiasm towards reading literary as well as expository texts. Finally, compliance is the only aspect considered under the social motivation category. Compliance refers to reading to achieve a goal or accomplish a requirement. Successful reading comprehension may rely on any of these five aspects depending on what the reader feels most strongly about. Hence, the specific motivator in which a reader identifies him or herself the most may vary from one reader to another, showing different probabilities in terms of aspects that could be considered as highly influential to reading comprehension.

Apart from revising the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) – which was originally constructed with 54-items that covered 11 aspects of reading motivation – due to constraints in time that could have affected regular classroom sessions in which data were gathered, there are other limitations that might have influenced the outcome of the study. The revisions made by the researchers resulted in having only five aspects of reading motivation being measured. Furthermore, there were no male participants in the study given that the schools in which data were collected are both exclusive schools for girls which are more accessible to the researchers because two of them happen to work there. Moreover, the reading comprehension test employed in the study was not a test officially developed to determine students' aptitude in reading comprehension but rather, the reading text and its corresponding comprehension questions were obtained from a locally published Grade-4 English text book. What caused the researchers to choose a text and comprehension test from a locally published text book is because most reading comprehension tests

considered for the study are foreign made and due to probable cultural and contextual differences, the Filipino students might not be aware of some cultural references made in foreign-made texts. Finally, the analysis of data only focused on correlating mean scores of students in the motivation questionnaire and reading comprehension test and comparing the mean scores of students in each aspect of motivation. Describing how each aspect of reading motivation relates to reading comprehension was not covered.

Method

Research Design

Since the study aims to determine whether reading motivation relates to reading comprehension, a correlational research design was employed. Scores of each participant in a reading motivation questionnaire were obtained and correlated with their corresponding scores in a reading comprehension test. That way, the relationship between the two variables would be determined, may it be significant or not. Participants' mean scores in different reading motivation categories were also compared so as to identify which category elementary students consider the most in their reading habits.

Participants

A total of 260 Grade-4 students from two private exclusive schools in the Philippines served as participants in the study. The participants were chosen as samples primarily because of accessibility for they were classes being presently handled by two of the researchers. The students are all female whose age is approximately nine to ten years old.

Instruments

Since one of the variables being measured in the study is reading motivation, a revised version of Wigfield and Guthrie's (1997) The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) as reconstructed by the researchers was employed. Originally constructed with 54 items that covered eleven aspects of reading motivation. The researchers' reconstructed version of the questionnaire is comprised of only fifteen items that cover only five aspects of reading motivation: challenge, curiosity, reading involvement, competition, and compliance. The said five aspects of reading included in the reconstructed MRQ employed by the researchers were the ones identified by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997) as the most reliable ones. They tested the questionnaire's reliability twice for the purposes of their study; curiosity yielded a .68 and .80 reliability values, challenge obtained a .66 and .72 reliability, involvement had .77 and .81, competition had .77 and .79 and compliance had .71 and .70 values for reliability. Hence, based on the findings of Wigfield and Guthrie in relation to reliability of the MRQ, the researchers opted to choose the five aspects of motivation that had high values of reliability to cover in their reconstructed version of the MRQ. Each item was answered on a 1 to 4 scale: 1 = very different from me, 2 = a little different from me, 3 = a little like me and 4 = a lot like me. Since the MRQ was set to be administered during an English class, the revision of the questionnaire was taken into account due to time constraints that may affect the regular English session.

In order to determine students' aptitude in reading comprehension, a reading comprehension test was implemented. The reading comprehension test was taken from a locally published Grade-4 textbook, "Reading for Young Achievers Grade 4" by Corazon Y. Delgado. The test contains a reading text entitled "Rewarding Sincerity", an adaptation of

Abbie Farwell Brown's "The Dove that Spoke the Truth", followed by a ten-item test, eight of which were of the multiple-choice type while two were open-ended. Since two items catered to the applied level of comprehension, meaning, opinions of readers were being elicited, these questions were edited by the researchers, reconstructing them into multiple-choice type of questions. The editing of the said questions was patterned according to how other items were constructed. The choice of reading text was determined according to values being taught through the story as well as its experiential relevance to the students' lives.

Data Gathering Procedure

Once the researchers have chosen the participants for the study, the instruments to be used to gather data were prepared; the revision of the MRQ as well as the choosing of the reading text and editing of questions in the comprehension test took place. Subsequently, the Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ) was implemented first. Since the implementation of the MRQ was done during English class time, the participants were only given 10 minutes to answer the questionnaire to avoid consuming too much time allotted for the regular English session. The researchers then implemented the reading comprehension test a week after the administration of the reading motivation questionnaire. The first part of the test involved the researcher reading aloud the reading text ("Rewarding Sincerity") as it was being shown to the class via overhead projector. Afterwards, the participants were asked to accomplish a 10-item multiple-choice type of test in 10 minutes without the copy of the text being shown to them. Their answers were written on a one-fourth sheet of paper and were corrected by the researchers.

Data Analysis

Given that one of the study's primary objectives is to determine whether reading motivation relates to reading comprehension, scores of each student in the MRQ and reading comprehension test were correlated using Pearson r correlation. In addition, to determine the factors that may have a significant relationship with reading comprehension, each motivation factor, namely challenge, curiosity, involvement, competition, and compliance were correlated with the dependent variable. Regression was also done not only to confirm the results of the correlation, but also to see the predictive relationship each motivation factor might have in determining reading comprehension.

Results

The descriptive statistics of the reading comprehension and factors of reading motivation were reported. These factors are then intercorrelated using Pearson r . The multiple regression was used where factors of reading motivation were used to predict reading comprehension scores.

Table 1

Motivation Factors and Reading Comprehension: Descriptive Statistics (N=260)

	N	M	Minimum	Maximum	SD
Reading Comprehension	260	8.00	2.00	10.00	1.66
Challenge	260	2.73	1.40	3.80	0.48
Curiosity	260	3.15	1.40	4.00	0.53
Involvement	260	3.29	1.80	4.00	0.48
Competition	260	2.64	1.00	4.00	0.67
Compliance	260	2.95	1.60	4.00	0.49

A score of eight (8) turned out to be the average score for the 260 valid cases in the study, with the lowest cases scoring a minimum of 2 out of 10 and obtaining all correct answers as the maximum. A standard deviation of 1.66 is indicative that the scores obtained are spread across the spectrum.

The descriptive statistics for the motivation factors vary slightly, with the highest obtained M at 3.291, belonging to involvement. It also has the smallest SD, which may mean that the group of values obtained from the answers of the students is closer to the actual mean of the sample. The lowest M obtained from the motivation factors is challenge at 2.73.

Table 2

Motivation Factors and Reading Comprehension: Correlations (N=260)

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
(1) Reading Comprehension	---					
(2) Challenge	.16*	---				
(3) Curiosity	.01	.48*	---			
(4) Involvement	.09	.39*	.45*	---		
(5) Competition	.16*	.29*	.30*	.29*	---	
(6) Compliance	.03	.34*	.32*	.23*	.26*	---

*p<.05

Of the correlations done between reading comprehension and all the motivation factors, two factors emerged as having a significant relationship to the dependent variable, comprehension. In Table 3 above, any relationship with a p value of less than 0.05 is considered significant, and of these, challenge and competition both have a significant correlation with reading comprehension. This is possibly indicative of the significance of the

role that both challenge and competition play in understanding a given reading selection among Filipino middle school students.

Multiple regression analysis was conducted where the five factors of reading motivation was used to predict reading comprehension scores.

Table 3

Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Reading Comprehension (N=260)

	B	SE B	β	SE β
Intercept	6.53	0.89		
Challenge	0.57*	0.25	0.16	0.07
Curiosity	-0.36	0.24	-0.11	0.08
Involvement	0.14	0.25	0.04	0.07
Competition	0.37*	0.16	0.15	0.07
Compliance	-0.13	0.23	-0.04	0.07

Note: $R = .23$, $R^2 = .0507$, Adjusted $R^2 = .03$, $F(5,254)=2.71$

* $p < .05$

In Table 3, the relationship between reading comprehension is confirmed by regression testing done between the different factors and the dependent variable itself. Both challenge and competition have significant p-values, and as a point of interest, their respective B values also have an almost inverse relationship, i.e. one that cancels out the other. The significant values of the predictive factors that have a positive correlation with reading comprehension are also indicated above.

Discussion

The underlying dimensions of reading motivation as assessed by the MRQ were examined in grade four students to determine if there was a

support for the multidimensional model posited by Wigfield and Guthrie (1997). Reading motivation researchers and theorists have defined and studied several different motivational constructs, including beliefs about competence and ability, self-efficacy, valuing of achievement tasks, goals for achievement, and intrinsic motivation to learn. Five factors were taken into consideration to support the multidimensional model of reading motivation – challenge, curiosity, reading involvement, competition and compliance. The correlation among these factors was analyzed to determine which factor affects the most in the reading comprehension of the students. Furthermore, correlation between motivation scores and comprehension test scores obtained were tested in the study to determine if motivation affects the reading comprehension.

Discussion is organized in two issues: students' reading motivation in relation to their reading comprehension and the most dominant factor that affects students' motivation. It is revealed in this study that there was a weak positive correlation between reading motivation and the reading comprehension of the students. It can be concluded that by some means motivation can lead to increased engagement, which can lead to higher, more valid comprehension performance on high stakes assessments. In this study involvement assumes an active, intentional stance toward the text, enabling one to both persevere in getting information from text and using both the textual information and cognitive processes to make meaning. Without motivation, specifically the intention and persistence to the goal of understanding texts for various purposes, there is little comprehension. Thus, Wigfield and Guthrie (2005) argued that definitions of reading comprehension should include motivation. Engaged readers are motivated to read for different purposes, utilize knowledge gained from previous experience to generate new understandings, and participate in meaningful

social interaction around reading. In conceptualizing reading motivation, we adapted constructs defined and developed by researchers in the achievement motivation field. Currently, many motivation theorists propose that individuals' competence and efficacy beliefs, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and purpose for achievement play a crucial role in their decisions about which activities to do, how long to do them, and how much effort to put into them (Bandura, 1997; Eccles, Wigfield, & Schiefele, 1998; Pintrich & Schunk, 1996). Thus, making motivated readers more engaged in reading and be positive towards reading.

One important implication of this conceptualization of motivation is that it is multifaceted: there are different aspects of motivation (Wigfield, 1997). It is therefore not appropriate to think of children as motivated or unmotivated, but rather as motivated in variety of ways because there are still many factors to be considered such as behavioral, cultural, social, and cognitive factors. More importantly, applying these to classroom environment, children's motivation to read can be enhanced when interesting texts and materials are used in class. Examples of these include fiction and nonfiction books, electronic reading sources especially that we are living in the world of technology, lively reference materials featuring pictures and variety of activities. Furthermore, a major approach that can be used to enhance motivation is through cooperative learning which involves students working together in groups rather than their own or competing with others. From previous researches, when teachers adopt a cooperative instructional and reward structure in their classrooms, achievement often improves, social relations are more positive, and students' motivation is enhanced (Sharan & Shaulov, 1993). Learning and motivation appear to be highest in cooperative learning situations that are characterized by both group goals and individual accountability (Slavin, 1995). Such situations

appear to create positive interdependence and stimulating group inquiry, which in turn arouse social and academic motivational goals (Stevens & Slavins, 1995).

The analysis of mean scores on different scales showed students' motivation is strong in the area of involvement. This can be interpreted that students reading involvement is one way of finding enjoyment through experiencing different kinds of literary or informal texts. Importance of reading is valued by individuals through different tasks or activities. The rest of the aspects such as curiosity, challenge, competition and compliance were assumed to be trivial factors to be considered. The results for compliance, and in large part, curiosity as well, may in fact be indicative of students that read not only because they are asked to, but because they do it voluntarily, i.e. without any need for external motivation. Curiosity also can tell how much of the students' interests are sustained. These findings suggest that students read for both extrinsic and intrinsic reasons, and do not avoid difficult reading activities. Social reasons, as a motivation for reading, had one of the lowest scores on any scale. However, competition which falls under extrinsic motivation was insignificant for the students reading motivation.

Researchers who may want to delve into the same subject using the same framework may attempt to cover all 11 aspects of motivation as originally covered by Motivation for Reading Questionnaire (MRQ). That way, more aspects of motivation could be analyzed in relation to L2 reading comprehension among Filipino students. Furthermore, future research may evaluate aspects of reading motivation of mixed-gender participants as well as students in higher grade levels. A more exhaustive analysis could also be provided in prospective attempts to replicate or improve the study by correlating each aspect of motivation with the student's corresponding

reading comprehension score. Finally, in order to come up with a comparative analysis using the text employed in the reading comprehension test as one point of comparison, other researchers in the field may consider using a standardized reading comprehension test developed internationally in measuring students' comprehension and identify whether locally and internationally produced texts influence comprehension and motivation in L2 reading.

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Appendix A

The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire

School Name: _____ Teacher Name: _____

Student Name: _____ Grade: _ Date: _____

We are interested in your reading. The sentences in this questionnaire describe how some students feel about reading. Read each sentence and decide whether it describes a person who is like you or different from you. There are no right or wrong answers. We only want to know how you feel about reading. For many of the statements, you should think about the kinds of things you read in your class.

Here are two samples to try before we start on the ones about reading:

If the statement is **very different from you**, circle a 1.

If the statement is **a little different from you**, circle a 2.

If the statement is **a little like you**, circle a 3.

If the statement is **a lot like you**, circle a 4.

	Very Different From Me	A Little Different From Me	A Little Like Me	A Lot Like Me
I like ice cream	1	2	3	4

	Very Different From Me	A Little Different From Me	A Little Like Me	A Lot Like Me
I like spinach.	1	2	3	4

Okay, we are ready to start on the ones about reading. Remember, when you give your answers you should think about the things you are reading in your class. There are no right or wrong answers. We just are interested in YOUR ideas about reading. To give your answer, circle ONE number on each line. The answer numbers are right next to each statement.

Let's turn the page and start. Please read each of the statements carefully, and then circle your answer.

Remember: Read each sentence and decide whether it describes a person who is like you or different from you. There are no right or wrong answers.

	Very Different From Me 1	A Little Different From Me 2	A Little Like Me 3	A Lot Like Me 4
1. I like hard, challenging books				1 2 3 4
2. If the teacher discusses something interesting I might read more about it.				1 2 3 4
3. I read stories about fantasy and make believe.				1 2 3 4
4. I try to get more answers right than my friends.				1 2 3 4
5. I read because I have to.				1 2 3 4
6. I need my parents to help me with my reading homework				1 2 3 4
7. I have favorite subjects that I like to read about.				1 2 3 4
8. I like mysteries.				1 2 3 4
9. I like being the best at reading				1 2 3 4
10. It is important for me to do my reading work carefully				1 2 3 4
11. I like to look up words I don't know				1 2 3 4
12. If I am reading about an interesting topic, I sometimes lose track of time.				1 2 3 4
13. I like stories with interesting characters				1 2 3 4
14. I like to finish my reading before other students.				1 2 3 4
15. I read things that are not assigned .				1 2 3 4

	Very Different From Me 1	A Little Different From Me 2	A Little Like Me 3	A Lot Like Me 4
16. I like it when the questions in books make me think.	1	2	3	4
17. I read about my hobbies to learn more about them.	1	2	3	4
18. I make pictures in my mind when I read.	1	2	3	4
19. I like being the only one who knows an answer in something we read.	1	2	3	4
20. Finishing every reading assignment is very important to me.	1	2	3	4
21. If a book is interesting I don't care how hard it is to read.	1	2	3	4
22. I like to read about new things.	1	2	3	4
23. I feel like I make friends with people in good books.	1	2	3	4
24. I am willing to work hard to read better than my friends.	1	2	3	4
25. I always try to finish my reading on time.	1	2	3	4

* This questionnaire is a revised version of Whigfield and Guthrie's (1996) **The Motivation for Reading Questionnaire**.

Appendix B

Rewarding Sincerity

An adaptation of the story "The Dove That Spoke The Truth" by Abbie Farwell Brown

There was once a dove and a bat that were caught in a storm as they journeyed in the woods together. Shivering from the cold, they frantically searched for a place to stay for the night. However, every animal in the forest was already asleep. Then, the dove remembered that Sir Owl did not sleep during the night. So, the two went to Sir Owl's tree. As expected, the wide-eyed bird was wide-awake.

The two animals knocked. When the owl opened the door, the bat asked, "Sir Owl, will you let us in for the night?"

Visibly irritated, Sir Owl decided to let his unexpected guests inside his house nonetheless. "All right," said Sir Owl, "you may stay here tonight. But you shall leave as soon as the sun rises up, understood?" The dove and the bat agreed immediately.

The selfish old owl grudgingly invited them to share his supper. The poor dove was so tired that he could not even eat, but the bat—greedy and cunning—ate the food right away. He was, after all a clever bat.

Over dinner, the bat began praising the wide-eyed owl. "You are very famous for being brave and generous," said the little bat to the owl even though he knew that Sir Owl was considered neither brave nor generous. The bat, in fact, had heard tales about Sir Owl's selfishness, including one time when he refused to give a fire-bringer bird to a wren. The wren, quivering because of the extreme cold, badly needed the fire-bringer bird, which would serve as a feather to cover his body.

The bat's false praises made Sir Owl extremely happy. For every compliment given by the bat, the owl would reward him with more food as a token of his appreciation.

On the other hand, the dove was silent. She just sat still, just staring at the dishonest and insincere bat. Then, Sir Owl turned to the dove. "You have been very silent. Don't you have anything to say?" asked the owl angrily.

The dove, ashamed of the bat's lies and insincerity, replied, "Sir Owl, I do thank you for your hospitality, and I thank you for giving us shelter and food for tonight. That is all I can say."

"Have you got nothing more to say to our gracious host?" asked the little bat. "Sir Owl is the wisest, bravest, and most generous animal in the woods!" he added. "I cannot understand you have no praises for our host. I am ashamed of you! You do not deserve Sir Owl's hospitality!"

Still, the dove kept silent. She did not want to be dishonest and insincere.

"You are an ungrateful guest!" shouted Sir Owl. "You do not deserve my hospitality and generosity!" He then commanded the dove to leave immediately. "Yes, you should go away, you ungrateful dove!" echoed the bat, as he flapped his wings. Because she refused to flatter the owl, the poor little dove was tossed and beaten in the storm all night. Fortunately, for the dove, the storm ended, and the

bright morning came. Tired and battered, the dove flew to the royal court of the Great Eagle. The dove then relayed his story to the Great Eagle.

The dove's story angered the Great Eagle so much that he decided to punish both the bat and the owl immediately. "Because of his cruelty and flattery, the bat will never again be able to fly while the sun is up. He will lonely be able to fly in darkness!" shouted the Great Eagle. "As for the owl, he will continue to be an outcast in the wilderness, alone and isolated from others!"

Then, the king turned to the dove. "As for you, dove," said the mighty eagle, "I admire your honesty and sincerity. For this, you will forever be a symbol of love and affection."

Choose the correct answer from the options given in each number. Shade the circle that corresponds to the letter of the answer you have chosen.

1. Why did the dove and the bat decide to go to Sir Owl's tree?

a. They wanted to visit a long-lost friend.	c. They were caught in a storm and needed to find shelter fast.
b. They wanted to borrow something from Sir Owl.	d. They were invited by Sir Owl to join him for dinner.

2. How did Sir Owl receive the two unexpected guests?

a. Sir Owl, irritated, still welcomed them.	c. Sir Owl, irritated, shooed them away.
b. Sir Owl welcomed them very warmly.	d. Sir Owl declined politely, saying he cannot let them in.

3. How did the bat describe Sir Owl over dinner?

a. "Sir Owl, you are very famous for being clever and wise."	c. "Sir Owl, you are very famous for being intelligent and cute."
b. "Sir Owl, you are very famous for being brave and wise."	d. "Sir Owl, you are very famous for being brave and generous."

4. What do you think is the reason behind the way bat described Sir Owl?

a. The bat wanted more food from Sir Owl.	c. The bat wanted to stay in Sir Owl's house longer.
b. The bat really meant to give compliments to Sir Owl.	d. The bat planned to ask for donations from Sir Owl.

5. During bat's praising of Sir Owl, how did the dove act?

a. The dove continued eating and listening, and speaking, too.	c. The dove was not able to eat well, and remained silent.
b. The dove did not eat, but continued talking with them.	d. The dove ate but did not talk to anyone.

6. What made the dove act the way he did?

a. The dove was very tired and disliked the bat's dishonesty.	c. The dove wanted to act in a mean, impolite way.
b. The dove was injured, and found it hard to eat and talk.	d. The dove did not like both bat and Sir Owl.

7. What happened to dove after the bat and the owl talked?

a. Nothing; the dove remained until the next day.	c. The dove said his thanks to Sir Owl, but did not say more.
b. The bat and the owl made fun of the dove.	d. The dove left soon since he did not like the food.

8. In the end, how did Sir Owl treat the dove?

a. The dove, along with the bat, was asked to stay by Sir Owl.	c. The dove was asked to eat more food.
b. The dove was cruelly sent away by Sir Owl.	d. The dove left the house of Sir Owl on his own.

9. What did the dove do after leaving the house of Sir Owl?

a. The dove lived happily ever after.	c. The dove braved the storm and flew to the court of the Eagle.
b. The dove became vengeful and had bad feelings for Sir Owl.	d. The dove decided to seek shelter in a cave.

10. How did the Great Eagle react to all this?

a. The Great Eagle punished the bat and Sir Owl.	c. The Great Eagle ignored the plea of the dove.
b. The Great Eagle punished the dove.	d. The Great Eagle wanted to talk with the bat, owl and the dove.

An Investigation on the Relationship between the Language Exposures and Errors in English Essays of High School Students

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Abstract

The study investigates the errors committed by sophomore students and its relationship to their English language exposure. A total of one-hundred and sixty high school students answered the checklists for English language exposure and instructed to write an essay on a given topic. The data gathered were analyzed using the two-way chi-square. It was indicated that the students with high exposure have significantly less frequency in their errors in wrong case, fragmentation, parallelism, punctuation, and verb tense. However, some errors such as wrong verb form, preposition and spelling were of higher frequency for students with high English exposure.

Introduction

A few studies have shown if common errors committed on essays by learners are related to their language exposure. This central issue has a great importance because not only that writing is perhaps the most difficult to teach but it is also often a neglected skill in second language education (Taylor, 1976). As Sperling (1996) notes, writing is imperative because it has a critical link to speaking abilities. La Brant (1946) states that written skills encompasses internal speech. He further adds that standard of satisfaction among language educators on the written works of language learners are

good grammatical structures, appropriate punctuation marks, verbs in their right tenses, pronouns in the right case and correct spelling of words.

English Writing Errors

In an investigation conducted by Chen (2002) sampled freshmen and sophomore Taiwanese students' recounted vocabulary (60.7%) and grammar (50%) as problem areas in writing. Meanwhile, Al-Hazmi and Scholfield (2007) study on Saudi university students' enforced revision with checklist and peer feedback in EFL writing indicated that the difficulties their samples experienced in ESL writing were basic English language problems as well as discourse organisation, paragraphing and cohesion. Salem's (2007) research on student errors lexico-grammatical continuum on the other hand, categorized written difficulties made by Hebrew-speaking EFL learner respondents as word dependent, lexical and grammatical.

Reviewing the above mentioned researches, Chen's (2002) study maybe too generalized for both levels. English lessons may vary across stages of learning. Expectations of skills may differ from the samples' degree of knowledge of the language. Al-Hazmi and Scholfield (2007) though did not fully explain the "basic English language problems" as stated from their work for comparison on future papers.

It can be noted that most errors as stated from the studies discussed, highlighted grammar as a main concern in writing competency. However, in a study on teaching low – level ESL students' composition, Taylor (1976) claims that writing abilities does not only include paragraphs that are well defined, brief, sensible and persuasive or may contain good grammatical sentences. Learners should also be informed of standard English rhetoric. He justifies that writing good sentences is not an assurance of a well written work but requires intertwining of these sentences in one cohesive thought.

Surprisingly enough, such writing problems are not only confined to second language learners. Thomas (1963) observed that American educators in their thrust towards science education, seems to have overlooked some average senior students that cannot correctly spell, put the right punctuation marks and generally shows vague line of thought in sentence construction. Taylor (1976) even suggested that practice and training in English sentence writing are not only limited to ESL students but to native speakers as well.

Language Exposure

It seems that language education may require expansive approach. Tools and techniques beyond classroom teachings perhaps are a possibility. Educators may have an option of tapping viable outputs such as language exposure on good linguistic models at home, media and other forms of literature. This insight may infer to the social – interactionist theory that suggests the importance of social environment interaction in language acquisition and development (Lucas, 2008).

Al – Ansari (2001) on his case study of undergraduate students' types of exposure as predictor of their success, affirms that competency in a new language is achieved thru constant exposure of the intended language. Fathman (1976) seems to be in agreement stating that learning a second language is shaped by many elements that include the learning environment and the student's attitude. This also supported by Tomasello (2001) in his presentation of the usage – based model of language, wherein he said that language acquisition for children is thru imitation of linguistic expressions that they hear around them.

Lilu and Yanlong (2005) assess for example that news style on newspapers, television, magazines and radios are good writing models for it

encompasses narration, exposition and argumentation. They also attest that media in the form of news presentation and gathering observed the standard rules in English grammar. Therefore exposure to these medium allow students inputs on good writing techniques. They also add that constant reading of newspapers and magazines expands learners' vocabulary.

However, Harper and de Jong (2004) argue that language exposure is not enough to attain language competency and thinks it maybe a strategy considered lacking. They cite that older students require a good grasp of abstract ideas and complex lexical structures that maybe best learned thru textbooks and traditional classroom discussions. Steinberg, Nagata and Aline (2001) certifies children that are left to the confines of a television or by just hearing conversation made by adults as a form of language learning did not progress into language acquisition. In fact alternative forms of language exposure such as music, movies and leisure reading materials may contain grammatically incorrect sentences and wrong usage of words. This may disrupt or perhaps confuse the student on the standard lexical format and basic grammar rules.

There may be contrasting views on the merits of language exposure. Though, it seems that one cannot debunk the related literatures affirmation to the effectiveness of exposure on language competency. Language learners as well are besieged with writing problems as reviewed by previous studies. This then lead to speculate if increased exposure of the intended language will result to fewer mistakes on written works of the language learners. This research is informed by Mojica's (2007) paper on the self-reported writing problems and actual writing deficiencies of EFL learners in the beginner's level and of Magno, de Carvalho, Lajom, Bunagan, and Regodon's (2009) study on the level of English language exposure of Taiwanese students. In

the mentioned study, Mojica (2007) administered a questionnaire that required the 26 EFL participants to write two or three paragraphs on the subject of writing difficulties. Rating the data collected from the samples, she identified frequency of errors on vocabulary (61.4%) and grammar (69.2%). Grammar, in the paper was collectively coded errors on articles, determiners, number verb tense and prepositions.

Magno, de Carvalho, Lajom, Bunagan, and Regodon's (2009) study on the level of English language exposure of Taiwanese students, suggest that the more the learners are exposed to English, enables them to facilitate the language better. This was concluded after the findings showed that Taiwanese student participants in the Philippines have higher level of English exposure than the Taiwanese respondents in Taiwan. These samples were administered with a checklist for English language exposure to gauge the frequency of the samples contact with the targeted language.

These studies will then be the framework where the researchers will derive their investigation. This paper will employ Mojica's (2007) collection and analysis errors of data from the student respondents. Although instead of using Ashwell's (2000) list as the basis of coding, the investigators will use a proofreaders' mark as guide. Ashwell's (2000) list were categories of errors done by his students on their written works. The researchers will also duplicate the language exposure survey administered by Magno de Carvalho, Lajom, Bunagan, and Regodon's (2009). Though, the investigators reduced it to 21 questions applicable to the samples.

In this paper the researchers hypothesize that students with high exposure in the English language commit less grammatical errors in their written essays. Following are the questions that the study would like to address: (1) What are the common errors committed by the students on their

essays? (2) Do students with high language exposure commit less grammatical errors in their written essays?

Method

Participants

Participants were 160 second year high school students from a private school in southern Luzon. At this year level, they are expected to develop their writing skills. Writing essays is part of the macro-skill that learners should develop. The participants represent a broad range of their understanding in essay writing and English language exposure. There are equal number of participants between male ($n=80$) and female ($n=80$). The participants average age is 13.44 ($SD= 0.58$). All participants received credit for participation and were informed that the result of their responses will be dealt with highest confidentiality.

Instruments

Instruments used for the investigation are a checklist and an essay test. The checklist includes the profile of the student respondent's gender and age. It identifies their English language exposure in home (H), peers (P), school(S), and media, literature and others (MLO). This form was adapted from Magno's et al, (2009) checklist form that has been used in the assessment of the level of English language exposure of Taiwanese college students in Taiwan and the Philippines. The twenty-one situations from the checklist described the different language exposure and were reviewed by experts for its significance on the targeted respondents. Responses were coded accordingly to the frequency of the sample's exposure. The codes were five for Always, four for Often, three for Sometimes, Two for Rarely, and One for Never. The students' response were tallied and validated on its

computed mean. Thus, computed mean will identify whether the students has low or high exposure on the English language. Cronbach's alpha and discriminant validit of the English exposure scale used for the participant's reliability has a value of .91 as similarly shown in Magno, de Carvalho, Lajom, Bunagan and Regodon's (2009) study.

The second is an essay type of test lifted from their lesson in English. Checking of written works of the participants has three stages. The revising stage checks on the ideas presented and it's supporting details. Second is editing stage which looks for faulty sentences, misspellings, misused punctuation and capitalization. The last stage is proofreading using a proofreaders' mark which checks the careless errors, missing words, erroneously repeated letters or words.

The researchers limited the number of marks to be developed and used on this research to sixteen. These marks were based from the works of Briones (2008), Jennett (1967), Lee (1979) and The Chicago Manual of Style (2003). Bear (n.d.) reiterated that the use of a proofreaders mark lessens miscommunication and presents accuracy.

Procedure

The survey on the English language exposure and essay test was administered by one of the researchers. Instructions were carefully read and explained. Students have to check the frequency of the language exposure situations listed. They may choose from the frequency choices Always, Often, Sometimes, Rarely, or Never that they had experienced the language exposure situations.

The essay test was given during their English class. Students were provided with a topic on world peace which was in line with their English

lesson. Students were given a standard answer sheet for their essay. The essay test was answered in almost 30 to 40 minutes.

Data Analysis

The two-way chi-square was used to identify the relationship of the students' English language exposure and errors on their essay. Obtained chi-square was compared to its critical value to identify if the hypothesis is significant or not.

Each committed errors were tabulated together with the students' exposure. The overall mean of the English language exposure was computed by adding the total coded responses of all samples divided by the number of respondents (N=160). Individual mean scores of the samples on the other hand were computed as total responses divided by the 21 checklists. Individual mean lower than the average mean of the total sample were classified as low exposure while individual mean higher than the average mean were coded as high exposure.

Results

It was hypothesized in the study that students with high exposure in the English language commit less grammatical errors in their written essays. This hypothesis was supported by the results of the study using the chi-square test for independence. It was found that students high in exposure had significantly less frequency in their errors in wrong case (f=3), fragmentation (f=2), parallelism (f=4), punctuation (f=4) and verb tense (4) with $\chi^2 (15, 319) = 26.3, p < .05$. Although some errors are higher for students with high English exposure such as wrong verb form (f=16), preposition (f=18) and spelling (f=18), it still shows significant relationship between the

errors committed and language exposure of the students because the obtained Chi value 26.3 is greater than critical value 25.

The language exposure survey had a mean of ($M=3.59$). The obtained result was taken from the sum of 21 checklists divided by the number of student respondents (Appendix). Eighty seven out of the 160 students were classified as learners with high exposure. Highest frequency of exposure from the checklist came from the MLO (media, literature and others) category ($M=41.6$). The big frequency from the MLO (media, literature and others) category indicates that English is made available in all forms of media for the respondents. Websites and web pages for instance use the language as its medium. ALEXA rankings, the portal for top websites around the world listed ten English websites as popular sites for Filipinos. English music pervades as well in the Filipino lifestyle.

As identified thru their essays the common errors committed by second year high school students on their essays are presented on Table 1.

Table 1

Common Error's Committed on Student's Essay

No	run-															
cap	Wn	Vf	cap	on	cw	A	Sc	sp	c	fp	prep	wt	f	punc	wv	total
9	17	27	21	13	19	23	26	32	12	14	46	8	16	27	9	319

Note. See Appendix C for the meaning of the proofreaders mark.

The common errors below are the unedited sample passages from the students

(F means, and M means Male)

A. Use of capitalization:

M8. Well i guess.....

M12. NO, BECAUSE up to this time.

B. Subject and verb agreement (number, form, tense, verb used):

F1. Peace are good for the people.M11.... Parents have broke....F90. I was their childM5.... I can't talk anything

C. Sentence construction (poor and run-on sentences):

M45... I agree sometimes, because all of us have our god image we should be at peace so that all people will be happy....F6. Politics always corrupting to people

D. Choice of word:

F78.... There is no more colonizing.... and worrying states.

E. Article:

M 63... Because of an state.....

F. Spelling:

M1. most of their jokes.... [....most of their jokes]

M18.... it so sad coz.... [it so sad because...]

F9.... At the deggre ...[.....degree..]

G. Case:

B18 they taught their respect for piece.

H. Faulty parallelism

F16.... People are not good, and neither their attitude to world peace

I. Prepositions

G 8.... Most of the people on the world today are in peaceM 5..... goes.. on classM16.....people have to go here....M90....there in the riverbanks.

Discussion

It can be noted that students' top four errors committed on essay are in preposition (prep), spelling (sp) punctuation (punc) and verb form (vf). Total of forty-six errors were committed in the use of prepositions. It supports Blake's (1906) study that Filipino writers find difficulty in the use of English prepositions because there is only the Tagalog preposition sa in the Filipino language; Thus the confusion of the students to the number of prepositions available in the English language. This then limits acquisition thru language exposure due to something cultural.

Thirty-two is the total error in spelling. It is not unusual that a writer commits error in spelling. Spelling is one of the most sensitive aspects of language development because the students need more exposure to the language before decoding the correct spelling (Head-Taylor, 1998). It suggests that the students who got high errors need to be more exposed and familiar with more words adding to their vocabulary.

In addition, Adelstein & Pival (1984) argues that spelling started to become conventionalized over the years. Since then all languages undergo changes, especially in pronunciation, these conventions do not always reflect in present-day pronunciation (p.105). As a result, mispronounce word will lead to misspelling. Incorrect uses in both punctuation and forms of verb have been committed twenty-seven times. The former, suggests that students do not emphasize the use of punctuation because they fail to differentiate its uses.

Using more than one kind of punctuation in a sentence is hard to discern since punctuation is used in a particular situation according to Adelsein and Pival (1984). The later, focus on the subject and verb agreement particularly in its forms, like in punctuation it's also troublesome

in which subject and verb agreement rule has to be followed. Fromkin and Rodman (1998) states that in English and in every language, every sentence is a sequence words, but not in every sequence of the words is a sentence. Thus, one has to follow such agreement as syntax to form grammatical sentence.

Identified error supports the differences in the use of oral and written English Adelstein and Pival (1984) emphasized that one of the reasons they committed errors in writing sentences is that students employ the same grammatical structure both written and oral. Grammatical structures differs, oral language or spoken language is characterized by short sentences, fragments, and often single words and sometimes omits structural clues such as prepositions and other subject parts. On the other hand writing needs to be formal and should follow more sophisticated grammar structure. Students' error in their composition implies the required facility of the syntax rule in writing compositions.

It can be noted that the results from this paper is different from Mojica's (2007) findings. In her paper, the EFL student respondents reported difficulties on vocabulary and grammar. However, the same research participants recounted verb tense and punctuation as least of their writing problems which is similar to the result of this paper' exposed high school respondents.

Overall students who have more exposure in the language committed fewer mistakes in their essays. This outcome is perhaps parallel to Magno, de Carvalho, Lajom, Bunagan and Regodon's (2009) findings that acquisition is further intensified thru language exposure. Lilu and Yanlong (2005) cites that media types such as the news styles seen on newspaper, magazines, radios, TVs and Internet, etc. follow the accepted rules of English and exposure of students to these forms allows students to pick up

grammar and sentence structure. Such mediums observe punctuations and continuity which manifested on the results of the student participants.

Another consideration is the use of the language at school and at home will help students to brush up on their vocabulary words and make them conscious of their grammatical lapses. Teachers, parents and even peers may correct them on their mistakes. This maybe observed on the few mistakes that the highly exposed students made on verb tenses.

The information that encompasses the medium of exposure such as internet, movies, television programs etc.exhibit parallel construction. Parallelism on sentence construction refers to balance in the syntactical structure. Respondents that were exposed are likewise to have achieved fewer mistakes from this area.

The results have indicated that the English language often possesses difficulties for many people especially for the young learners. Mastery of the basic rules in writing takes time. Despite of the resources made available for exposure of the language intended, errors or mistakes are still bound to happen. However such instances are not a clear indication of failure to language acquisition but learning should be constant and must seek other tools for improvement.

Conclusion

There is much to be regarded with the writing skills of secondary learners. The errors that were acquired by the respondents on their essays show how this skill at times maybe overlooked. English grammar often possesses difficulties for many people especially for the young learners. Mastery of the grammar rule takes time. However, little did we disregard that acquisition maybe exhibited in other forms beyond classroom instructions. The results manifested that as language learners expose

themselves on other mediums of language (media, literature and technology) and active participation from teachers, parents as well as peers will help them in sentence formation and standard structure thus lessening errors on their written works.

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Appendix A

Checklists for English Language Exposure

Read the following questions and check the best answer that applies to you.

<u>Home</u>	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
1. My parents talk in English.					
2. English is spoken at home.					
3. I converse in English among my family.					
<u>Peers</u>					
4. My friends speak in English					
5. I talk with my friends in English.					
<u>School</u>					
6. My teachers speak in English.					
7. The activities in my school are conducted in English					
8. My classmates speak in English.					
9. My school encourages students to speak in English					
10. The medium of instruction used in the classroom is English.					
11. My school has an English speaking campaign program for students					
<u>Media/Literature/ and other resources</u>					
12. I read books written in English.					
13. I read newspapers written in English.					
14. I magazines written in English.					
15. I watch movies in English.					
16. I watch TV shows in English.					
17. I listen to songs in English.					
18. I send text messages in English.					
19. I receive text messages in English					
20. I browse web pages that are written in English.					
21. The information I read around is in English.					

Essay

Support your answer with set of criteria/proofs.

Most of the people of the world today are at peace.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal blue or grey ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are approximately 20 lines visible. The paper has a slight shadow on the right side, suggesting it's resting on a surface.

Appendix C

Proofreader's Mark

no cap – do not capitalize the word

cap- capitalize the word

sp- spelling

prep- wrong preposition

wn- wrong subject and verb agreement in number

vf- wrong verb form

wt- wrong tense

wv-wrong verb

run-on- run-on sentence

A- wrong article

f- fragment

punc- wrong punctuation

c- wrong case

fp- faulty parallelism

cw- wrong choice of word

sc- sentence construction is poor

Effect of Speaker Accent on Students' Learning and Speaker-Rating: A Replication

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Abstract

This study seeks to present the significant effects of speaker accent on students' deep learning, as measured by retention and transfer tests, and its effects on the students' rating of the speaker. A narration of how lightning storms develop was conducted among 150 high school students from a private school in Manila, Philippines. Participants were randomly assigned to three conditions: Filipino English-accent, American English-accent, and Korean English-accent. The MANOVA was used to test the effect of the 3 accents on retention and transfer tests, and speaker ratings. The findings showed that students' performances on retention tests are better when the narration is a foreign-accented voice (American English-accent) ($M = 1.48$), while students' performances on transfer tests ($M = 4.6$) and speaker-rating ($M = 6.06$) are better and more positive when the narration is in a standard-accented voice. The results were consistent with the Social Agency Theory and the Cognitive Load Theory.

Introduction

Listening to the teacher is important in the learning process. When teachers start speaking in class, students will pay attention to learn, and respond to them in various ways. Likewise, how students respond to the information they receive is dependent on the teacher.

A speaker, such as a teacher, can be effective depending on how he delivers his speech, or lessons. Hand gestures, voice modulation, accent, and pitch are some criteria in evaluating the delivery of a speaker. However, there are other considerations in discerning the effectivity of a speaker—the audience. In a classroom setting, the audience, also known as the students, play an essential role in telling whether a teacher is a good

instructor. In a study by Mayer, Sobko, & Mautone (2003), the researchers theorized that a speaker's accent affects the students' deep learning (i.e., a speaker who has a standard-accent positively affects the students' deep learning). However, Davis, Johnsrude, Hervais-Adelman, Taylor, & McGettigan (2005) stated that "Humans are able to understand speech in a variety of situations that dramatically affect the sounds that reach their ears. They can understand talkers with quite different (foreign or regional) accents." In experiments conducted by Bent & Bradlow, 2003; Clarke & Garrett, 2004 & Weill, 2001, it was shown "that effective perception of speech in an unfamiliar accent can require several minutes or more of exposure to allow full comprehension" (in Davis, Johnsrude, Hervais-Adelman, Taylor, & McGettigan, 2005). This means that an accent which is unusual may create more cognitive load to the students. Cognitive load refers to the amount of information that is acquired by a learner.

Recent studies show that more and more students rely on multimedia learning. Developers of computer-based multimedia instruction are working to create learning experiences in which the learner will accept the computer as a social partner, mainly through the use of on-screen agents that talk to the learner (Cassell, Sullivan, Prevost, & Churchill, 2000 in Mayer, Sobko, & Mautone, 2003). This is usually experienced in websites, compacted disc encyclopedias, and the like. However, we are not provided with much research on the role of voice in supporting learning from multimedia lessons. There are instances wherein the accent of the speaker will also vary to the standard-accent of the listeners. In this study, researchers consider the underlying role of the speaker's voice or accent in the multimedia lesson, specifically voice narration, in the influence it can make to the outcome of the students learning.

Mayer, Sobko, and Mautone (2003) examined about the role of speaker's voice in students' deep learning through multimedia lessons. They used speakers' accent as an agent in knowing the effect of a speaker's voice to learning, which were measured through retention and transfer test. It also explored the effect of accent on the speaker-ratings of the students. The study, however, failed to explore on the role of a country's second language affects the deep learning of students. The current study seeks to investigate on the effect of a speaker's accent, particularly, English across three different accents (Filipino English, American English, Korean English) on the learning and speaker-rating of the students having English as their second language.

Cognitive Effort Theory

"Effort can be physical and cognitive" (Kanfer, 1992 in Yeo, & Neal, 2008). The current study is centered on cognitive effort. The Cognitive Effort Theory states that challenging situations, where students are pushed to more cognitive work, exert more effort in doing such tasks (Mayer, Sobko, & Mautone, 2003). When students are given a task which they are not familiar with, meaning, it has not been incorporated in their schemas, they will tend to work harder to accomplish the task. In relation to the current study, the theory assumes that students who listen to a speaker with a foreign-accent will perform better on retention and transfer tests since they are presented with a more difficult task (Mayer, Sobko, & Mautone, 2003). In the same way, when the tasks presented to the students are not abundant in resources, they will perform higher if more effort is given to the task (Kanfer, 1987; Norman & Bobrow, 1975 in Yeo, & Neal, 2008).

Cognitive Load Theory

The Cognitive Load Theory posits that there is a very limited short-term memory (Miller, 1956 in Tuovinen, & Sweller, 1999), with an infinite long-term memory (Simon & Gilmarin, 1973 in Tuovinen, & Sweller, 1999), having large amounts of schemas (Chi, Glaser, & Rees, 1982, in Tuovinen, & Sweller, 1999), which differ in the level of automaticity (Kotovsky, Hayes, & Simon, 1985, in Tuovinen, & Sweller, 1999). In relation to the current study, the theory assumes that students receiving information from a speaker with a standard accent must utilize fewer cognitive works to process information than receiving data from a human voice with a foreign accent (Mayer, Sobko, & Mautone, 2003). If students have acquired an accent in their schemas which is similar to the standard accent, they will process the given information easier, thus creating lesser cognitive load. Gaining information from a speaker with a foreign accent will in turn produce more cognitive load since the foreign accent has not been incorporated in the students' schemas. When this happens, students allocate more time in understanding words separately, rather than processing the relationships of the words in the sentence as a whole. For example, students who receive information from a speaker in the standard accent will treat the statement "Water then evaporates" as a single thought because the accent used is automatic in their schemas. Students who receive information from a speaker in the foreign accent will treat each word in the sentence individually, which creates higher cognitive load. "In line with cognitive load theory (Chandler & Sweller, 1991; Sweller, 1988), Mayer and his colleagues also assume that performance during knowledge acquisition is dependent on the cognitive resources available for information processing" (Brünken, Steinbacher, Plass, & Leutner, 2002). That is, students who acquire knowledge from a standard-accented voice will perform better in problem-solving transfer

tests as supported by the Social Agency Theory (Mayer, Sobko, & Mautone, 2003).

Social Agency Theory

The Social Agency Theory posits that when the learners' social conversation schema is activated, they are more likely to imagine as if they are having a conversation with another individual. Therefore, they are somehow engaging in the social rules of human-to-human contact (Mayer, Sobko, & Mautone, 2003). In return, learners try harder to make sense of what the speaker is saying by engaging in deep cognitive processing. This was referred to as cooperation principle since the four conversational maxims are being experienced, wherein listeners assume that the speaker is trying to make sense by being informative, accurate, relevant, and concise (Grice, 1975 in Mayer, Sobko, & Mautone, 2003). In the current study, it is hypothesized that students who receive a narration which comes from a standard-accented voice (Filipino English-accent) will perceive the speaker possessing the four conversational maxims.

Learners engage deeper in explanation of the text when they think as if the author is speaking to them (Beck, McKeown, Sandora, Kucan, & Worthy, 1996; Schraw & Brunning, 1996 in Mayer, Sobko, & Mautone, 2003). In the same way, students who experience conversational classroom settings have better performances than lecturing (Cohen, Kulik, & Kulik, 1982; Graesser, Person, & Magliano, 1995 in Mayer, Sobko, & Mautone, 2003). In addition, a lecture based type of teaching can be seen as a learner receiving weak social cues such as listening to a foreign-accented voice. The learner would most likely interpret this merely as a case of information delivery. Thus, the cognitive processing would only be seeking for gaining information rather than going further by understanding (Mayer, Sobko, &

Mautone, 2003). In the present study, the researchers find support in this theory as it is assumed that students who listen to a narration by a standard-accented voice (Filipino English-accent) will create stronger social cues for them, thus, gaining better performances in tests of transfer.

This study seeks to present the significant effects of the accent of the narrative voice in the students' deep learning. Assuming that the participants would understand their standard accent voice rather than a foreign accent voice, the researchers will study which of the three groups would perform better in the retention and transfer tests, and would rate the speaker positively. Students' performance on tests of transfer is better when the narration in a narrated animation comes from a standard-accented voice rather than a foreign-accented voice. Moreover, students will produce higher ratings of the speaker on socially desirable characteristics when the speaker uses a standard-accented voice rather than with a foreign accented voice.

In the study, the three theories were integrated through the manipulation of the independent variables such that the social agency theory, cognitive load theory and the cognitive effort theory were tested all at the same time using different tests. Social agency theory can be connected with the cognitive load theory such that both theories suggest that learners learn better when they are exposed to a standard accented voice as compared to a foreign accented voice; however, the social agency theory also takes into consideration speaker rating which the cognitive effort theory does not test. The cognitive effort theory, which posits that learners learn more when they are exposed to a challenging situation, is also tested in contrast with the social agency theory and cognitive load theory.

Method

Participants and Design

The researchers randomly selected students from a private school in Quezon City. The sample included 150 high school students, ranging from second to fourth year. All students are Filipino citizens who reside in the Philippines, with a mean age of 15.46. Fifty participants were assigned in the American English–accent (foreign–accent) group ($n_{\text{males}} = 57.50\%$; $n_{\text{females}} = 42.50\%$), 50 participants for the Korean English–accent (foreign–accent) group ($n_{\text{males}} = 32.26\%$; $n_{\text{females}} = 67.74\%$), and 50 participants were assigned in the Filipino English–accent (standard–accent) group ($n_{\text{males}} = 41.18\%$; $n_{\text{females}} = 58.82\%$). The design used in the study was a simple-randomized group design for three independent variables. The independent variable was kind of English accent, with three levels, Filipino English–accent, American English–accent, and Korean English–accent. The dependent variables were students' scores in the retention test, four transfer tests, as well as the speaker-rating survey.

Materials

The materials consisted of a participant questionnaire, a retention test, four transfer tests, and a speaker-rating survey. The participant questionnaire asked about demographic information such as their name, age, gender, year level and nationality.

The current study only exposed participants to a recorded human voice with foreign-accent (American and Korean English) and standard-accent (Filipino English) narrating about lightning; since the main focus was about the social cues in multimedia learning.

The participants received a narration which explained how lighting forms. The narration was spoken by a female which had a Filipino English –

accent (standard-accent), a female with an American English-accent, or a female with a Korean English-accent. All narrations were recorded thru a laptop microphone. The narration was adapted from a study by Mayer, Sobko, and Mautone (2003) as shown in Appendix A. The apparatus used was a compact disc player with loud speakers for each of the three groups.

Retention Test. The retention test required the participants to write down an explanation of how lightning works (see Appendix B). This test is considered to be a retention test because participants are tasked to write information that was presented through the narration. The test also measured what the students recalled from the narration.

Transfer Tests. The four transfer tests were distributed separately after giving the retention test. The first transfer test asked what they could do to decrease the intensity of lightning (Appendix C). The second transfer test brought them in a situation wherein suppose they see clouds in the sky but there is no lightning and why not (see Appendix D). For the third transfer test, they were asked what the air temperature has to do with lightning (see Appendix E). Finally, for the fourth transfer test participants were asked what causes lightning (see Appendix F). The transfer tests require participants to choose and use certain, specific, and relevant information from the presentation and must find ways on how they can connect it to their answers. In addition, the four transfer tests measured how well the students comprehended the narration. Hence, transfer tests go beyond recall of information, but it actually uses the recall of information as a component in order to come up with sound solutions for the questions being asked. Take for instance the first transfer test question, wherein the participants must recall a specific aspect of lightning explanation, particularly that negative particles from the cloud meet positive charges from the ground. From there, he must be able to use that recalled

explanation to arrive at inferred ideas in order to answer the question by suggesting that positive particles should be removed from the ground. Although the idea was not directly presented in the narration, it can be implied, and therefore, represents a form of transfer.

Speaker-rating Survey. The speaker-rating survey was a 15-item instrument cited in the study by Mayer, Sobko, and Mautone (2003), which they adapted from Zahn and Hopper's (1985) Speech Evaluation Instrument. At the top of the survey questionnaires were instructions asking the participants to encircle a number from 1 to 8 indicating how the speaker (multimedia human voice) sounded along each of the 15 dimensions. For each dimension, the numbers 1 to 8 were indicated along a line with one adjective at the top of 1 and an opposite adjective at the top of 8. The 15 adjective pairs were the following: illiterate-literate, unkind-kind, passive-active, unintelligent-intelligent, cold-warm, shy-talkative, uneducated-educated, unfriendly-friendly, aggressive-unaggressive, not fluent-fluent, unpleasant-pleasant, unsure-confident, inexperienced-experienced, unlikable-likable, and lazy-energetic. By averaging the scores, an overall speaker-rating was achieved, with 1 indicating the most negative and 8 indicating the most positive. According to Mayer, Sobko, and Mautone (2003), they adapted the Speech Evaluation Instrument by Zahn and Hopper (1985) because it was effective in detecting the social characteristics attributed to speakers.

Procedure

Participants were randomly selected by the school such that 50 students were assigned to each of the three groups. The experiment was conducted in air-conditioned rooms to minimize the noise and distractions which might greatly affect the participants' listening to the narration. First, the experimenters introduced themselves and told the students that they

will be participating in an exercise which involves listening. After, the participants were asked to complete the participant questionnaire. Then, the experimenter told the participants that they shall be receiving an explanation on how lightning storms develop and reminded the participants to maintain silence during the process of listening to the narration because questions shall be asked to them afterwards. The recorded narration was then played through a compact disc player with loud speakers. On the basis of random assignment, participants in the standard-accent group (Filipino English-accent) received a standard-accent version (Filipino English-accent) of the narration, and the participants in the two foreign-accent groups (American English-accent and Korean English-accent) received foreign-accent versions (American English-accent and Korean English-accent) of the narration respectively. When the narration ended, the participants in each group were tasked to answer a retention test and asked students to keep writing until told to stop. After four minutes, the retention test was collected and the first transfer test sheet was distributed. After two and a half minutes, the first transfer test sheet was collected and the next transfer sheet was distributed and so on until all four transfer sheets had been completed. Then, the experimenters explained to the participants the instructions in completing the speaker-rating survey; it was clarified that the recorded voice was the one to be rated. After the participants had completed the speaker rating survey, it was collected. Finally, participants were thanked through incentives (a notebook and a pencil for each participant) and debriefed about the study.

Data Analysis

The retention test was scored by counting the number of ideas that a participant was able to write (maximum of eight points) disregarding

specific wording. The ideas were as follows: (a) air rises, (b) water condenses, (c) water and crystals fall, (d) wind is dragged downward, (e) negative charges fall to the bottom of the cloud, (f) the leaders meet, (g) negative charges rush down, and (h) positive charges rush up.

Scores from the transfer tests were obtained by tallying the number of acceptable answers given across all four questions (with a maximum of two points per test; and eight points for all the transfer tests). Some acceptable answers for the first transfer test about decreasing the intensity of lightning were as follows: (a) removing positively charged particles from the ground and/or (b) placing positively charged particles near the clouds. For the second transfer test about seeing clouds but no lightning, some acceptable answers were: (a) the top of the cloud might not be above the freezing level, and/or (b) there are no negative particles in the cloud. Some acceptable answers for the third transfer test regarding air temperature and lightning included: (a) air must be cooler than the surface of the earth and/or (b) the top of the cloud must be cooler than the bottom. For the fourth transfer test about the causes of lightning, some acceptable answers included: (a) there must be a difference of electrical charge within the cloud and/or (b) between the cloud and the ground.

The researchers used Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) to analyze the data. Using the scores of students belonging in the three different groups, values for descriptive statistics was obtained as well as the univariate results for each dependent variable, multivariate test of significance and the Scheffé test.

Results

The means and standard deviations on the retention test, transfer tests and speaker-rating measures are indicated in Table 1 (See Appendix G).

Effect of Accented voice on Retention

There was a significant difference in the means of the participants who were exposed to a standard-accented voice and foreign-accented voice on retention $F(2, 147) = 33.50$, $MS\ error = 0.8981$, $p = 0.000$. However, the mean of the group exposed to standard-accented voice (Filipino English-accent) in retention ($M=1.26$) was lower compared to the mean of the foreign-accented group specifically the American English-accent ($M= 1.48$). The standard deviations on the retention test reveal that the group who listened to a standard-accented English was more dispersed with $SD = 1.42$ as compared to the other two groups, the American English-accent group $SD = 0.79$, and the Korean English-accent group with $SD = 0.20$.

Effect of Accented voice on Transfer

Conforming with the social agency theory and cognitive load theory, it was found that students performed better on problem solving transfer when the voice was from a human speaking voice with a standard accent (Filipino English-accent) rather than a human speaking voice with a foreign-accent (American English-accent and Korean English-accent). Participants who received the narration from a standard-accented voice scored significantly higher on problem-solving transfer than the participants who received a foreign-accented voice (American English-accent and Korean English-accent) $F(2, 147) = 70.99$, $MS\ error = 3.30$, $p = 0.000$. From the means of the transfer test, it can be directly observed that the group who received a

standard-accent scored higher; ($M = 4.6$) as compared to other two groups exposed to foreign-accented voice, the American English-accent ($M = 1.8$) and the Korean English-accent ($M = 0.34$). Standard deviations on transfer reveal that the group who listened to a standard-accented voice was more dispersed with $SD = 2.39$ as compared to the other two groups, the American English-accent with $SD = 1.83$, and the Korean English-accent group with $SD = 0.92$. Based on the result, it can be implied that students in the standard-accented group exerted more effort in making relevant learning outcomes than did the students in the foreign-accented groups.

Effect of Accented voice on Social Rating of the Speaker

In line with the social agency theory, participants who received a standard-accented human voice (Filipino English-accent) rated the speaker higher as compared to the two other groups of participants who received a foreign-accented voice (American English-accent and Korean English-accent) $F(2, 147) = 85.68$, $MS\ error = 1.884$, $p = 0.000$. From the means of the speaker-rating surveys, it can be seen that participants in the standard-accent group (Filipino English-accent) rated the speaker higher with $M = 6.06$, than the other two foreign-accent groups, the American English-accent ($M = 5.31$) and the Korean English-accent ($M = 1.55$). Standard deviations on transfer reveal that the group who listened to a standard-accented voice was more dispersed with $SD = 1.58$ as compared to the other two groups with the American English-accent group $SD = 1.55$, and Korean English-accent group with $SD = 0.86$.

Discussion

Based on the findings of the experiment, it was found that students performed better on problem solving transfer when the voice in the

narration came from a human speaking voice with a standard-accent rather than a foreign-accent voice. Filipinos are accustomed to learning through listening to a Native American accent since they speak ESL or English as a Second Language which explains why they scored high on retention. This is highly inconsistent with the Cognitive Effort Theory which states that students exert more cognitive effort when a particular task is challenging, thus, achieving better performances. The researchers consider the possibility that both Social Agency Theory and Cognitive Load Theory might be accepted in the study. The Social Agency Theory and Cognitive Load Theory explain how a person's schema is essential in a cognitive process. Regarding the Social Agency Theory, it states that social cues in multimedia narrations activate the schema of individuals, and therefore, they imagine that they are having a conversation with another human. In the present study, what activated the schema of the participants is the narration of a standard-accented voice. As for the Cognitive Load Theory, it posits that when students listen to an accent that is found in their schemas, they will process the narration easier, which creates lesser cognitive load.

The Social Agency Theory is further supported by the results from the speaker-rating survey, wherein the participants rated the speaker having a standard-accent higher on social dimensions than the speaker who had a foreign-accent. Therefore, voice is a factor that can be considered in creating a sense of social presence in which learners would interpret a narrator from a media as a social partner. In addition, the cooperation principle by Grice (1975) which stated that when students are engaged in deep processing, they perceive the speaker as trying to make sense by being informative, accurate, relevant, and concise. This can explain why the students who listened to the standard-accented voice rated the speaker higher as compared to the other groups.

The Cognitive Load Theory is also supported through the results of the transfer tests of the students. Students who were exposed in a standard-accented voice scored higher than those who were exposed in a foreign-accented voice. Therefore, foreign-accented voice is seen as a negative factor which causes lower transfer scores of students because it creates more cognitive load. Another reason for the low scores of students in the transfer test was that students in the foreign-accented group devoted more cognitive capacity in deciphering the incoming narration, which resulted to less cognitive capacity left to make connections among pieces of information that is essential for meaningful learning.

Regarding the results obtained in the retention test, the American English-accent group (foreign-accent) scored higher than the standard-accented group (Filipino English-accent). This implies that the American English-accent group was able to devote cognitive capacity to listening, encoding, and remembering the main facts in the narration. In addition, deeper cognitive processing shall be needed for the transfer test, so the researchers are most interested in transfer; because it is through the transfer tests that meaningful learning can be measured. Another explanation regarding this matter is from Davis, Johnsrude, Hervais-Adelman, Taylor, and McGettigan (2005) which posits that humans can understand words even if a speaker has an accent which is foreign to them.

As for the results regarding the two foreign-accent (American English and Korean English), it suggests that an American English-accent voice would result in better learning of students as compared to a Korean English-accent voice. English is considered to be the second language in several countries including the Philippines. Moreover, learners will have difficulty understanding as well as processing the narration from a Korean-accented voice since this language is not very familiar in their schemas.

In the Philippine setting, it would be essential for Filipino schools with a majority of Filipino students (i.e. students who grew up in a home using Filipino as language of speaking) would benefit more in their learning if they would hire Filipino teachers in their school. Moreover, the results obtained from the experiment imply that a teacher with an American English-accent or Filipino English-accent will not be a problem to students since English is the second language of the Philippines.

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Appendix A

Narration Script for Lightning Lesson

Cool, moist air moves over a warmer surface and becomes heated. Warmed, moist air near the earth's surface rises rapidly. As the air in this updraft cools, water vapor condenses into water droplets and forms a cloud. The cloud's top extends above the freezing level, so the upper portion of the cloud is composed of tiny ice crystals. Eventually, the water droplets and ice crystals become too large to be suspended by the updrafts. As the raindrops and ice crystals fall through the cloud, they drag some of the air in the cloud downward, producing downdrafts. When downdrafts strike the ground, they spread out in all directions, producing the gusts of cool wind people feel just before the start of the rain. Within the cloud, the rising air currents cause electrical charges to build. The charge results from the collision of the cloud's rising water droplets against heavier, falling pieces of ice. The negatively charged particles fall to the bottom of the cloud, and most of the positively charged particles rise to the top. A stepped leader of negative charges moves downward in a series of steps. It nears the ground. A positively charged leader travels up from such objects as trees and buildings. The two leaders generally meet about 165 feet above the ground. The negatively charged particles then rush from the cloud to the ground along the path created by the leaders. It is not very bright. As the leader stroke nears the ground, it induces an opposite charge, so positively charged particles from the ground rush upward along the same path. This upward motion of the current is the return stroke. It produces the bright flash that people notice as a flash of lightning.

Appendix B

Retention Test

Please write down an explanation of how lightning works.

PLEASE KEEP WORKING UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO STOP

Appendix C

Transfer Test 1 Question

What could you do to decrease the intensity of lightning?

PLEASE KEEP WORKING UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO STOP.

Appendix D

Transfer Test 2 Question

Suppose you see clouds in the sky but no lightning, why not?

PLEASE KEEP WORKING UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO STOP.

Appendix E

Transfer Test 3 Question

What does air temperature have to do with lightning?

PLEASE KEEP WORKING UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO STOP.

Appendix F

Transfer Test 4 Question

What causes lightning?

PLEASE KEEP WORKING UNTIL YOU ARE TOLD TO STOP.

Appendix G

Means and Standard Deviations of Retention, Transfer, and Speaker-rating Survey for the three Groups

Group	Retention test		Transfer Test		Speaker rating	
	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Filipino accent	1.26	1.42	4.6*	2.39	6.06*	1.58
American accent	1.48	0.79	1.8	1.83	5.31	1.55
Korean accent	0.04	0.20	0.34	0.92	2.64	0.86

Developing Contemporary Teaching Perspectives for EFL Teachers

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Abstract

The article focuses on contemporary perspectives in psycholinguistics that EFL teachers need to develop in order to teach effectively. A perspective explains much on how EFL teachers implement their teaching. These perspectives include: (1) Knowing how language is acquired to teach the language effectively; (2) being aware that what is known about learning in general may be different for learning EFL; (3) holding specific beliefs about learning EFL influence the teaching of EFL; and (4) teaching is assessed by EFL by looking at teachers attitudes about teaching and learning. Given the perspectives, recommendations are provided for EFL teachers.

Introduction

Much research has been developed in line with what is effective in teaching in general. There is also a growing body of literature suggesting a variety of classroom strategies, techniques, and methods that promote better learning for students specifically in learning English as a Foreign Language. An important area in identifying what will and will not work in teaching EFL is how the teacher implements these methodologies. The available techniques, strategies, and methods in teaching would much depend on the teacher's dispositions, beliefs, and ability to execute tasks related to teaching. This article provides contemporary perspectives in education,

psychology, and psycholinguistics that teachers need to develop in order to make teaching EFL effective.

An EFL teacher needs to undergo a reflection not only on the resources and changes that will be made in the curriculum for effective EFL teaching, but also on their capabilities, beliefs, and dispositions to implement the changes. After rigorous training and education in strategies to teach EFL, the EFL teacher needs to assess to what extent they can implement what is learned in teaching EFL. This implies that the effectiveness in EFL teaching would depend on the perspective of the teachers themselves about what is learning and teaching. In order to make such strategies and methods in teaching EFL effective, the teacher needs to develop first a perspective on the nature of teaching and language learning. A perspective is a frame or a set of frames brought to bear on a situation that helps people make sense of it and take action (Anderson et al., 1992). EFL teachers need to develop a perspective in order to make EFL teaching more convincing and internally rewarding for them. These perspectives are based on contemporary empirical studies and reviews where the ideas are supported by evidence and accounted for by data. The perspectives for teaching EFL are discussed in the paper.

1. EFL teachers need to know how language is acquired to teach the language effectively.

Certain classroom methodologies are not just selected because they are recent or new, but because they match how students process language. There are new methodologies for teaching a language because it was found that there are different ways of learning a language. In ancient literature it was claimed that learners are born “tabula rasa” or “blank slate” where everything is filled as the individual develops. But we have discovered in

the contemporary period that learners have schemas and are self-regulated that enable them to learn and process a foreign language. Knowing how learning EFL takes place enables the EFL teacher to match how the student processes information. The learner best processes information if their way of learning is matched by the way the teacher trains them.

The role of theory in explaining how language is acquired continues to grow rapidly and EFL teachers need to keep abreast with these findings. An EFL teacher who gains access to studies explaining language development gains a better perspective in the selection, implementation, and outcome of their teaching. In order for an EFL teacher to gain access to these findings, they need to possess the ability to understand a large body of research. This means that teachers need to have a thorough understanding of research methodologies, designs, approaches, and analysis in order to access what is needed in order to teach EFL effectively. In one end, there is a need for language researchers all over Asia to continue and form research agenda in line with EFL and language acquisition. There are numerous research publications on line that provides free access to a corpus of knowledge about EFL and language acquisition such as the Asian EFL Journal and other sister journals.

2. What is known about learning in general may be different for learning EFL.

The classroom strategies developed are mostly applied in a general context and it is important to look at the domain-specific subject areas such as teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Research findings on effective teaching are general in nature without considering that the body of research that learning takes place differently across different domain-specific subject areas. For example, literature indicates that metacognitive

knowledge awareness does matter in learning and performance, but the study of Magno, de Carvalho, Lajom, Bunagan, and Regodon (2006) found that metacognitive knowledge awareness does not predict English oral proficiency. This result was also consistent in the study of Magno (2008) that knowledge of cognition does not predict English writing proficiency. What is known for teaching in general would change when applied and made specific for a subject area such as learning a foreign language. Teachers in language should be aware that if learning in general varies for learning a foreign language, then teaching foreign language such as English should be treated differently.

3. Teachers hold specific beliefs about learning EFL that influence their teaching of EFL.

Teachers' beliefs' on the nature of learning a language explain majority of their attitude and behavior in teaching EFL. Teachers' beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning are collectively termed as epistemological beliefs (Schommer, 1993). Epistemological beliefs play an important role in the learning process of EFL teachers and directly affect their teaching outcomes. It has been shown to influence individuals in terms of the learning that takes place in their problem-solving approaches and their persistence in facing difficult tasks (Schommer, 1993). Because of mounting evidence that these beliefs play an important role in learning (Hofer & Pintrich, 1997), researchers in the recent decades have examined the relation between individuals' beliefs about knowledge and their learning and performance. This suggests that epistemological beliefs are related to teachers' strategy use, conceptual change, and academic performance (Qian & Alvermann, 1995). Beliefs about knowledge and learning are classified under described five dimensions of beliefs

(Schommer, 1990) as (1) ability to learn which refers to whether an individual believes that the control of knowledge acquisition is fixed at birth or is malleable; (2) structure of knowledge which refers to whether an individual believes that knowledge consists of isolated bits and pieces or of interconnected concepts; (3) speed of learning which refers to whether an individual believes that knowledge is acquired quickly or not at all or that knowledge is acquired gradually; (4) stability of knowledge which refers to whether an individual believes that knowledge is absolute or tentative; and (5) source of knowledge which refers to whether an individual believes that knowledge is handed down by authority or derived from reason.

More specifically, research findings showed that teachers who view that knowledge is actively constructed and constantly evolving value education more (Magno, 2009), and are more self-determined (Magno & Mendoza, 2009) than those who see knowledge as fixed and coming from an omniscient authority.

4. EFL students' assessments of the teacher's performance is largely influenced by the teachers attitudes about teaching and learning.

The feedback coming from the learners themselves is an important factor that shapes the teachers perspective on how to teach EFL. Assessing teacher performance is an important part of the teaching and learning process for the EFL teacher. The assessment and feedback coming from the students are used as basis for the EFL teacher to continuously search for better ways of teaching and learning EFL. There are many ways of assessing teacher performance but research findings showed that Asian students do not only look at the teacher's overall performance but at the teachers' desirable characteristics such as personality, and efficacy beliefs about teaching as well. More effective teachers are those that have personalities

like bold, aggressive, extrovert, active, energetic, strong, good communicator, relaxed, practical, predictable, sensitive, open-minded, accepting, reasonable, gracious, expert, knowledgeable, wise, decisive, stable, rational, and sensible behaviors (Magno & Sembrano, 2007). Given these personalities, teachers tend to be rated highly on their teaching performance. It was also found that specific teaching variables such as learner-centeredness do not increase Asian students rating for teaching performance but more as a function of their personality.

The direction that EFL teachers need to take now is to formulate beliefs that would help them become more effective such as those presented. It was emphasized that changing one's perspective is the first step to improve EFL teaching practices. According to Anderson et al. (1992), when we have gained the perspectives, we learn to respond to situations by noticing phenomena that can be described, explored, and acted upon using psychological and educational concepts, principles, and theories. It is recommended for EFL teachers to (1) develop contemporary perspectives about teaching and learning EFL; (2) consider how learners' knowledge, motivation, and development contribute to the meanings they make, the actions they take, and what and how they learn in classrooms; (3) Emphasize analysis of and action in teaching situations by selecting the best principles to guide practice and applying them carefully; and, (4) Gather information as EFL teachers teach about how students are responding.

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