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An Analysis of Verb Groups in Legal Discourse: Implications for Teaching English for Specific Purposes

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Abstract

The analysis of verb groups provides another dimension in reading and understanding legal discourse. The verb group is the main constituent of the verb phrase in a sentence structure, which provides the necessary connection between the Subject and the Predicate of a sentence in a legal provision. In general, legal language is highly nominal; however, it may be helpful to see how these nominals co-occur with another important constituent, the verb. This may only be seen in a more appropriate perspective through the identification of the verb groups and its relation with the nominals in a provision. To provide a framework for the analysis of the verb group, the sub-categorization of Burton-Roberts (1997) was used: contrastive, intransitive, intensive, complex transitive, and prepositional. Specific examples of texts were drawn from the corpus of fourteen legal provisions on property ownership and other related real estate laws drawn from the Philippine Civil Code. The study attempts to explain the peculiarity of legal language through a careful examination of the verb group, a structure that is often neglected in legal discourse analysis. In view of ESP training, the study attempts to empower the lay audience (the real estate practitioner and the teacher, in particular) through the acquisition of knowledge, information, and the ability to read and interpret relevant legal provisions.

Keywords: Discourse analysis, ditransitive verbs, English for specific purposes, genre analysis

Introduction

Legal discourse is often characterized in terms of its high and complex nominal expressions, heavy embeddings, and its lengthy texts. Consequently, legal language has achieved a certain degree of notoriety due to the complexities of its lexico-grammatical structures that affect the reading and understanding of legal texts (Bhatia, 1993). To the non-specialists like the ESP teacher and those engaged in the real estate business, legal language renders a complex type of discourse that may pose serious problems if not dealt properly. Despite the regular training engaged in by practitioners in the industry, there is a need to further analyze and describe legal language in a more simplified and systematic manner. It is difficult to understand and absorb all the information presented in a statute as may be seen in the following legal provision as it appears in the Philippine Civil Code:
The obligation to deliver the thing sold includes that of placing in the control of the vendee all that is mentioned in the contract, in conformity with the following rules:

If the sale of real estate should be made with a statement of its area, at the rate of a certain price for a unit of measure of the latter should demand it, all that my have stated in the contract; but, should this be not possible, the vendee may choose between a proportional reduction of the price and the rescission of the contract, provided that, in the latter case, the lack in the area be not less than one-tenth of that stated.

The preceding legal provision consists of only one sentence but it has a total of 113 words. The legal provision is also heavily embedded with multi-nominal and prepositional clauses. Previous studies of legal discourse have established and justified the high nominal character and heavy embeddings as features that satisfy the goal of legal discourse to be all-inclusive and unambiguous. These peculiarities have served as an impetus for scholars to explore and analyze legal discourse. For example, Bhatia (1993) has written a book where he described and studied the use of legal language using genre analysis. In this book, the author affirmed the highly nominal character of legal texts as he examined certain lexico-grammatical features, which included nominal structures, prepositional phrases, sentence length, and other features that did not include the verbs.

In a previous study, Gocheco (2007) used a genre-based approach in analyzing the cognitive structure and other linguistic features of legal provisions in the Philippines. The framework of the study was adapted from Bhatia’s (1993) model using the two levels of genre analysis, which include the following: (1) analysis of lexico-grammatical features such as the nominal structure, sentence length, complex prepositional phrases, multinominal phrases, and syntactic discontinuities; (2) the interpretation of the cognitive structure using the two-part moves, which consists of the Provisionary Clause and the Qualifications Clause. The two-part cognitive structure illustrates how easily one can find the essential elements of a legal provision, namely: case description, legal action, and legal subject in Move 1, which is the Provisionary Clause; and its conditions in Move 2, Qualifications. The Qualifications Move interacts with the Provisionary Clause Move because it answers various possible questions that can be asked in different contexts. In addition, the two-part move structure, illustrates the complexity of legal writing brought about by the modifications, nominalizations, and other embeddings within a legal statement. Move 1 contains the main clause to describe the case, while Move 2 provides various conditions through the embedded phrases that qualify the directive.

In another study, Bhatia (1997) illustrated the application of genre-based approach in teaching and learning in the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) classroom. The study pointed out the significance of the communicative purpose as the essential element of a genre. The author identified four areas of competence in a genre-based approach to ESP, namely, (1) knowledge of the code; (2) acquisition of genre knowledge; (3) sensitivity to cognitive structures; and (4) exploitation of generic knowledge. As one of the examples in the study, a legal text was used to illustrate how the genre-based approach may be used in a postgraduate program designed for professionals from different institutions, who were not legal experts but required to be able to read and interpret legal documents in their particular fields. The participants in the study were assumed to be linguistically competent; thus, ten to twelve hours of
preparatory work were devoted to the following: (a) the identification of lexico-grammatical devices such as complex-prepositional phrases and qualificational insertions that provide clarity, precision, unambiguity; and (b) binomial expressions that make legal texts all-inclusive. There was also a discussion and application of “the notion of easification for specialist audience and simplification for the lay audience” (Bhatia, 1997, p. 146). The easification and simplification procedures involved the use of the cognitive structure of the legal text. The specific tasks included an analysis of the text in terms of the linguistic devices used, identification of the communicative purpose, and simplification of the content of the text. The author pointed out that the key element in the study was that “the learner does not learn language in isolation from specialist contexts, but is encouraged to make the relevant connection between the use of language on the one hand and the purpose of communication on the other, always aware of the question, ‘why do members of the specialist discourse community use the language in this way?’” (Bhatia, 1997, p. 149).

It may be observed that the foregoing studies did not include verbs as one of the lexico-grammatical features that were analyzed. Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik (1985) aptly describe the significance of the noun phrase as multifunctional because it can serve as any of the clause constituents except the verbal constituent. In the case of legal provisions, the nominal embeddings often describe and clarify the conditions in a statute.

On the other hand, the verb is often neglected in discussions and investigations of the complexities in the use of language that may be typical of legal discourse. At the discourse level, word order contributes to the current state of neglect; for example, “when dividing the sentence, into a ‘theme’ and a ‘rheme’, the verb is usually regarded as part of the rheme in which the noun phrase following it plays the highest degree of ‘communicative dynamism’, and thus, gets more prominence” (Mathesius, 1975, in Al-Jarrah, 2009, p.2). However, this does not preclude the importance of verbs in discourse. As Quirk et al. (1985) assert, “the verb element is the most ‘central’ element in that (i) its position is normally medial rather than initial or final; (ii) it is normally obligatory; (iii) it cannot normally be moved to a different position in the clause; and (iv) it helps to determine what other elements must occur” (p. 213). Thus, despite the relatively minimal occurrences of verbs in legal provisions, the verbs may reveal important features of legal provisions. An awareness of the use of verbs and how they are categorized may help clarify the meaning of complex and lengthy clauses found in legal provisions, a genre of legal discourse.

Al-Jarrah (2009), in a study of verbs in discourse, argues, “it is never unusual for the verb to communicate the highest degree of communicative dynamism, and thus occupies the focal position in the discourse” (p.2).

Foley (2003) emphasizes the notion that the verbal group is an “essential element” (p.5) of the clause since its “presence or absence” (p.5) enables us to recognize the clause, which is the most basic unit of a text. The clause “allows us to begin to talk about how things exist, how things happen and how people feel in the world around us” (Foley, 2003, p.5). In summary, the verbal group shows the interaction in a clause by connecting the constituents in a clause.

Burton-Roberts (1997) describes the Verb Group as a single constituent of the Verb Phrase (predicate), which comprises the basic structure of a clause, together with the other constituent, the Noun phrase (subject). The Verb Group consists of a lexical verb and sometimes preceded by other verbs such as auxiliary verbs. The Verb Groups may be further distinguished through the following sub-categories as identified by Burton-Roberts (1997), namely: monotransitive, intransitive, ditransitive, intensive,
complex transitive, and prepositional. The sub-categorization of the Verb Groups is further described in the following section.

**Significance of the Study**

Considering the significance of the verb in a clause, the study aims to examine the occurrences of verbs in legal provisions as one of the lexico-grammatical features that may enhance the description of this particular genre of legal discourse.

The study aims to provide the necessary knowledge that will explain and simplify the reading and comprehension of legal provisions for the real estate practitioner. The training and review program for the real estate practitioner includes modules on the study of relevant legal provisions since laws on legal ownership, contracts, and other related laws are essential in the real estate industry. The real estate practitioners may be experts in their fields but not necessarily in law. Thus, there is a need to provide a simplified method of understanding legal provisions in the ESP classroom.

The present study expands the previous study of Gocheco (2007) on a genre-based approach on analyzing legal provisions for real estate practitioners. A genre-based approach in discourse analysis renders the needed “sensitivity to cognitive structures” (Bhatia, p. 137) and the use of lexico-grammatical features that are distinct in a particular type of discourse. To further describe and understand the relevant legal provisions, this study analyzed another lexico-grammatical feature, the verbs and their verb group categories in the corpus.

**Methods**

**Corpus**

A selection of fourteen Philippine legal provisions on property, ownership, and other real estate related laws was compiled from Book II (Property, Ownership, and Its Modifications) of the Philippine Civil Code.

**Framework of Analysis**

As its operational definition in the study, Verb Group is defined as a constituent of the Verb Phrase, as adopted from Burton-Roberts (1997). As the framework for the analysis of the verb group, the sub-categorization of Burton-Roberts (1997) was used, as shown in Table 1 below.
Table 1
A Summary of the Sub-categories of Verb Groups (Burton-Roberts, 1997:82-91)

**Monotransitive – ‘[trans]’**

A monotransitive Vgrp (Verb Group) is one which requires a single Noun Phrase to complement it. The NP that complements a transitive verb is said to function as its direct object.

Subject – Vgrp – direct object

(S) (dO)

(1) Phil dreads affectionate cats.

(S) Vgrp [trans] (dO)

**Intransitive – ‘[intrans]’**

An intransitive Vgrp is one that does not require any further constituent to form a complete predicate, a single-word verb can count not as a complete Vgrp.

Subject – Vgrp

(S)

(2) Omar sighed.

(S) Vgrp [intrans]

**Ditransitive – ‘[ditrans]’**

A ditransitive Vgrp is one which requires two NPs as its complementation; the first complement NP functions as the indirect object, the second NP functions as the direct object.

Subject – Vgrp – indirect object – direct object

(S) (iO) (dO)

(3) William is giving Goneril the bleach.

(S) Vgrp [ditrans] (iO) (dO)

It is important to note that the indirect object may be introduced by a preposition, thus constituting a PP (prepositional phrase) in a position that follows a direct object.

Subject – Vgrp – direct object – to/for indirect object

(S) (dO) (iO)

(4) The staff have sent a message to the general.

(S) Vgrp [ditrans] (dO) (iO)
Cont. Table 1

Intensive – ‘[intens]’

Intensive Vgrps require a single complement, which can take the form of an Adjective Phrase (AP), or a Noun Phrase (NP), or a Prepositional Phrase (PP).

Subject – Vgrp – subject-predicative

(S) (sP)

(5) Ed is *rather extravagant.* (AP)
(6) Sigmund was *an auctioneer.* (NP)
(7) Oscar should be *in the engine room.* (PP)

Complex Transitive – ‘[complex]’

Complex transitive Vgrps take two complements: a direct object a (NP) and an object-predicative, which can take the form of an AP, NP, or a PP. The following examples are given with the direct object in italics and the predicative in bold. An important feature in a complex transitive VP characterizes the direct object, not the subject, thus the name ‘object-predicative’.

Subject – Vgrp – direct object – object-predicative

(S) (dO) (oP)

(8) Melvin found his *own jokes* extremely funny. (AP)
(9) They are making Stella their spokesperson. (NP).
(10) Liza has been putting the *liquor under the bed.* (PP)

Prepositional – [prep]

Subject – Vgrp – prepositional complement

(S) (PC)

APrepositional Vgrp is one that requires a prepositional complement, PP (prepositional phrase), as in the following example:

(11) Max glanced at the falling acrobat.

(S) (PC)

The verbs were analyzed by mapping the occurrences of verbs within the verb group categories as they occurred in the two-part move structure of legal provisions, which include the Provisionary Clause and the Qualifications Clause. An example of
the interaction and textual relationship of the two-move structure in Article 414 is presented in the following table.

Table 2
Interaction between the Two-Move Structures in Article 414 (Gocheco, 2007)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Move 1 Provisionary Clause</th>
<th>Move 2 Qualifications</th>
<th>Lexico-grammatical Feature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Essential Elements</td>
<td>Essential Elements</td>
<td>Feature</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All things</th>
<th>1 Legal subject/2 Case Description</th>
<th>which are/or may be the object of appropriation</th>
<th>4 Conditions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>are considered:</td>
<td>3 Legal action</td>
<td>or real property;</td>
<td>Binomial expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immovable</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or movable</td>
<td></td>
<td>or personal property</td>
<td>Binomial expression</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* Embeddings

Table 2 illustrates how embeddings such as adjective clauses and nominal expressions, among others, can provide clarity and precision to a legal provision. To guard against ambiguities, the legal draftsman, in the case of Article 414, provides a clear description of the subject (all things) by embedding an adjective clause (which are/or may be the object of appropriation) that also serves as the qualification or condition of the legal provision. Clarity and inclusiveness are further realized through the use of binomial expressions: or real property and or personal property.

Limitations

Verbs in non-finite clauses were not included in the manual count and analysis of the verb groups because, in general, the Verb groups found in non-finite clauses function as adjectives and nouns. For example, in the following excerpt of Article 415 in the Philippine Civil Code as shown below:

The following are immovable property:

(1) Land, buildings rods, and constructions of all kinds adhered to the soil;
The phrase, adhered to the soil, is a non-finite clause that functions as an adjective; thus, as a limitation of this study, the passive participle Verb Group headed by ‘adhered’ is not analyzed, which in this case functions as an adjective.

A non-finite clause is defined by Burton-Roberts (1997) as a clause with a non-finite (tenseless) Verb Group that includes the ‘infinitive’ and the ‘participle’ verb groups. For the purpose of the study, only the finite clauses were considered for analysis.

**Procedure**

The verbs in finite clauses were identified and categorized in the verb groups to which they belong.

Table 3 shows examples of the different categories of verb groups identified in the two-part move structure of a legal provision. The auxiliary verbs and the voice (whether active or passive) are also indicated although they are not part of the analysis in the present study.

### Table 3
**Identification of Verb Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>MOVE 1</th>
<th>MOVE 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Legal Provisions</strong></td>
<td><strong>Provisionary Clause</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Philippine Civil Code</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art 414</td>
<td>All things are [aux - passive] considered [complex] either: immovable or movable</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A complete list of the verb groups identified in the corpus is provided in Appendix 2.

**Results and Discussion**

An overall representation of the occurrences of the verb groups is presented in Table 4. The table provides the relative distribution and frequency of verb group occurrences in both the provisionary and qualification clauses.

Table 4 exhibits the considerable number of occurrences of verb groups in the corpus, which is represented by an average of 4.9 occurrences of verbs in the various verb group categories per article. The above-average number of verbs in an article per legal provision in the corpus affirms the complexity of the clausal structure of a legal text. It reflects the prevalence of multinomial expressions in a legal provision; as an obligatory constituent of a clause, the use of verbs entails an equal usage of at least one nominal phrase in a clause.

Further, Table 4 shows that the Monotransitive verb group has the highest frequency of occurrences in the corpus with 32% frequency, closely followed by the Complex verb group (28%) and Intensive (25%). The **Monotransitive verb group** allows the two essential features, the legal subject and the legal action, to govern the relationship intended by the provision by identifying the person or the party (subject) to whom the nature of power or right is given or prohibited from doing (legal action). Thus, the Monotransitive provides a straightforward way of giving information through its simple clausal structure, Subject – Verb Group – Direct Object. This may explain its dominant usage not just in the whole corpus, but more specifically in the Provisionary Clause, which serves as the essential clause where the legal action and legal subject are found.

Table 4 also reveals that the **Complex verb group** has the second highest frequency among the verb groups in the combined clauses, with a total number of 19 verb groups or 28% of the total verb groups in the corpus. The **Complex verb group** has a similar construction as that of the Monotransitive verb group with a Subject and Direct Object. The difference lies in the fact that the Complex transitive takes another complement in the form of an object-predicative, which gives a clearer and exact reference to the direct object. The object-predicative may be in the form of an adjective phrase (AP), noun phrase (NP), or a prepositional phrase (PP). As shown in the sub-categories of verb groups earlier, a **Complex verb group** has two complements: a Noun Phrase that functions as its Direct Object and an object-predicative (Burton-
Roberts, 1997). The high frequency of Complex verb groups suggests that there is an equal number of nominals parallel to the Subject. As applied in the corpus of legal provisions, the Complex verb group functions as the bridge between the Subject and the predicate direct object. This trend supports the purpose of legal writing to be precise and unambiguous by giving a direct connection between the Subject and the Predicate. The Complex verb group enables the legal writer to give a concrete receiver (Direct Object) to whatever action or operation is enacted by the Subject in a legal provision; in addition, the second complement (AP, NP, or PP) attributes features that make a clause/sentence more precise and unequivocal. Essentially, the predicative complement provides the conditions in a legal provision.

It may be noted that the Complex verb group predominantly occurs in the Qualifications Clause where the essential element, Conditions, is found. The Complex verb group appropriately serves the purpose of providing conditions and other qualifying attributes to the direct object of the Provisionary clause. This is exemplified in Article 709, as shown below.

(1) Article 709

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The titles of ownership,</th>
<th>or of other rights</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>over immovable property,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>which are [aux-passive] not duly inscribed</td>
<td>[complex]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>or annotated [complex]</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in the Registry of Property</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in (1), the Subject and Direct Object are clearly stated in the Provisionary Clause through the use of the Monotransitive (trans), while the Complex verb group provides additional attributes to the nominal phrases in the Qualifications Clause.

Together with the Complex verb group, Table 4 also shows that the Intensive verb group has the highest frequency in the Qualifications Clauses with a total of fourteen (13) occurrences or 33% frequency. It may further be observed in Table 4 that the number of occurrences of the Intensive verb group is significantly higher in the Qualifications Clauses than its total number of occurrences in the Provisions Clauses. Consistent with the nature of the Qualifications Clause in the cognitive structure of the legal provision, the Intensive verb group gives an added description and clarification about the Subject in the clause. The Intensive verb group is characterized by linguistic structures that attribute properties to the Subject of the clause; more specifically, these complements are classified as Subject Predicatives (Burton-Roberts, 1997). Hence, the Intensive verb group is a linguistic feature that gives more information about the Subject.
through any of its complements, which include the following: Noun Phrase, Adjective Phrase, or a Prepositional Phrase. Again, these three complements serve the purpose of legal writing by attributing as many aspects, features, or qualities the Subject may possess. An example of the use of this verb group is shown in Article 414.

(2) Article 415

The following are immovable property: ....
In Article 415, the first clause shows that the Intensive Verb ‘are’ connects the clausal Subject ‘following’ to the Nominal Phrase ‘immovable property’.

Interestingly, the Ditransitive verb group occurs only twice in the corpus. This type of verb group requires two NP complementations: the indirect object and the direct object. The minimal use of ditransitive verbs, therefore, allows the legal draftsman to veer away from a more complex sentence structure in terms of NP complementations in the predicate. Rather, the prevalence of Monotransitives, which require only a direct object after the verb, contributes to a more direct and unambiguous reference in a legal provision. This phenomenon accounts for how the communicative purpose of legal provisions to impose obligations and to confer rights is appropriately served in the discourse.

Implications

The analysis of the verbs, their sub categories and their occurrences in legal provisions give the ESP Teacher and the learner the tool to handle the complex and lengthy provisions relative to the real estate industry. Aside from the sensitivity to cognitive structures, an investigation of verbs provides an added dimension to the teaching of lengthy legal provisions that simplifies the text into its bare bones. The identification and analysis of the verb groups promote better comprehension of laws not only through the discrete use of verbs but also on how the grammatical features such as Verb and Subject relate each other in a legal provision. Rather than present a set of legal provisions in their original form, as presented in the civil code, the ESP Teacher should include a simpler version of these provisions by identifying and explaining the verb and the verb group category that is used. To illustrate, the original form and the easified version of Article 414 are shown below.

(3) Article 414
All things which are or may be the object of appropriation are considered either:

Immovable or real property; or
Movable or personal property.
Table 5
Easified Version: Identified Verb Groups in the Cognitive Structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Legal Provisions</th>
<th>MOVE 1</th>
<th>MOVE 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Provisionary Clause</td>
<td>Provisionary Clause</td>
<td>Qualifications</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Art 414</td>
<td>All things which are [intens]</td>
<td>All things which are [intens]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[aux-passive] considered</td>
<td>[aux-M] the object of appropriation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>[complex] either:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>immovable property;</td>
<td>or real</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or movable property</td>
<td>or personal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The easified version shown in Table 5 shows how each clause may be read in chunks, Moves 1 and 2. A further description of the verb groups renders another perspective in terms of interaction between the clausal Subject and Predicate. For example, since the verb group in Move 1 is complex, one may expect two complements: a direct object in the form of NP and an object predicative in the form of an adjective phrase (AP), noun phrase (NP), or a prepositional phrase (PP). On the other hand, the use of the Intensive Verb Group in Move 2 gives the ESP Teacher, (and eventually the learner) a cue as to the kind of complement it requires - a single complement, which may take the form of an AP, NP, or a PP.

Conclusion

The foregoing investigation of verbs offers another perspective in understanding legal provisions. Aside from the notable nominal element of legal provisions, the verb group defines the relationship of the nominal characters, more specifically, between the Subject and its predicative complement in a clausal structure.

The study of the verb groups presents a pedagogical tool for acquiring skills in reading and interpreting legal language. For instance, the use of Monotransitive, Intensive, and Complex verb groups reflect the communicative purpose of legal provisions, that is, to make the discourse clear, precise, all-inclusive, and unambiguous. Cognizant of the communicative purpose of legal provisions, the intensive verb group fittingly connects the Subject to the Verb while the Monotransitive and the Complex verb groups provide a straightforward clausal structure that shows the relationship between the Subject, Verb, and Direct Object. The verb groups provide simple clausal structures that do not complicate nor create ambiguities in a legal provision. On the other hand, the findings have shown that the more complex verb group, Ditransitives, were rarely used in the legal provisions. This may be explained by the more intricate structure of the Ditransitive verb group as it provides another complementation, the indirect object.
To the real estate practitioner, an awareness of the characteristics and purpose of legal writing may contribute to a better understanding of the peculiarities of legal language. An awareness of the linguistic features of legal provisions and its cognitive structure may spawn the sensitivity that is valuable in the interpretation of laws. To the ESP teacher, the language description of legal provisions provides a simplified description that can be used in the classroom. The use of generic knowledge may lead to less frustration and confusion in understanding legal provisions. An awareness of the communicative purpose of the genre, its cognitive structures, and the verbs, as one of its lexico-grammatical features, will likely promote success in the ESP classroom.

References
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Dr. Paulina Gocheco is a faculty member of the Department of English and Applied Linguistics at De La Salle University. Her fields of interest include discourse analysis, oral communication, and academic writing.
First Year College Students’ Perception of the Process Approach in Honing Critical Writing Skills

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Abstract

Philippine writing classrooms are still generally following the product approach since as a developing nation, this approach is still not feasible given the number of students per class, size and poor condition of a classroom, and the non-changing tradition of classroom teaching. Thus, the process approach being adopted by DLSU is considered to be a major leap in teaching writing. Yet, due to its novelty, Philippine textbooks on process approach is still scarce, thus making the professors at DLSU adopt a mixture of different approaches and trends. Eventually, this approach has failed to achieve the desired literacy due to improper implementation. Thus, this rote approach became just another uninspiring task to be fulfilled in every writing session by DLSU students. This paper investigated how a holistic view, emphasizing writing as a recursive process, is ineffective for second language learners, specifically first year college students who are exposed to this approach for the first time. Different stages of the process were discussed in terms of effectiveness in producing quality works. Substantial evidence from 150 outputs shows that 80% of the stages are done for compliance.

Keywords: Process Approach, Product Approach, Organizing Stage, ENGLCOM, input

Introduction

Over Contemporary writing classrooms now emphasize the recursive or the process approach to writing as a reaction to the usual product approach. The process approach was defined by Tribble (1996, p. 160) as ‘an approach to the teaching of writing, which stresses the creativity of the individual writer, and which pays attention to the development of good writing practices rather than the imitation of models’. Accordingly, it is different from product approach to writing where students hand in a paper out of a prompt provided by the teacher, and at times only one draft is required. Jordan (1997) also believes that the process approach evolved as a reaction to the product approach, in that it met the need to match the writing processes inherent in writing in one’s mother tongue, and consequently allow learners to express themselves better as individuals. This trend, which first became popular in the U.S., is now adopted by many Asian classrooms. Yet, despite the reputation of this approach, teaching writing still remains to be the most difficult area for SL and FL learners of English.

Ideally, in a process approach, students are provided avenues to brainstorm for ideas, draft their papers several times, edit, and revise according
to evaluations from peers, teachers, and sometimes themselves, before handing in a last draft. Thus, the process approach creates a venue for the students to write according to their interest, at the same time providing a time range that is suited to their preference in order to come up with a writing output (Cusipag et al., 2006; Jaleco, Lalata, & Ranosa, 1999; Victoriano, 1995). This is the reason why the process approach to writing is viewed as the most effective way to teach writing to SL and FL learners. In addition, the process approach also posts some “assumed” benefits as opposed to the product approach. First, it is assumed that not all students get an idea about the prompt right away, several external factors may intervene in the first attempt to come up with a draft, and it may be unfair to grade the paper at once. Secondly, if students are given enough time and consideration on a topic, they will most often than not, reflect more as opposed to when they are on a limited time frame.

But despite all of these, the reality remains that most teachers adopting this approach fail to give justification to the students as to why they are required to go through several stages. Also, there is the lack of provision for practice of the writing skill in class due to time and syllabus constraints. Thus, majority get the misconception, that the stages are added burden to the otherwise difficult task that is writing. Eventually, this approach has failed to achieve the desired literacy due to improper implementation. This was also asserted by Myles (2002) who believes that certain social and cognitive factors related to second language acquisition show that strategies involved in the language learning process affect L2 writing and that the process approach to writing instruction can only be effective if these two components are taken into consideration. Thus, this rote approach became just another uninspiring task to be fulfilled in every writing session.

The Stages

As known to practitioners of this approach, pre-writing is the first stage that must be accomplished. This is where students supposedly gather ideas for their papers in order to establish the foundation for the remainder of the output (Cusipag et al., 2006; Jaleco, Lalata, & Ranosa, 1999; Victoriano, 1995). Under pre-writing are the different activities such as journal writing, brainstorming, clustering, treeing, or free writing. After gathering enough ideas, they then proceed into the second stage, which is to conceptualize their working thesis followed by outlining, which is where they organize their thoughts. Although some writing books, such as that of Cusipag et al. (2006) consider the second stage as a part of the prewriting stage, this paper considers it a different part of the process for several reasons: (1) It is mostly done on a different writing session/day as the prewriting stage, giving students the impression that it is the “second stage” that they can accelerate to after accomplishing the prewriting activity; (2) It involves a different cognitive skill from the prewriting for it requires organization of ideas and linear thinking for the outline; and lastly (3) professors usually allot a higher bulk of the score for this stage as opposed to the prewriting stage. This stage is called organizing stage prior to drafting. Third stage is the first draft, which is then evaluated and/or edited either by the peers, the teachers or sometimes themselves. The students then make another round of draft out of the comments, suggestions, and correction, these evaluation and editing tasks comprise the fourth stage.
This paper was born out of casual observations of ENGLCOM (English one) teachers at De La Salle University Manila regarding the uselessness of the process approach to first year college students. Seemingly, students go through the stages without much reflection and with very little improvement in the final drafts. Thus, the researcher analyzed where the problems are coming from in order to see whether the stages are in fact needed in coming up with a better output.

This program is believed by the institution to be a complete opposite of what they freshman students were exposed to since the high school educational system in the Philippines is product approach in general. The steps simply include the following: a) the teacher poses a prompt for the students; b) students write about the prompt on a theme paper; c) teacher checks for mistakes, mostly on grammar; and d) students revise according to the correction. There are no venue for brainstorming, for outlining, and even several evaluations coming from different people. This is mostly due to the educational culture which relies heavily on traditional examination upon entrance to colleges and universities. Thus, the process approach is a totally new approach for many of the students coming from high school.

Methods

In order to first identify the perspective of students, a survey was conducted to 150 students, all of which have gone through the process-approach to writing in their first English course at De La Salle University Manila (DLSU). The survey identifies their opinion regarding the effectiveness of each stage in the process approach. It also requests for their personal comments, both positive and negative. The results of the survey were coded and presented in figures to represent the responses. The open-ended data questions on the other hand, were manually summarized for the purpose of identifying emergent trends and patterns. Plausible explanations of the emerging results are provided and implications for EFL/ESL composition teaching are accordingly drawn. A face-to-face interview, on the other hand, was also conducted to selected respondents, again, to identify their opinion of the effectiveness of the process approach in honing their writing skills using English as a second language.

Results and Discussion

Survey Results

The results of the survey for the first stage (Prewriting) are presented in Figure 1. Majority of the students agree that the pre-writing stage is useless ($n=41$) and/or rarely helpful ($n=36$), with only 17 viewing it as always helpful. Seven of the respondents even commented that the process approach should directly start with outlining for the prewriting stage did not help them at all in generating new ideas for some of them relied only with what they already know “I was never really able to gather ideas using the prewriting activities for prior to the prewriting, I already know what to write...”.

“The prewriting activities were not very helpful because I was never used to doing them prior to writing...”

“I think the prewriting activities should be more innovative than simply the ones
given to us...”
One even added that prewriting was done only to comply with the requirement of the process approach which includes this stage

STUDENTS’ PERCEPTION OF PREWRITING

This comes as a surprise considering that the “prewriting stage is supposed to be the most important in the writing process because it lays the groundwork for the rest of the process” (Cusipag, et al., p.29, 2006), and if this has not been given focus by the writing teacher, then the prewriting may fail to achieve its purpose. But according to Shi (1998) “although prewriting discussions might have an effect on students’ writing, the talking effect might not necessarily have an immediate influence as students wrote their first drafts” (p.332). Similarly, Hedge (1988, as cited in Badger & White, 2000) identified four elements of the context that pre-writing activities should focus on: the audience, the generation of ideas, the organization of the text, and its purpose. Thus, if teachers are not fully aware of these elements, the prewriting stage may fail to achieve its purpose. Lastly, if this stage is not given enough time, students might not have ample ideas for this stage is where students supposedly spend 85 percent of their time (Cusipag, et al., 2006).

Figure 2 shows the results for the outlining stage. The comments of the students that the process approach should directly start with outlining are verified by the result of the survey for outlining. A whooping 92 of 150 students view it as always helpful, and none of the respondents view it as rarely helpful or useless.

STUDENT’S PERCEPTION OF OUTLINING

To further verify their perception of the second stage, 11 of the students even commented that outlining helps them become more organized in the flow of their writing and one of the respondents mentioned that it is already difficult for him to write without an outline. Yet, two of the eleven who gave their comment about this stage mentioned that their ENGLCOM teacher was not very strict in checking outlines for she did not anymore check their succeeding outlines after the first process writing. This may have led to some students taking the outline for granted despite its usefulness for the majority. One of the students was asked during the interview as to why she thinks her ENGLCOM teacher did not check her outlines after the first one, she mentioned that it must be due to lack of time because the teacher concentrated more on the drafts. She also added that the succeeding outlines were merely checked according to the rudiments of outlining, thus leaving the content unchecked. This is a problem area for it was found out that students give more time for reflection than in the actual writing of the draft (Pennington, 1993). This is supported by Caudery (1995), who claimed that process teaching often requires more in the way of input from teachers and students alike, and the degree of individualization involved can also present organizational problems, leading to disruption of "normal" teaching patterns. Thus, if teachers fail to address individuality, outputs may not be any different from what will be produced using other approaches such as the product approach.

Results for the drafting stage are presented in Figure 3. Student respondents also see this stage as equally helpful, with 78 and 52 of them
viewing it as always and occasionally helpful respectively. Yet, the drafting stage is not just one round in the process approach, but is composed of several rounds, according to the need of the paper. Even if the students consider this stage as helpful, many of them commented that not all drafts are important in the process approach.

EMBED MSGraph.Chart.8 \s Figure SEQ Figure 3. STUDENT’S PERCEPTION OF DRAFTING

To expound on the comments of the respondents, 19 of the 78 commented that only one of the three drafts is taken seriously. Succeeding drafts tasked to do at home or inside of the classroom are pretty much the same with the second draft. In fact, if there are changes, these are attributed only to some words and word count. When asked why there seems to be very little difference, one student answered that the second draft received very little corrections already and most of them would not do a self-evaluation anymore and would just apply the corrections of the teacher, which in many instance, are minimal. Our teacher pays small attention to the succeeding drafts after the second because they are given as an assignment and we do them at home, answered one student. Thus, corrections of the teacher are paid attention by the student if there are any for the succeeding draft and if there are none; students change only a few words in the writing output.

This is supported by Murray (1980, as cited in Caudery, 1995), who claimed that there should be an emphasis on a series of drafts in the writing process as the writer gradually discovered through writing what it was that s/he wanted to say. Even if SL teachers claim that the process is better than the product approach, there are still constraints on time available in covering all the lessons specified in the syllabus. This leads to the simplification of the process approach with all its purpose and benefits.

Results of the evaluation/editing stage are presented in Figure 4 below.

EMBED MSGraph.Chart.8 \s Figure SEQ Figure 4. STUDENT’S PERCEPTION OF PEER-EVALUATION/EDITING

This stage is the most useless for all the respondents. All of the comments even said that it should not be applied anymore. When asked why they feel so, all of them said that questions are pretty much the same for every writing outputs, one also mentioned that I think peer-evaluation is useless for I receive comments from my classmates who do not seem to know what they are talking about. One respondent added some of my classmates give me advice on my grammar but I know that their advice is worse than mine. Another student said that I have this Korean classmate who cannot even speak straight English so how can he give me advice on my writing? I think peer-evaluation should be selective of those who are really good in the class.

The comments on peer evaluation are not surprising for many peer-evaluation guide questions used by ENGLCOM teachers are usually for native speakers of English. Thus, what may be appropriate in a native-speaking writing class may not work in an ESL context. Several articles already proved this claim through application of the concept in an “oriental” classroom. This goes to show that ESL teachers should regularly be reminded that difficulty in writing in the target language does not always speak about the student’s competence in writing, especially in the pattern expected by an ESL teacher. In fact, the process approach to instruction, with its emphasis on the writing process,
meaning making, invention, and multiple drafts (Raimes, 1991), is only appropriate for second language learners if they are both able to get sufficient feedback with regard to their errors in writing, and are proficient enough in the language to implement revision strategies (Myles, 2002). In addition, the purposes of the students' writing are sometimes not the kind valued by Western academic communities. The nature of academic literacy often confuses and disorients students, "particularly those who bring with them a set of conventions that are at odds with those of the academic world they are entering" (Kutz, Groden, & Zamel, 1993, p. 30).

In order to show how students disregard the peer-evaluation, sample comments are presented below together with the revised draft of the student writer:

Sample comments
The use of pronoun “you” should be avoided in essay and paragraph writing
For me the usage of the word why as the first word of a sentence that is not a question should be avoided.

Revised draft

**Why I chose this topic is because of my curiosity about pasta. I wanted to describe how I feel when I eat pasta. Why this is one of my favorite food is because it can unwind the soul and make the mind and body relax. No matter where you are, there will be pasta that will be served on your table since pasta became a universal favorite of both old and young alike.**

The revised draft, apparently, disregarded the comments of the peer, as shown in the bold faced words that still appeared in the paragraph despite the advice. Another sample is shown below:

Sample comment
...just add a concluding sentence for paragraph 3

Revised draft

...He is also similar to the legend since the story shows the character to be headstrong, stubborn and having a huge appetite. And just like Superman, he is considered to be Earth’s Greatest Protector and this is how Superman and Son Goku are different.

The second sample again shows that student no revision was done even if the advice of the peer was logical and clearly stated. The last sentence of the paragraph was still a discussion of the topic and no concluding sentence was added.

Interview with an ENGLCOM Teacher
In order to verify the results of the survey, one ENGLCOM teacher was interviewed. According to the teacher, students should not just be taught to adopt the same patterns shown in class, especially if the sample essays are western in context. If teaching is to be treated as a pedagogical act, teachers should know the culture of the students. This is in line with the study of Myles (2002) who claimed that, in addition to instructional and cultural factors, L2 writers have varying commands of the target language, which affect the way structural errors are treated from both social and cognitive points of view. Secondly, ESL classrooms should not be treated as a world on its own, in a way that “methods do not exploit deliberately ‘unnatural’ L2 learning” (Cook, 1991, p. 90). If teachers treat the process approach as just another method, then it will really fail to address the goal of the approach in a writing classroom.
Conclusion

Despite their implications for classroom instruction, not all the stages are appropriate in an L2 context. First of all, ESL students have a fair grasp of the language, which enable them to bluff their way around the pre-writing stage. This is observed most especially at DLSU Manila where students are mostly upper class to upper middle class, and thus, use the English language in their daily conversations. ESL students are aware, mostly after the first process of what the teacher is looking for, and would just do the tasks out of compliance, and not really as an exercise of linguistic skills.

This trick practiced by students inside of the writing class is seen most especially in the final drafts they turn over. Teachers notice that there is not much difference if compared to the previous drafts, but due to lack of time, teachers cannot extend the writing process to more drafts. In addition, peer comments are not given much attention, if not at all, by majority of the students. Corrections and comments of the teachers are given more importance, particularly corrections done on the actual paper. This gives the impression that the process writing is seen as a just another requirement that they have to fulfill and not really so they could improve their writing skills.

Practicality of most activities that go with the process approach is another concern by some respondents. This is why most have solved the concern by simplifying the requirements, and that is, not imbibing the actual objectives that the stages are meant to accomplish. In fact, the only time that the process approach was implemented in its totality was during the first task, succeeding essays are already burdensome. Applebee (1984, as cited in Caudery, 1995), for example, writes that "The process approach to writing instruction has been inadequately and improperly conceptualized, as a series of activities or steps in the writing process" (p. 188, par. 39). Thus process is viewed, not as a recursive process by SL learners, but as a predictable and mechanical process which has to be fulfilled in class (Purves & Purves 1986, as cited in Caudery, 1995).

Implications for ESL Composition Teaching

The following implications were drawn from the result of the survey and the interview. In order for the process approach to be truly effective, it has to be introduced as early as in the secondary education of Filipino students. This will familiarize them to the approach and the rudiments that go with it.

Professors should not be constrained by the number of outputs each student should produce. This will enable them to explore the fullest potentials of each student in terms of improving their outputs.

Peer evaluation should be context-based and should not only be patterned after the available guide questions on the Internet or writing books. This will avoid adhering only to the parameters of the rhetorical patterns.

References


**Bioprofile**

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Speech and Thought Representation in Si Duglit Ang Dugong Makulit: A Story that Indigenizes Universal Scientific Principles for Children

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Abstract

Writers of stories for children often suggest that narratives for this group of readers should be simple in both content and in structure. This paper focuses on the structure of children’s stories, particularly on speech and thought representation to understand how an author’s conscious and unconscious choices on who will say what lines, and how these lines will be expressed in the stories will elicit certain effect on the readers. Moreover, this stylistics paper describes the overall effect of the writer’s use of the various modes of representation: making the story engaging to the readers by appealing to their senses and emotions and by making the characters interact with one another on one hand (mimesis or ‘showing’), and on the other, making the story far and distant to the readers by revealing most of the information in the story through straight narration from the author’s point of view (digesis or ‘telling’). An interesting type of story to study in terms of its speech and thought representation is stories for children because the intended readers of these stories are persons who have yet to develop all the reading and literary skills necessary to fully understand and appreciate literature in general and stories in particular. In addition, there are modern children’s stories that attempt to explain universal scientific principles through imaginative and indigenous stories for children which this researcher argues to be more challenging to comprehend than the typical and traditional stories for children. This research further engages the readers to reflect on the possible pedagogical implications of the findings which generally establish the presence of various categories of speech and thought representation in this type of stories when read by young bilingual readers.

Keywords: Children’s stories, stylistics, speech and thought representation, teaching reading to children

Introduction

Speech and though representation has received a lot of attention and research in both stylistics and linguistics (Simpson, 1993). This researcher believes that it is because how an author’s conscious and unconscious choices on who will say what lines and how these lines will be expressed in the story which will definitely elicit certain effects on the readers is interesting to discover.

Related to the study of speech and thought representation is a discussion of the over all effect of the writer’s use of the various modes of representation: making the story engaging to the readers by appealing to their senses and emotions and by making the characters interact with one another on one hand, and on the other, making the
story far and distant to the readers by revealing most of the information in the story through straight narration from the author's point of view. The former is the concept of mimesis (“showing”) and the latter is what is called digesis (“telling”) (Rimmon-Kenan, 2002, p. 108).

Focusing on some recent studies on this area, it is noticeable that there seems to be two strands of speech and thought representation research. The first strand is composed of studies that have looked into speech and thought representation in literature, particularly novels. Semino (2004) used extracts from England, England by Julian Barnes to study speech and thought representation. Another is by Earnst (2007) who did a thesis which analyzed Jane Austen’s Pride and Prejudice. The other strand is made up of corpus-based speech and thought representation studies. An example of this is the one by Mc Intyre et. al (2008) used a corpus-based approach in categorizing and analyzing spoken British English words.

However, this particular study has a different focus. This researcher argues that it is a worthy undertaking to find out if an author of a children’s story exercises narratorial control, how this technique is exploited or how the story is allowed to unfold in children’s eyes. Because the intended readers of this type of story are persons who have yet to develop all the reading and literary skills necessary to fully understand and appreciate literature in general and stories in particular, it would be worthy of note to find out if a writer of a story for children chooses to involve the children more in the development of the story by allowing the characters to reveal themselves through the eyes of the readers or takes control of the story by presenting the story from an author’s vantage point. As an additional impetus, this paper will evaluate possible connections between the choices made by the writer on how to represent speech and thought in the story and his goal to explain universal scientific principles which this researcher believes to be more challenging to comprehend than the typical and traditional stories for children.

This particular study looks into the speech and thought representation in the story Si Duglit Ang Dugong Makulit written by Luis P. Gatmaitan, who is a doctor by profession. He is a five-time winner of the Don Carlos Palanca Memorial Awards for Literature in Children’s Fiction and Essay in Filipino. Likewise, he has received recognition for his works from the Manila Critics Circle, Catholic Mass Media Awards, Philippine Board on Books for Young People (PBBY)-Salanga Writer’s Prize, and the National Book Development Board. He is an active member of the Kuwentista ng mga Tsikiting (KUTING). No information, however, is given on whether he has received any formal training in writing stories for children.

Si Duglit Ang Dugong Makulit won the First Prize in the Short Story for Children Category, Filipino Division of the Palanca Awards for Literature in 1994. It is a story about Duglit, a young red blood cell inside a man's body. At first, he wanted to go outside Mang Omeng’s body, but later he realized that a cell like him could only survive inside a human body and that he has an important role in a man's life.

This study aims to answer two questions:
1. What categories of speech and thought representation did the author use and what stylistics effects were generated by these choices?
2. Overall, did the author employ more of the “showing” mode or the “telling” mode? What could be its implication to children reading the story?
Methods

This study is an-depth qualitative analysis of the way in which characters’ speech and thought is presented, and on how this affects the way author attempted to indigenize universal scientific concepts within a particular story for children. Leech and Short’s framework was used for this purpose. This framework proposes parallel scales of speech and thought presentation categories, arranged in a cline of different degrees of apparent narratorial interference.

From left to right, the categories show decrease in apparent narratorial control. This means that the words and thought in the FDS and FDT categories are those by the characters themselves without intervention from the narrator.

The research identified the various speech representation techniques used by the author, and later categorized the results. The results were then reported per category, with some theorizing done to propose probable reasons of the author in employing such representation techniques, as well possible effects of these choices on the target readers’ ability to understand the story. Possible implications and recommendations were also given.

Findings and Discussion

Through out the story, the author used several categories/types of speech and thought representation. For instance, there is the prominent use of Direct Speech (DS), which in most cases, was used successively during exchanges between two or more characters in the story. Paragraphs 8-10 show a series of DS in a conversation.


“Tulog mo na lang yan!” pambubuska sina Bertong Baga at Atoy Atay.
“Oo nga, gutom lang yan!” pang-aasar naman ni Sebyong Sikmura.

Two other example of DS in a conversation are found in Paragraphs 53-56.

(1) “Aba, may grupong sumasahubong sa atin! Tulad din natin sila – bilog at pula,” gulat na gulat na sabi ni Duglit.
“Yehey, katulad din natin sila!” Hiyaw ng kanyang mga kasama.

(2) “Mga bayani kayo. Kung hindi kayo dumating agad, baka kasama na kaming namatay ng katawang ito,” may pasasalamat sa ting ng nagsasalita.

These two examples present the two main characteristics of a DS, namely the presence of an introductory reporting clause and a reported clause enclosed in quotation marks. Rimmon-Kennan (2002) states that a direct discourse “creates an illusion of ‘pure’ mimesis” (p. 111). The examples above in fact give the effect that the story is unfolding through the eyes of the characters.

It is noted that there are examples of DS that are not parts of conversations. These are utterances of a character that did not receive any reply from any of the other characters. The examples for this type of DS are those spoken by the doctor in the story found in Paragraphs 31, 37 and 40.

(1)“Malusog ang supot ng dugong ito. Walang AIDS, sipilis, at hepatitis,” gayon ang narinig ni Duglit na sinabi ng lalaking nakasuot ng puti.


“Magkatipo ang dugo ni Mrs. Garcia at ang dugo sa supot na ito – Type O. At malinis sa AIDS, sipilis, at hepatitis ang dugong ito kaya puwede nang isalin,” pahayag muli ng lalaking nakasuot ng puti.

Normally, one would expect that an utterance of a character would elicit a response from another character (unless the character is doing a monologue). This makes the three examples above interesting since none of them received a reply. Could the absence of a reply by another character in these three instances be intentional on the part of the author? This researcher has a reason why she believes it was done intentionally: The author needed a character that will discuss important concepts about blood transfusion embedded in the story. And a doctor would be a convincing character for this part. This is the only purpose of this character seen by the researcher. Please remember too that the author himself is a doctor by profession. The more important thing to mention though is that, in terms of style, the choice of the author to use direct quotes instead of narration gives a proximal effect on the readers. At this point therefore, it can be noticed that to explain scientific concepts to children, the author generally employed the characters in the story instead of using narratorial control.

The first two examples of DS by the doctor-character also have interesting reporting clauses. Notice that these lines were heard by Duglit but were reported to the readers by the narrator. These are what we call “double narration”. From an adult (researcher's) viewpoint, the use of this technique now gives an effect of distance between the readers and the characters. In fact, another case of “double narration” is found in Paragraph 38 where the narrator tells what Apo Dugong originally told Duglit about the examination.

There is also another instance of DS that did not receive an immediate reply from another character. In Paragraphs 15-17, a DS was followed by a narration/report of the narrator before a response from another character was made (a DS too). Notice that the reply did not really answer the question posed by the first character. Instead, Duglit expressed his boredom over his responsibility.


Here we see two instances of DS and a reporting of what the main character was doing, hearing and feeling at the same time. This example is an evidence of the authorial inference made by Gatmaitan which gives a distal effect on the reader because the narrator had to tell what Duglit was feeling and hearing which could have been incorporated in the second DS by adding a phrase like “habang napipilitang binubuhat at oksihena palipat-lipat kina Bertong Baga at Pedrong Puso”. Take note of the use of the present progressive form of the verb in the proposed phrase instead of the two past forms of the verbs in the original narration.

There are a number of DS that received a reply in other modes like Free Direct Speech (FDS) and Free Direct Thought (FDT). In Paragraphs 4 and 5, a reply to a DS was in the form of an FDS.


Another example of this type is in Paragraphs 21 and 22.

“Saan po sila pupunta?” tanong ng isang kalaro ni Duglit.

“Ding ko’y sa mga sisidlang plastic o bote raw. Doon daw muna siya isipinira.”

A similar example is found in Paragraphs 56 and 57.

“Mga bayani kayo. Kung hindi kayo dumating agad, baka kasama na kaming namatay ng katawan ito,” may pasasalaminat sa ting ng magsalita.

“Oo nga. Hindi na naming masusustentuhan ng oksihena ang maraming bahagi ng katawan.”

Simpson (1993) explained that “A DS form may be stripped of its reporting clause or its quotation marks - and if both changes take place, then the form which emerges is the maximally free form of the Free Direct Speech (FDS)” (p. 22). Since the examples cited above no longer have the reporting clause (although “ “ are still present),
it can be said that there is some degree of proximal effect achieved since there is less authorial control.

It is noted, however, that the presence of the words “raw” and “daw” in the reported clause found in Paragraphs 5 and 22 gives a distal effect on the reader. Although the characters are the ones who say these lines, they are actually reporting what they have heard from the other characteristics (“Maganda raw ayon sa sabesabie” and “Ding” ko’y sa mga sisidlang plastic o bote raw). These examples may then be considered as instances of double narration discussed on page 4 of this paper.

A similar example is found in Paragraph 18.

Hanggang sa pagtulog ay nananaginip siya ng Megamall, MRT, at karnabal.
Nakasakay raw siya sa isang tsubibo at siya’y iniitsa-itsa nito.

This example is the introductory narration of Part 2. Here, the author is describing and reporting that Duglit feels bored inside Mang Omeng’s body and how he wants to get out. Instead of allowing Duglit to tell his own story, Gatmaitan did it himself. The authorial control shown in this narration plus the use of “raw” give a distal effect on the one reading these lines.

The reported clauses in the story are also interesting to note. As seen in the previous examples of DS, most verbs of report are in the past tense as expected. But there are two instances showing the verb of report in the present progressive tense. These are found in Paragraphs 9 and 10.

(1) “Itulog mo na lang yan!” pambubuska nina Bertong Baga at Atoy Atay.
(2) “Oo nga, gutom lang yan!” Pang-aasar naman ni Sebyong Sikmura.

The use of the present progressive form of the verb in the reported clause in the examples gives an immediate and proximal effect on the readers since the quotes are presented as if the characters are still uttering them.

Another variation in the construction of the reported clause is seen in Paragraphs 8 and 36.

(2) “Mga bayani kayo. Kung hindi kayo dumating agad, baka kasama na kaming namatay ng katawang ito,” may pasasalamat sa tinig ng nagsalita.

Notice that in these examples, the reporting clauses actually do not have a verb of report. Instead, adjectives (“may halong pananakot sa tinig” and “may pasasalamat sa tinig”) describing the voice of the character as they say their lines are found. This technique shows authorial control since it was the narrator who did the description and not a character in the story.

Part 6 of the story, from Paragraphs 41-44 and Paragraphs 47-51, provides interesting features of speech and thought representation. Take the first set of paragraphs:
“O Duglit, hindi ka na mahulungkot ngayon.”
“Bakit po, Apo Dugong?”
“Lilipat na tayo sa ating bagong tirahan. Iiwan na natin ang supot na plastic na ito.”
“Talaga po? Babalik na po ba tayo sa katawan ni Mang Omeng?”

All four lines do not have a reporting clause, but capture the exact words of the characters that spoke them. They can easily be identified as a series of FDS, but notice that the first two lines have identified their intended addressees within the reported clauses (Duglit and Apo Dugong). This technique by the author helps the reader identify the speaker of these lines and also correctly predict the speakers in the next two lines. The next set of lines shows another series of FDS.


“Bakit po, Apo Dugong?”
“Lilipat na tayo sa ating bagong tirahan. Iiwan na natin ang supot na plastic na ito.”

“Talaga po? Babalik na po ba tayo sa katawan ni Mang Omeng?”

Again, no reporting clause was used, but exact words were captured. The mention of the name Duglit in the second quote gives the reader the idea that Duglit himself uttered the first because the second is directly addressed to him – a reply to the first quote. It is then easier to identify the speaker of the third quote. Finally, the narration gives a clue that identifies Apo Dugong as the speaker of the last quote. In both sets, it is very evident that the author allowed the story to unfold through the eyes of the characters that definitely gives a proximal effect to the reader.

There is an instance of a DS followed by an FDT reply found in Paragraphs 12 and 13.


Duglit is being transferred to a plastic blood bag from Mang Omeng’s body. As this happens, he notices and feels his new environment, makes up his mind not to go
back to the same body, and dreams of going to the carnival - all in one instance. There is no authorial control at this point in the story.

Another example of FDT with the same stylistic effect is in Paragraph 35.


The last example of FDT is found in the last paragraph.

“Ang dugo ay natutuyo kapag nasilip ng araw. Giniginaw kapag nalayo sa katawan. Kumukupas ang kulay sa hihip ng hangin. At nawawala sa dampi ng bulak.”

Noticeable too is the use of FDT at important points in the story. The first example of FDT happened on the first part of the story when Duglit was very curious on how life is outside Mang Omeng’s body. This may be considered the exposition of the problem. The second example of FDT was in the rising action part, when Duglit finally went out of Mang Omeng’s body. The third one was spoken when Duglit realized that Mang Omeng’s body is a better place than a plastic bag inside a freezer for a blood cell like him, while the last is in the ending of the story where the theme is explicated.

There were points in the story when the author himself narrated the story. It is noticed that narration started four of the eight parts of the story. The introductory narration in Parts 1 and 2 is about Duglit’s boredom inside Mang Omeng’s body, while the introductory narration in Parts 3 and 8 basically identifies the setting in those points in the story. It is also noted that all the narration made by the author are focused on main character’s actions and the changes in his feelings through out the story. Lastly, it is important to report that in the last part of the story (Part 8), except for one instance of FDT (the last two lines), this part was entirely narration. From an adult reader’s point of view, it could have been better to have thoughts and dialogues of the character/s in this part of the story. At this point, Duglit has accepted his role as a blood cell. It could have been better if he was allowed to “say” these lines himself instead of Gatmaitan doing it for him. It is like a movie having a voice over telling how the story ended instead of a character doing it.

From the findings mentioned earlier, it can be deducted that over all, the author employed the “showing” mode more than the “telling” mode. The author’s choice to use DS when he could have used straight narration in many instances is a strong indicator of this claim. The many examples of FDS and FDT of the characters are also evidences that support this conclusion. On the other hand, “telling” was evident as the author started four of the eight parts of the story with a narration; when a short narration was used as a gap between two DS; when the author used “double narration” to report what other characters told Duglit, and when Gatmaitan decided to do the talking in the last part of the story instead of having Duglit talk to the readers himself.

Conclusion

This paper aimed to identify how speech and thought are represented in a short story intended to be read by children. From the findings, the researcher now concludes that a story that may be presumed to have a simple structure like a children’s story, is written using various categories/modes of speech and thought representation that bring
about different stylistic effects. Also, the author of a children’s story, just like most other writers, moves in and out of the story – there are times when the author allows the characters to tell the story, but there are also instances when he uses authorial control over the narration. These evidences make the researcher think that a structure of a children’s story is not really that simple as some people may think it is.

Moreover, in attempting to explain universal scientific concepts to his target readers, the author has generally employed direct speech which allows the children to understand the principles from the dialogues of the characters instead of using narration by the author himself.

Indeed, the findings presented here may not be true to all stories for children. To further prove her claims, the researcher needs to study other stories for children – those that were written by the same author and those that were written by other writers.

**Implications**

Perhaps these findings of this paper will be more significant if these are related to possible implication if children are the ones reading the story. To do this, the researcher used two Internet articles entitled Script Your Story! And Writing Your Story: Tips on How to Write Children’s Stories, both written by a children’s book writer named Aaron Shepard in 1994. In these two articles, Shepard identifies and explains some techniques that people who would like to write for children may follow. What is useful for this paper’s purpose is that he mentioned why certain styles would click with children. It is now then possible to compare the findings of this paper with these styles.

First, he says that it is good to use direct quotes whenever possible. It is because based on his experience with reader’s theatre, “kids are almost entirely focused on what characters do and say. In fact, they watch the characters even when the narrator is speaking” (Shepard, 1994a, par 3). He even advises writers to have 1/3 of the story written in dialogues. It can now be said that Gatmaitan’s choice to have many instances of DS and FDS are expected to be appreciated by children. Now, what about FDT? The researcher thinks that children will also appreciate this category of thought representation because as far as this story is concerned, three of the four FDT were written with “ “ which appear very similar to direct quotes. The older children would probably notice this. For as long as the child can follow the plot as the characters speak to him/her, the researcher believes that the young person is doing fine.

Second, Shepard (1994b) warns against narrator speeches that are too long and descriptions that are unnecessary. For him, narration should not go beyond “two kids-sized paragraphs” (Shepard, 1994a, par 9). Furthermore, “a narrator should say only what the characters can’t” (Shepard, 1994a, par 10). The researcher believes that Gatmaitan failed on this aspect. He had some narrator speeches that are quite long (more than 5 sentences with an average sentence length of about 10 words per sentence). In fact, the narration in the last part of the story is longer and is actually composed of longer sentences. Like what was said earlier in this paper, this last narration could have been made into a speech by the main character.

Lastly, Shepard (1994a) acknowledges children’s active imagination that would be activated by the writer’s “living scenes” (par 5). This, according to him requires writers to “move the plot forward with events and action” (Shepard, 1994b, par 11). These ideas basically refer to “showing” the story to children instead of “telling” it to
them. In the story, the author was able to picture to the readers how the internal human body looks like and how it functions. Blood cells and other human organs were depicted like humans. And although the plot is quite long, the author did not use techniques that would further complicate it like using foreshadowing or flashback.

For teachers of children, it should be noted that since stories for children are used as lessons in the early grades and even beyond, the findings revealed in this paper may be a reason to be cautious in assuming that children easily identify the various speech representations in a story. In fact, it may be good if teachers will be able to help their young students how to sense the “moving in’ and ‘moving out” of the narrator and characters in a given story. Other concerns would be text readability and how the development of literary skills like describing the characters, making predictions, identifying the theme, among others are likely to be appreciated better by readers when they have a good grasp of the different speech and thought representation techniques found in stories.

References


About the Author

Ma. Joahna S. Mante’s research focuses on second language reading, psycholinguistics, stylistics, and gender. She has written articles on the same areas in both nationally and internationally-circulated journals and has spoken in national and international conferences as well.
A Systemic Functional Analysis of Philippine English Newspaper Editorials

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Abstract

This paper provides a description of the inherent generic structure potential of Philippine editorials written in English. Ansary and Babaii’s (2005) systemic functional framework is used to identify the generic structure potential of these texts through the analysis of their potential macro-structures. The findings indicate that 1) Philippine English editorials have a macro-structure 2) these editorials have obligatory (Run-on Headline, Addressing an Issue, Argumentation, and Articulation of a Position) and optional (Providing Background Information and Closure of Argumentation) elements in them. The study also presents implications with regard to the use of editorials in composition pedagogy.

Keywords: Contrastive rhetoric, Philippine English. Systemic Functional language theory, editorials

Introduction

The potential of Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) studies to document the writing conventions in a monocultural or multicultural linguistic ecology remains to be an unexploited field for linguistics in general and writing pedagogy in particular. From Kaplan’s (1966, in Connor, 1996) study of students’ writings, CR has diversified with the inclusion of different genres of other forms of writings.

Journalistic writing represented primarily by newspapers has been the subject of CR research for a couple of years now. Hinds (1983) utilized data from the newspaper Asahi Shimbun to compare and contrast the Japanese expository pattern with that of the Anglo-American structure.

Scollon (2000) studied the Chinese and English editions of the People’s Daily and China Daily and stated that there is generic differentiation among the three editions of the newspapers. This implicates the use of caution when contrasting discourse structures among newspapers.

Ansary and Babaii (2005) applied the Systemic Functional (SF) language theory in analyzing the distinctive rhetorical features of English newspaper editorials. They identified the four obligatory (Run-on Headline, Addressing an Issue, Argumentation, and Articulating a Position) and optional elements that are included in the editorials published online in The Washington Post.

In the Philippines, the vast field of newspaper editorials has been considered as a legitimate field of pragmatic and discourse analyses. The findings of these studies have revealed insights as regards Philippine English (PE) compared with Filipino and with the other varieties of English as well. Dayag (1997) used Searle’s Speech Act Theory to identify the pragmatic functions utilized in Philippine editorials. The findings of the study revealed that there are similarities with regard to the use of assertives in PE and
American English (AE).

Using Hoey’s (1983) Problem-Solution Pattern, Dayag (2000) compared Filipino and PE editorials coming from the newspapers in the country. The study revealed that both kinds of editorials provide substantial amounts of background information in this argumentative type of written discourse.

Dayag (2004a) utilized Toulmin’s Claim-Data-Warrant framework in identifying the discourse features inherent in Philippine newspaper editorials and proved that these texts suggest the presence of their interactive nature.

Using 180 editorials from PE and Filipino newspapers, Dayag (2004b) made manifest the origin of information indicated in the editorials and the techniques present in them to structure the evidentials and discourse framework of the said texts.

The aforementioned studies have shown that editorials are legitimate sources of pragmatic and discourse research since the texts were written with the writer’s communicative intention of presenting to the readers a certain perspective that may have been shaped cognitively by the cultural and ethnolinguistic background of the writer. Various frameworks have been utilized except for the SF theory.

The study aims to accomplish the following: 1) identify the distinctive rhetorical features of Philippine editorials written in English; 2) label the generic structure potential of these editorials; and 3) present certain implications as regards CR and composition pedagogy.

Framework of the Study

The SF framework that was used in categorizing the functional aspects of the paragraphs in this exploratory study and was developed by Ansary and Babaii (2005). This framework was based on the concept of obligatory and optional elements of structure that was developed by Halliday and Hassan (1989). Initially, Ansary and Babaii (2005) pilot-tested the classification of global elements on five editorials. They separated the editorials into smaller rhetorical units by making use of the explicit divisions present in the texts like paragraph divisions, italics, and other typographical devices. Boundary indicators such as discourse markers, new lexical references, and meta-textual signals were used for boundary marking and function identification. They then identified the obligatory elements in the rhetorical structure of editorials: Run-on Headline, Addressing an Issue, Argumentation, and Articulating a Position. These functional aspects are present in all the editorials that they analyzed. The optional elements that were in present in some of the samples were providing Background Information, Initiation of Argumentation, and Closure of Argumentation. They applied the analysis on a larger sampling composed of thirty editorials coming from the website of The Washington Post to present a broader perspective on the functional features of these compositions. The obligatory and the optional elements mentioned above were used as the coding system to point out the SF and GSP that are inherent in Philippine editorials.

Methods

Data

Thirty editorials containing the different rhetorical structures were collected from the online versions of The Philippine Star and the Philippine Daily Inquirer, the two leading broadsheets written in English. Both websites contained the electronic
versions of the news items that are in their respective print versions. The webpages are also updated with breaking news and headlines. Readers are given a chance to air their reactions to the sociopolitical issues in the articles by posting their messages in the inbox provided under each article in the case of the Star or in a separate link in the case of the Inquirer.

Procedure

Two sets of editorials, each set composed of fifteen editorials, were downloaded from http://www.philstar.com and http://www.inquirer.net. The websites have archives containing electronic copies of articles including editorials. The copies of the articles were then printed and subjected to the analysis of the rhetorical structures using the categories mentioned above. The paragraphs from the Philippine editorials were carefully compared with the samples provided in the Ansary and Babaii’s (2005) study to make sure that the composition unit has been given its proper functional aspect.

Findings

Run-on Headline (RH) (f = 30, 100%)

The first element in the editorials identified is categorized as a run-on headline that conveys to the reader the topic that the text will be discussing or will be focusing on. The first example is about the situation of the country after the pardon granted by President Arroyo to Estrada who was convicted of plunder; the second is about the officials who joined the President on her visit to Europe.

Run-on Headline (RH) Example A

Divided Nation

(Philippine Daily Inquirer, 28 October 2007)

Run-on Headline (RH) Example B

Junketeers

(The Philippine Star, 31 October 2007)

Providing Background Information (BI) (f = 25, 83.33%)

The second element that is inherent in editorials provides necessary information that would initiate the development of the topic. The texts made use of narration, description, and comparison and contrast to introduce the topic to the readers. References were made to events, situations, people, organizations, and places. The first example provides information about the testimony of de Venecia III in the Senate about the controversial broadband deal; the second is about democracy in the Philippines and in the ASEAN as well.

Providing Background Information (BI) Example A
When telecommunications businessman Jose de Venecia III first testified before the Senate about what he knew of the ZTE contract for the government's national broadband network project, he studiously referred to President Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo as “my president.” It was an obvious attempt on his part to make a crucial distinction between the series of corrupt acts that he said tainted the ZTE deal beyond redemption and a head of government he said did not know anything about it.

*(Philippine Daily Inquirer, 2 November 2007)*

**Providing Background Information (BI) Example B**

Compared with the rest of Southeast Asia, the Philippines is truly the most democratic country, so President Arroyo wasn’t entirely off the mark when she made this declaration before the United Nations General Assembly last week in New York. The Association of Southeast Asian Nations was started by four authoritarian states plus one democracy – the Philippines – that was on its way to a dictatorship. Other countries that later joined the grouping carried on the tradition of authoritarianism, which is partly why ASEAN is finding it so difficult to prod its member Myanmar to implement democratic reforms.

*(The Philippine Star, 1 October 2007)*

**Addressing an Issue (AI) (f = 30, 100%)**

This part of the editorial provides the reason why the text was written. It discussed current events related to social and political problems that need to be addressed or solved. The first example addresses the issue of the difficulties of driving in the country; the second discusses the credibility of those who file impeachment complaints against the President.

**Addressing an Issue (AI) Example A**

A near-total absence of road courtesy has long been the bane of motorists, commuters and pedestrians alike. And the public has constantly bewailed the low quality of driver education. Likewise, the opportunistic—instead of fair and consistent—application of driving laws, invoked for the financial benefit of local governments and individual policemen and traffic aides, has been a cause of constant frustration and the continuing erosion of respect for law enforcers.

*(Philippine Daily Inquirer, 11 November 2007)*

**Addressing an Issue (AI) Example B**
The public has long suspected that defective impeachment complaints are being filed at the House of Representatives against public officials to inoculate them for a year from genuine complaints that are likely to prosper. Now, for the first time, there could be a chance to prove such suspicions.

(The Philippine Star, 12 October 2007)

**Argumentation (A) (f = 30, 100%)**

In this part of the editorial, the writer argues for his views and expects the reader to view the issue being discussed from his perspective. The primary purpose of the writer in this part is to seek the agreement of the reader after taking in the propositions that were presented by the writer. Claims, counterarguments, and refutations may be utilized by the writer to present his opinion.

**Argumentation (A) Example A**

**Initiation of Argumentation**

The people should realize that the original contents of a work of art have been violated.

**Argument 1**

The changes made the original meaning of the painting different.

**Argument 2**

The changes done made by the artists seem to have affected the apolitical stance of the organization.

**Closure of Argumentation**

The press should maintain its independence and not succumb to pressure exerted on by certain personalities.

Should the rest of the country care? A discredited organization which has long ceased to represent the country’s mass of working journalists; a new painting on an old theme, worth less than a million pesos; a debate on an almost philosophical level: preserving the integrity of art versus meeting a certain standard of neutrality. This is, at first glance, far from a gut issue.

In the first place, the changes to the mural effectively undermine the work itself. The original painting was a meditation on press freedom today—that is to say, the present time of unexplained disappearances and international
condemnation. It is precisely this context that was taken out from the mural, like inconvenient details airbrushed out of old communist portraits.

Secondly, the changes to the mural gloss over the largely political provenance of press freedom in the Philippines. NPC president Roy Mabasa told the Inquirer: “We don’t want to be politicized; they [the artists] went overboard. We don’t want to be associated with the Left or Right. The club is apolitical; it can stand on its own.” This is insipid thinking, at best; insidious rhetoric, at worst.

We recognize that the integrity of a work of art must be respected; we believe that the press cannot be neutral in the face of politically motivated threats to its very existence. But above all, we affirm that the members of the press have a responsibility to act independently—not throw in the muralist’s trowel when the guest of honor comes a-calling.

*(Philippine Daily Inquirer, 5 November 2007)*

**Argumentation (A) Example B**  
**Initiation of Argumentation**  
The elderly should be given importance.

**Argument 1**  
Senior citizens should be given consideration in order for them to serve the nation and themselves.

**Argument 2**  
The aged could be given programs for them to become self-sufficient and productive.

**Closure of Argumentation**  
Senior citizens may be given assistance by various sectors.

There are in fact millions of people classified as senior citizens who deserve to be honored for outstanding achievements in life. A number of these senior citizens continue to serve the nation with dedication and efficiency, with the wisdom of their years a bonus that benefits those whose lives they touch.

As the growing army of the elderly awaits this policy shift, governments should develop programs that will allow the elderly to continue contributing to national productivity and remain self-sufficient.

Employment opportunities, entrepreneurial programs and livelihood projects can be designed specifically for senior citizens. If there are job programs for inexperienced youth, surely there can be special programs
for the experienced elderly.

Developing countries have limited resources to promote the welfare of the elderly, especially those who have been abandoned by their relatives, but various sectors can do their part to help. The private sector can support employment and other livelihood programs for senior citizens. Neighborhood support and volunteer work among impoverished and ailing senior citizens can go a long way in easing the pain of the elderly.

(The Philippine Star, 7 October 2007)

Articulating a Position (AP) (f = 30, 100%)

This element presents the writer’s stance as regards the topic that was discussed in the other paragraphs of the editorial. It often presents the issue at a particular point of view that the public is perceived to infer. Usually serving as a concluding remark, this part makes manifest the opinion that needs to be considered. The writer strongly advocates democracy in the first example while the writer of the second notes the necessity of exposing the truth.

Articulating a Position (AP) Example A

US leaders may be disposed to continue waltzing with dictators, as it had done with Ferdinand Marcos. But that dangerous dance had long-term ill effects on the Wilsonian spirit that drives much of America’s diplomacy. In a world made “safe for democracy,” democracy is always the better alternative.

(Philippine Daily Inquirer, 8 November 2007)

Articulating a Position (AP) Example B

The ambush became the basis for a major military offensive that has displaced thousands of residents of Basilan. Surely the public deserves to know the reason for this military action. Those left behind by the 14 Marines also deserve to know what happened. There is no excuse for suppressing the truth in this massacre.

(The Philippine Star, 15 October 2007)

A Detailed Sample Analysis

The rhetorical structure of 30 editorials was subjected to analysis. As to the markings that were used to identify certain paragraph units, an example of their classifications is provided here. The focus of the analysis was the macro-structure of these Philippine editorials.

The sample here was taken from the website of the Philippine Daily Inquirer. Found on the opinion section of the website, the text that was originally published on
29 October 2007 was accessed on 3 December 2007.

Run-on Headline:

Political suicide

Providing Background Information: The Presidential pardon given to Estrada has been discussed in the preceding articles.

In the last three days, the Inquirer has sought to put last week’s pardon of convicted plunderer Joseph Estrada in perspective, to explain why—even though we, like many others, saw it coming—it still came as an enormous outrage, a terrible disservice to the country and a travesty of justice.

On Friday, we criticized his lawyers’ appeal to President Macapagal-Arroyo, taking them to task for the intellectual dishonesty and rank condescension of their letter. On Saturday, we struggled with each of the three reasons the President gave for granting her predecessor executive clemency, and found them sorely wanting, trivial even. And yesterday we picked up a theme raised earlier and condemned this obscene pairing of political bedfellows; now, to repeat a phrase making the rounds, it is the People of the Philippines vs Joseph Estrada and Gloria Macapagal-Arroyo.

Addressing an Issue: The effectiveness of the pardon given by President Arroyo to save her from continuous political debacle is questionable.

One more thing needs to be said, one more attempt at perspective-setting needs to be made: On the strictly tactical level, will the President’s craven bid to ensure her continuing political survival work?

Initiation of Argumentation: The pardon put the Arroyo administration at an even greater risk.

On the strictly tactical level, the pardon doesn’t exactly make sense. At best, it is an unnecessary risk-taking, with make-or-break consequences; at worst, it dooms the political rehabilitation, not of a disgraced former president, but an unpopular incumbent.

Argument 1: There is no chance for Estrada to run again as president.

The notion (proposed last week by a veteran political analyst, and seconded by a few others) that Estrada could run again, and that his pardon was in exchange for protecting Ms Arroyo should he win again, is not only an absurd fantasy; it is also a legal impossibility. The Constitution bars him from running for Malacañang, the seat of government he abandoned on Jan. 20, 2001, ever again; if he files, he will be disqualified by the Commission on Elections, whoever the new
commissioners will be. If he is not disqualified, a suit before the Supreme Court will settle the matter with alacrity. On this point the Constitution is unambiguous; even politicians will understand it.

**Argument 2:** It is almost impossible for Estrada to honor his commitment of not seeking political office again.

To be sure, this notion conflicts with the third reason the President gave for granting Estrada executive clemency, but the conflict is of no moment. Estrada can legally run for political office other than the presidency; the only thing holding him back would be that promise not to run again and, as he told an adoring crowd gathered in the City of San Juan, engage in “dirty politics.” But Ms Arroyo herself infamously made a similar commitment, and on Rizal Day yet. What makes her think Estrada will honor his own promise?

**Argument 3:** Though the pardon has been granted, divisions between the supporters of Estrada and Arroyo are still very much present.

The idea that the pardon will usher in a new era of reconciliation, and that Estrada’s supporters will eventually warm to Ms Arroyo, underestimates the depth of the political divide. The same adoring crowd in San Juan and the third of the electorate that conventional wisdom thinks they represent may have applauded her for releasing Estrada, but it is a stretch to imagine that they will forget, not only the former actor’s six years in jail, but the election fraud she allegedly perpetrated against another actor-politician and populist icon, the late Fernando Poe Jr.

**Argument 4:** The presidential pardon Arroyo granted to Estrada will not stop the calls for her resignation.

Not least, the argument that the deep dismay of the Edsa II forces caused by the pardon could be easily contained, its effect on protest campaigns or election turnout safely managed, is fatally flawed. The real power of the middle forces lies, not in the ability to elect a president, but in its capacity to unseat one. Turbulent as the President’s first six years in office have been, the Estrada pardon will only make her last three years even more tumultuous. She may ride it out to the end of her term, but she will find that her act of executive clemency has limited rather than widened her options for choosing the terms of her exit.

**Articulating a Position:** President Arroyo’s personal motives for granting pardon will not see fulfillment.

Like many others in society interested in making the country’s democratic project succeed, we have never ruled out the possibility of pardon per se. Like many others, we have always believed that support for any grant of clemency was conditional: It was a question of the
Timing being right, and nonnegotiable conditions (such as admission and repentance) being met. President Arroyo, however, granted Estrada pardon to meet personal and political ends. That she won’t meet them is ironic; that she politicized the administration of justice is, alas for all of us, tragic.

Discussion

The 30 editorials that were analyzed suggested that editorials printed in Philippine broadsheets contain parts having certain functions like those identified by Ansary and Babaii (2005). Analysis of each editorial’s macro-structure revealed that Philippine English editorials do have obligatory elements: Run-on Headline, Addressing an Issue, Argumentation, and Articulation of a Position. Providing Background Information is optional among the writers. The excerpts presented here contain at least two arguments, and two of these excerpts contain a Closure of Argumentation part.

The Run-on Headlines are usually composed of single words or phrases that give an initial idea of what the topic of the editorial will be. All sample texts included in the study contained this element.

Addressing an Issue is done by stating how the topic discussed in the editorial affects the general public as indicated in the excerpts given above. Again this rhetorical structure is present in all the editorials that were analyzed.

The Argumentation parts of the editorials may be composed of two to three arguments as shown by the excerpts in this study. This part is present in the editorials coming from both the Star and the Inquirer.

Usually at the last part of the editorials, the Articulating a Position part contains the stand that the writer takes as regards the issue discussed. Appearing to be an either/or proposition, this rhetorical structure makes a definite stance on the topic expounded on in the other parts of the editorial.

It may be inferred from the preceding paragraphs that Philippine editorials written in English share the obligatory elements that are also found in the online editions of the editorials in The Washington Post.

Editorials are argumentative in nature. Since they have rhetorical features that may be distinguished and categorized, these compositions may then be used as samples in the teaching of argumentative writing. The students may be given copies of editorials, and they are guided by the teachers in analyzing these texts in order for them to be familiar with the conventions of writing an editorial. The teacher may continue to guide them when they synthesize their ideas by writing their own editorials. It may be possible that these developing writers become more proficient in argumentative writing, a rhetorical pattern required in the academe.

These editorials may also be used as topics for discussion since it appears that the argumentative nature of these texts begs for the reaction of their readers. Students may agree or disagree with the notions stipulated in the texts and they could be given the chance to defend their stance by giving valid and logical reasons that would support their own arguments.

Another probable application of using these editorials is for them to be used as materials for paraphrasing and summarizing. Since these texts have distinctive features that may indicate the location of certain ideas, the teacher may use them as springboard for the writing activities stated and consequently gauge and evaluate the amount of
information processed by the students.

Research on how effective the practice of using these editorials as samples of argumentative writing should be given consideration. Whether this will be helpful or not remains to be proven by empirical evidence.

Research on the GSP of editorials written in Filipino should also be given importance. As of this time, it appears that no study on Filipino editorials using the SF approach and identifying their GSP has been conducted so far. These texts then represent another vast field for linguistic endeavor.

The GSP of editorials written in Filipino may also be compared with those written in PE. The undocumented similarities and differences between these two types of texts remain to be in need of academic exploration.

Comparison of editorials written in different World Englishes should also be the subject of linguistic research. Editorials written in PE may be compared with those written in Singaporean English, New Zealand English, South African English, etc. Whether or not editorials written in other Englishes share common GSP remains to be proven through studies.

Finally, it seems appropriate that the GSP of various forms of written and spoken discourses be categorized. Letters, emails, advertisements, etc. may be the subject for this kind of research that will be using the SF approach. Perhaps this will give a broader perspective as regards the effects of culture and ethnolinguistic background on an individual’s writing and his speaking as well. Perhaps the differences between languages and cultures may be the homogenizing feature of this Age of Multiculturalism.

References


About the Author

Dennis Herrera Pulido is a full-time faculty member of the Department of English and Applied Linguistics at De la Salle University-Manila. He graduated from the University of Santo Tomas with an AB Literature degree. He earned his MA in Teaching English degree at DLSU-Dasmariñas. He has defended his doctoral dissertation in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Ph.D. in Applied Linguistics at DLSU-Manila.
Reading English Words Aloud: Will it help or will it not?

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Abstract

There have been several studies that would like to explore on the effectiveness of reading English words aloud in recall of information. Numerous researchers have hypothesized that reading English words aloud would help an individual accurately distinguish information from a set of unfamiliar words that were not read aloud. The researchers in this study replicated the study conducted by Ozubko and MacLeod’s (2010) to see whether reading words aloud would help in accurately distinguishing the right words for each category. In two experiments, the researchers presented their participants with two lists of words, one critically mixed (CML) that had half of the words needed to be read aloud and a pure list (PL) that had either all words read silently or aloud. The researchers then found similar results to that of Ozubko and MacLeod’s (2010) study where production effect can still occur regardless if the word is read silently or aloud.

Keywords: reading aloud, reading silently, production effect

Introduction

Mnemonics are strategies and techniques used to increase or aid memory. It may be verbal, visual, kinesthetic or auditory that relates or associates relevant information being processed to constructs that will allow retention and recall later on. The use of mnemonics is used when ESL learners need to recall important words they have read. Only relatively small encoding techniques or mnemonics related to memory are known and applied; Rehearsal, possibly being the most used and most popular increase memory retention by intuition (Ozubko & MacLeod, 2010). Imagery and semantic elaboration are also one of the few mnemonics related to memory.

A phenomenon has been set on reading words aloud for the past 40 years (Conway & Gathercole, 1987; Dodson & Schacter, 2001; Gathercole & Conway, 1988; MacDonald & MacLeod, 1998). Later on, the phenomenon or mnemonic strategy of reading aloud was called production effect wherein words are shown openly or explicitly given (Ozubko & MacLeod, 2010). Another phenomenon is introduced and is compared to production effect; it is known as the generation effect. The generation effect refers to the readers themselves being part of the production process of words that they will have to read as oppose to having an external source give the words to them; this way, the words read are better recalled and remembered by the reader (de Winstanley & Bjork, 2004).
Generation Effect

In 1978 Slamecka and Graf reported a thorough set of experiments demonstrating that producing a word from a cue leads to considerably better memory for that word than does simply reading the word. This is also the phenomenon whereby items that are self-generated by individuals are better remembered than are items that are provided to them (McElroy & Slamecka, 1982; Slamecka & Fevreiski, 1983; Slamecka & Graf, 1978). This phenomenon is called the “generation effect”. It has become one of the most widely used manipulations in memory research, leading to their article becoming a citation classic (Slamecka, 1992).

Despite numerous investigations establishing the presence of the generation effect, the specific mechanisms by which this effect works remain unclear. In an attempt to elucidate the basis of the generation effect, researchers have studied the limits under which the generation effect would or would not occur. Some researchers argued that meaningful semantic processing must be present, otherwise there would be incomplete generation, and recall would not be effective (Slamecka & Fevreiski, 1983). McElroy and Slamecka (1982) also emphasizes the importance of semantic processing, a failure of the generation effect occurs when the generation of the semantic attributes of a word are not associated with self-access to the correct lexical item. Support for this theory was evidenced when the generation effect was not present when nonwords were used (Gardiner & Hampton, 1985; Gardiner & Rowley, 1984; McElroy & Slamecka, 1982) or was not present with words of very low frequency (Nairne, Pusen, & Widner, 1985). Although semantic processing appears necessary for the generation effect to occur, the level of semantic involvement required is unclear, given evidence that the generation effect has also been shown with numbers and calculations (Gardiner & Rowley, 1984). Other researchers have argued that the generation effect occurs only because the generated items are distinguished from other items (Begg & Snyder, 1989). Others call the generation effect too general and may be applied not only to reading but also to mathematical problems, trivia questions, and reading comprehension (deWinstanley & Bjork, 2004). However, the memorial advantage of generation may or may not appear at certain times. For example, McNamara and Healy (1995a, 1995b, 2000) generation effect does not aid to memory recall in arithmetic problems unless retrieval techniques are used. Accounts of generation effect also show that, it is assumed that the only time generation effect occurs is if, the nature of the task leads the participants or readers to focus on their processing of information which later on leads to sensitive and effective retention of information. When there is not a good relation between the types of information and processing, there shouldn’t be a generation effect; thus saying that generation effect falls on the relation between the encoding process and retrieval process (deWinstanley & Bjork, 2004). Although there has been much research in the attempt to understand the limits under which the generation effect would and would not occur, the precise underlying mechanism by which this effect occurs is still unknown.

Production Effect

The production effect is thoroughly delineated by MacLeod et al. (2008) in a series of experiments. The production effect according to Hourihan and MacLeod (2010) refers to the fact that, relative to reading a word silently, reading a word aloud during study improves explicit memory. Production effect benefits memory even for non words,
indicating that an item need not have a preexisting lexical entry to benefit from production. Intriguingly, words do not even have to be read aloud to show a production benefit: Mouthing words without vocalizing results in the same benefit in explicit memory. Like the generation effect, the production effect seems to arise from the distinctiveness of the produced words relative to the read words (MacLeod, et al., 2008). Produced or generated words stand out at the time of test, either because they are stronger—a one-process account—or because the extra information about having been generated or produced is useful in recollection—a two-process account (Dobbins, Kroll, Yonelinas, & Liu, 1998).

**Frequency Theory**

Hopkins and Edwards (1972) tested the key assumption of the frequency theory which states that recognition will take place if words are pronounced than unpronounced because pronouncing the word would increase it’s familiarity and item’s frequency. To prove this, Hopkins and Edwards conducted a study wherein there are two recognitions tests; Experiment 1 is two-alternative forced choice and Experiment 2, yes/ no. In these 2 experiments, 3 groups had participants that studied a list of 100-words, one pronounced, one read silently and one mixed list of words; 50 read aloud and 50 read silently. The experiment found no between-subjects benefit in reading words aloud. But in the mixed list where 50 words were read aloud and 50 read silently, words that were read aloud were recognized easily than those read silently (MacLeod et. al., 2010). This stayed consistent with the other recognition test wherein within subject-benefit reading aloud rose at about 10%.

**Distinctiveness**

Hopkins and Edwards (1972) argued with Conway and Gathercole (1987) that the advantage of reading words aloud occurs in the encoding itself, leading to the suggestion of enhanced distinctiveness. Being distinct means that a word must be unique with respect to other words in order to be recalled or remembered and must be item-based. Murdock’s (1960) theory states that “the concept of distinctiveness refers to the relationship between a given stimulus and one or more comparison stimuli, and if there are no comparisons stimuli the concept of distinctiveness is simply not applicable.” In other words, if distinctiveness is crucial, and without unique responses to the items, there would be no production effect (MacLeod, et. al., 2010).

In results, a word read aloud allows time elapsed for distinctiveness and processing record to occur. Therefore at the time of retrieval, the word is recognized and recalled. The present study investigates if there is a difference in the amount of information being recalled with regards to the way it is being read. More specifically, it was tested if there a significant difference in the amount of information being recalled when it is read aloud than read silently. Participants were exposed to a “Critical Mixed List” (half read aloud, half read silent) and others to “Pure List” (either all aloud or all silent). The outcome measured were the accuracy of the discrimination of words. This study hypothesizes that there is a difference in the amount of information being recalled with regards to the way it is being read. It is also hypothesized that there is a significant difference in the amount of information being recalled when it is read aloud than read.
silently. This study is a replication of Ozubko and MacLeod (2010) where the researchers would like to find whether or not the results would differ in an Asian setting.

Method

Research Design

The experimental design used in the present study was a between groups design. This design avoids the carryover effects that can plague within subjects designs. The participants in this design are exposed to two different types of treatment: Reading aloud and reading silent. Two samples were analyzed for each experiment. In each sample, a critical mixed list is presented followed by a pure list (purely reading silent or aloud).

Participants

The group conducted the study at a private university in Manila, Philippines. There were two samples in the study with a total of 60 participants. Each sample is composed of 30 participants with 15 participants for each condition. The ages of the students ranged from 18-21 years old. The participants were college freshmen who were enrolled in the college of education.

Materials

The word pool used in this study are the same taken from MacDonald and MacLeod’s (1998) study. The words were then randomized using to form lists of 32 words to be used in the experiments. The researchers also used a PowerPoint presentation to flash each word for 2 sec. with a 0.5-s interstimulus interval.

The researchers also made use of a 64-item test that was completed after the PowerPoint presentation was shown. The 64-item test consisted of the 64 words presented in the PowerPoint presentation. The test was designed where participants checked the words that were presented to them.

Procedure

The researchers were able to gather two samples each had 15 respondents each. The first sample went through two experiments with Critical Mixed List (CML) and Pure List (PL). In the CML, half of the words are needed to be read aloud and in a PL where all words were read silently or aloud. In the first experiment, the CML was flashed first, and then followed by the PL which was read aloud. On the other hand, the second experiment for the first sample was presented with the PL first which was read silently, and this was followed by the CML.

The second sample also went through two experiments. The first experiment presented the participants with the CML followed by the PL which was read silently. On the other hand, the second experiment presented the PL which was read aloud, followed by the CML.
After the presentation of the lists for each experiment for the two samples, the researchers provided a test after the activity was conducted. The participants were given a sheet of paper where they checked the words that were presented to them. The test was used to measure if the participants were able to identify which list each word came from (CML or PL).

At the end of the experiment, the participants were debriefed about the purpose of the study.

The one-way Analysis of Variance (one-way ANOVA) was used to test if there was a significant difference between the reading aloud and reading silent for the total sample. The t-test for two independent samples was used for each experiment to test mean differences whether words read aloud are recalled better compared to words read silently. Effect size for the one-way ANOVA was computed using the Eta Coefficient while effect size for the t-test for mean differences were obtained using Cohen’s $d$.

**Results**

In the first analysis, all participants were combined for both experiments to test whether participants can recognize which set of method does each word belongs (CML or PL). The One-Way Analysis of Variance was used to test whether the reading aloud or silently differed. In the second analysis, the means between reading aloud and reading silently was differentiated (using t-test for 2 independent samples) on word recognition for the first experiment. In the last analysis, the means between reading aloud and reading silently was again differentiated on word recognition for the second experiment.

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The analysis using the one-way ANOVA showed that there is a significant difference between reading a text silently and reading it aloud. Significant effects of reading aloud was on recognition of words ($F=598.65, p<.00$). The words that were read aloud significantly had the highest mean score ($M=.3, SD=.15$) as compared with words read silently ($M=.20, SD=.16$). Large effect size was also obtained for word recognition ($\eta=.97$).

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When the analysis between reading aloud and reading silent were compared for each sample for experiment 1, the means also showed significant difference using t-test for two independent samples. The effect size for this analysis was large ($d=.18$). For the second sample, when the same comparison of means was conducted, significant difference were also obtained which also yielded a large effect size ($d=.81$).

**Table 3**

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The same mean comparison was conducted for the second experiment. The words that were read aloud and read silently were compared using t-test for two independent samples. Unlike in the first experiment, the significance tests done for the second experiment did not yield significant results. There were no mean differences found between the words read aloud and read silently on the word recognition for both the two samples. Although large and medium effect sizes were still obtained on word recognition with Cohen’s $d$ value of .63 and .45 respectively for samples 1 and 2.

**Discussion**

The present study hypothesized that there is a significant difference when recognizing English words that are read aloud and words read silently. The overall analyses using the one-way ANOVA and the first experiment support the results in previous studies (Ozubko & MacLeod, 2010). Reading a text aloud is again evidenced to be more effective on word recognition than reading words silently which further support studies done about generation effect. The information gets is processed effectively in memory by reading aloud. This leads to an interpretation that even when small samples are obtained, production effect is proven and can occur in situations where words are read aloud.

However, the findings of the study did not hold consistent results when the experiment was repeated in another similar sample. The findings where the mean scores are higher for read aloud English words did not turn to be the same for the second experiment. Although it can be argued that the means are still higher for the reading aloud group. Although significance was not achieved in the second experiment, the effect sizes remained to be large to moderate. In the first experiment, the reading aloud condition was presented first followed by reading silently. In the second experiment, the opposite order was presented to control for possible sequencing effect. These findings reveal that reading aloud works better and produces higher English word recognition when presented first to participants. This indicates that participants effectively recognize words when reading aloud is presented as a form of primacy effect. Primacy effect occurs when stimulus such as words are presented as the first cue in experiments. The stimuli that are presented first results to having more superior recall of information in memory.
The present study highlights not only the effectiveness of reading aloud as explained by the generation effect but how effective reading aloud can be when primed as the initial mnemonic device presented. This result supports the explanation of Dobbins, Kroll, Yonelinas, and Liu (1998) about the generation of information with an extra process. This extra process comes in the form of the order as to when reading aloud is used. This notion extends theory on generation and production effect. The existing knowledge established for the generation effect is that items that are self-generated by individuals are remembered. But the present study elaborated that remembering is better when the item generation is presented as the primary stimuli.

The theoretical extension for the generation effect has further implication in classrooms where reading aloud is used. Perhaps when teachers use reading aloud activities as part of an initial set of strategies in teaching, the effects in terms of recall would be better. To make the strategy useful and effective for students, the teachers have the primary role of training students how to do reading aloud effectively. Reading aloud as a self-generating strategy for thinking should be taught as part of an initial orientation especially in English classes where this strategy often used. It needs to be emphasized to students that reading aloud is not merely passive reading but they are free to evoke their insights about particular reactions and metacognitive thinking on the contents of what they are reading. When the use of the strategy is set, English reading teachers can further establish the appropriate timing as to when reading aloud can be implemented guided with the findings of the study.

References


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English for Colonization, Neo-Colonization, and Globalization in the Philippines: Challenging Marginalization in the Profession

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Abstract

This paper argues that the English Language Teaching profession in the Philippines has been both a hapless victim and eager perpetuator of political ideologies that have legitimized forms of oppression, pacification and control. Inferring from insights imparted by the movements of the profession in history, the review proceeds by presenting the existing structural and ideological forms of inequality that continues to challenge the profession. Finally, this paper proposes several ways of challenging marginalization in educational institutions and society.

Keywords: Critical pedagogy, English language teaching, politics of education

Introduction

The English language teaching (ELT) profession in the Philippines has evolved due to different socio-political influences since the start of the 20th century. Interpreted as a tool for progress, the need for excellent English language skills has become a priority among Filipinos as a means for social mobility (Lazaro & Medalla, 2004). As Gonzalez (1992) reports, the role of the English language in Philippine society cannot be ignored as it has been used as a language of wider communication in the controlling domains of society. For instance, government has opted to use English in official transactions and drafting of laws. On the other hand, education has placed a premium on English language competence by expanding the scope of curricular offerings to equip students with the necessary skills to cope with the demands of real life. For instance, the growing call center industry that services international clients in the Philippines has been booming due to the perceived competence of Filipinos in the English language (Friginal, 2007). Such demands pose a great challenge for the English language teaching profession as it is charged to lead and train the citizenry towards the achievement of the nation’s goals.

However, the profession remains to be marginalized as evidenced by the widespread belief that teachers are ill-equipped in facilitating effective language training among students (Sibayan, 2000). Similar to experiences of others in the profession, different sectors of society have conveniently placed the blame on the profession with regard to the continuing deterioration of English in the Philippines. Moreover, some have challenged the rationale for offering English language courses that entail great costs. Much worse, some have even questioned the capacity and competence of English language teachers in enhancing the poor proficiency of students (Sibayan & Gonzalez, 1988). Such sweeping statements may be valid but do not consider the history of the profession-history which resulted from a culture rich in realities, struggles, ideologies,
and misconceptions (Pennycook, 1994). Moreover, Auerbach (1991) believes that in history, English language teaching has also been responsible in setting norms for stratification due to its focus on skills—skills acquired by people who fill gaps in different sectors of the nation.

A common adage in studying history is that it helps make sense of the present. In this regard, to prove that the English teaching profession in the Philippines is marginalized, one needs to look at history because “whether we like it or not we are both products and makers of our own history. In understanding the present, we need to remember” (Tupas, 2003, p.1).

In this regard, this review examines the history of the ELT profession in the Philippines in the context of the socio-political movements that have shaped its development. It then proceeds with examining the role of ELT as a tool for colonization, neo-colonization and globalization. Finally, this review imparts reflections on challenging marginalization and future directions for development in Philippine education.

**English Language Teaching for Colonization, Neo-Colonization, and Globalization in the Philippine Context**

**English as a Tool for Colonization**

Brought by the American colonizers in the early 20th century as a tool for educating the masses in a common language, public education (and the teaching of the English language) was believed to be a social equalizer for Filipinos (Sibayan & Gonzalez, 1996). Ravaged by Spanish colonization, the Filipino people believed that learning to read and write in English provided a means for them to learn concepts, access knowledge and participate in decision making (Taschner, 1996, Tope, 1998). Through different methodological approaches in the early part of the 20th century such as the grammar translation method, Horn method, and audiolingual approach, the Philippine educational system was a fertile testing ground for methods which reflected the dominant views of language teaching and learning (Mindo, 2003). Ideologically, however, the implementation of different approaches reflects the colonizers’ intention of maintaining an English-only policy in the country. Though the Philippines attained its independence in 1935, moves to include other Philippine languages have been met with resistance. For instance, the continuous dominance of English language teaching materials in public education, the allocation of budget for improving teaching methods, and importation of English language testing systems shows that there is an ideological bias towards the use of English in a domain responsible for shaping the future generation for the growing demands of society (Mindo, 2003). Similar to Phillipson’s (1992) observations on the promotion of the English language in periphery states by centre nations, the American system of education clearly used English to promote favorable values not only for the progress of the Philippines but also the continuing development of docile Filipinos willing to accept colonial rule.

**English for Neo-Colonization**

Beginning in the 60’s, the Filipino’s search for identity has been marked with moves to replace English totally with Filipino through the implementation of laws and educational reforms. Tupas (2007) believes that the tension between pro-English and
pro-Filipino groups resulted in a compromise in the form of the bilingual education policy (BEP) that appropriates the two languages in teaching the content areas. These efforts have ideologically represented the Filipino’s need for a language of identity through Filipino and the continued recognition of English as a language of progress (Gonzalez, 1981, 1999; Sibayan, 1999; Sibayan & Gonzalez, 1996; Tupas, 2007). In the belief that, in order to be globally competitive without compromising identity, the educational system adopted the notions of communicative competence (Hymes, 1972) assuming that the Filipino may be competent in Filipino and English. This eventually led to the communicative language teaching movement in the Philippines. One major pitfall in adopting communicative competence as one of the theoretical underpinnings of the BEP is that the theory in itself was at its infancy, making it pedagogically unclear (Castillo, 1999; Valdez, 2008). Likewise, aside from the policy’s compromising feature, it is also what Canagarajah (2005) calls “a top-down method of language planning to socially engineer models of instruction” (p.197) that is destined to fail.

Hence, the emphasis on the teaching of language as a functional tool for communication over grammatical form has led to misinterpretation among different sectors of society. Schools had varying degrees of implementation of the BEP; parents and other concerned groups have commented on the ‘deterioration’ of education due to the perceived lag in performance of educational standards and the emergence of a Filipino-English code switched variety used among students and teachers (Gonzalez, 1999; Sibayan, 1999; Sibayan & Gonzalez, 1988). The growing concern among different sectors of society prompted Sibayan and Gonzalez (1988) to conduct a nationwide evaluation of the bilingual education policy that led to the conclusion that the use of Filipino and English did not directly cause the apparent deterioration of education but rather the school’s socio-economic conditions.

Due to the problematic allocation of English and Filipino in teaching content areas and the growing unease of teachers engaging in TENOR (Teaching English for No Obvious Reason, Johns, 1992), the English for Specific Purposes (ESP) movement had paved its way as the latest approach to be invested on by educators. As a result of the global spread of English (Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1991), the growing demand for labor in different countries (Tupas, 2001; Pennycook, 1994) and need for development in science and technology in the Philippines, ESP provided an ideal means to address these concerns. Moreover, this approach has led scholars to believe that ESP provides an approach that is “culture-free” (Gonzalez, 1981, p. 144) and “scientific” (Strevens, 1988, p. 1) – an approach that fits the utilitarian purposes of government, educational institutions, and the Filipino people (Sinha, 1985). Indeed, with financial help of local and international organizations such as the Asia Foundation and British Council, ESP was cultivated through conferences and workshops, training grants, materials production, curriculum design and establishment of a graduate degree specialization in coordination with a foreign university (Bautista, 1985; Carreon, 1988; Luzares, 1983).

However, the seemingly scientific and apolitical tenets of ESP were questioned and may be traced to the growing political tensions during the Marcos regime. Former ESP supporter Lucero (1984) interrogates the assumptions of ESP by claiming that the approach is assimilative to the Western’s intention of continuous dependence on their technology and knowledge. Similar to Galtung’s (1971) analysis of imperialist modes of domination between Center and Periphery states, the consumption of ESP as a language teaching commodity – in Pennycook’s (1994) terms – does not only provide economic rewards for foreign promoters of the approach but also guarantees control over the regulation of knowledge, standardization of labor practices, and domination of the global economy. The promotion of ESP in the Philippines is similar to
descriptions of linguistic imperialism (Phillipson, 1992) which assures a hegemonic relationship between Center and Periphery on the basis of language. Even during the post-Marcos era, ESP had faced criticism among educators and has been claimed not only to curtail critical thinking (Lucero, 1984) but also was a form of cultural and scientific imperialism (Carreon, 1988). Through the years, the approach’s popularity had waned in terms of financial support and research interest but its influence in materials design continues.

Summing up the salient points of this movement, it seems that the nation had been made to believe that in order to become progressive and globally competitive, the adoption of English language teaching approaches are needed. However, these same approaches advocated by different international institutions still come from Centre states. Due to the need for centre states to maintain its economic and political dominance, promotion of these ELT approaches are part of assuring that these purposes are achieved (Pennycook, 1994; Phillipson, 1992).

**English for Globalization**

After the ESP movement, some scholars have focused on various methodological approaches and have implemented them in their own or different settings. Some approaches mentioned in the literature are Cognitive Approach to Language Learning (Pascasio, 2002), Cognitive Approach-Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach (CACALLA) espoused by Castillo (1999), and Student-Centered Approach (Vilches, 2007). By far, there seems no national or widespread promotion of a particular approach to language teaching. Though government has consistently appealed to educators to improve the teaching of English (cf. Martin, 2005; Tupas, 2007), institutions (especially in the private sector) have independently implemented their own schemes.

The emergence of globalization has placed the learning of the English language as one key priority for progress in the Philippines. Block and Cameron (1992) state that due to the rapid development in technology, the vast application of the Internet and ever expanding social relations between and among cultures, competence in the English language has become a highly sought out commodity in different sectors in society.

At present, the great demand for workers with excellent English language skills may be attributed to the emergence of the overseas worker and call center industry. For instance, the growing demand for domestic helpers is a result of a dearth in a cheap labor force unavailable in more progressive and industrialized states. Since the Philippines is unable to offer jobs to Filipinos, they opt to go abroad in the hope of gaining better earning opportunities. Therefore, competence in the English language is often mentioned as a advantageous skill among these workers in the hope of boosting their chances of getting work (Lorente & Tupas, 2002).

Further, the rise of business process outsourcing (BPO) companies setting up in developing countries has in turn placed great demands for call center agents possessing excellent English language skill since they are tasked to handle foreign clients. Likewise, Philippine government has emphasized the importance of the BPO industry due to its great contribution to Philippine economy (Friginal, 2007).

Whether Filipinos opt to go abroad or otherwise, it can be said that the era of globalization has brought about labor demands from centre states which can be filled by developing countries. Also, competence in the English language has further made the commodification of Filipino labor more competitive among other developing states (Gonzalez, 1992).
Synthesis

In synthesizing the events in the history of ELT in the Philippine context, two generalizations are apparent. First, the language teaching methodologies and materials used reflected dominant views of language and language learning during those particular times. This can be rooted on the results of research done mostly by western scholars. Consequently, the shifts on approaches and materials can be traced to linguistics’ (and applied linguistics’) need for legitimacy as a ‘scientific’ discipline (Crystal, 1992, p. 12). Although it is important to translate research findings which eventually become theories and later on into practices, it appears that ELT in the Philippines have become a singular solution in addressing multidimensional problems and issues concerning language.

Van Valin’s (personal communication, May 27, 2004) observation is useful in describing this practice. Similar to theoretical linguistics, he points out that linguists tend to treat emerging theoretical advances as screwdrivers in describing and analyzing languages. This may be problematic because a screwdriver can only be used to insert screws and not nails. Therefore, this tendency leads to fixing problems using inappropriate tools.

This screwdriver syndrome reflects the educational system’s continuing adherence to deficiency oriented approaches to language teaching which leads to the second generalization—the ELT profession has not recognized the politics it has subjected itself to and has imposed on others. The successive movements of language teaching in the Philippines may have been informed by scientific processes in linguistics and other disciplines but from an ideological perspective, the profession has been an instrument of pacification, control and imperialism (Tope, 1998) – assuring the past colonizers and present elites control over society. Contrary to Sibayan and Gonzalez’ (1996) belief that “linguistic imperialism is a thing of the past” (p. 165), the language teaching profession has always been subjected to foreign and local elite influence and has been an effective tool in realizing the school system’s implementation of a ‘globally competitive curriculum’ that “serves an implicit sorting function” (Auerbach, 1991, p.3).

Amidst attempts of improving proficiency, fluency, and comprehension in English, the profession has engaged itself in preparing students to be servants of globalization. Moreover, enchanted by discourses of English as an economic asset (Lorente & Tupas, 2002), the profession has (un)consciously become “the very instruments of socio-economic stratification” (Sibayan, 1999, p. 9) – ultimately contributing to the “further skewing of distribution of English language competence in a society that is already sharply even in the distribution of wealth to the detriment of the poor and underprivileged (Sibayan & Gonzalez, 1996, p. 159).

Challenging Marginalization and Future Directions

As established in the socio-political history of ELT in the Philippines, it may be counter-productive to point a blaming finger on government or other parties because schools are very much responsible for the profession’s marginalization. If the profession wants to liberate itself from the bonds of colonial, (neo)colonial and global conditioning, it must first recognize its purpose within the context of the realities of pedagogy (Benesch, 1993). Therefore, one should accept the fact that schools are sites of stratification themselves, and policies and practices implemented are never neutral (Auerbach, 1991; Auerbach & Burgess, 1985; Benesch, 1993, 1996; Pennycook, 1994,
Hiding behind the rhetoric of ‘competitiveness’, ‘accountability’, ‘transparency’ and ‘professionalism’, the system conveniently ‘silences’ voices to maintain the “normative [and oppressive] status quo” (Benesch, 1993, p. 707) or “vulgar pragmatism” (Pennycook, 1997, p. 253). For instance, policies and practices related to hiring, acceptance, non-acceptance, and promotion of faculty, accreditation, accountability, research, teaching, and extension are rich fields for contestation as they traditionally have “become a tool for differentiation, to maintain the status of a few and preserve a hierarchical system” (Auerbach, 1991, p. 6).

Facing a great challenge of teaching language to students who themselves bring rich histories, struggles, and views in the classroom, the profession is greatly hampered by the system’s inattentiveness of improving school conditions. How can language teaching be effective if school systems continue to have large numbers of students in classes, inadequate materials, ineffective screening/grouping of students (Canagarajah, 1996; 1999; Pennycook, 1994)? How can teachers be focused if much of their time is relegated to paraprofessional activities (Rionda, 1996)? How can the profession improve if the system continuously engages in dubious procedures related to finances (Freedom from Debt Coalition, 2006)? How can the curriculum be negotiated manageably if schools continue to add more skills, topics and subject matter to be integrated in teaching when students oftentimes are underemployed or could not even get a job?

Therefore, the ELT profession needs to engage in a new set of politics. Not the whimsical endless jousting for key positions in administration for self-development and vested interest but rather a politics that promotes critical pragmatism (Pennycook, 1997), politics that does not simply embrace educational/teaching principles or approaches as dogmatic principles (Kachru, 1985) but critical stance that both recognizes the limitations of pedagogy and challenges the existing system (Benesch, 1996). More importantly, this entails political connectedness (Phillipson, 1992) among fellow educators (in the content areas), administrators and students in terms of seeing potential resources available (whether it be abstract or material) to promote learning. Learning that entails not only problem solving but challenging the social structures that have continuously oppressed the nation.

It is believed that by connecting the ELT profession politically, language teachers should be engaged not only in improving themselves as professionals but also looking at possibilities for using language teaching to improve learning in other subject areas and promoting social awareness in their immediate community and eventually society. To exemplify, language teachers may want to look at how curricular offerings contextualize critical language awareness (Lin, 2000) in other subject areas. Also, engaging in community service projects with local government and non-government units can help make language teachers’ work relevant in the in terms of social, political and cultural development in the country.

Through this, the profession can now challenge the notions of access to English as a class issue (Tupas, 2007). From language as a tool for stratification, the profession can proceed with redirecting English language teaching in contributing to nation-building (Martin, 2005).

References


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