Prompted and Unprompted Self-Repairs of Filipino Students of Spanish as a Foreign Language

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PROMPTED AND UNPROMPTED SELF-REPAIRS OF FILIPINO STUDENTS OF SPANISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

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ABSTRACT

The present dissertation, which contributes to the dearth of research on the acquisition of Spanish as a foreign language by Filipinos, is a pseudolongitudinal study of their Spanish interlanguage (IL) whose two-fold objective is to provide a descriptive analysis of their developing IL based on errors produced in their speech as influenced by language proficiency levels and crosslinguistic similarity of their other known languages, and to identify the thresholds of their IL based on the prompted and unprompted self-repair of these errors.

Participants of the study were four groups of students learning Spanish in a Philippine university who have had 432 hours, 1,008 hours, 1,872 hours, and 2,160 hours of formal instruction in Spanish, respectively. They were recorded in their own classroom contexts and individually in order to build two complementing oral corpora for the analysis of their speech. For the gathering of monologic data elicitation procedures from the research project *El desarrollo del repertorio lingüístico en hablantes no nativos de castellano y catalán* (Tolchinsky & Perera, 2006), which form part of the larger research project *Developing Literacy in Different Contexts and Different Languages* (Berman & Verhoeven, 2002) was adopted. All 20 recorded classroom sessions and 40 monologic texts were transcribed according to the conventions of a transcription program. Errors were categorized according to their formal linguistic levels (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010), while prompted and unprompted self-repairs were identified as a result of classifying teacher feedback based on an adapted taxonomy of recasts and prompts (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). To respond to the objectives the following were analyzed: (a) the distribution of error types and subtypes in relation to the target

language (TL) proficiency, (b) the frequency of attempts to self-repair these errors with and without the prompting of the teacher, (c) the rate of success of prompted and unprompted self-repairs in relation to TL proficiency, and (d) the effect of crosslinguistic similarity of previously learned languages and their corresponding proficiency levels on error production.

Results showed that morphosyntactic errors were produced the most, followed by lexical-semantic errors, and lastly, by phonetic-phonological errors, with each proficiency group producing such errors quite differently (e.g., omission of determiners is largely a characteristic of a beginner). Results likewise showed that while TL proficiency has a negative effect on the production of errors, it has no effect on the distribution of error types nor in the recognition of these errors. Teachers and students alike verbally recognized approximately 20% of the errors; teachers called out lexical-semantic errors the most, while students most independently recognized and successfully self-repair morphosyntactic errors. Of the recognized errors, about 60% of teacher-prompted errors and roughly 80% of independently recognized errors were successfully repaired. Albeit inconclusive, TL proficiency may have a positive effect on success in self-repair. By contrast, SL proficiency was observed to have a positive effect on the production of transfer errors, however, in the case of the multilingual learner, transfer mostly comes from the more objectively similar language and not from the language that he perceives to be more similar to the TL. The implications of these findings for future research and language pedagogy are outlined in the final chapter, which concludes the present dissertation.

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ABBREVIATIONS

A1 Breakthrough level

A2 Waystage level

AECID Agencia Española de Cooperación Internacional para el Desarrollo

B1 Threshold level

B2 Vantage level

BA Bachelor in Arts

BPO Business Process Outsourcing

BS Bachelor in Science

CEFR Common European Framework of Reference

CHAT Codes for the Human Analysis of Transcripts

CHILDES Child Language Date Exchange System

CLAN Computerized Language Analysis

CLI crosslinguistic influence

DCT Discourse Completion Test

DEL Department of European Languages

EA Error Analysis

EL European Languages

ELE Threshold level

FL foreign language

FLL foreign language learning

IL interlanguage

kw coeffecient of Kruskal-Wallis

L1 first language

L2 second language

L3 third or additional language

LEAP-Q Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire

M mean

MCER Marco Común Europeo de Referencia

N total number of participants

n subtotal number of participants

NNS nonnative speaker

NS native speaker

p value of probability

R^2 coefficient of determination in the Multiple Regression Model

SD standard deviation

Sig significance

SL source language

SLA Second Language Acquisition

SPSS Statistical Package for Social Sciences

TLA Third Language Acquisition

UP University of the Philippines

INTRODUCTION

The relevance of self-repairs in the configuration of the IL

Aside from how learner language is viewed, there has also been much discussion on how adults learn a new language. For language acquisition to occur, Krashen (1978) underscores the importance of ample provision of *comprehensible input (input+1)*. In his input hypothesis he states that through reception of scaffolded linguistic information, whether written or oral, language acquisition takes place. However, aside from criticisms that *input+1* is difficult to define and measure, other linguists maintain that it is not enough. One learns a new language, not only through reception, but also through production. Long (1983), for example, agrees with Krashen on the relevance of modified input, but explains how language acquisition progresses in his interaction hypothesis. In interaction, may it be with a good language model or a fellow language learner, the student is afforded many benefits that are not present in mere reading and listening. He is given a chance to use the target language, negotiate meaning, receive feedback, and break down linguistic input (Long, 1996). It is through interaction that he notices gaps in his speech (Mackey & Philp, 1998), which, in turn, causes him to make an effort to produce a more appropriate utterance. This modified output Swain (1985) calls *comprehensible output (output+1)*, analogous to Krashen's *input+1*. The discovery of the role of comprehensible output in the restructuring of the interlanguage has led to various studies that either aimed to observe and describe it (e.g., Lyster & Ranta, 1997) or induce it (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998) in relation to different kinds of corrective feedback. Likewise, interest in eliciting *output+1* has created much debate on which type of corrective feedback best stimulates modification of

output. In general, corrective feedback is classified into two: those that immediately provide the students with the correct form and those that prompt them to repair on their own. The first type, also commonly called *recast*, has been proven to be the most widely used type of corrective feedback by teachers (e.g., Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Révész, 2012; Sibayan, 2011). Whether recasts result in any development in the student's linguistic repertoire has been a long-running topic for debate. However, Révész (2012) declares that "a beneficial role for recasts in L2 learning is by now well established," (p. 94) citing an abundance in empirical research in the recent years that support his claim (e.g., Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007). Regardless the proven efficacy of recasts, this study is more interested in the other type, loosely referred to as *prompts*, the reason for which will be explained shortly.

Swain's (1985) campaign for interlanguage expansion through the prompting of comprehensible output in adult language classrooms resulted from findings in a study she conducted on linguistic immersion programs of Canadian French, where she observed that teachers were content with the students' ungrammatical utterances provided that they were sensible. As such, students were not pushed to produce more accurate or more target-like structures. Many other linguists prior to Swain have, as a matter of fact, pointed out such need for instruction that promotes an earnestness to constantly challenge the current state of the students' interlanguage. As early as the 70s, Corder (1967) and Hendrickson (1978) for example criticized that the "simple provision of the correct form may not always be the most effective form of error correction since it bars the way to the learner testing alternative hypotheses. Making a learner try to discover the right form could often be more instructive to both learner and teacher (p. 168)." Vigil and Oller (1976) suggested that learners should be pushed to make appropriate modification, and, in a similar vein, Allwright (1975) affirmed that a method designed to force learners back to using their own resources may actually give more precise help.

More than evidence on how pushed self-repairs result in positive linguistic change, of immediate relevance to this dissertation is how "modified, or reprocessed, output can be considered to represent the leading edge of a learner's interlanguage (Swain, 1985, p. 131)." If language learners show progress through errors (Corder, 1967), and if the self-repair of these errors represent not only the development in their proficiency of the target language (van Hest, 1996) but also its limits; then it follows that both errors and repairs serve to inform language teachers of what they need to teach (Fincher, 2006, p.1) and to guide researchers in their descriptive studies of the students' interlanguage (Sibayan, 2001, p. iii). Hence, in an attempt to provide a holistic description of the subjects' respective interlanguage, both errors and their corresponding self-repairs are considered in this research.

Albeit assertions that, in the same way as French and Italian are entirely different linguistic systems, interlanguage is a language in its own right and must not be compared to any other language (Bley-Vroman, 1983), in this work interlanguage is inevitably measured against the target language, as the subjects themselves naturally compare and contrast their existing linguistic knowledge with the target to progress. In principle, interlanguage evolves as it approximates the target language (Selinker, 1972).

In the first chapter of this dissertation, second language learning and foreign language learning are compared and contrasted, focusing on concepts that are shared by the two fields of study, such as interlanguage. Interlanguage development is then discussed in relation to errors and crosslinguistic influence, which are explained from two vantage points: how they can be directly observed and how they occur.

Since the advent of Error Analysis, errors have been known to be by-products of either creativity or influence of previously learned languages. This influence is a result of the comparison of the linguistic levels present among the students' all known languages, including interlanguages: phonetic-phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical-

semantic (Selinker, 1992). For such reason, these are the main categories of the errors and repairs in this study.

Influence or transfer, though may occur consciously or subconsciously, does not occur in a random fashion. It is a highly selective process caused by many sociolinguistic factors (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010), such as language relatedness and language proficiency. For being two of the most commonly identified factors affecting influence in all linguistic levels (e.g., Cenoz, 2003; De Angelis & Selinker, 2001; De Angelis, 2007; Hammarberg, 2001; Sibayan, 2011), their influence is studied in this research. Specifically, it enquires into how formal and perceived language relatedness, as well as how source and target language proficiencies, correlate with the production of errors and their corresponding self-repairs.

The components of interlanguage are presented in the second chapter through a brief exploration of various theories on foreign language learning, the building of implicit and explicit knowledge, and how both errors and their corresponding self-repairs indicate the boundaries of a foreign language learner's linguistic repertoire. It attempts to establish the necessary consideration of the push and pull in foreign language learning in the form of errors and self-repairs.

The third chapter comprises the research questions and objectives of the dissertation, while the fourth outlines the method employed. In this chapter, a thorough description of the context of the study and the parties involved are provided. Likewise, the procedures and criteria for data gathering, encoding and analysis are explained. Results of the analysis are presented in the fifth chapter and discussed in detail in the sixth. The dissertation concludes with a review of the relevant points raised throughout the study and an enumeration of suggested implications for future research and foreign language teaching.

1
FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNING, INTERLANGUAGE, AND CROSSLINGUISTIC INFLUENCE

1.1 Foreign Language Learning and Interlanguage

For many linguists, *second language acquisition* (SLA) serves as an umbrella term for the learning of a third, a fourth, or a fifth language, as *second language* (L2) representing all the languages learned after the first language (L1) (e.g., Cook, 2003; Doughty, 2001; Ellis, 1999, 2000; Gass & Selinker, 2008; Kormos, 1999; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1996). Aside from being acquired after the mother tongue(s), for a language to be considered an L2, the learner learns it in a context where the language is spoken, like when a Filipino immigrant learns Catalan in Barcelona, or when a Korean student learns English in Manila. In these cases the learners can learn the languages in the classroom, in the street, or in both (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 7). In contrast, the learning of a non-native language in an environment where the language is not spoken is considered *foreign language learning* (FLL), as in the case of the informants in this study, who are Filipinos learning Spanish in a Philippine university. As its defining condition suggests, a *foreign language* (FL) is usually learned in a more

formal setting, within the confines of a classroom (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 7). Albeit the difference in learning environment, many of the principles behind adult SLA and FLL are the same, and this premise is reflected in existing studies, where SLA theories are applied in analyzing FL learners. In the sections that follow, the similarities and differences of SLA and FLL shall be introduced to delineate the extent to which they are alike, as inevitably the same concepts, theories, and models are used in this study.

Studies in SLA are primarily concerned with "how learners create a new language system with only limited exposure to a second language (Gass & Selinker, 2008, p. 1)." Among the many proposed names, this language system came to be known as interlanguage (IL), a term coined by Selinker (1972). By *system* it means that it has its own structure composed of some elements from the non-native speaker's L1, some from the target language (TL), and some from neither. Its own grammar continuously changes as the learner constantly validates and invalidates his hypotheses, which he makes of the TL. Some linguists have brought this distinction to an extreme, arguing that "any study which classifies IL data according to a TL scheme fails to illuminate the structure of the IL" (Bley-Vroman, 1983, p. 15). However, the very concept of IL, to a certain degree, implies language comparison on the part of the learner, especially on the elements that encourage comparability: pronunciation, grammatical structure, vocabulary, and cultural behavior (Selinker, 1992, p. 6). The evolution of an IL relies on the speakers' constant hypothetical testing, a

constant comparison of what they know or do not know vis-à-vis how things are expressed in the TL by its native speakers (Doughty, 2001; Ellis, 1999, 2000; Gass, 1997; Kormos, 1999; Lightbown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1996; Pieneman, 1999; Swain, 1985). Such comparison is brought about by necessity, a need to progress on the part of the learners, and a need to contextualize on the part of the researcher. This is not in the very least an implication that success in language learning for L2 learners (or FL learners for that matter) is measured against the knowledge of a monolingual native speaker. As Cook argues, L2 users are language users in their own right, and must not be evaluated based on monolingual L1 competence against monolingual L1 competence (2002b, p. 335) as "there is no single final state of L2 use" (2002a, p. 13).

The existence of similar components among languages results in FL learners' comparing and contrasting their L1 with the TL, although they do not always transfer to their IL what is in their L1 (Gass & Selinker, 1983; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010). This statement is specifically relevant to this study since we do not only deal with four linguistic systems—the Filipino and English L1, the Spanish FL, and the Spanish IL—but with five or possibly more, as these informants may speak another Philippine language at home, or may concurrently be learning another FL aside from Spanish. The analysis of the informants' Spanish IL, through their production of errors and self-repairs, is based on the notion that IL data is made meaningful when juxtaposed with all the languages known to the non-native speaker (NNS) and the TL as the native

speakers (NSs) use it (Selinker 1972, 1992; Gass & Selinker, 2008). Hence, to account for non target-like output, explanations shall be drawn from all their known languages, inextricably comparing and contrasting elements of the linguistic systems involved on the surface level. However, it is worth noting as previously stated that transfer is a highly selective process, promoted and inhibited by a myriad of factors. These factors will be discussed later on in this chapter.

1.2 Third or Additional Language Acquisition

Linguists in the 70s had to research on exactly how, when, and where L1 and L2 acquisition are the same or different before the formula L1 ≠ L2 became widely accepted. Currently, SLA and Third or Additional Language Acquisition (TLA)[1] researchers find themselves in a similar situation as some (e.g., Cenoz, Hufeisen & Jessner, 2001; De Angelis, 2007) attempt to mark the boundaries that separate TLA from SLA, i.e. to establish that L3 ≠ L2. Nevertheless, even with a great deal of differences, the fact remains that these all share similarities, which allow for L1 concepts to be applied in the explanation of L2 phenomena, and likewise, for L2 concepts to explain for L3 phenomena. Take for example the concept of *overgeneralization*, which is observable in L1, L2, and L3 acquisition. Notwithstanding, for Cenoz et al., it

[1] De Angelis (2007) criticizes the use of Third Language Acquisition (TLA) to refer to studies of the learning of languages made after the acquisition of the L2 as "third" excludes the consequent languages. She prefers a more "neutral" term such as "third or additional language acquisition." For convenience, however, I shall continue with the acronym TLA to refer to Third or Additional Language Acquisition.

is clear that SLA is different from TLA, in that in TLA there are more than two relationships to be taken into account: that of L1 and L2, L2 and L3, L3 and L1 (2001, p. 2). Perhaps, in cases where an L3 learner has only one L1 and one L2, this argument may be applied, but it is not exclusive of TLA studies. As it is quite possible for an L2 learner to have multiple L1s or a monolingual to be learning multiple L2s, SLA researchers have already been considering more than two linguistic relationships in their research, and hence have been using the term L2 as a cover term for all languages learned after the L1.

What has not been sufficiently considered in SLA research is how SLA subjects and language learners in general are viewed as two monolinguals in one body, as Grosjean points out (1985, 2001). Similarly, Cook (2002a) argues that an "L2 user is a different kind of person, not just a monolingual with added extras" (p. 4). For this kind of speaker, he coined the term *multicompetence.* For him, the concept of multicompetence covers for the knowledge and use of two or more languages by the same individual or the same community (2012).

Whether Grosjean challenges the mythical bilingual or Cook the mythical L2 user, their arguments intersect at several points, as can be seen in Table 1.1 their characterization of a bilingual and an L2 user, respectively:

Table 1.1 Characteristics of a bilingual (Grosjean, 2004) and an L2 user (Cook, 2002a)

Bilingual	*L2 user*
uses two (or more) languages (or dialects) in their everyday lives acquires and uses his language(s) for different purposes, in different domains of life, with different people	has daily use of the L2 for any purpose
is rarely equally fluent in all language skills in his languages	his knowledge of his L1 is in some respects not the same as that of a monolingual his knowledge of the L2 is typically not identical to that of a native speaker's syntax, vocabulary, etc.
adapts his language behavior accordingly when interacting with monolinguals and multilinguals	has other uses for language than the monolingual, like code switching and translation
his non-L1 languages may still be in the process of being acquired	
the language repertoire may change overtime due to environmental changes (the need to adapt to the changes results in change in competences)	

If, according to Grosjean, a bilingual need not have two highly proficient, relatively stabilized linguistic systems to be considered one, then an L2 user is essentially a bilingual. However, he underscores the importance of recognizing the bilingual's command of each of his languages in reading, writing, speaking, and listening when undertaking SLA research as this factor very well affects his other known languages and will surely affect his acquisition of new ones.

Cook (2002a) distinguishes between L2 learners and L2 users. He describes the

learners as those who have no purpose of the L2 outside the classroom and use it for "memorising a list of vocabulary, pretending to be customers in a shop, repeating a dialogue on a tape" (p.2). Considering the premise that has just been established in the preceding paragraph and following this differentiation between the L2 learner and L2 user, one can then say that an L2 learner is not a bilingual; for the simple reason that the L2 learner has no use of the L2 language in his daily endeavors but is rather limited to practicing it in the classroom, which is, in essence, identical to Gass and Selinker's (2008) definition of an FL learner. To avoid further confusion, as it is clear that the informants in this study are bilinguals learning a third (or fourth) language which happens to be a language that cannot be used in their day-to-day affairs, all future reference to L2 in literature will be replaced with *L3*. The term L3, aside from being more suggestive of plurilingualism, is devoid of preexisting definitions aside from being the language(s) learned after the L2. Similarly, the term bilingual will be replaced with multilingual since, the prefix *bi-* connotes the existence of only two languages. If Grosjean (2004) defines *bilingual* as a person who "uses two (or more) languages (or dialects) in [his] everyday [life]" then the term *multilingual* seems more fitting. Lastly, for purposes of coherence and convenience in this dissertation, all future reference to SLA in cited related literature will be referred to as TLA in this dissertation.

One major concern in TLA research is how some previous linguistic knowledge bears influence on the shaping of the IL more than others; why some

seem to become activated while others deactivated. This concern figures in this present research.

1.3 Crosslinguistic Influence

As early as the 60s researchers have been fascinated by crosslinguistic influence as evidenced by the genesis of Contrastive Analysis, with Lado at the forefront. He proposed theoretical underpinnings to the insight that "individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture" (1957, p. 2). However, some find the term "transfer" laden with the connotation of a phenomenon that occurs only between two languages, which brought them to conceive a more encompassing label to cover various L3 phenomena that involves—but is not limited to—transfer, such as avoidance, borrowing, and coining. Hence, *crosslinguistic influence* (CLI) (Kellerman, 1984; Kellerman & Sharwood-Smith, 1996) or "the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired (Odlin, 1989, p. 27)," was devised. Perhaps for the lack of a better word Odlin employs "imperfect" to describe the "other language," which, again, implies that the TL as spoken by its natives is perfect, and the IL of the TL learners is not. Politics aside, Odlin makes a groundbreaking acknowledgement of the role of "imperfectly" acquired languages on the acquisition of a new one, which will be discussed in more detail in this chapter.

When "other language" is in the plural, it is very possible that two or more linguistic systems concurrently influence the IL. For such instances, De Angelis (2007) uses the term *combined CLI* (p. 27). In this study, CLI—whether combined or not, transfer and interference are used interchangeably.

CLI research has considerably developed, as Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010) claim in their seminal work, stating that "we are at a point where we have amassed a truly extensive amount of knowledge about the phenomenon, but we also know that we have a long way to go before we have explained it fully" (p. 8). Most importantly, they propose a systematized categorization of the different types of CLI based on their meta-analysis of previous research, which partly figures in this dissertation.

They identified ten main types. *Area of language knowledge/use*, refers to what the authors call "traditional types of transfer" (2010, p. 21) and covers transfers that occur in the phonological, orthographic, lexical, semantic, morphological, and syntactic levels. These serve as the main categories for organization of the errors and self-repairs in the present study. As this CLI type is central in the present work, it will be discussed in the following section (1.3.1 Transferrable Linguistic Elements Among Languages). In this domain they also include discursive, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic transfer, which are excluded in this study since they do not involve the formal aspects of language. The second dimension, *directionality*, refers to whether transfer occurred forward (L1 to L3), reverse (L3 to L1), laterally (between any combination of languages

learned after the L1, like L2 to L3), or in multiple directions. The third is *cognitive level*, the cornerstone of their research, which takes into account how CLI can simultaneously occur on different mental levels. When the transfer is of form, it is *linguistic;* when it is of meaning, it is *conceptual* or *cognitive* (for an in-depth differentiation between conceptual and semantic transfer, kindly refer to their work). Though apparently separate, these can occur concomitantly. The fourth is *type of knowledge* on the level of implicitness or explicitness, and the fifth deals with *intentionality,* that is whether a transfer is done intentionally or unintentionally. The sixth, *mode,* refers to whether transfer occurred in production or reception, while the seventh, *channel*, if it is aural or visual. CLI can also occur in verbal or nonverbal *form*, the eighth dimension; *manifest* overtly or covertly, the ninth; and result in positive or negative *outcome*, the tenth (2010, pp. 19-26).

Table 1.2 Characterization of CLI Types Across Ten Dimensions (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 21)

Area of Language Knowledge/Use	phonological lexical	orthographic semantic	morphological discursive	syntactic pragmatic	sociolinguistic
Directionality	forward	reverse	lateral	bi- or multi-directional	
Cognitive Level	linguistic	conceptual			
Type of Knowledge	implicit	explicit			
Intentionality	intentional	unintentional			
Mode	productive	receptive			
Channel	aural	visual			
Form	verbal	nonverbal			
Manifestation	overt	covert			
Outcome	positive	negative			

The authors claim that though unnecessary to categorize an error into all ten dimensions, it can help researchers understand how the different types of CLI relate to each other (2010, p. 21). A given example was the classification of the word "sleep" [slip] for "slip" [slip] uttered by an L1 Spanish learner of English as a "phonological, forward, linguistic, implicit, unintentional, productive, aural, verbal, overt, negative transfer" (2010, p. 20). For the mere purpose of illustration with no intention to tackle the identified categories exhaustively, the phenomenon in question in this present research for example—errors and self-repairs in Spanish FL speech—is forward, linguistic, explicit, unintentional, productive, aural, verbal, overt and negative.

The following section discusses the first dimension, areas of knowledge/use, to clarify the error and self-repair categories of this dissertation, on which they are based. In this study, we refer to them as the *transferrable linguistic elements among languages*.

1.3.1 Transferrable Linguistic Elements Among Languages

Prior to the 90s it was believed that CLI does not occur in all linguistic levels, specifically in morphology and in syntax (e.g., Dulay & Burt, 1974; Felix, 1980; Zobl, 1986), however, owing to the growth of evidence, this claim has been proven false (e.g., Odlin, 1989). Fact remains, nonetheless, that it "is not equally visible in all areas of language use" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 61) as its manifestations are restricted by the dimensions of transfer and by a plethora

of factors, "such as language universals, typological distance between the source and recipient languages, the [L3] user's level of proficiency in both languages," etc. (pp. 61-62). These factors are discussed in the second half of this chapter. In this section the permeability of linguistic categories (Adjemian, 1976) to CLI is discussed through the presentation of relevant related literature whose findings illustrate transfer phenomena among languages. The related literature includes—to the best of our knowledge—all existing CLI studies that examine the productions of multilingual Filipino language learners.

1.3.1.1 On the level of phonetics and phonology

Neurologists Penfield and Roberts proposed a critical period in L1 acquisition (1959) later adopted by linguist Lenneberg (1967), which varies depending on the linguistic competence, among other factors, and not on age alone (Singleton, 1995). For the establishment of an accent, researchers are unanimous in identifying age as a strong factor in language learning (e.g., Bialystok,1997; Muñoz, 2006), even positing that pronunciation is perhaps the one aspect of language learning where the claim "the younger, the better" is valid (McLaughlin, 1992). This makes the acquisition of a foreign accent difficult for anyone who begins to learn another language at the age of 12 onwards (Bongaerts, 1999). As such, more often than not the L1s are assumed as the source of influence on the IL phonology (Hammarberg & Hammarberg, 1993).

Hammarberg and Hammarberg (1993), for example, claim that "L1 is a basic *constraint* in language learning that tends to be persistent" (p. 65; italics in original) after analyzing the Swedish L3 oral productions of an English L1 subject with a high command of German L2.

This notion of L2 reliance in L3 learning especially in the early stages of acquisition is examined in Cruz's (2015) study on the pronunciation of bilingual Filipino L1 and English L2 learners of German L3. She was interested in discovering L2 influence on the acquisition of an L3 by analyzing the correlation of the informants' ability to distinguish vowel length in English and German words. According to Cruz, phonological awareness of vowel length is instrumental in the development of listening and spelling competencies in German. For this she focused on the transfer in the initial stage of acquisition, choosing 11 beginners to carry out four tasks. First, they were to identify whether the first stressed vowel in a set of disyllabic German words as long or short. Second, they were asked to do the same for a set of English words. Third, they were asked to read aloud a set of German words, followed lastly by a similar exercise in English. Both production tasks were recorded. She then measured the learners' vowel durations, contrasted these with those of a native, and correlated these with sociolinguistic variables. Her findings clearly illustrate the concept of CLI. First, performance in L2 was not predictive of performance in the L3 in both reception and production tasks, as the informants seemed to identify vowel length slightly better in German words than in English ones.

Second, though the Filipino L1 evidently figured in the English L2 production task, this was not observed in the German L3 task. She attributed inconsistent output of vowel length in L2 words to L1 interference, while acceptable success in the L3 exercise to meta knowledge of L2 phonological rules and application of the learner strategy of overgeneralization. Evidently, Cruz's (2015) findings strengthen Hammarberg and Hammarberg's (1993) conclusions.

Another study that shows how L2 knowledge contributes to influencing the IL of L3 learners is that of Sánchez (2010), a case study of a Filipino university student who spoke Filipino as L1 and English as L2 and studied Spanish and French as L3, which she claimed to have B2 and A2 proficiency levels of, respectively. Sánchez qualitatively analyzed her Spanish IL based on three types of written evidence. In his discussion of the informant's pronunciation he observed that in general, she enunciated her words in a more relaxed manner compared to a native: the *j* in *cajón* is aspirated and the trilling of the *r* in *dinero* is reduced, among others. He also discussed the absence of the confusion of a particular sound pair, / p / and / f /, which, according to him, is expected to occur in speech of a Filipino L1 speaker, due to the non existence of the sound / f / in the Filipino language.[2] Sánchez explains, "in general, the command of [educated] Filipinos of the English language—learned as an L2 at

[2] This is illustrated by the myriad of Spanish words that underwent phonological change when they were assimilated into the lexicon of the Filipino language and of the other Philippine languages in the 16th century (Quilis 1992): *kapé, parmasya, hepe* (125). Likewise, the relaxation of the aforementioned sounds is reflected in other phonologically adapted words *sibuyas* from *cebolla, sirko* from *circo,* and *kaha* from *caja (*126).

a very early age—and the inclusions of new phonemes in the Philippine alphabet, have as a result a reduction in the phonological distance between / p / and / f / (2010, p. 10; translation ours)." Hence, the Filipinos' knowledge of English as L2 and the similarity between the L1 Filipino and L3 Spanish sound systems have contributed to an overall positive transfer, except for very isolated cases presented previously.

Such was also the observation of Sibayan and Rosado (2012) when they found that the second least occurring error type in their study was the phonetic-phonological category: a mere 8% of the total number of errors committed by the Filipino B1-level learners[3] of Spanish as FL.[4] Based on this figure they commented that "the low percentage may be due to the similar phonetic systems of Filipino and Spanish (93)." They found that most of the phonetic-phonological errors were due to stress on the wrong syllable (43%), followed by the addition of an unnecessary phoneme (24%). The rest were simplifications of / a u / to / o / , confusion between / o / and / u / , between / i / and / e / , / p / and / f / , [ʃ] and [θ] , pronunciation of silent / h / , and fricatization of / v / ; each of these only occurred once. Similarly, pronunciation was the least corrected error type by the teacher, perhaps because L1 Filipino pronunciation of L3 Spanish words did not obstruct communication (Sibayan & Rosado, 2012, p. 94).

[3] B1 is the threshold level of proficiency in the TL established in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR)
[4] The least occurring type based on their findings was syntax-related.

Cruz's (2015) findings on vowels, Sánchez's (2010) on consonants, and Sibayan and Rosado's (2012) on syllabic stress are representative of the three subcategories that the present study employs for phonetic-phonological CLI. In Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010), where they explore this type of transfer in its general sense and consider it as "various CLI phenomena ranging from the actual sounds that [L3] users perceive and produce (i.e. phonetics), to the ways that they categorize, structure and organize these sounds (phonology)" (p. 62), they advance two main categories: segmental and suprasegmental phonology. The former includes vowels and consonants, specifically voicing and aspiration, while the latter includes intonation, stress, and rhythm. For the present study, phonetic-phonological subcategories are limited to vowels, consonants, and syllabic stress.

1.3.1.2 On the level of morphology

As early as in the 60s, it has been believed that transfer also occurs at the grammatical level, albeit with reservations. It was then regarded as fact that individual morphemes can also be transferred but only if they are unbound and invariant and if the languages involved share similar patterns and structures, and (Weinreich, 1953, p. 44). However, studies made after this claim have proven this false (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, pp. 92-93). Fantini (1985) reports that bound morphemes like the English plural marker *–s* can be influenced by the Spanish agreement rule in gender and number between adjectives and nouns, finding productions like *too manys* cars*. Bouvy (2000) presents a similar case,

where the L2 Dutch influences the L3 English: the importation of the Dutch suffix *–t* to the English word *helpt** (target form: *helped*) and the application of the Dutch plural ending *–eren* to the English word *goods,* resulting in the neologism *gooderen**. Hammarberg (2001) gives an account of an L1 English speaker with a strong L2 German and a weak L2 Italian who was learning Swedish as L3 producing forms like *skrivare** (target form: *att skriva*), to write, the *–are* ending coming from Italian infinitive marker. De Angelis & Selinker (2001) report more instances of bound morpheme transfer, such as the Spanish past participle marker *–ido* and negative prefix *des–* into Italian *uccido** (target form: *ucciso*) and *desarmato* (target form: *disarmato*). In the case of Spanish and English, both have Indoeuropean origins. Dutch and English are Germanic, while Spanish and Italian are both Romance languages. In essence, language relatedness appears to be a strong factor for bound morphological transfer.

Of special interest is the study of Jarvis and Odlin (2000), which deals with transfer of prepositions. Prepositions, together with conjunctions and interjections, are classified as grammatical morphemes (Bordet & Jamet, 2010, p. 2), which happen to be another classic source of confusion in L2 learners (Fernández, 1997). Jarvis and Odlin (2000) found that the language typology of the L1 clearly influenced the production of L2 English prepositions. For their study they analyzed the distribution and frequency of spatial expressions used by 140 L1 Finnish and 70 L1 Swedish speakers who were all learning English as L2. Finnish marks spatial relationship by attaching a suffix, agglutinative post

verbal morphology, while Swedish marks spatial relations by way of preverbal prepositions, therefore by the use of free morphology as in English. The authors asked participants to describe a silent film and then examined how they used spatial prepositions after English verbs such as "sit," "take," and "put". They found that the difference in the favored prepositions depended on the participants' L1 background.

Another study that focuses on prepositions is that of Madamba (2012), where Filipino university students learning Spanish as FL were given two written tasks. Based on these tasks she analyzed the distribution of correctly and incorrectly used prepositions, and found *a* and *en* the most frequently misused, which confirms findings of other studies on Filipino learners of Spanish FL (e.g., Morta, 2005; Sibayan, 2011). Upon taking a closer look at the misuse of each preposition, she discovered that *en* mainly replaced *a* after verbs of movement that required it, while errors pertaining to the preposition *a* were generally due to its omission before the personal direct object. She concludes that since rules on the use of these two prepositions had already been taught to them B1 level learners of Spanish FL, the apparent persistence of their non TL usage of these prepositions must be because of the influence of other known languages, which were L1 Filipino and L2 English. She attributes the absence of differentiation between *a* and *en* to the L1 Filipino, where the preposition *sa* covers for both *a* and *en*. Meanwhile, the omission of the personal *a* she attributes to both the L1

Filipino and L2 English, since the grammatical feature has no equivalent in neither of the two.

In Morta's (2005) extensive error analysis of written data produced by L1 Filipino and L2 English learners of FL Spanish, she analyzed the frequency and distribution of grammatical, lexical, and orthographic errors of three proficiency groups: beginner, intermediate, and advance. For the first group, most of the creative productions reflected heavy influence of the informant's L2 English. The most representative errors with L2 English influence were the use of *haber* as if it functioned like the English *to have*, writing sentences like ***Hubimos** alegre horas en viaje* (p. 68); the misuse of the past participle, *La mes pasada, me invitado un director de organización* (p. 70)*;* the use of the gerund as it is used in English, i.e. the nominalization of certain verbs: **El socorrista nos dijo que nadando ahí es no peligroso* (p. 76). A particular non target production is **Yo estado en mis abuelos casa* (p. 70) where *mis abuelos casa* is unmistakably the transfer of the English bound morpheme possessive —*'s*, "my *abuelo's* house." The errors of gender and number agreement were present, as expected, a characteristic of the Spanish IL of any learner, whose known languages do not feature such morphological rule. For the intermediate group, errors caused by L2 English considerably dropped, limited only to the recurrent confusion on nominal agreement and the misuse of the gerund. This time, however, with an adjectival purpose to modify the nominal phrase that precedes it: **Mi madre y yo rogando y ofreciendo flores a la Virgen María* (p. 115). Following the decreasing pattern of English-influenced errors,

the advanced proficiency group had virtually none, except for a much lesser total of agreement errors. In sum, Morta's findings show a slightly indirectly proportional relationship between the informants' command of the Spanish TL and their production of errors, specifically those pertaining to morphology with English influence. However, in considering the total number of errors, the advanced group seemed to produce a much more substantial amount than the intermediate group, which Morta interprets as having more confidence in taking risks in using the language (p. 141).

By and large, existing studies concerned with morphological CLI have preoccupied themselves with specific bound (e.g., Selinker & Lakshamanan, 1992; De Angelis & Selinker, 2001; Jarvis & Odlin, 2000) and unbound morphemes (e.g., Jarvis & Odlin, 2000; Jarvis, 2002; Odlin, 2005). The present study, however, is very similar to Morta's (2005) in that the morphological categories are parts of speech. In her data-based taxonomy, she combines those related to morphology and syntax under grammatical errors,[5] a procedure employed in the present study for reasons of parsimony, i.e., the simplification of the tagging of our morphosyntactic data. We would like to emphasize, however, that morphology and syntax are distinct linguistic levels, and that this

[5] Morta (2005) identified the grammatical errors as relating to production of verbs, distribution of verbs, use/omission of the infinitive, use/omission of the the past participle, confusion between the imperfect and indefinite tenses, confusion between the present and the imperfect tenses, confusion between the present and the indefinite tenses, confusion between the imperfect and the compound perfect tenses, confusion between compound perfect and the indefinite tenses, use of the gerund, use/omission of the imperative, confusion between the indicative and the subjunctive moods, use of determiners, use of pronouns, use of prepositions, agreement in gender and number, omission or appearance of articles, omission of the subordinate conjunction *que* in relative clauses and verbal phrases, and sentence structure.

fusion is not ideal. As we find her grammatical taxonomy wanting in terms of variety of categories as well as parallelism, we have added other essential parts of speech and have organized our data according to the following: adjectives, adverbs, conjunctions, determiners, nouns, prepositions, pronouns, verbs, and syntax.

1.3.1.3 On the level of syntax

Anecdotal and empirical studies carried out in the 90s have proven that transfer on the syntax level is also possible (e.g., Jarvis, 2003; Zobl, 1992). One of the first to investigate whether prior linguistic knowledge leads to creation of more or less conservative grammars in multilinguals was Zobl (1992). According to him, preference for "wide grammars" suggests that hypotheses are being overgeneralized resulting in higher acceptance scores with respect to marked as well as ungrammatical sentences. *Markedness* is often defined in relation to how uncommon a feature is across the languages of the world, which makes such feature of the TL more difficult to acquire in comparison to unmarked structures (Eckman, 1977; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 186). As an implication of this finding, multilinguals seem to create less conservative hence more powerful grammars than monolinguals do (De Angelis, 2007, p. 58).

However, there remains a paucity in research on production, as majority of these studies are limited to grammaticality judgment tests. These studies, nevertheless, have provided sufficient support for researchers to advance that

CLI likewise affects syntax, and to conclude that multilinguals are more tolerant of syntax variety, and that some syntactic structures are preferred by language users over others. An important point raised by Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010) about these syntactic preferences is that these seldom entail errors, which makes the phenomena particular to this linguistic level easily ignored (p. 100-101). This consideration likewise explains for the low number of literature on production, as well as the consistently low recordings of syntactic errors in existing research.

Even more scarce are studies on interference on the syntax level of Filipino learners of Spanish. These are limited to error and interlanguage analyses, which do not exactly have syntactic transfer as their focus. In Morta (2005), Sánchez (2010), and Sibayan's (2011) research, discussions are limited to general sentence structure.

Sibayan (2011), for example, considered an utterance problematic on the sentence level based on two criteria: word order and message incomprehensibility. For these global errors—the category in which she classified syntax issues—only a mere 2.38% was recorded out of the total number of errors. An example would be: **no comparen su hacen mismas*, which could be an extreme case of literal translation, though the utterance does not make sense in either of the languages known to the speaker, which are Filipino and English. The author suspects that the message that the student was meaning to say required a complex structure that was then unavailable to her and hence rendered her incapable of producing a coherent and sensible utterance.

Meanwhile, Morta (2005), adopted Fernández's (1997) criteria for sentence level error: changes in sentence structure (**Yo pensé de tu mucho cuando fui en New York)*, omission of elements *(*Ellos baratos pero muy bonitos*), distortion *(*Mi novio y yo tomamos caminatas tragamos la playa y las puestas del sol miradas juntas*), redundant elements *(*El tiempo hace buen tiempo pero en tarde hace mucho calor*), and change in function (**Sus familias me divertieron*). Consistent with the general trend of error production among the three proficiency groups that she observed, she recorded that 12%, 7%, and 8% of the total grammar errors were due to syntax for beginners, intermediates, and advanced, respectively. Lastly, in Sánchez's (2010) case study, he commented that the B1 level student placed discursive markers, adjectives, verb complements, adverbs, quantifiers and modifiers where they were expected (p. 18). He only cited three examples where he found her word order bizarre, for example: **Enseña que en medio de un mundo lleno del odio, la pura verdad es el amor esta en todas partes.* Regardless how specific or general their criteria were for analyzing sentence-level errors, they were unanimous in identifying English as their origin.

In the present study, criteria considered in previous lexical CLI work are adopted for the categorization of general syntactic errors, such as: word order and message incomprehensibility (Sibayan, 2011), changes in sentence structure omission of elements, redundant elements, and change in function (Fernández, 1997).

1.3.1.4 On the level of lexicon and semantics

As opposed to syntactic influences on the IL, those on the lexical-semantic level appear more apparent and recognizable. Since lexical-semantic transfers manifest clearly in both spoken and written production of an L3, it has been a favorite area of study in TLA research, as attested by the growing number of articles on the matter (e.g., Cenoz, 2001, 2003; Dewaele, 1998, 2001; Hammarberg, 2001; Kellerman, 2001; Muñoz, 2007; Nogra & Rodriguez, 2013; Ringbom, 1987, 2001; Singleton, 2003; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). These studies have looked into language choice, the kinds of language switches that occur in L3 production—whether they are calques, loan words, or phonetically adapted coinages, the roles of such switches, and the frequency of their occurrence in function and content words. Evidently, transfer does occur on the lexical-semantic level. However, no matter the focus of the study, the factor of language relatedness consistently presents itself as the principal factor of CLI.

Nogra and Rodriguez's (2013) study of L1 Cebuano, L2 Filipino, and L2 English learners of FL Spanish provides evidence that confirms previous research results. The authors hypothesized that in learning Spanish as FL, having L1 Cebuano offers an edge, since the Cebuano lexicon possesses thousands of words that are of Spanish origin (Quilis, 1976). The informants were to narrate a story based on the illustrations of a children's storybook, whose text had been removed. Results proved their assumption false: the informants

heavily relied on their English, a language that belongs to the same linguistic lineage that Spanish belongs to, to overcome lexical deficiency. Their preferred compensatory strategy was borrowing (86%) as opposed to coinage (14%), with coinage equally split between L1 Cebuano and L2 Filipino as source languages (SLs). In contrast, 57% of the borrowed non-phonetically adapted words were from L2 English. Only 27% were from L1 Cebuano and 16% were from L2 Filipino.

English was also the main SL of the informants in Sibayan's (2011) research, though unlike Nogra and Rodriguez's findings, the six Filipino L1 and English L2 bilingual learners of Spanish FL used English to both coin words and borrow them. Opposite to Nogra and Rodriguez still, was the result that the most recurring type of non target-like production on the lexical level was coinage, with English as the base.

In Salazar's (2007) case study of intentional and non-intentional switches of a Barcelona-based Filipino she aimed to observe the roles of a multilingual speaker's previously known languages in lexical production. Her subject, who had been living in Barcelona for nearly a decade at the time of the study, spoke L1 English, L2 Ilocano, L3 Filipino and L4 Spanish. The subject was asked to watch a 5-minute segment of the Spanish evening news every day for six days. For Days 1, 2 and 6 she was asked to verbally summarize each segment in Spanish, Days 3 and 4 in Filipino, and Day 5 in English. Adapting Williams and Hammarberg's (1998) categories, her findings were as follows: In the analysis of

the informant's L4 Spanish production, L1 English played a metalinguistic role, reserved for commenting and problem solving. This, according to Salazar, supports Williams and Hammarberg's claim that the L1 has an instrumental role in L4 production. Interestingly, in the informant's L3 Filipino production, she showed a predilection for Spanish-based words over those with other origins (e.g., *eleksiyon|halalan, puwede|maaari, norte|hilaga*), so much so that she used the false cognate "conductor"[6] instead of the very commonly used "drayber" from the English "driver." This clearly indicates that her L4 Spanish also played a supplier role. "The subject's choice of Spanish as source of linguistic information in her attempts for lexical construction can be associated with her own perception of Filipino and her awareness that many Filipino words come from Spanish" (Salazar, 2007, p. 11). Sharing the supplier role with L4 Spanish is the informant's L1 English, which Salazar sees as a reflection of how educated Filipinos use English in their daily lives, concluding that "these instances of code-switching are just a characteristic of Filipino itself, particularly of its educated code-switching variety habitually used by the subject" (2007, p. 12).

Sánchez's (2010) case study, previously presented in Section 1.3.1.1 (On the level of phonetics and phonology), also exposed the lexical-semantic characteristics of the Spanish IL of his Filipino-English bilingual subject. Based on her productions, Sánchez found that these could be classified according to the following categories: code switches, calques, borrowings, false cognates,

[6] Spanish for driver, Filipino for the assistant of a driver of a public vehicle who is responsible for charging the passengers for their transportation fee

confusion between *ser* and *estar*, use of inappropriate register, incorrect use of connectors, word play, and use of diminutives. For him, code switching and borrowings were different such that code switching occurred as metalinguistic statements (e.g., *French, oh my God*), while borrowings were switches that clearly occurred to cover for vocabulary deficiencies (e.g., *Creen que el francés es muy sosyal // Uhh / muy chic*). In Salazar's (2007) study, these would be identified as having an instrumental and a supplier role, respectively. Similar to previous studies on Filipino subjects, the English L2 was the language of choice for code switching, as well as for the compensatory strategy of calques, where meaning is transfered (e.g., *cortar su amistad, los diferentes lados del amor,*[7] *Profesor Va nos da muchas actividades y muchos papeles*[8]*)*. Another compensatory strategy reliant on the English L2, which Sánchez did not identify, was coinage, as seen in the word *estereotipic*, found in line 167 of the transcript of the recorded conversation that the informant had with a peer. Only one instance of borrowing were recorded, those of *sosyal*, which make both L2 English and L1 Filipino sources of transfer. However, false cognates, where transfer is more of form than meaning, were only based on L1 Filipino (e.g., *Vende papelitos y cajones*[9] */ cajas*). The next three

[7] *Cortar su amistad* is a direct translation of the English idioms *to cut ties with someone* or *cut off friendship with someone.* Likewise, *los diferentes lados del amor* most probably came from the English structure *different sides of love* which is commonly found in movie titles like *Two Sides of Love* and song titles such as *Other Side of Love.*

[8] Sánchez classified the misuse of the word *papeles* as as a false cognate, a word that also exists in Filipino. Nevertheless, in both Spanish and Filipino, *papel* refers to the physical sheet of paper. It is therefore an example of a calque of the English *paper*, whose meaning is not limited to the material but has more metaphorical definitions compared to its Spanish and Filipino counterparts, which may be used to refer to end-of-term reports, for example.

[9] The lexical item *cajón,* Spanish for *drawer,* means *box* in Filipino. The informant wanted to say that the store sold stationary and boxes (*cajas*), which she was able to say in the end.

categories—confusion between *ser* and *estar*, use of inappropriate register, incorrect use of connectors—may well be classified as incorrect use of lexical items. The mix up between *ser* and *estar*, according to Fernández (1997), is a classic error of FL students of Spanish, which did not manifest in Sánchez's data. From this he gathered that, generally speaking, the informant had satisfactorily learned the uses of each copular verb. Again, in general, the informant showed very good knowledge of register, since she had adapted according to the formality or informality of the tasks, except for one instance when she used the formal word "encomiable," which is synonymous to the commonly used English word "commendable." In terms of discourse markers and connectives, the informant seemed conscious of their functions, except when she used "al final" in lieu of the more appropriate "finalmente." Lastly, proof of her remarkable acquisition of L3 Spanish was her ability to be creative with it by means of word play and the production of adjectives that are not commonly heard in the diminutive. In sum, English consistently safeguards its role as the SL for lexical deficiencies in TLA studies of Filipino learners of L3 Spanish.

Lexical transfer in Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010) is defined as "the influence of word knowledge in one language on a person's knowledge or use of words in another language" (p. 72) and is systematically categorized in two: formal lexical transfer and semantic lexical transfer. The former, limited to the form of words, manifests itself in false cognates (e.g., English *actually* and Spanish *actualmente*), unintentional lexical borrowings, and coinages (e.g., Spanish infinitive ***printar*

from English *to print*). The latter, which involves the meaning of words, manifests itself in improper usage of the target word (e.g., in the case of Spanish: *ser* in lieu of *estar*) and in calques (e.g., English *to take care of someone* transposed into Spanish *tener cuidado* to mean *cuidar de*). This pentad classification is applied in the present study.

1.3.1.5 Discursive, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic transfer

Aside from sounds, words and grammar, a language learner may transfer culture and concepts as well. In Section 1.3, we delineated the limitations of the present research according to the first of ten CLI dimensions put forward by Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010)—linguistic transfer—which they consider "traditional." In this dimension, they include discursive, pragmatic, and sociolinguistic transfer, which, albeit still linguistic, go beyond individual linguistic elements. Although we do not expect to find instances of these transfers,[10] we discuss them briefly in this section to continue reviewing the limited existing literature on Filipino learners of Spanish, as these may contribute to the discussion of our findings.

Likewise, in the said section, we outlined the remaining nine dimensions, where linguistic and conceptual transfers are differentiated under the third category, cognitive level. Since there is no known literature on conceptual

[10] In Sibayan's (2011) study, she points out the superficiality of the FL classroom: conversations in the TL were solely carried out as practice, and not for any other reason. This leaves the students with very little chance to produce pragmatic transfers.

transfer concerning Filipino learners of Spanish FL, and given that conceptual transfer is well beyond the scope of our study, it has been excluded in this chapter.

Discursive transfer is observed in how "thoughts are introduced, organized, and contextualized within an oral or written discourse," and in conversational strategies, and conventions that govern the expression of concepts and notions (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 102). Pragmatic transfer, on the other hand, has been used to cover for both illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence (Bachman, 1990, in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 106). To differentiate: *Pragmatic competence* refers to "the ability to recognize and carry out fundamental language functions," such as the performance of speech acts (p. 106-107). *Sociolinguistic competence*, in contrast, relates to "a person's sensitivity to and ability to adjust one's language in accordance with social conventions that call for different forms of address, different discourse patterns, [etc.], in different social contexts" (p. 106). This distinction, however, is not reflected by existing studies, as they are particularly limited to the former.

Studies in pragmatic transfer are chiefly concerned with how communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings acquired through a previously learned language are conveyed in another (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010). More often than not it is studied "from the point of view of the users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects their use of

language has on the other participants in an act of communication" (Crystal, 1985, p. 379). Since "norms for polite, cooperative, [and] efficient communication vary from culture to culture (Davis, 1998 in Wierzbicka, 2003, p. xiv)" and hence a possible source of misunderstanding, pragmatic competence has become a growing concern and interest in the field of language teaching. Galindo's (2006) study, for example, focused on how transferable pragmatics can be and argued for its inclusion in the teaching of Spanish as FL.

On discursive transfer, there is no study on Filipino learners of Spanish that we know of. However, on pragmatic transfer, there are two. The first is a critical essay by Ofilada (2011), entitled "Del Marco común europeo de referencia (MCER) a las aulas de ELE en Filipinas: los contenidos culturales dentro del discurso y toma de decisiones del professor." The other is by Ozoa (2013), an analysis of speech acts, specifically that of requests. For her study, she asked three groups—Filipinos residing in Manila, Filipinos residing in Valladolid, and Spanish natives—of ten participants each to fill out a discourse completion test (DCT) with the aim of comparing how direct or indirect these three groups would ask a request. The Filipinos in Manila were asked to answer the DCT in Filipino, while the participants in Spain, both Filipinos and Spaniards, in Spanish. Based on her findings, all three groups prefer to formulate their requests quite indirectly. However, Filipinos prefer asking from the speaker's point of view with the permission petition formula (e.g., *May I borrow your phone?)* while Spaniards incline toward the hearer's ability to carry out

a task (e.g., *¿ Me dejas el móvil un momento?).* Interestingly, Spain-based Filipinos show use of both, which is very suggestive of their Spanish IL in terms of pragmatics.

In this section the levels in which CLI occur were discussed, where majority of the previous studies cited involve a unidirectional phenomena of transfer, i.e. forward. However, this is merely due to the focus of the study and by no means suggests that transfer only occurs from L1 or L2 to the L3. Likewise, though instances of CLI provided are all examples of negative transfer, this dissertation does not claim that CLI is limited to such. Negative transfer, aside from being more pronounced than positive transfer, leads to the self-repair phenomena that is of interest in this study. From what can be transferred we move on to what causes transfer to occur, which is discussed next.

1.3.2 Factors Affecting Transfer

A natural course for CLI research to was "the shift of attention from transfer to transferability" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p.174) specifically spearheaded in the 80s by Jordens (1977), Kellerman (1977), and Ringbom (1978).

Their studies were later consolidated by Kellerman (1983) by identifying two key structural constraints that affect transfer: psychotypology and transferability. *Psychotypology* refers to the similarity that a language learner perceives between his L1(s) and the TL, which promotes transfer. In contrast,

transferability (also known as markedness), refers to the perceived specificity of certain linguistic elements to the TL, which inhibits the language learner to transfer (in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 174).

Seven nonstructural factors were later identified by Odlin (1989), which were sporadically supported by future studies: personality, aptitude, proficiency, literacy, age, linguistic awareness, and social context (in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 175). In an attempt to organize existing findings, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010) distinguished which factors affect the learning process, and which ones affect performance. The latter, which concerns itself with "the amount and types of transfer that will emerge during actual language use" (p. 175), serves as a delimiter to the chosen variables for the present study, since our focus is on CLI in Spanish TL production.

However, since the identified structural and nonstructural constraints may affect both learning and performance, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010) propose another taxonomy, though with a caveat—that their classification may be subjective. Regardless of their opined lack in rationale, we think differently, as it presents the otherwise random factors in a logical fashion. In the present study we expand the authors' list by including other factors found in other CLI literature. The five classifications are the following:

Table 1.3 Taxonomy of CLI Factors Adopted from Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010, p. 175)

Linguistic and psycholinguistic factors	*Cognitive, attentional, and developmental factors*	*Factors related to cumulative language experience and knowledge*	*Factors related to the language environment*	*Factors related to language use*
crosslinguistic similarity	level of cognitive maturity	age	classroom context	idiolect
area of language acquisition and use	developmental and universal processes of language acquisition	length, frequency, and intensity of language exposure	naturalistic context	level of formality
frequency				interlocutor
recency	cognitive language learning abilities	length of residence in the country where the language is spoken		task type
salience	attention to and awareness of language			
markedness		general level of proficiency		
prototypicality		number and order of acquired languages		
linguistic context		psychological attachment to known languages		
passiveness and activeness of L2s				
		association to foreignness		

We deal with these categories in the next section. In the process, we will identify the factors that we have excluded from this study, gloss those that might play a role in the interpretation of our results, and emphasize on those that are significant to the gathering of our data, namely crosslinguistic similarity and language proficiency. These belong to the first and third categories, respectively, and as previously stated, are performance-related. As these phenomena have been studied several times over and have been given many names, for reasons

of uniformity we would like to adopt the terms used by Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010) to refer to them.

1.3.2.1 Linguistic and psycholinguistic factors

The first category covers the factors that are characteristic of both SLs and TLs, namely, (1) crosslinguistic similarity, (2) area of language acquisition and use, (3) frequency, (4) recency, (5) salience, (6) markedness, (7) prototypicality, (8) linguistic context, and (9) passiveness and activeness of L2s.

Crosslinguistic similarity is one of the first recognized constraints on transfer between the SL and TL, and has been known as language distance, typological proximity, and psychotypology (e.g., Kellerman, 1977). Likewise, it is one of the most widely recognized factors affecting transfer, as attested by the literature reviewed in the present study. It is for these reasons that we take great interest in this variable, specifically in the role it plays not only in error production, but also in their repair. It is necessary, however, to clarify that crosslinguistic similarity comes in two forms: objective (or actual) and subjective (or perceived). *Objective similarity* is the factual degree of likeness and kinship between linguistic systems as established and determined by linguists. On the other hand, *subjective similarity* is the perceived degree of resemblance that the language learner-user believes to exist between his known languages. This distinction is important because it is not the former that causes transfer, but the latter (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 177-178). "This is because learners are normally oriented toward

looking for similarities—not differences—between what they already know and what they are currently learning" (p. 179). While objective similarities remain constant, subjective similarities evolve together with the development of the language learner's proficiency (R. Ellis, 1994), fact that contributes to its legitimacy as a factor of transfer than objective similarity (p. 178). At this point, subjective similarities may appear more significant since they offer better justification for transfer, however, researchers must not undervalue the relevance of objective similarities, since they provide impartial contextualization for observations of CLI phenomena (Odlin, 1989, p. 27). "It is researchers' linguistic analyses that allow them to classify instances of CLI as occurring at points where the source and recipient languages are objectively different" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 178).

Subjective similarities are further divided into two types: perceived and assumed (Jarvis, 1998; Ringbom, 2007). A language learner either consciously or unconsciously *perceives* similarities in form, structure, meaning, function, or pattern between his known languages and the TL after having encountered them through input, while he merely *assumes* such when he perceives them without definite observation of the similarities of such features. It can then be said that "[a]ll perceived similarities are also assumed similarities, but not all assumed similarities are actually perceived" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 179). Depending on the language level, some similarities are more susceptible to being assumed—such as semantics and pragmatics—even between two completely

unrelated languages, while some similarities are more likely to be perceived—like those in the lexicon—since they remain dissimilar until observed otherwise by the learner (p. 180).

An example is Salazar's (2007) study, where her informant was observed to use her Spanish L4 to supply her Filipino L3 vocabulary; she associates this to the informant's perceived language similarity between Spanish and Filipino on the lexical level. She explains, "The choice of Filipino as a supplier language can be attributed to language distance: although Filipino and Spanish are typologically distant languages in all other aspects, lexically they are typologically close because of the number of words of Spanish origin in Filipino" (2007, p. 11). This shows that awareness of similar elements between languages such as cognates is enough to encourage CLI.

All these findings support Ringbom's classification of transfer (2002, in De Angelis, 2007, pp. 24-25), which may occur on a global, item, or system level. The first kind of transfer, *global*, refers to when two languages are similar on a global level and share almost everything: from alphabet to pronunciation to grammar to cognates. The second, *item transfer*, is a result of the assumption that words that share the same form share the same definition, which is not always the case, as in false friends. According to the author, this generally occurs when the L3 is in the initial stage of learning. The third, *system transfer*, occurs when a learner identifies the semblance between languages based on meaning. Examples of these may be semantic extension, when the meaning of a word like

the Spanish "mesa" is used to refer to a chart, a "tabla," for the simple reason that the English word "table" is used to refer to both "mesa" and "tabla" (De Angelis, 2007, p. 85) These categories will have implications on the factor of SL proficiency, which will be discussed in Section 1.3.2.3 (Factors related to cumulative language experience and knowledge).

It is important to underscore, however, that crosslinguistic similarity does not lead to the activation of just one SL, as demonstrated by the studies discussed in the preceding sections of this chapter and as established by other nonlocal research (e.g., Williams & Hammarberg, 1998; Muñoz, 2007; De Angelis & Selinker, 2001). In all studies done on Filipino learners of Spanish FL, English may be the main SL, but the Filipino and Cebuano L1s still contributed to carrying out compensatory strategies for vocabulary deficiency, however sporadically (e.g., Morta 2005; Nogra & Rodriguez, 2013; Sánchez, 2010; Sibayan, 2011). Likewise, they were observed to influence production of grammatical structures in the Spanish IL (e.g., Madamba, 2012; Morta, 2005; Sibayan, 2011). Even in the case of the Filipino subject who had been living in Spain for nine years, her English L1 and Filipino L3 still worked together in influencing her Spanish L4 production (Salazar, 2007). Regardless of the number of known languages influencing the Spanish IL of the informants, whether for the good or for the bad, the relevance of this present research is to discover the extent to which these SLs affect the production of non target-like

forms and the success rate of the repairs of said errors, a propos to their level of proficiency in the Spanish TL and the level of proficiency of their SLs.

Area of language acquisition and use was discussed in detail in Section 1.3.1 Transferrable linguistic elements among languages) and is considered another factor as studies have shown that certain areas promote transfer more than others. Forward transfer, for example, is most occurring in the phonological, lexical, semantic, discursive, and pragmatic levels; followed by orthographic and morphological levels, and least in the syntactic level. Needless to say that transfer is evident in production of the TL in all language levels, though intimately interlaced with other factors, such as "the degree of crosslinguistic similarity between languages and the L2 proficiency of L2 users in question" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 183).

The *frequency* of a certain feature has been found to contribute to CLI, as previous studies show (e.g., Andersen, 1983; Selinker, 1969; Poulisse, 1999). While highly frequent features in the L1 are most likely to appear as transfers in production, highly frequent features in the TL are most likely to become easily integrated into the learner's IL (Andersen, 1983). Words like "and" or "but" are words that normally get accidentally inserted when producing in the TL, as shown in Poulisse's (1999) study of Dutch speakers' slips of the tongue in speaking L2 English, for which he attributes to the automaticity of their that is difficult to suppress when expressing themselves in the TL. The same is hypothesized about the *saliency* of a language feature. The more noticeable it is,

the better are its chances of either getting transferred or being learned (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 185).

Recency in the literature may refer to either *recency of use* (e.g., Hammarberg & Hammarberg, 1993, De Angelis, 2007) or *recency of acquisition* (e.g., Dewaele, 1998), as in order of acquisition in relation to the learner's other languages. It has been identified as a factor of CLI as early as in the 60s (Vildomec, 1963) whose effects have been examined in more recent studies (e.g., Dewaele, 1998). This, in fact, may be backed up by anecdotal evidence from one of the informants of the present study, a B1 learner of Spanish and French FL, who complains of his French getting in the way when he speaks in Spanish class:

(1-1) *MIG: &much&mucho de tiempo hablo más en francés que en español .
*MIG: no sé &p&por [/] pourquoi [//] por qué !
%com: risas

He later admitted to having French scheduled right before his Spanish class.

Markedness and prototypicality both relate to "the degree to which a form, feature, or structure is marked, special, atypical, or language-specific versus being unmarked, basic prototypical, or universal" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 186). While *markedness* refers to the factual uniqueness of a certain feature to a language in relation to the general features of other languages, *prototypicality* refers to the perceived specificity of a certain structure or meaning

to a language. Both make it difficult for a learner to incorporate such feature, structure, or meaning, into his IL (Anderson, 1987; Eckman, 1977, in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 186).

The few studies that have explored *linguistic context* as a factor of CLI do confirm its effects on transfer, especially in the level of semantics. Dickerson (1975, in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 189), for example, showed that context influences not only the variety of language that the speaker uses, but also the manner and frequency in which transfer becomes apparent.

For *passiveness and activeness of L2s* Mägiste's (1984, 1986) work is essential. He had three groups of English L3 learners answer a reading and listening test in the TL. He found that migrant Finns in Sweden who only spoke Swedish at home were outperformed by receptive bilingual Finns who understood Finnish but preferred to communicate in Swedish. Likewise, this receptive bilingual group outperformed those bilingual Finns who actively used both Finnish L1 and Swedish L2 at home. This led him to conclude that "passive bilingualism facilitates L3 learning while active bilingualism might delay the acquisition process.

1.3.2.2 Cognitive, attentional, and developmental factors

While the first set of factors concerns features particular to the language, the next set concerns a language learner's aptitude and awareness during language use. It involves the learner's "level of cognitive and conceptual

maturity at the time of language acquisition and use, the natural and universal principles of cognitive and linguistic development that govern how a person processes and stores new knowledge about language, and the special cognitive abilities that individuals possess to acquire a language" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 190). These are: (1) level of cognitive maturity, (2) developmental and universal processes of language acquisition, (3) cognitive language learning abilities, and (4) attention to and awareness of language.

Level of cognitive maturity particularly refers to the sophistication of a person's cognition and conceptualization in physical age. An example is Jarvis' (1998) work on grade five and grade nine learners. The more adult group was more articulate in their L2 word choice as an influence of their L1 semantic makeup, e.g., "collide" as against "hit", and "pick" in contrast to "take". "People who are at different levels of cognitive maturity simply do not produce the same patterns of words or structures, and thus any transfer patterns they show will naturally differ qualitatively" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 191).

Developmental and universal processes of language acquisition refer to the acquisitional stages and the inevitable processes that all language learners go through. An observed effect of acquisitional stages is its facilitative influence on transfer, specifically when a certain linguistic feature is ready to be learned by the NNS (e.g., Andersen, 1983), hence promoting a faster rate of acquisition of the TL. There are some reported cases of learners skipping a stage if the L1 is close enough to the TL (e.g., R. Ellis, 1994, pp. 332-334; Master, 1987, in Jarvis

& Pavlenko, 2010, p. 192). A general tendency whose effects are likewise dependent on the L1 is *overgeneralization*, the overuse of a particular linguistic structure, which can be observed in terms of frequency and manner (e.g., R. Ellis, 1994). Another tendency that can be considered more universal is *simplification*, which occurs when the learner omits linguistic elements in production, often function words such as inflectional affixes, articles, and prepositions (e.g., Jarvis, 2002; Jarvis & Odlin, 2000, in Jarvis & Odlin, 2010, p. 192).

A learner's individual *cognitive language learning abilities* are also believed to affect interaction between languages, depending on his capacity to find and analyze patterns, mimic sounds, remember (e.g., Carroll, 1962; Skehan, 1989), and control attentional resources (e.g., Kormos, 1999). For example, a NNS with excellent understanding of TL grammar can be expected to rely less on his known languages in both comprehending and producing the TL (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 193).

Intimately related to the previous subgroup of factors is *attention to and awareness of language.* Under this subgroup, Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010) include conscious control of language use and metacognitive and metalinguistic analysis of language. Awareness of language has been equated to metalinguistic awareness, or the unconscious and conscious knowledge of one's spoken languages (Odlin, 1989, in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 140). In the present study we refer to this as implicit and explicit knowledge, which will be further

discussed in Section 2.3. Since we consider both attention and awareness as pertaining to explicit knowledge, here we adopt Jarvis and Pavlenko's (2010) definition, where attention is synonymous to "exert[ing] *conscious* control over their language production to help them monitor and regulate their language production and interaction" (p. 194, emphasis added). Though opposing views exist in the literature, the factor of monitorization has been identified to interplay with environment. While some claim that certain contexts encourage negative transfer with a less relaxed use of the TL than others (e.g., Odlin, 1989; Kasper, 1997; Jarvis, 2000, 2006; Sibayan, 2011), some posit otherwise (e.g., Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982; Tarone, 1982).

1.3.2.3 Factors related to cumulative language experience and knowledge

While the first category of factors is specific to the nature of the languages involved, the second and third categories are particular to those of the language learner. To differentiate, the second category only concerns the thinking abilities of the learner, while the third includes his life experiences, especially those related to language knowledge, learning, and use. These are: (1) age, (2) length, frequency, and intensity of language exposure, (3) length of residence in the country where the language is spoken, (4) general level of proficiency, (5) number and order of acquired languages, (6) psychological attachment to known languages, and (7) association to foreignness.

Age has been proven to affect phonological CLI since the 90s, and has been explored from different angles: aging, age of acquisition, and age at task (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 197). In Section 1.3.1.1 (On the level of phonetics and phonology), age was identified the primary factor to affect forward transfer, in that older learners transfer Ll phonology to the TL more evidently in comparison to younger ones (e.g., Muñoz, 2006; Singleton & Ryan, 2004).

Length of language exposure often refers to the NNS's formal linguistic instruction in terms of years (e.g., Jarvis, 2000), while *frequency and intensity of language exposure* usually refer to the number of hours of language instruction received in a day or in a week (e.g., Kecskes & Papp, 2000) or the total amount of hours of being exposed to the TL (e.g., Cenoz, 2001) (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p.199). Findings appear inconclusive, although researchers seem to prove that forward transfer in the lexical level is curvilinear, initially increasing to a certain point then decreasing, a result also seen in Morta's (2005) study of Filipino university students learning Spanish.

Most anecdotal evidence implies that the *length of residence* of NNS in an environment where the TL is spoken lessens CLI, causing many learners to believe in the effectiveness of language immersion programs, without noting that it is not residence per se that improves one's TL skills, but rather quality interaction with its speakers (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 200). A notable empirical study is that of Guion et al. (2000) of Italian and Korean immigrants

to the United States where he found that the longer the length of their residence, the shorter and more native-like their English L2 sentences became.

Proficiency in both the SL and TL undoubtedly affects the nature of CLI in the production of the TL (De Angelis, 2007; Odlin & Jarvis, 2004), a variable of interest in the present research. The few existing studies on SL proficiency suggest that one to two years of formal instruction may already affect TL production. This might need validation, as there are no known experimental studies on SL proficiency as a variable to date (De Angelis, 2007, p. 34). Hence, learners might need not be very proficient in their other languages for these languages to affect the production and development of an IL of a TL to a significant extent. A seminal study on the matter is Ringbom's (1987) whose findings shed light on the kind of transfer that occurs when the SL proficiency is low and when it is higher. He analyzed 11,000 essays written by two groups of English FL learners: The first group spoke L1 Finnish and L2 Swedish, while the second group spoke L1 Swedish and Finnish L2. Swedish, being formally more similar to English than Finnish, was the preferred SL of the two groups. However, transfer patterns differed greatly. When Swedish was the L1, they did not show reliance on their Finnish L2. The Swedish L1 was the preferred lexical source to overcome vocabulary deficiencies in the English FL. These transfers were in the form of calques and use of false cognates, which showed transfer of meaning. In contrast, when Finnish was the L1, the transfers still came from the Swedish L2, though in the form of phonetically adapted coined words and

complete borrowings, which showed transfer of form. As such, these findings led Ringbom to believe that transfer of meaning can only occur from languages the speakers know well. When no transfer of meaning is involved, transfer becomes a more superficial phenomenon and learners' errors are best viewed as forms of borrowing (De Angelis, 2007, p. 42) Transfer of meaning is mainly restricted to the most fluent language, hence the L1 or the non-native languages the speaker knows well.

With respect to TL proficiency, Odlin (1989) explains that CLI occurs in varying degrees: "some types of transfer indeed occur at the early stages of acquisition[;] others do not." Beginners tend to transfer negatively as evidenced in production tasks, "since this is a general strategy to fill knowledge gaps in the TL (Odlin, 1989)." However, this does not mean that CLI declines as proficiency in the TL progresses. "Different types of transfer can occur at early or advanced stages of acquisition and are likely to differ as learners' needs are different and their underlying competence is different. Transfer cannot be safely assumed to decline as proficiency in the TL grows, not at least until an individual has reached a very high level of proficiency and automaticity in the TL" (De Angelis, 2007, p. 33). Morta (2005), for instance, speaks of the U-shaped curve of language acquisition to explain for the rise-fall-rise pattern of some of the error production of the three proficiency groups of Spanish FL Filipino learners

that she observed[12]. This phenomenon, though not exclusive to IL transfer,[13] undoubtedly supports the claim of many TLA researchers who maintain that transfer is not guaranteed to decline as the TL proficiency improves (De Angelis, 2007; Odlin, 1989; Ringbom, 1987, 2001). As this present study aims to shed light on how TL proficiency affects CLI in the form of the production of non target-like forms and their repairs, it hopes to contribute to the incipient number of researches on this aspect of TLA.

In conclusion, language proficiency appears to have as much influence on CLI as language distance, which makes it interesting to discover if one has more bearing than the other in error-repair phenomena.

Quite a few have looked into *order of acquisition* (e.g., Dewaele, 1998; Hammarberg, 2001; Williams & Hammarberg, 1998), and how it is "connected to the type of associations that can be established between two or more languages in the mind, and consequently the amount of CLI (De Angelis 2007, p.39). Albeit scarce, these studies have established such relationship. With regards the *number of acquired languages*, the situation is similar. The few studies that exist in the literature show that learners who know more than two languages transfer from these languages, either once at a time or simultaneously,

[12] The median of incorrect preposition use, for example was computed as follows: 2.26 (beginners), 1.58 (intermediate), 1.74 (advanced).
[13] It is relevant to mention that she created the category "other errors" for interferences and other errors that she couldn't quite put in a single box. However, for convenience and for the purpose of illustration, the errors in Morta's study are overgeneralized as transfer to show the non-linear trajectory that CLI goes through, since the origin of such errors were identified in the discussion of the results as coming from Filipino and English, in general.

depending on other factors present (e.g., Dewaele, 1998; Odlin & Jarvis, 2004). Its effects are found to affect TL acquisition as well. Jessner (2006) suggests that "learning of additional languages beyond the L1 leads to accelerated rates of acquisition for subsequent languages [such] that metalinguistic awareness […] increases learners' conscious searches for CL similarities, enhances their receptive strategies for inferring word meaning, increases the frequency with which they rely on their knowledge of other languages" (in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 205).

Exposure to a non-native language environment varies from length of language exposure such that the former environment may not necessarily be the environment where the TL is spoken. The mere exposure to another non-native language is, in itself, contributory to the linguistic knowledge of a person (e.g. Fouser, 2001, in De Angelis, 2007, p. 37).

Another strong factor that has not received much attention in TLA is *psychological attachment to known languages* (e.g., Hoffmann, 2001), which can explain for the importance a person gives to each of his languages.

Last on the list of identified factors related to cumulative language experience and knowledge is *association of foreignness* (e.g., Williams & Hammerberg, 1998), the manner in which the speaker-learners classify their known languages according to how they learned them. Since the learning of non-native languages asks for conscious metacognition and the employment of

language learning strategies—only two of the many demands that are not present in learning the L1, the experience of learning a previous FL is then replicated when learning another.

1.3.2.4 Factors related to the learning environment

Mentioned in Section 1.3.2.2 (Cognitive, attentional, and developmental factors) is the relevance of the *learning environment* to manifestations of CLI phenomena. In both formal and informal contexts it has been found that transfer occurs, although differently. "In the classroom context, learners are more likely to make conscious comparisons between the SL and TL, engage their explicit memory, and make use of conscious monitoring. These strategies and processes may help them avoid certain types of negative transfer, such as transfer-related word-order and pragmatic errors" (e.g., Kasper, 1997; Odlin, 1990, in Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 206). The classroom context has also been identified to affect FL learning, with some researchers even daring to claim that fossilization of errors is less likely to occur in the case of L2 learners who acquire the TL in a more formal setting because it stimulates constant vigilance of one's own TL knowledge, which results in the continuous reconfiguration of his IL (Lin, 1992). On the other hand, in a naturalistic context, where the TL is being acquired in an environment where it is spoken natively and the focus is predominantly on meaning and communication, the new words, structures, and conceptual distinctions, and ways of expressing events and relationships that they experience will predominantly engage their knowledge implicitly (Jarvis &

Pavlenko, 2010, p. 206). What classroom learners have accurate explicit knowledge of, linguistically immersed learners might only acquire implicitly, which may lead to negative transfer.

1.3.2.5 Factors related to language use

The last group of variables is related to how the TL is used. It includes (1) idiolect, (2) level of formality, (3) interlocutor, and (4) task type. *Idiolect* refers to the idiosyncratic composition of each person's lexicon and other means of self-expression. Since a language learner can only transfer to the TL what he knows in his SLs, a claim similar to the study made on cognitive maturity (Jarvis, 1998), "a person's idiosyncratic use of SL will be mirrored by a certain level of idiosyncrasy in the use of the TL" (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 208) (e.g., Odlin, 1989; Jarvis, 2000). *Level of formality* is similar to language environment. According to Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010), it is not safe to say that less transfer occurs in more formal contexts, although it has been found that anxiety in the classroom setting tends to cause learners to monitor their TL production much more than in a more relaxed environment (p. 208) (e.g., Dewaele, 2001). Aside from the environment, the *effect of the interlocutor* (e.g., Williams & Hammarberg, 1998) can likewise trigger CLI. The knowledge, on the part of the learner, of sharing with his interlocutor a language other than the TL might cause its activation. Lastly, the *type of task* a language learner has to deal with has been proven to give rise to different behaviors of CLI. Acceptability judgment tasks and elicited language production, for example, require different language skills

and hence draw on different types of knowledge (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010, p. 209).

1.4 Conclusion

In this chapter we clarified the concepts relevant to our study, drawing the line between SL and FL learning, as well as between second language and additional language acquisition. We have likewise established the relevance of errors in the form of CLI and detailed the language levels where these nontarget forms can be observed, which are: phonetics and phonology, morphology, syntax, lexicon and semantics, discourse, pragmatics, and sociolinguisitics, heavily drawing on known related literature of studies carried out with Filipino learners of Spanish. Lastly, we explained the factors that trigger them, providing special focus on the variables of interest to the present research, namely crosslinguistic similarity and general level of proficiency. As this chapter is dedicated to the understanding of errors and their role in the interlanguage, the following chapter deals with explaining their repairs.

2
THE CONFIGURATION AND RECONFIGURATION OF INTERLANGUAGE

2.1 Student Errors and Teacher Feedback in FL Learning

Since the 70s, errors have been a widely studied phenomenon in TLA owing to Corder's (1967) seminal work on them, which exposed their relevance in the configuration of the learners' developing linguistic system. Aside from the fact that committing errors is an integral part of any kind of learning, errors shed light on the state of the learning process. For example, a decline in errors made by a student may be an indication of mastery of a skill (Schmidt & Bjork, 1992). Similarly, the quality or type of error informs the student, the teacher, and researchers of what the student has knowledge of but has not fully learned, as in the case of FL learners (Corder, 1967). In any case, regardless of the "beauty" of errors, the general desire of overcoming them on the part of the learner persists.

For this Hendrickson (1978, p. 389) posed five key questions that have served as points of departure for various Error Analysis (EA) research for the

past forty decades: if learner errors should be corrected, when they should they be corrected, which ones, how, and by whom. In this dissertation we do not argue if errors must be corrected or not, although it is perhaps important to mention that the frameworks we adopt come from linguists who advocate error correction by good language models, such as the language teacher. These frameworks focus on provision of immediate correction of errors made on the traditional language levels, i.e., phonetic-phonological, morphological, syntactic, and lexical-semantic. We likewise touch on the *how* question in Section 2.4.1 (Teacher Corrective Feedback), out of need to distinguish the type of student repair of interest in this present work.

Joining errors on center stage in TLA research is feedback, which can be classified into two: those that focus on feedback per se (e.g., Carroll, Roberge & Swain, 1992; Lyster & Ranta, 1997) and those that examine its effects (e.g., De Keyser, 1993). Those who research on the effects of feedback debate on which type is most beneficial for the learners—implicit or explicit (e.g., Long, 2007), delayed or immediate (e.g., Schmidt, Young, Swinnen & Shapiro, 1989). Researchers worry that if feedback is made too explicit or specific, the students are denied of the opportunity to analyze and diagnose their error, and are kept from noticing the gap in their knowledge (Goodman & Wood, 2004; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Regarding immediacy of feedback, as it may resemble spoon feeding, researchers are likewise concerned that the learners are trained to be dependent on the consistent guidance provided (Schmidt, Young, Swinnen &

Shapiro, 1989), claiming that "delayed feedback allows for alternative processing that contributes to better performance at transfer" (Guzmán-Muñoz, 2009, p. 63). Evidently, these linguists endorse the kind of feedback that allows the students to consciously process information (e.g., Bjork, 1994). Conscious processing of information is intimately linked with explicit learning (Stadler, 1997), where students explore the language and discover language rules by making errors and confirming their hypotheses (Dorman & Frese, 1994), therefore developing metacognition in the process (Keith and Frese, 2005). In other words, explicit learning occurs when students learn from their mistakes.

Maxwell, Masters, Kerr, and Weedon (2001) go as far as claiming that errors are not merely inevitable but indispensable for learning rules. They formed two groups of adults learning golf and put each under errorless and errorful conditions, postulating that the errorless group who would have no need to either process or analyze will gain implicit knowledge of the tasks, while the errorful group who would have to deal with mistakes would gain declarative knowledge engage as a result of explicit processing. When made to do a simultaneous task, the errorless group outperformed the errorful group in that having implicit knowledge of the task spared them from having to effortfully draw from their attentional resources while being engaged in another activity. However, they did not have knowledge of rules, in contrast to the errorful group, who developed an explicit knowledge of them as a result of learning from errors. Guzmán-Muñoz (2009) relates the coexistence of implicit and explicit learning

to learning a new language. While learning a language in children is by and large exclusively implicit, in adults, language learning draws on implicit and explicit processes (N. Ellis, 2005; Hulstijn & Ellis, 2005; Krashen, 1981, in Guzmán-Muñoz, 2009, p. 66).

From these two types of knowledge stems the classic distinction between *acquisition* and *learning* as proposed by Krashen (1981), where acquisition is unconscious and implicit, and learning is conscious and explicit. He believed that language learning could only take place when acquired through comprehensible input, as explicit knowledge of grammar and rules were only useful in exercises and drills, since such knowledge did not reflect in real-life communication where processing is spontaneous, leaving the speaker no time to monitor the accuracy of his production. Though Krashen may not be completely incorrect in his claim as proven by the golf experiment carried out by Maxwell, Masters, Kerr, and Weedon (2001), neither was he completely right in asserting that SLA only advanced through implicit learning.

As likewise demonstrated by Maxwell, Masters, Kerr, and Weedon (2001), rules are internalized only through explicit processing, an operation in language learning advocated by Schmidt (1990), who insists that for an FL to be acquired, conscious awareness is needed. He explains that a first step before rules become part of a learner's implicit knowledge is noticing. Noticing involves alertness and attention as it is not limited to passive perception but also active reaction to a stimulus. Eventually, the explicit knowledge of rules will require

less conscious processing through proceduralization. Schmidt distinguishes input from *intake*—that which the learner notices from the input. He explains that as an FL learner himself, he observed that his production was largely comprised of input he had previously noticed. Hence, although comprehensible input and focus on meaning are both essential in FLL, alone they do not suffice. These must be complemented with constant encouragement to *focus on form*, to pay attention to the formal aspects of the language as well (Schmidt, 1990; Skehan, 2003, in Guzmán-Muñoz, 2009, p. 67).

In line with Krashen's and Schmidt's claims are SLA theories that distinguish implicit and explicit language learning, which are the exemplar-based models and rule-based models, respectively. Results of various studies suggest that the accumulation of linguistic samples—conforming to Krashen's comprehensible input—results in implicit processing. On the other hand, hypothesis testing and rule development—conforming to Schmidt's focus on form—result in explicit processing (Mathews et al., 1989; Neal & Hesketh, 1997; Stadler, 1997). In other words, "procedural memory is characterized as memory for items whereas declarative memory stores relations" (Eichenbaum & Cohen, 2001; in Guzmán-Muñoz, 2009, p. 69). In *exemplar-based models*, samples are stored in the memory into categories and are retrieved depending on their similarity to the stimulus. Retrieval, hence, draws on generalization and intuition, requiring very little analysis, if any. In contrast, *rule-based models* require conscious deliberation of learned rules and constant intentional probing of

formulated hypotheses (Hesketh, 1997).

There exists a widely accepted belief that SLA requires both implicit and explicit processing, or declarative and procedural knowledge (e.g., Cohen et al., 1997; Hesketh, 1997; Guzmán-Muñoz, 2009; Neal & Hesketh, 1997; Stadler, 1997). Ullman's (2001) proposal is an example, where she assigns lexical-semantic learning as implicit/declarative and learning of complex morphological and syntactic rules as explicit/procedural. Skehan (1998), had proposed a similar theory earlier on, explaining that though both systems function in parallel, one system becomes more activated than the other, depending on the situation. In conversing, for example, the exemplar-based system is primarily activated for its intuitive nature. Examples are retrieved in word chunks; it does not call for effortful analysis and hence allows speed and fluency. In this system where examples are kept in the form of words and phrases, errors could be also stored as an example. On the other hand, the rule-based system involves analysis. For being comprised of organized rules, it could be more accommodating to new information received in the form of errors and feedback. Although general discussions of these systems do not include the production of errors, Skehan accounts for their detection through explicit processing in the rule-based system. It can therefore be said that error production may or may not occur unconsciously, but feedback relevant to its correction as well as the attempt to repair them are essentially conscious and explicit. We hence further argue that while error production is a result of both

implicit and explicit knowledge, feedback noticing and error correction are largely from explicit knowledge. These two knowledge types comprise a learner's ever-evolving IL.

The long tradition of EA research has led us to three important findings: that errors are not always caused by CLI, that they are systematic, and that they are accurate albeit incomplete representations of the language learner's developing linguistic knowledge. Many descriptive studies, specifically of morpheme acquisition, have shown that such development follows a natural sequence very similar to that of L1 learners that formal instruction cannot alter. However, evidence does show that students who learn in the classroom progress faster and have a higher level of accuracy (e.g., Long, 1983; Krashen, 1985; Swain, 1985; Pica, 1992), lending credence to Schmidt's (1990) call for focus on form.

To demonstrate that errors are not always attributable to interference, EA researchers (e.g., Richards, 1971; Schacter & Cecle-Murcia, 1977; Dulay & Burt, 1974) proposed some influential taxonomies. Of the more popular ones was Richards' (1971), where he identified "three psycholinguistic causes: *interference errors*, attributed to the influence of one's L1, *intralingual errors*, resulting from ignorance or inaccurate application of rules, and, finally, *developmental errors*, attributable to the inconsistencies of the developing system" (Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2010, p. 29). R. Ellis (2008), following Richards' lead, states that interference errors are mostly produced by beginners, while intralingual errors

occur much more in the speech of advanced learners. In this dissertation, though error taxonomies are not classified according to their psycholinguistic origins, the categories we have adopted do illustrate which ones are a result of interference, interlanguage, and development, all of which are necessary to obtain a more holistic description of the pseudo longitudinal data of the Filipino subjects' Spanish IL.

2.2 Theories on FL Learning

In the previous section it was discussed how fluency and accuracy are developed in language learning through implicit and explicit processes, respectively. It was also mentioned that noticing of errors and feedback forms part of explicit processing, and that pedagogic intervention that encourages learners to focus on linguistic form is vital in the training of language (e.g. R.Ellis 1993, 2006; Van Patten 2004). In this section we aim to shed light on theories pertinent to the understanding of how attention figures in noticing errors that lead to self-repair, as well as the relevance of error noticing and repair in the configuration and reconfiguration of the IL. These are Selinker's Interlanguage Theory (1972), Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis (1990, 2001), Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985), Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1996), and DeKeyser's Skill Acquisition Theory (1998).

2.2.1 Interlanguage Theory

The Interlanguage Theory (Selinker, 1972) was an attempt to respond to the shortcomings of EA research, where learner language is better represented by considering not only what learners do wrong but also what they do right, what structures they overgeneralize and avoid, and many other FL developmental patterns and phenomena. The objective of IL research is to understand the processes involved in its formation and transformation, and the existing literature has identified cognition as a primary factor. Processes such as CLI, overgeneralization, simplification, transfer of instruction, application of communication strategies, and application of L2 learning comprise its formation (Selinker, 1972; R. Ellis, 1994), while hypothesis formation and testing result in its transformation (Selinker, 1972). When his output does not cause negative feedback, his hypothesis is confirmed. Otherwise, the learner may attempt to revise his hypothesis by reformulating his initial utterance (Guzmán-Muñoz, 2009, pp. 59-60).

This learner language is considered a combination of elements of the speaker's L1, TL, and neither (Gass & Selinker, 2001, p. 12). It has been called many names, each label emphasizing a specific characteristic. Corder (1971) referred to it as *idiosyncratic dialect*, highlighting that it is a language unique to each learner, while Nemser (1971) called it *approximative system*, stressing on the fact that it develops in a way that it eventually approximates the TL. Finally, Selinker (1972) called it *interlanguage*, stressing its distinctive character, "(...) a

structurally intermediate status between the native and target languages" (Brown, 2000, p. 215). "The IL is systematic because learners build their utterances relying on the rules they have already internalized" (Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2010, p. 60). Although it is distinct to each individual up to a certain degree, its evolution follows a certain path that all language learners tread on, a characteristic that allows for pseudolongitudinal analysis. It has its own grammar rules, unique due to the confluence of those rules that had already been internalized and those rules that are to be acquired from TL exposure, a confluence which causes the IL to undergo continuous reconfiguration. This reconfiguration is "a process of complexification, which is a gradual sophistication that approximates that of the TL" (Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2010, p. 60). However, its final state remains controversial (e.g., Cook, 2002a). While it is generally agreed on that it never reaches native competence, some claim that it reaches a point of *fossilization*—when errors become preserved in the IL and can no longer be eradicated (Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2010, p. 61), while others talk about *backsliding*—when supposedly eliminated errors reappear in production (Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2010, p. 60). Researchers therefore call for provision of meaningful communicative practice (e.g., de Bot, 1996; Muranoi, 2007) that involve both implicit and explicit processing and allow for ample creative production and feedback reception to promote not only fluency and accuracy, but also and a more approximate knowledge of the TL.

2.2.2 Noticing Hypothesis

The Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 2001), claims that learning cannot take place without intention, metalinguistic knowledge, and awareness, stating that "SLA is largely driven by what learners pay attention to and notice in target language input and what they understand of the significance of noticed input to be" (Schmidt, 2001, p. 4). Schmidt explains that through noticing, acknowledged input is integrated into the IL and becomes *intake.* Likewise, through noticing, learners compare input with their existing knowledge of the TL (*noticing a gap* (Schmidt and Frota, 1986)), or even realize insufficiency in their linguistic knowledge (*noticing a hole*), therefore resulting in the restructuring of the IL. Hence, to promote learning, he calls for the provision of conditions where students are given ample opportunities to notice gaps or holes in their current knowledge of the TL and turn input into intake. He further explains that input becomes intake when the learner is able to explain the linguistic information that he had just acquired, which is a very explicit cognitive process.

Despite criticisms of the Noticing Hypothesis (e.g., Tomlin & Vila, 1994; Carroll, 1999; Truscott, 1998) many researchers recognize its merits and agree that noticing essential in learning (e.g., Long & Robinson, 1998; Robinson, 2003).

2.2.3 Output Hypothesis

The Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985), a parallel concept to the Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982, 1985), was proposed as a criticism of it. In Swain's (1985) study on linguistic immersion programs of Canadian French, she observed that although the students received ample amounts of *comprehensible input* (Krashen, 1982), they still struggled in expressing themselves in French, as demonstrated by their low scores in the tests. For her, this was an indication that adequate reception of input is not enough to learn a language, as language learning itself inherently involves production. She pointed out that the students were not pushed enough in producing the TL and from these results, she claimed that the students must be forced to express themselves accurately to extend their linguistic repertoire. The output that they shall produce, hence, goes a step further than the initial utterance. For this phenomenon, Swain coined the term *comprehensible output* (1985, 1998, 2005).

She further identifies three functions of production or output in language learning: (1) the noticing/triggering function, (2) the hypothesis testing function, and (3) the metalinguistic/reflective function. The *noticing/triggering function* of output is similar to Schmidt and Frota's (1986) noticing the gap, which is performed when students speak or write and realize they are unable to articulate themselves in the TL. In comprehension, grammar is broken down and decoded. By contrast, in production, grammar is integrated and encoded into the learner's existing form-meaning relations, leading to their restructuration.

The second function, *hypothesis testing*, is fulfilled whenever a learner's hypothesis is confirmed via positive feedback (e.g., no breakdown in communication) or challenged via negative feedback (e.g., clarification request). In case of communication breakdown, the language learner modifies his original utterance to produce a hopefully more understandable one, prompting him to try out another hypothesis and reorganize his IL. The modified output, also known as comprehensible output and pushed output, are considered prompted self-repairs in the current study. Third, production carries out its *metalinguistic/reflective function* when the learner uses the TL to analyze and reflect on his own output as well as that of his peers. This is made possible in the context of the classroom, where language learning is both the object and the product of relations of form and meaning (van Lier, 2000).

2.2.4 Interaction Hypothesis

A synthesis of Krashen's Input Hypothesis (1982, 1985) and Swain's Output Hypothesis (1985, 1998, 2005), the Interaction Hypothesis (1996) postulates that interacting with an NS or a more competent speaker of the TL brings about adjusted input. As the more proficient speaker and the language learner interact, they constantly adjust their utterances to negotiate for meaning. Interaction, hence, allows the learner to "connect input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (Long, 1996, p. 451f). Aside from modified input which bridges old and new information, the Interaction Hypothesis highlights the role of feedback, both

positive and negative, in the form of overt corrections, metalinguistic comments, "confirmation checks, clarification requests, comprehension checks or recasts, all of which increase the relative saliency of problematic features and provide additional opportunities for their comprehension and production" (Guzmán-Muñoz, 2009, p. 84). If and when the learner interprets feedback as an opportunity to improve his original utterance, he identifies the source of the problem and attempts produce a modified output, rejecting an existing hypothesis in his IL and forming a new one in the process. These instances of self-reflection or *language-related episodes* as Leeser (2004) calls them, are "instances in which learners may (a) question the meaning of a linguistic item; (b) question the correctness of the spelling/pronunciation of a word; (c) question the correctness of a grammatical form; or (d) implicitly or explicitly correct their own or another's usage of a word, form or structure" (p. 56). All throughout the conversation—through continuous exchange of modified input, positive and negative feedback, output and pushed output, the learner constantly receives "information concerning the linguistic and communicative success or failure of [his] production" (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p. 178). Production, as viewed by the sample-based and rule-based models, as well as the Interlanguage Theory, Noticing Hypothesis, Output Hypothesis, and Interaction Hypothesis, not only results in the learning, relearning and unlearning of rules and the restructuration of the IL. It also contributes to building automaticity and fluency.

The Interaction Hypothesis may appear to be a concept that hinges on

other hypotheses, but its relevance may be viewed the other way around. As Pica (1998, p. 10) comments, "as a perspective on language learning, [the Interaction Hypothesis] holds none of the predictive weight of an individual theory. Instead, it lends its weight to any number of theories".

2.2.5 Skill Acquisition Theory

Though not a theory exclusively used in language learning, the Skill Acquisition Theory, which is normally used to account for the development of cognitive and psychomotor skills, can be adopted to explain the transformation of declarative, explicit knowledge into procedural, implicit knowledge through repeated practice that eventually results in effortless and proficient behavior. It is a theory that attempts to reconcile implicit and explicit knowledge, which have been considered separate in the previous sections.

Advocates of production practice (e.g., de Bot, 1996; DeKeyser, 1998; Muranoi, 2007) maintain that through ample opportunities to creatively use the TL in communicative tasks, the declarative knowledge of the learner, which is accessed through explicit processing, becomes procedural knowledge, leading to effortless implicit processing, observable in the form of language fluency or *automatic procedural skill* (DeKeyser, 1998). The repeated retrieval of items and of rules during production practice results in redundancy, making the said items and rules easily accessible, forming an ideal language-like behavior. In contrast to creative production made available in interaction, drills and other mechanical

exercises merely draw on declarative knowledge and do not become converted into procedural knowledge, as they can be accomplished by mindlessly attending to form without considering meaning.

The position of declarative knowledge evolving into procedural knowledge is supported by many researchers. For this development they have proposed three stages. Fitts and Posner (1967) identified them as *cognitive*, *associative* and *autonomous*; while Anderson (1983, 1995) called them *declarative*, *procedural* and *automatic*; and for Byrne (1986) they are *presentation, practice* and *production* (in Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2010, p. 78). As with all nomenclature, the names of the stages emphasize and deal with different aspects of the said evolution: different knowledge types, behavior, and its application. To cover for all three processes Johnson (1996) proposed the term of *proceduralization.* Complementary to this concept, he also coined *declarativization*, which refers to how it contributes to the development of explicit knowledge. With a recapitulation of the discussion on implicit and explicit processing in Section 2.1 (Student Errors and Teacher Feedback in FL Learning), the concepts of proceduralization of explicit knowledge to implicit and the declarativization of implicit to explicit knowledge are discussed in the following section.

2.3 Implicit and Explicit Knowledge

The interdisciplinary nature of SLA permits it to adopt concepts that are rooted in the sciences such as cognitive psychology, where implicit and explicit

knowledge are originally studied. Their roles in language learning have called the attention of linguists, who have been examining them as entities that are separate as well as conjoining. "While some linguists perceive both kinds of knowledge as two distinct types of mental representation (e.g., Krashen 1981; N. Ellis 2003, 2005; Schwartz, 1993; Hulstijn, 2002; Paradis, 1994), others see them as a continuity (e.g., Schmidt, 1994; Sharwood-Smith, 1981; Johnson, 1996; DeKeyser, 1998, 2001)" (Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2010, p. 23). Mystkowska-Wiertelak (2010, pp. 23-24) provides a tripartite summary of the opposing views on the two knowledge types: (1) the non interface position, (2) the strong interface position, and (3) the weak interface position, where the first maintains that implicit and explicit knowledge are distinct, unrelated, and require different processing engagements (Krashen, 1981; Schwartz, 1993; Hulstijn, 2002; Paradis, 1994); while the last two subscribe to the idea that the two types interact up to a certain degree. From the stand of the *strong interface position*, through practice, explicit declarative knowledge transforms into implicit procedural knowledge, with the explicit drawing on the implicit (Sharwood-Smith, 1981; Johnson, 1996; DeKeyser, 1998, 2001). On the other hand, the *weak interface position* theorizes that explicit transforms into implicit, but with some restrictions. Some believe that this occurs through formal instruction, though only when the learner's developmental stage allows for such change (e.g., Pienemann, 1989). Others believe that this is motivated by making linguistic features salient so as to allow the learner to take notice of the form-meaning mappings (e.g., R. Ellis, 2005). Although it is not the objective of the present

study to prove whether these two systems follow a continuum or not, we discuss them in order to illustrate that they are two essential parts of a whole—the IL of the language learner—with one part generally explanatory for errors and the other responsible for their repairs.

Implicit knowledge has been viewed systematic by psychologists (e.g., Reber et. al., 1991) and linguists alike (e.g. Tarone, 1988), stating that "[a]lthough the knowledge constituting the implicit store may not be uniform with the desired target norm, it is much more structured than explicit knowledge" (in Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2010, p. 26). For possessing this character of systematicity, Tarone (1988) considers implicit knowledge and IL as one and the same. As errors have, since the 70s, been regarded as systematic (Corder, 1971), we posit that they form part of implicit knowledge and are, by and large, a result of implicit processing.

Explicit knowledge is defined by R. Ellis (2004) as "the declarative and often anomalous knowledge of the phonological, lexical, pragmatic and sociocritical features of [the TL] together with the metalanguage for labeling this knowledge. It is held consciously and is learnable and verbalizable. It is typically accessed through controlled processing when [language] learners experience some kind of difficulty in the use of the [TL]. Learners vary in depth and breadth of their explicit [TL] knowledge" (p. 245). This definition is in line with the claims of many other researchers (e.g., Ullman, 2001, 2005; Skehan, 1998, 2003; Eichenbaum & Cohen, 2001; Brooks, 1978; Hesketh, 1997;

Schmidt (1990), Maxwell, Masters, Kerr, & Weedon, 2001). He differentiates implicit and explicit knowledge based on seven characteristics: (1) awareness, (2) self-report, (3) type of knowledge, (4) systematicity, (5) accessibility, (6) use of L2 knowledge, and (7) learnability; with implicit being intuition-based and hence nonverbalizable, procedural, systematic, automatically accessible and used online, and learnable only before the "critical period"; while explicit being based on conscious awareness and can hence be verbalized, declarative, anomalous and inconsistent, accessed through controlled processing and when planning an utterance, and learnable at any age (R. Ellis, 2005, p. 151)

Although we mostly agree with the proposed definitions by Tarone (1988) and R. Ellis (2005), we argue that IL is comprised of, but not limited to, implicit knowledge, as it cannot be defined based on systematicity alone, considering Selinker's (1972) premise. This claim is in fact consistent with our argument that errors, essentially from implicit knowledge, "are accurate albeit incomplete representations of the language learner's developing linguistic knowledge," which is a statement we earlier articulated in Section 2.1 (Student Errors and Teacher Feedback in FL Learning). While the IL is governed by the the rules of the learner's internal grammar, its manifestations vary depending on context and use (Saville-Troike, 2006), and IL can only be characterized based on observable phenomena by analyzing the learners' correct and incorrect utterances, the linguistic forms they tend to avoid or overuse, their production of errors and their respective corrections, etc. Hence, despite IL

being systematic, it is also variable—opposing descriptions that linguists have reconciled to describe the uniqueness of IL. Tarone (1988) further claims that explicit knowledge "consists of often inaccurate assumptions about how language works rather than precise and comprehensive understanding of the way various rules operate" (in Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2010, p. 26). In this definition we question explicit knowledge alone consisting of "often inaccurate assumptions" as inaccuracy is not exclusive to explicit knowledge. Tarone (1988) herself states that "implicit store may not be uniform with the desired target norm" (in Mystkowska-Wiertelak, 2010, p. 26), an observation that implicit knowledge in itself is as inaccurate as explicit knowledge. Furthermore, IL is likewise dynamic, following a progression that has various developmental plateaus (Selinker, 1972). It is a progression that is a result of the restructuration of existing rules and the complexification of the internal grammar. Such reconfiguration of implicit knowledge cannot take place without the metalinguistic awareness and consciousness that explicit knowledge offers. Together, these two knowledge systems comprise IL and motivate its progress.

A well-known study on metalinguistic awareness is that of Jessner (2006), which examined the phenomenon in relation to multilingualism and language learning. She discovered a positive correlation between a learner's metalinguistic awareness and the number of languages he learns after his L1, as well as language learning facility. Since metalinguistic awareness draws on prior knowledge, an increase in number of known languages increases learners'

archive for conscious searches for crosslinguistic similarities and inferences of form-meaning mappings, which may result in accelerated acquisition (i.e., IL development) and more target-like production (i.e., accuracy). Thus, metalinguistic awareness affects a learner's linguistic performance depending on how much he monitors his language use and relies on both his implicit and explicit knowledge, on his IL. In turn, the extent of metalinguistic awareness is dictated by the limits of the learner's knowledge systems.

2.4 IL Limits as Represented by Comprehensible Output

As Jessner (2006) stated, metalinguistic awareness draws on prior knowledge. Similarly, conscious language monitoring requires reliance on cognizance. Self-monitorization is observable in many ways, one of which is interruptions in speech. Noteboom (1980), Levelt (1983), and Bredart (1991) carried out different studies on NS on the said phenomena and had the same observation: they only interrupted themselves when they produced an incorrect utterance. "This finding, as obvious and as simple as it may seem, is important; it reveals the extent to which a speaker detects an error. In the case of FL speakers, speech is interrupted even when utterances are correct (Fincher, 2006), and may result to *mis*-correcting what has been appropriately said" (Sibayan & Rosado, 2012, p. 90), a phenomenon known as *hypercorrection*. Due to the fact that self-monitorization relies on existing knowledge, it can be said that NNS interruptions of correct utterances reflect ignorance of the pertinent linguistic rule, or uncertainty of it, in the very least. Self-monitorization also entails self-

repair, a process in which learners realize a disjunct between their intended message and output, and retrieve either an alternate exemplar—from implicit knowledge—or a rule—from explicit knowledge—for a production of a more target-like form (Lyster, 2004, p. 406). The production of self-repair, regardless of its accuracy, is the production of a modified output, a comprehensible output, which represents the edge of a learner's IL (van Hest, 1996; Sibayan, 2011).

Language monitoring is not limited to reflexive efforts. It inevitably occurs in interaction, where parties involved continuously consider utterances and negotiate meaning when communicating, as stated in Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1996). For proficient speakers who have experience dealing with less proficient speakers, they monitor their own speech by making their language accessible. Evidently, they will have to monitor the other person's speech as well, for the sake of comprehension and mitigation of communication breakdown, which implies a primacy of meaning over form. In a classroom setting, however, form and meaning may be given equal importance, depending on the nature of the course. Meaning hinges on form, and in turn form contributes to meaning, as argued by linguists who insist on pedagogical interventions that direct the learners' attention to form (e.g., Schmidt, 1990; Long, 1996). Such intervention calls for feedback.

2.4.1 Teacher Corrective Feedback

Some researchers believed that giving corrective feedback did more harm than good, however, numerous studies have proven otherwise, confirming that it facilitates language acquisition (e.g., Mackey & Philp, 1998; Long, Inagaki & Ortega, 1998; Guzmán-Muñoz, 2009; Spada & Lightbown, 2009; Révesz, 2012). Others argued that it had no place in language learning, maintaining that it only heightens the affective filter of the L2/Ln learners (Krashen, 1982), while others claimed that it merely agonizes them with cognitive burden, since their attentional sources are limited (Kaysar & Barr, 2002). At this point the discussion might have come full circle, as this last argument only provokes a review on the concept of input+1.

Nevertheless, what is relevant in this study is the fact that corrective feedback produces self-repairs, by "pushing" learners into modifying their output whenever necessary (Swain, 1985). It is important to note, however, that not all feedback types lead to similar degrees of pushing (Lyster, 2004). Also important to mention at this point that the proposed feedback taxonomy in this study does not concern itself with the explicitness or implicitness of the correction but rather on the kind of reaction the feedback elicits from the students, i.e. whether they are brought to produce a more target-like form on their own regardless if they were explicitly directed to their mistake or not. The taxonomy employed is based on Lyster and Ranta's (1997), adapted and slightly revised in this dissertation in order to classify and sift through teacher feedback

that lead to the phenomena of interest. The authors analyzed teacher feedback, focusing on student-teacher interactions in a French L2 classroom, which led them to identify six different types of correction used by the teachers, later classified into two main groups: reformulations and prompts.

Table 2.1 Taxonomy of Teacher Feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997)

Reformulations	*Prompts*
Explicit correction	Clarification request
Recast	Metalinguistic comment
	Elicitation
	Repetition of non target form

Reformulations are those corrections that explicitly give the appropriate form to the students, whereas prompts are those reactions of the teacher comprised of a variety of signs—both gestural and verbal—which "push" the students to self-correct. Prompts do not reveal the correct form of the erroneous utterance, and instead, give clues to induce the student to retrieve the most appropriate form from his knowledge (Lyster & Ranta, 2007, p. 152).

2.4.1.1 Reformulations

Under reformulations, the authors identified two subtypes: explicit correction and recast. *Explicit correction* refers to when the teacher gives the target form together with a comment that plainly states that the student has produced an erroneous utterance, such as "Do you mean to say [target form]?" or "You

have to use the word [target form]." A *recast,* on the other hand, is more discreet. It involves the repetition of the problematic utterance but with the corrected form, therefore isolating the error (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 46).

2.4.1.2 Prompts

For prompts, the authors determined four subtypes: clarification request, metalinguistic comment, elicitation, and repetition of non target form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997, p. 47-48). A *clarification request* is precisely what its name suggests—an appeal for a misunderstanding to be resolved. Examples would be, "What do you mean?" or "Could you say that again?" In contrast, a *metalinguistic comment* is one that employs a technical term to signify the problem, such as "The verb has to be in the passive voice." An *elicitation* refers to instances when the student is asked to modify his utterance either directly, "Could you rephrase that?" or through a strategic pause, "*Espero que pue*—?" Next, the *repetition of non target form* is very similar to a recast in that it involves the repetition of the non target-like form. However, unlike the recast, the non target form remains uncorrected. For example, "*Espero que *puedes venir?*" Lastly, a *non verbal cue* is any gestural feedback: lifting of eyebrows, pursing of lips, dissenting, etc (Sibayan, 2011, p. 6).

Another relevant study on teacher feedback is that of Sibayan (2011). Using the taxonomy proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997), she analyzed which errors committed by the students were called out by the teacher for repair. For it she observed an FL Spanish conversational class comprised of Filipino

university students and a native Spanish teacher. It was found that lexical errors were the most recognized, followed by grammatical errors, and lastly, by phonological ones. In addition, it was also found that though the teacher had a general predilection for recasts, he did employ prompts a number of times, especially for the correction of lexical errors. The author argues that this is a natural phenomenon, since an error relating to vocabulary makes a speaker susceptible to being misunderstood, therefore provoking his interlocutor to request for clarification—a type of prompt.

2.4.2 Student Self-Repairs

Gass (1988) validates the role of feedback, mainly for the fact that it favors attention on certain problem areas, with the presumption "that the student perceives and internalizes the differences between his output and the reaction of the other interlocutor and realizes when he makes a mistake" (Carroll, 1995, p. 75). Carroll claims that when one believes that the student can notice errors through feedback, it goes without saying that it departs from two important assumptions: First, for a student to understand that the teacher is correcting him, the student must be able to interpret that the reaction of the teacher is a metalinguistic comment and not a mere contribution to the development of the conversation. Second, it presupposes that the student can make the correct interpretation (1995, p. 75). However, similar to self-monitorization, noticing feedback depends on previous knowledge (Carroll, 1999; R. Ellis, 1994; Gass, 1997), since it primes the learner to apperceive

specific elements in the input (Gass, 1997), which become intake (Schmidt, 1990). Although learners only perceive what their current linguistic systems allow them to perceive (Carroll, 1999), a high level of proficiency in the TL is *not* required to make such an interpretation (Carroll, 1995, p. 77), as input and feedback are often scaffolded in the language classroom. Still, we cannot but agree that it is a luxury for a learner to be able to attend to both form and meaning (Skehan, 1998), as this means that his linguistic repertoire allows him to do so. One manifestation of this is *uptake,* the immediate response of a student to the feedback provided by the teacher (Spada & Lightbown, 2009, p. 165). In the same study where Lyster and Ranta (1997) classified the different types of prompts and reformulation, they found two types of uptake: successful and unsuccessful.

Table 2.2 Taxonomy of Student Self-Repair Adopted from Loewen (2005), Lyster and Ranta (2007), Sibayan (2011)

Successful	*Unsuccessful*	*No repair*	*Hypercorrection*
	Same error	No effort	
	Different error	No chance to repair	
		Verbal or gestural acknowledgement of feedback	

2.4.2.1 Successful

Students' successful uptake of teacher reformulations is considered a *repetition,* while successful uptake of prompts is either a *prompted self-repair* (an

induced repair corrected by the same student who made the error) (Lyster & Ranta, 2007).

2.4.2.2 Unsuccessful

In contrast, uptake is considered unsuccessful when the attempt to incorporate the teacher's correction results in the production of the *same* or a *different error*, a partial correction of the error, or an obvious avoidance of the error despite having clearly perceived the correction by producing a simpler utterance, or when the student stutters in reaction to the given feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 2007).

2.4.2.3 External repair

An *external repair* is a repair given by a student who did not originally commit the error (Lyster & Ranta, 2007).

2.4.2.4 No repair

Aside from successful and unsuccessful uptake, we have added three more categories proposed by Sibayan (2011): *no effort*, which is when the student does not verbally react towards the corrective feedback; *no chance to repair,* which is when the student is not given any chance to self-repair after having been corrected—a category borrowed from Loewen (2005), and *acknowledgement of feedback*, when the student only verbally or gesturally recognizes the correction.

2.4.2.5 Hypercorrection

We likewise add *hypercorrection* to Lyster and Ranta's (2007) taxonomy of student repairs, which occurs when an originally correct utterance is modified, resulting in an error (Sibayan, 2011).

Student self-repairs, however, are not limited to those which are prompted by the teacher for revision. These may very well be unprompted ones, as documented in Sibayan's (2011) study. In the same classroom where she analyzed the conversations between the Spanish native teacher and the Filipino students, she observed that the students were as attentive to their errors as their teacher. While mostly they recognized the errors that their teacher made salient through prompting, there was also quite a number of instances when they recognized errors independently. Perhaps the most interesting in this study is the stark difference in success rate for prompted and unprompted repairs. For prompted ones, none of phonetic-phonological errors were successfully corrected, only a third for lexicon, and half for morphology. In contrast, all attempts to repair unprompted repairs pertaining to pronunciation were successfully repaired, followed by grammar with 90%, and vocabulary with around 80%. The author explains that the high rate in success of unprompted self-repair suggests that when students notice their error on their own, it is very likely that they know how fix it. Conversely, if they do but only with external help such as the prompting of the teacher, then it is less likely that they will be capable of doing the needed repair.

2.5 Conclusion

In this chapter we reviewed the importance of errors in language learning by tracing their relationship with modified input, feedback and modified output through the discussion of relevant theories on FL learning, such as: Interlanguage Theory, Noticing Hypothesis, Output Hypothesis, Interaction Hypothesis, and Skill Acquisition Theory. In the discussion of the theories we inevitably dealt with implicit and explicit processing, which are equally necessary in language learning. We have established that errors essentially come from implicit knowledge, while self-repairs from explicit, arguing therefore that IL is made up of both knowledge systems. From the discussion of explicit knowledge, we finally moved on to how self-repairs represent the boundaries of a learner's knowledge of the TL and their classification, which we applied in the analysis of our data.

3
OBJECTIVES AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study examines the non target-like forms and the corresponding self-repairs made by Filipino adults in their oral production of Spanish FL. Specifically, it deals with how language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity, the two most widely considered factors for CLI, interplay with the success rate of prompted and unprompted self-repairs produced in interactive and monologic discourse. The decision to analyze the phenomena in complementary oral data types is to have as much self-repair information at our disposal, given that feedback, only present in interaction, leads to the production of prompted self-repair. The production of non target-like forms, or errors, despite being accurate representations of progress, are incomplete and must hence be supplemented by self-repairs (see Section 1.1). Self-repairs, on the other hand, despite indicating IL limits, cannot be studied without being contextualized by their corresponding errors.

We limit our corpus to oral data since speech occurs in real time, therefore employing implicit processing and showcasing implicit knowledge, where systematic errors originate (see Section 2.1). We likewise limit our subjects to university students learning the language in a formal setting, for they make the ideal informants for the present study. Through pedagogical intervention, explicit processing is encouraged, demonstrating their explicit knowledge that is made evident by attention to feedback

and production of comprehensible output in the form of self-repair (see Section 2.1). As established in the previous chapter, implicit and explicit knowledge systems comprise IL. Thus, it is only fitting to consider both in describing the evolution of the Spanish IL of the said subjects.

3.1 Objectives

Based on the discussion in the previous sections, there have been numerous investigations carried out on the effects of CLI in the configuration of IL since Odlin (1989), most of which focus on negative transfer as observed in the linguistic levels of phonology, morphology, syntax, and lexicon in the production of the TL. Researchers (e.g., Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010) have hence called for the need to explore other CLI phenomena that lead to a more holistic understanding of FL acquisition. However, as IL research is still in its infancy in the Philippine context, it is only logical to begin with the study of the more evident manifestations of CLI in the "traditional" linguistic levels. With the primary aim of understanding the configuration of the Spanish IL in its different stages, the research questions involve the identification of the errors and the self-repairs produced in the phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical levels, and the examination of the roles of language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity in their production. In this light, the present study has a bi-fold objective:

Objective 1

To present a preliminary description of the Spanish IL of Filipino learners based on the phonetic-phonological, morphosyntactic, and lexical errors produced in speech.

Objective 2

To delineate the boundaries of the Spanish IL of Filipino learners based on the self-repair of these errors.

3.2 Research questions and hypotheses

In order to achieve the objectives previously presented, the following research questions will be addressed, the first two relating to the first objective and the last three relating to the second. Each research question is accompanied by a brief explanation of our hypotheses.

Research question 1

How does TL proficiency affect the frequency and distribution of errors?

In Chapter 1 it was discussed that the manifestations of non target-like productions are both restricted and caused by a myriad of CLI factors, one of the most highly identified and widely studied being language proficiency. This claim has been supported by many studies, including those that have Filipino learners of FL as subjects. However, to the best of our knowledge, it is only Morta's (2005) pseudolongitudinal work on Filipino university students that illustrates how an increase in the Spanish TL proficiency leads to a decrease in the general production of errors. The same research shows an unevenness in the distribution of errors across the linguistic levels; a considerably higher percentage of error was observed in the category of morphosyntaxis as against the categories of lexicon and phonology. Based on these findings, we hypothesize that TL proficiency is inversely related to the rate of error production. Meaning, we expect to see a descending pattern in the rate of errors, with the lower proficiency participants producing more errors and the higher proficiency participants producing less. We also hypothesize an unevenness in the distribution of errors among the linguistic levels, i.e., we expect a generally higher percentage of error in the category of grammar, as against those of vocabulary and pronunciation. Lastly, we hypothesize

that a constant decline will manifest across all error types according to the participants' improving command of the TL, albeit their unequal distribution.

Research question 2

Which of the errors will be recognized with and without the prompting of the teacher?

We hypothesize that all error types will receive a relevant amount of attention from both the teacher and the students who committed them. However, in general, it is lexical-semantic errors that will be most often called out on by the teacher through prompts, followed by morphosyntax and phonetic-phonological. In contrast, it is morphosyntax errors that will be most independently recognized by the students, followed by lexical, and phonetic-phonological errors, the least. In Chapter 2 where teacher feedback and student self-repairs are covered, a study carried out on prompted and unprompted self-repairs gives grounds for this speculation (see Sibayan, 2011). In the said study, the author analyzed student-teacher conversations in a Spanish as FL course, where she observed an overall preference for precision over fluency. Meaning, everyone in class was attentive to every error committed and was eager to repair them, regardless if the teacher wanted them repaired or not. Evidently, accuracy of form and meaning was given more importance than fluidity. Important to note, however, that the author observed only one proficiency group that was, moreover, enrolled in a spoken language course, where students were expected to speak for the sake of practice and were perhaps self-monitoring more than necessary. CLI factors of learning environment and of awareness of language, reviewed in Chapter 1, could be accountable for the elevated recognition of error across all types, and whose effects might be more evident in this present research. Unlike in the aforementioned study where only one proficiency group was observed, in this dissertation, aside from the fact that four proficiency groups are involved, these four also belong to varied courses. In other words, although we

expect that all error types will receive the same elevated attention from both the teacher and the students who committed them, we also anticipate some variation among the proficiency groups owing to the effects of recently identified CLI factors that are not central to this study.

Research question 3

How does TL proficiency affect the frequency and distribution of attempts to self-repair?

We hypothesize that the ratio of errors produced to self-repair attempts will be similar across proficiency groups, but not across error types. Although there are no longitudinal studies on self-repairs to date that can justify our assumption, the results from Sibayan's (2011) study on self-repairs suggests this pattern. With regards to success rate of attempts to repair, prompted self-repairs and unprompted self-repairs vary greatly. In Sibayan's (2011) study it was found that for prompted ones, none of phonetic-phonological errors were successfully corrected, only about 30% for lexicon, and roughly 50% for morphology. In contrast, all attempts to repair unprompted repairs pertaining to pronunciation were successfully repaired, followed by grammar with 90%, and vocabulary with around 80%. Conversely, it was noted that if the students attempted to self-repair with the prompting of the teacher, it was less likely that they were capable of supplying the needed repair. They probably would not have noticed the error without external help, much less correct it. We hence expect the same patterns to emerge from our prompted and unprompted self-repair data. In addition, however, taking after the hypothetical pattern of error production, we also assume a positive correlation between success rate of repair and TL proficiency. That is, we expect that success rate of self-repairs will rise as TL proficiency increases, but always in accordance to the tendencies bound by error type.

Research question 4

How do crosslinguistic similarity of previously learned languages and their corresponding proficiency levels affect the configuration of the IL as manifested by errors?

Crosslinguistic similarity, like language proficiency, has not only been identified to have major influence in TL production, but has also been one of the first to be recognized. In Chapter 1 the two types of crosslinguistic similarity were discussed, differentiating objective from subjective similarity, and establishing that it is the former and not the latter that causes transfer (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2012, pp.177-178). Taking this for a fact, we hence assume that the Filipinos perceive English, among their spoken languages, as the closest to Spanish. This assumption is justified by the consistent emergence of English as the most activated SL in previous research on Filipino learners of Spanish FL (e.g., Morta, 2005; Nogra & Rodriguez, 2013; Salazar, 2007; Sánchez, 2010; Sibayan, 2011). Given that it is subjective similarity which provokes transfer and assuming that English is what the participants perceive to be most similar to Spanish, we therefore hypothesize that English will also be the primary SL of the participants' errors in this study.

In relation to SL proficiency, the very limited existing literature likewise discussed in Chapter 1, suggests that it need not be high to have some effect on production. However, according to the same studies on Filipino learners of Spanish FL (e.g. Morta, 2005; Nogra & Rodriguez, 2013; Salazar, 2007; Sánchez, 2010; Sibayan, 2011), the higher the SL proficiency, the more it affects error production. Due to the informants being bilingual speakers of Filipino and English, the said languages were found to be highly activated in speech, with English foremost and Filipino as far second. Their findings likewise showed that other known romance languages only manifested

as significant sources of transfer when the learners' command of the latter were better than their command of the Spanish language (see Sibayan, 2011). We expect the same results to show in this dissertation.

To respond to these research questions with empirical data, we have designed a method for the study, which is explained in Chapter 4, whose results are presented in Chapters 5, and discussed in Chapter 6.

4
METHOD

As the general objective of this study is to characterize the progress of the Spanish IL of Filipino learners through the analysis of their prompted and unprompted self-repairs, complementary sets of pseudolongitudinal[1] verbal data—classroom discourse and individual productions—were collected. These data, though both oral, offer very different perspectives on self-repair phenomena. The FL classroom, considered a unique ecological system within the framework of complexity theory (van Lier, 2000), is an entity that has a life of its own, whose participants behave differently from when they are outside the system (Dörnyei & Murphey, 2003, p. 252). As such, these complementing data sets exhibit how self-repairs driven by interaction are like, as against self-repairs in speech that are not motivated by communication.

To begin, the participants of this study are described, including the contexts in which they belong. This is followed by an explanation of instruments used and procedures observed, and lastly, the treatment of data:

[1] Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010) describe *pseudolongitudinal designs* as a compromise between cross-sectional and longitudinal methodology—cross-sectional because it involves data from language users at a specific time, and longitudinal because it involves language users at different but successive proficiency levels (p 37).

its transcription, codification, and analysis.

4.1 Participants

4.1.1 Classroom Interaction Data

For the classroom interaction data, 50[2] Filipino-English bilingual university students learning Spanish as a foreign language were recorded: 21 from the first group, another 19 from the second, and a total of 10 from the third and fourth. See Table 4.1 for a summary.

Table 4.1 Information on the participants in the classroom interaction data

Group	*N*	*CEFR level*[3]	*Course name*	*Exposure*	*L1 & L2*	*Class composition*
1	21	A2	Intermediate Spanish II	approx. 432 hrs	Filipino English	Students from other colleges; Spanish majors and minors
2	19	B1-	Advanced Spoken Spanish II	approx. 1,008 hrs	Filipino English	Spanish majors and minors
3	5	B1+	Contemporary Spanish Culture and Civilization	approx. 1,872 hrs	Filipino English	Spanish majors only
4	10	B2+	Filipino Poetry in Spanish	approx. 2,160 hrs	Filipino English	Spanish majors only

Group 1 was an Intermediate Spanish II class comprised of 21 students

[2] Coincidentally, the third year level students were also attending the only fourth year level class available for recording.
[3] Based on the textbooks used in each course.

from various undergraduate degree programs: In this particular group, students were from B[4] Library Science, BA Comparative Literature, BA Creative Writing, BA European Languages (BA EL), BA History, BA Linguistics, BA Psychology, and BS Economics. To be allowed to enroll in Intermediate Spanish II they should have had 9 units of Spanish language courses prior.[5] Language courses are open to all students of the university who wish to take them to meet the foreign language requirement or foreign language elective as prescribed by their respective degree curriculum. As Intermediate Spanish II is a free-for all course, students' ages ranged anywhere from 16 to 30.

Group 2 was an Advanced Spoken Spanish II course, which is only open to those who have History and Spanish as first or second specialization. As such, the 19 students who comprised it were all from BA EL. A little more than half of the class had Spanish as their major. To be enrolled in this course, students should have had the mandatory 21 units of Spanish language courses.[6] Often, students who take this course, specifically the Spanish majors, are in their second year of studies in the BA EL program.

Group 3 consisted of five (5) Spanish majors who were third year standing at the time when data was gathered. The course that they attended,

[4] B = Bachelor's Degree, BA = Bachelor in Arts, BS = Bachelor in Science
[5] i.e. Elementary Spanish I, Elementary Spanish II, and Intermediate Spanish I, which receive 3 units each
[6] i.e. Elementary Spanish I & II, Intermediate Spanish I to IV, Advanced Spoken Spanish I; 3 units each

Contemporary Spanish Culture and Civilization, is only offered to Spanish majors. As will be explained at length in Section 4.3, the BA EL curriculum has two parts: language courses constitute the first two years, while content courses specific to literature, culture, translation, and foreign language pedagogy constitute the last two years of the program. These students have had at least 39 units worth of their major language classes.[7]

Group 4 consisted of 10 students, five of which also belong to Group 3. Since this group is an elective class for Spanish majors—Filipino Poetry in Spanish—it is accessible to all Spanish majors who have had at least 36 units of their major language classes. As such, half of the class was third year standing and the other half was in their fourth year. Due to the design of the program, BA EL students in their fourth year no longer have other language-specific courses to take except for thesis writing, whose sessions are generally carried out on a one-on-one fashion.

4.1.2 Monologic Data

From the 50 students, a total of 20 were randomly selected for the recording of monologic data: four groups of five who had roughly the same linguistic profile, the main criteria of choice being that they have Spanish as their specialization. Working with a smaller group size for monologic data shall facilitate the observation of the effect of known languages as well as

[7] i.e. Elementary Spanish I & II, Intermediate Spanish I to IV, Advanced Spoken Spanish I & II, Advanced Spanish Grammar, Spanish Phonetics, Spanish Writing, Stylistics in Spanish, Spanish Culture & Civilization before the 20th Century; 3 units each

proficiency in the TL on their error and self-repair production, an observation that is not easily carried out with the interaction data due to the sheer number of participants and variety of language combinations.

Table 4.2 Information on the participants in the monologic data

Group	*N*	*CEFR level*[8]	*Gender*	*L1 & L2*	*Other Philippine languages*	*Other foreign languages*
1	5	A2	male 2 female 3	English Filipino	Cebuano Kapampangan	French German Italian
2	5	B1-	male 3 female 2	English Filipino	Cebuano Ilocano Pangasinense	French German
3	5	B1+	male 2 female 3	English Filipino		French German
4	5	B2+	male 1 female 4	English Filipino	Kapampangan	French Italian Japanese

As it is not the objective to observe classroom interaction per se, five subjects were selected at random from each class. The four groups were from the different classes of the four-year undergraduate degree BA EL of the Department of EL in the University of the Philippines (UP) Diliman. These groups correspond to the following proficiency levels: A1 to A2- (basic users), A2- (basic users), A2+ to B1- (independent users), and B1+ to B2 (independent users), and are labeled Group 1, 2, 3, and 4, respectively.[9] As such, in this study, the groups refer to the year and proficiency levels interchangeably. As

[8] Based on the textbooks used in each course.
[9] The proficiency levels are based on CEFR-conforming material used for each year level.

most programs in the College of Arts and Letters are female-dominated, the participants are predominantly female, with a ratio of 3:2. The ages of all the participants range from 17 to 29.

Group 1 of the monologic data set was not entirely comprised of all Spanish majors. From the three sections of Intermediate Spanish II, only two students with Spanish specialization were identified; the rest only had the said language as their second specialization. This is a rare circumstance as Spanish is often a very popular choice among BA EL students. The average age of Group 1 participants is 21.6, a group of two males and three females. All claim to have Filipino as L1, except for one who has it as L2 for born and raised in Cebu. Three claim to have English as another L1, while two say they have it as L2. With respect to foreign languages, all five are of A2 level in Spanish, the stronger foreign language for the Spanish majors, RAF and SHE. INA, the Italian major, and ANA, the French major, who are in their third year in the program are expected to be B1+ level in their respective language majors. NAT, the German major, is taking his German classes concurrent to his Spanish classes and hence possesses the same A2 proficiency level in German as in Spanish (see Annex F for more details).

For *Group 2* it was easier to find five participants of similar sociolinguistic profiles for the gathering of monologic data. All participants have Filipino as L1; three have English as another L1 and two have it as L2. Likewise, all five have a B1- in Spanish and a lower proficiency in French, as it

is their minor. All participants, except for MIG who took 9 units of German, only know two foreign languages. The average age of the participants is 18.6; three males and two females (see Annex F).

The linguistic profile of *Group 3* is comparable to that of Group 2. All participants have Filipino as L1; three have English as another L1 and two have it as L2. Likewise, all five have a B1+ in Spanish and a lower proficiency in their chosen minor languages: three German and one French. All participants, except for TAN who has English Studies as her second specialization, know two foreign languages. The average age of the participants is 21.2; one male and four females (see Annex F).

Group 4 participants are all in their final year in the BA EL program. Similar to the two previous groups, they have Filipino and English as L1; except for one who claims to have English as his L2. Everyone has a B2- proficiency in Spanish and approximately a B1- in their chosen minor languages: one Italian and four French. The average age of the participants is 20.2; one male, four females (see Annex F).

Worth mentioning is the fact that 9 of 20 students have three or more mother tongues, having learned in the home—in addition to Filipino and/or English—another Philippine language, such as Cebuano, Kapampangan, Ilocano, Bisaya, and Pangasinense. By and large the participants are from Manila; only a handful grew up in the provinces. The geographic location of

their upbringing bears no weight on their command of the two national languages due to their reception of the government-mandated Filipino-English bilingual education, which was implemented all throughout the archipelago.[10] All participants are of the educated class, as most come from homes where education is valued, based on the profession of both parents.[11] Regardless, the fact that they are in the university is reason enough to consider them educated, and assurance enough that they speak and write the standard form of Filipino and English.[12]

Filipino is the official name of the national language of the Philippines, which is based on the Tagalog variety that prevails in Manila (Gonzalez, 1998, p. 487), the variety that was arbitrarily chosen as Wikang Pambansa (National Language) by President Manuel L. Quezon (Manarpaac, 2003, p. 480) in 1939. The incessant protest of non Tagalog speakers about the President's

[10] The Bilingual Education Policy, crafted with the aim of "develop[ing] a bilingual nation competent in the use of both English and Pilipino" by the then called Department of Education, Culture and Sports (DECS), was implemented in 1974. Social Studies, Work Education, Character Education, Health Education, and Physical Education were taught in "Pilipino," while Mathematics, Science, Music, and Art were taught in English in Grade 1 onwards (Gonzalez 1974, p. 335). It was in effect for decades until the implementation of The Enhanced Basic Education Act of 2013 in 2014. This act calls for the same department, currently known as Department of Education (DepEd), to design an enhanced basic education curriculum that adheres to the principles and framework of Mother Tongue-Based Multilingual Education (MTB-MLE). In this new education policy, children from Kindergarten through Grade 3 are given instruction and assessment in their regional or native languages. Grades 4 to 6 serve as transition period when Filipino and English are gradually introduced as media of instruction, in preparation for high school (Department of Education, 2012)

[11] Except for a couple whose mother is a housewife, a father who is a jeepney driver or a security guard. The rest have parents who work as educators, doctors, engineers, lawyers, or businessmen. See Annex F.

[12] "[B]ased on the findings of the l985 survey (Gonzalez & Sibayan, 1988) a well-educated Filipino, in a well-run school, learns Filipino (either their mother tongue or his/her lingua franca) and English well enough to carry on higher order cognitive studies" (Gonzalez, 1998, pp. 501-502).

partiality to his own native tongue, brought about efforts to make the said language unite the multicultural nation, as planned. Tagalog was later named Pilipino to blot out any hint of regionalism, and then much later was renamed Filipino, with the /f/ symbolically replacing the /p/, "to represent those Philippine languages with the voiceless labiodental fricative […] as well as the 'universalist' rather than 'purist' approach of accepting phonological units and other features from other Philippine languages and from second or foreign languages, in this case, Spanish and English (Gonzalez, 1998, p. 488)." Filipino was, after all, devised to provide the plurilingual citizens a common code, whose lexicon was to be enriched by other Philippine languages[13] as well as by other non-local languages used in the Philippines (Gonzalez, 1998, p. 487).

English, in this research, refers to the Philippine variety, straightforwardly called Philippine English.[14] Bautista gives a rather detailed description:

> Philippine English is not English that falls short of the norms of Standard American English; it is not badly-learned English as a second language; its distinctive features are not errors committed by users who have not mastered the American standard. Instead, it is a nativized variety of English that has features which differentiate it from Standard American English because of the influence of the first language (especially in

[13] "The number of individual languages listed for Philippines is 186. Of these, 182 are living and 4 are extinct. Of the living languages, 41 are institutional, 72 are developing, 46 are vigorous, 13 are in trouble, and 10 are dying." (Lewis, 2009)
[14] Previously named Filipino English, a term coined by Llamzon (1969).

> pronunciation – although we should always keep in mind Strevens's distinction between accent and dialect – but occasionally in grammar), because of the different culture in which the language is embedded (expressed in the lexicon and discourse conventions), and because of a restructuring of some of the grammar rules (manifested in the grammar). Philippine English has an informal variety, especially in the spoken mode, which may include a lot of borrowing and code-mixing, and it has a formal variety which, when used by educated speakers and found acceptable in educated Filipino circles, can be called Standard Philippine English. (Bautista, 2000, p. 21)

However, it is important to note that it is rare to come across someone who speaks entirely in English or entirely in Filipino in Manila. Perhaps due to language prestige, or perhaps as a result of receiving bilingual education, or both, upper- and middle-class parents choose to raise their children in English, leaving the caretakers to speak to them in Filipino (Gonzalez, 1985). "Today nearly all educated Filipinos, including those in high places, use Taglish[15] except in formal situations when only "pure" English or "pure" Tagalog may be used" Thompson (2003, p. 41).

Having explained the language situation in Manila, the results on language preference in the questionnaire may be considered predictable, as it

[15] Taglish is the common name for the informal, usually spoken variety of Philippine English has an informal variety, that is heavy on borrowing and code-mixing. Depending on sociolinguistic factors, the matrix language may be Filipino and the embedded language English, or the other way around. (Bautista, 2000)

mirrors what has previously been described: English for writing—which includes text messaging, email correspondence, and chatting; and English for reading books and magazines, and watching TV programs and movies in English. Most claim that they prefer surfing the Net in Spanish, for practice. For the same reason, some prefer speaking to their professors in whatever language it is that they are learning with them. Otherwise, the next default language is English. But essentially, as most prefer speaking to friends and family in Filipino (most probably in Taglish), Filipino remains the language of the heart and of the home.

To make the groups as homogenous as possible, the main criteria for the random selection of the participants for the monologic data was that they had Spanish as their major. Numbers of Spanish majors vary greatly from year level to year level, two being the smallest total (Group 1), and 14 being the largest (Group 4). Often, these Spanish majors find themselves among classmates who need to be in the same course, i.e. those who chose to minor in Spanish, or those who come from other degree programs that require foreign language units. To further control the variables, those who have gone to live or study in a Spanish-speaking country were excluded. Likewise, those who have taken and/or are taking up Spanish courses outside the UP were eliminated. In the case of Group 1, since only two students had Spanish as their major, it was decided to include three others who specialize in a different European language, but have Spanish as their second specialization. Data had to be

collected during the second semester of the school year to ensure that the beginners had developed enough vocabulary and communication skills in Spanish to engage in conversation with their professor in class and carry out the spoken and written tasks independently.

As previously mentioned, all subjects were taken from one institution, not simply for reasons of variability, but more importantly because there are no other students in the Philippines who learn the Spanish language as a university degree. Their studying of the language for four consecutive years makes them the ideal subjects for a longitudinal analysis of the development of the Spanish IL of Filipinos. The following section describes the context where the study took place.

4.2 Context of the Study

In this section the environments that contribute to the sociolinguistic profile of the selected participants are briefly described in the following sequence: the program, the university, the community, and the nation as a former colony of Spain.

4.2.1 Institutional Context

The beginnings of the Department of European Languages (DEL) of the UP date way back in 1910, but BA and MA courses in EL were offered only in 1976. Prior to the 1980's exclusively Spanish was taught in both undergraduate and postgraduate levels, designed with the objective of

producing critical students through the learning, reading and analyzing of Filhispanic literature in the original. It has taken upon itself, as it had then, the responsibility to generate and to continue generating intellectual discourse on the Hispanic heritage in the Philippines (de la Peña, 2008, p. 14). It is the sole institution in the entire Philippine archipelago that offers a university degree in French, German, Italian, and of course, Spanish. To date, the Spanish Section offers MA programs in Language, Literature, and Translation, and a PhD program in Filhispanic Literature.

As mentioned earlier, the BA EL is a four-year university degree. The first two years are dedicated to equipping the students of the linguistic tools needed for the next two years, which are reserved for content courses. Language courses are designed such that classes are on a daily basis, unlike content courses in the later years of the program, which only meet twice a week. For instance, Spanish 10 & 11 are taken together during the first semester, and Spanish 12 & 13 during the next. These are referred to as integrated courses, where the first (e.g. Spanish 10) is given during the first half of the semester, and the second course (e.g. Spanish 11) is given during the second half of the same semester. In the rare case that a student fails the prerequisite course (again, e.g. Spanish 10), he is disqualified from moving up to the next course (e.g. Spanish 11). However, in UP, instructors and professors enjoy a certain degree of academic freedom and cases like this depend on the teacher's prerogative. For students who do fail the prerequisite

course are given a chance to redeem themselves by obtaining a passing mark—in the very least—in the subsequent course. Should this happen, they are automatically granted a passing mark in lieu of the failing grade. Should they fail to deliver a second time, they receive two failing marks, one for each course. Monsod (2015) states that the students reach B2 level by the time they finish Spanish 14 & 15, however this merely appears ideal. The linguistic skills required of a B2 level user of Spanish as detailed in the CEFR are not developed until after 28 units (see Annex G).

The non obligatory courses are open to all BA EL students, for as long as prerequisites are met. These courses are seasonal and offered depending on the availability of the professors. The translation electives are to be taken only when the obligatory translation theories course has been taken. Likewise, teaching practicum is only offered to those who have taken the mandatory theories course on language acquisition and language teaching. The rest of the electives, evidently heavy on literature, are only offered to those who have 45 units of their major language courses. These courses reflect the three academic domains that characterize the BA EL program, namely: literary and cultural studies, translation studies, and didactics.

In summary, Spanish majors learn the basic communication skills during their first two years, where the second semester of the second year is dedicated to refining their knowledge of the formal aspects of the language. The specific courses for speaking and writing were designed to strengthen

these communication skills, which are considered crucial for the academic demands of the upper-division classes. These students make ideal subjects for a longitudinal study of the Spanish IL of Filipino adults. It is for this reason that students in this particular program were selected for this research. However, due to time constraints, a pseudolongitudinal study is conducted, alternatively.

4.2.2 Social Context

While other Philippine universities decided to follow legislative changes and eliminate Spanish in their curricula, the Diliman campus of the UP continued to safeguard the language (de la Peña, 2008), making it the sole university that offers the teaching of Spanish as a university degree. It can then be said that it is quite impossible to find the same selection of informants in another setting, and in consequence, difficult to observe the IL progress of Filipino learners of Spanish as a foreign language.

Although Spanish was made the official language in the Philippines in the late 1600s, it never became the nation's lingua franca. It was the language of the elite minority, the language of religion, education, trade, and politics. It did not help when Americans occupied the country in the 1900s; English eventually replaced Spanish as the language of prestige. This became definite by the end of the Second World War, when the predominantly Spanish-

speaking communities of Manila, Intramuros, and Ermita, were bombed and destroyed (Rodríguez-Ponga, 2003).

From 1952 to 1957, Spanish was made a mandatory subject to be learned at the universities. Later, it was limited to those who were taking up Law, Commerce, Liberal Arts, Diplomacy, and Education, who were obliged to take 12 units more of Spanish, on top of the 24 units that were required (RA No. 709). In 1986, Spanish disappeared from the curricula and became an elective (RA No. 1881 a.k.a. "Cuenco Law"). Only a year later did the UP implement this, imposing the effacement of Spanish, changing the 12 mandatory Spanish units into 12 units of any foreign language. As a final blow, Spanish was removed from the list of official languages alongside Filipino and English in the 1987 Constitution (Rodríguez-Ponga, 2003, p. 50).

However, circumstances have changed in favor of Spanish at the turn of the century due to a sudden demand for its learning and teaching (de la Peña, 2011, p. 61). On the one hand, the rise of the BPO (Business Process Outsourcing) industry has offered many Filipinos very lucrative jobs, especially to those who speak a foreign language (Monsod, 2015, p. 12) and on the other, Spanish as a language elective has been returned to curricula of select public schools as of 2009 (Department of Education, 2017). The training of Spanish teachers both by Instituto Cervantes de Manila and the UP have since become a pressing task (Monsod, 2015, p. 12).

As this section dealt with the description of the context to which the participants of this study belong, the following section deals with the description of the procedure by which the participants were studied.

4.3 Tasks, Materials, and Procedure

The methodology of this study consists of two parts: a recording of classroom sessions and an elicitation of oral texts from each participant. Decisions made on carrying out these components were all based on data gathering methods employed in numerous research projects on multilinguals, which are detailed in this chapter. Informants of this study were screened using the Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q) (see Annex A), and data is mainly comprised of two types of recording: classroom interaction and monologic production. In all, 40 sociolinguistic questionnaires, approximately 40 hours of classroom interaction transcripts, and 40 transcripts of individual production were gathered. Each class was handled by a different teacher, each one with sufficient knowledge of both source and target languages and cultures.

4.3.1 Classroom Interaction Data

Prior to the recording of classes, permission was obtained from selected Spanish Section professors. As some were uncomfortable with the idea of being recorded on video as originally planned, the researcher decided against it in the end. Once permission was granted, class observations and audio

recording commenced. On the first day of observation, the researcher and the research were presented, without divulging the specific nature of the project. It was also explained that they would have to answer a questionnaire, and that later on five students were to be chosen to participate in a task to be done outside class hours.

Once or twice a week classes were recorded at random, done on a Zoom H4N handy portable digital recorder, which has recording capabilities strong enough to be used in the field. This made it perfect for the setting, since the acoustics of the classrooms were quite poor. This eventually became an advantage, as the lack of equipment called for higher sensitivity to the students' voices, speech patterns, and mannerisms, and more attentiveness on the part of the observer. Allowing to be guided by *Classroom Observation in Teaching Practice* (Richards, 2011), the observer's field notes documented all pertinent nonlinguistic moves, i.e. the professors' nonverbal corrective feedback.

Classes are, in principle, one and a half hours long. However, the students are given a 15-minute grace period at the beginning of the class, and are to be dismissed 15 minutes prior to the official dismissal time, to allow for inter-class transit. As a result, an average of only seven hours of classroom interaction data was gathered per group instead of the desired ten and a half.

The value of collecting two data sets—one of interaction, another of

individual production—was mentioned in passing in one of the previous sections. The relevance of the classroom interaction data lies in the need to contextualize the main object of study is the students' Spanish IL, analyzed through their self-repairs. These self-repairs in the context of the classroom (as opposed to self-repairs in monologic discourse) are products of interaction, of language learning as a semiotic activity. Van Lier criticizes the monopoly of detached discussions on "an input-output metaphor of learning and cognition (2000, p. 257)" and pushes for a reconsideration of an ecological approach in studies on language acquisition, where language is viewed as "relations (of thought, action, power), rather than as objects (words, sentences, rules)" (2000, p. 251). The study of self-repairs is a marriage of the two trends—the view of language as object and the view of language as the product of relationships. The significance of these self-repairs also lies in how they "relate to other aspects of meaning making, such as gestures, drawing, artifacts, etc. (Kress, Martins, and Ogborn 1998; in Van Lier, 2000, p. 251)" since they are the result of student-teacher and student-student negotiation of meaning that come in verbal and nonverbal forms.

In the section on participants, the subjects that comprise that interaction data groups were introduced, their known languages identified. In line with the view that the classroom is a unique ecosystem, in this section, the same groups are described, albeit with a focus on the classroom dynamics—the nature of the classes, the professors who handled them, and how their

relationship was with their students.

Group 1 was taught by a Filipino in her early 30s. In 2007 she graduated from the BA EL program of the University, with a specialization in Spanish. Immediately after, she joined the faculty of EL. In 2012 was granted a scholarship by the Agencia Española de Cooperación Internacional para el Desarrollo (AECID) to take up her MA in Teaching Spanish as a Foreign Language at the University of Valladolid where she began to take interest in the field of Pragmatics. She is particularly fascinated with the teaching of pragmatic competence and pragmatic interlanguage. She is characteristically perky and always began her Spanish 13 classes with a round of how-are-yous or how-was-your-weekends. Her breezy personality invited the students to be comfortable around her, thus contributing to a relaxed atmosphere. Code-switching was rampant among all participants, the professor herself included. Though lessons, instructions and feedback were primarily given in Spanish, other types of classroom interaction were carried out in Filipino, in English, or in Taglish. Filipino was limited to daily expressions, while metalinguistic talk was mostly done in English. Taglish was used in partner work. Spanish 13 is described as "[i]ntermediate training in linguistic, communicative and intercultural knowledge and skills in Spanish, focusing on the learner's immediate environment (University of the Philippines, 2014)" which is essentially the description of the A2 level in CEFR. They used *Nuevo ELE intermedio* (Borobio, 2006), published by SM ELE, a textbook which follows the

communicative approach. Though the textbook used in the course is of B1 level, the production skills of the students are an A2. During the time of data gathering, many of the sessions were dedicated to drills on the subjunctive. It was a course that met for an hour and a half everyday, from Tuesday to Friday. Quizzes, both announced and unannounced were given sporadically, and were included in the computation of the final grade. Other criteria for grading are attendance, class participation, and end-of-term written and oral exams. For this class 7 sessions were recorded, totaling 7 hours and 35 minutes.

Group 2 was taught by another Filipino with a very similar background as the previous professor. She likewise received the grant from AECID. In fact, both went to the University of Valladolid and took the same MA program. In 2008 she graduated from BA EL, with a specialization in Spanish. After a short stint in the BPO industry, she joined the faculty of EL. Her research interests include the acquisition of Spanish as a Foreign Language, particularly in creating form-meaning associations and use of strategies for lexical deficiencies. In contrast to the first professor, she is reserved and serious, though not exactly soft-spoken. Similarly, she dedicated the first few minutes on asking her students how they were. The motivation of her students to learn the TL is evident in their speech. Though the professor shared their local languages, the students preferred to use the TL. Code switching was limited to use of cultural words and quotations. Even among themselves, during group

work, the students generally spoke in Spanish; many of them expressed themselves without complexes. Spanish 31 is described as "[a]dvanced linguistic training in Spanish, with a focus on the oral communication skills and strategies required in formal and informal settings. Most of the sessions were spent on discussions on a certain topic, usually given to them the previous session, usually in the form of a video clip posted on their Facebook group. During the time of data gathering, topics revolved around technology. They were given a chance to be creative (come up with an invention and explain why people should patronize it), to be reflective (discuss dependency on the Internet), and to be self-critical (talk about abuse of smart phones and its effect on relationships), among many others. For their final evaluation the class was divided into two groups and a formal debate was arranged. However, the criteria for grading was not disclosed to the researcher. For this class 7 sessions were recorded, totaling 6 hours and 35 minutes.

Group 3 was taught by a Spanish native in her 30s who finished her MA at the University of Salamanca and PhD at the University of Manchester, both on a scholarship. Her research interest is mainly on Hispanic literature and has a number of publications, including a book on Christian myths in non-religious poetry of the *Generación del 27*. Her latest works are on lobbying the recovering of Hispanic heritage in the Philippines through studies in Filhispanic literature. She has been teaching for the Department of EL of the UP Diliman campus as *lectora* AECID since 2013. Like the first two professors,

she opened her classes by asking her students how they were, whom she had been teaching for the past two semesters. She first had them for Spanish 30-31, and this semester she was tasked to handle their Spanish 101, Contemporary Spanish Culture & Civilization. This course is described as "[a] study of cultural and social history of Spain from the twentieth century to the present through cultural texts, with a focus on the construction and challenging of Spanish national identity." During the time when data was gathered their discussions were on how the post-Franco government used music and the arts in the recreation of Spain's identity. On some days the professor monopolized the discussions; on others the students were asked to lead them. Topics for individual reporting were chosen by the students, in which they were expected to employ academic register and showcase their research skills. An example would be a comparative analysis of pre- and post-Franco representation of homosexuality in Spanish movies. The students were evaluated based on assigned papers and reports. For this class 5 sessions were recorded, totaling 6 hours and 30 minutes.

Group 4 was taught by a senior professor who has been in teaching for the Department for more than two decades. Like the first two professors, she obtained her Bachelor's degree in EL with a specialization in Spanish. She took her MA in the University of Complutense in Madrid and her PhD at the UP, both under the Spanish literature programs. She has given a number of lectures on Philippine prose and poetry written in Spanish. Despite her age she

could relate very well with her students. She was fond of making fun of the students and they seemed to enjoy this. Similar to Group 2, code-switching was kept to a minimum; Taglish was used only among students. Spanish 117, Filipino Poetry in Spanish, is an elective, meaning any Spanish major who had the minimum number of units required to take the course was welcome to take it. In effect, this class was a mixed-level group, where half of the students were in their third year in the program, and the other half finishing their undergraduate theses and graduating during semester when data was gathered. The mixed-level composition was evident in the interaction of the students: fourth-year students dominated the discussions, while third-year students (the same ones from Group 3) kept to themselves. The professor was quite aware of this and always encouraged the fourth-year students to ask questions from their lower-year peers, and vice versa. During the time of data gathering the students were individually reporting on a Philippine author assigned to them. First they gave a short biography of the poet, followed by a reading and formalist analysis of select work. The second half of the reports were more interactive, in that classmates were expected to comment on each work presented. Grading for this course was based on attendance, class participation, and a final written exam. For this class 5 sessions were recorded, totaling 6 hours and 47 minutes.

4.3.2 Monologic Data

The methodology used for the project *El desarrollo del repertorio lingüístico*

en hablantes no nativos de castellano y catalán was adapted in this dissertation for the gathering of the monologic corpus. The said project is part of the bigger investigation *Developing Literacy in Different Contexts and Different Languages,* spearheaded by Ruth Berman, which was funded by the Spencer Foundation in Chicago from 1997 to 2001. This multinational research on literacy development in different languages in seven countries was conducted (Berman & Verhoeven, 2002).[16] The research on literacy development, initially oriented towards the analysis of native speakers, eventually branched out to the study of literacy development of nonnative speakers. Although this present research does not involve the analysis of the development of the construction of narratives and discourses of nonnative Spanish speakers, adopting their methodology allows for a standard and systematic procedure for gathering individual speech.

Data that does not involve any interaction offers a richer pool of self-repair phenomena unique to monologic production. In contrast to classroom interaction where self-repair episodes include negotiation of form and meaning between all parties involved, provision of teacher feedback, and expectation of student uptake, to name a few; monologic self-repair episodes are limited to discourse strategies realized without external help.

One by one, the subjects were first exposed to a visual stimulus, a

[16] The research on the development of the linguistic repertoire of the nonnative speakers of Spanish and Catalan was project of the research group GRERLI (Grup de Recerca per a l'Estudi del Repertori Lingüístic), co-coordinated by Liliana Tolchinsky and Joan Perera.

three-minute no-dialogue video[17] on high school life, with non-sequential scenes that exhibited conflict on the moral (e.g. cheating, stealing), social (e.g. ostracizing, bullying), and physical (e.g. roughhousing) levels. None of these conflicts appeared to be resolved (Aparici, 2010, p. 115). The video was chosen as elicitation device for various reasons. On the one hand, its theme is accessible and personally relevant to all the participants. On the other, their having to write about and speak of one sole topic make their productions parallel and uniform. In a similar fashion, having to produce a certain text genre facilitates the analysis of linguistic data by limiting their production to language usages.[18]

Eventually, the participants were given four tasks consisting of producing a narrative and an expository text in written and spoken form (see Annex B for detailed instructions). After watching the video, they were asked to write a narrative text, eliciting them to write a similar unfortunate experience they had gone through (or of a person they know, if they had not had one). The subjects were not given a time limit. Once done writing, they were asked to narrate, this time verbally, their experience. This procedure was repeated on another day[19] in order to gather written and oral expository texts, which were elicited by asking for their thoughts on the issues, without explicitly

[17] The video was created specifically for the purposes of the Spencer Project, as explained by Aparici (2010)

[18] *Two discourse types—personal narratives and expository discussions—were selected, because they are considered as extreme points on a number of dimensions that distinguish genres* (p. 376). They differ in terms of perspective, theme, topic, and tense (Tolchinsky *et al*, 2005).

[19] For those informants who could not make it to a second session, the second part of the eliciation took place during the same session, with a ten-minute break in between.

stating that "issues" referred to the problems they witnessed in the video. As with the data gathering of narrative texts, the subjects were not imposed with a time limit. They were only made to watch the video once, which was during the first session.

Like other research projects that employed the same methodology, throughout the gathering of monologic corpus, the participants were asked to produce narratives and expository texts in alternating fashion, to avoid any effect that the production of genres might cause on each other or on the quality of their productions. Still in accordance to the adapted methodology, written tasks were always given before the spoken ones, as shown in Table 3.3. Since writing afforded these NNS participants more time for processing, vocabulary accessing, and morphosyntactic encoding, writing before speaking lessened the cognitive load on the students during the oral production.

Table 4.3 Task elicitation sequence[20]

	Session 1	*Session 2*
Order B	Narrative Written Narrative Spoken	Expository Written Expository Spoken
Order D	Expository Written Expository Spoken	Narrative Written Narrative Spoken

Instructions were given in Spanish. To ensure comprehension on the part of the lower proficiency participants, use of cognates was prioritized in

[20] The original labels of the order have been retained to facilitate cross-referencing of studies that share the same methodology.

giving out instructions. For the narrative writing task they were told: *"¿Te ha pasado una experiencia similar a las que has visto? Me la cuentas, ¿por favor? Toma todo el tiempo que necesites."*

When the situation called for it, they were told that it did not matter if the experience happened during elementary or high school, or that they could write about more than one, if they wished; or that if they didn't have any disagreeable experience, they could tell one that was closest to them. They were not allowed to consult reference materials in any form. Pen and paper were provided. Although the informants were accompanied by the researcher the entire time, they were left to their own devices. Once finished with the task, the composition was taken away and they were asked to tell the same story, though the second time around, orally: *"Ahora ¿me cuentas la misma experiencia oralmente?"* The same recording device, Zoom H4N, was used to document monologic data. The second session was officially opened with the question, *"¿Te acuerdas del vídeo que viste [anteayer]?"* Once the informants confirmed, they were told to comment on the problems presented in the video with the instruction, *"La última vez me contaste una experiencia tuya. Hoy me gustaría saber lo que puedes decir sobre el tema."* When they asked if they were to express their opinion, write an essay, or comment on the problems in the video, they were answered in the affirmative. Like in the previous task, the paper was collected once they finished writing, and they were requested to reproduce the same text orally. It is important to note, however, that the writing component

of the task was merely to comply with the procedure established in *Developing Literacy in Different Contexts and Different Languages*, which served as a preparatory procedure for the participants. Only the oral texts were analyzed in the present study.

At the onset of each session, it was made clear to the informants that they were expected to produce monologues in Spanish without assistance from external resources. Spanish was spoken to them as much as it could be helped, even during the times that they asked in Filipino or in English. Throughout the recording, interaction with the informants was limited to nodding. Despite efforts to be strict about asking for help, there were a few instances when they were desperate for a word or two. Initially they were answered with silence. However, upon their insistence, they were supplied with the vocabulary that they needed. Such repairs were excluded in the analysis. (See Annex D for a sample of a monologic transcript.)

4.4 Transcription

All recordings were transcribed following the transcription conventions of the CHAT Program (Codes for the Human Analysis of Transcripts) of the CHILDES Project (Child Language Date Exchange System) (MacWhinney, 1995, 2000). These were then codified and tagged as deemed fit for the objectives of the study, for its later analysis through the CLAN (Computerized Language Analysis) programs.

The CHAT Program, in existence since the 1980s, has been used by many researches in the field and has thus gone through much fine-tuning. Although it was created to document the processes involved in child language acquisition, it does not make it any less appropriate for the transcription of the data of the current study. In fact, its comprehensive design represents all phenomena of interest in this research in the most systematic manner. The use of its conventions not only allows for a standardized rendering of the oral into more easily observable written form, but also allows for comparability among data transcribed in the same process. As the methodology for eliciting and transcribing the monologic data of this study follows that of a much bigger research project, the said data may contribute to the existing pool of narratives and expository texts. Most importantly, having the recordings transcribed in the CHAT format prepares these for analysis through its complementing program, the CLAN. With the CHAT and CLAN programs, tagged linguistic phenomena are easily and mechanically tallied and statistical analyses are accurately computed. Reasons of uniformity and precision aside, it only follows that data gathered in accordance with the method employed in the Spencer Project can be transcribed in the same transcription conventions.

The CHAT conventions capture the informants' utterances both target like and non-target like, such as: filled and unfilled pauses, false starts, doubts, repetitions, self-repairs, reformulations, mispronunciations, code switches, coinages, etc. Likewise, the program has readily available codes for marking

the correctness or the incorrectness of speech on the phonetic-phonological, morphosyntactic and lexical-semantic levels, for if and when it is needed to be marked. With the established codes alone, the relevant phenomena to be identified for the analysis of self-repairs are systematically recorded in the CHAT format. Furthermore, the program can indicate paralinguistic moves, which is specifically helpful in the encoding of non-verbal teacher feedback. The program, for its apparent completeness, does not overlook the possibility of having to modify or add more codes. Users may adapt the codes according to the purposes of their study.

The body of a CHAT transcript consists of two basic parts, the first one, the main line, is mandatory; the second, the dependent tiers, optional. The main line holds the utterances of the participants, while the dependent tiers contain details appertaining to the main line. It is mandatory that the main line contain one utterance only. In this dissertation the utterances are fragmented into clauses, as in previous studies that followed the same methodology (e.g. Aparici, 2010), given that thoughts are naturally expressed in clauses in speech. However, as the clause is not central to the present research, utterances were transcribed loosely, segmented based on their intonation. The codes on the main line were kept to a minimum to preserve the readability of the transcriptions, and hence limited to the established disfluency codes. A detailed list of the employed CHAT codes and their descriptions can be found in Annex E.

4.5 Coding

The transcriptions were codified and analyzed according to the objectives of the study. Non target-like forms uttered by the student participants, corrective feedback given by the professors and the corresponding uptake of the students were identified and categorized. Depending on how the corrective feedback was given, these uptake moves were tagged as either repetitions or prompted self-repairs. The same treatment was applied to unprompted self-repairs. The identification and categorization of the errors and their respective self-repairs correspond to the objectives, which are to characterize the IL of the four proficiency groups by analyzing the errors and the success rate of their self-repairs relative to their non target-like productions. The three main phenomena—errors, feedback, and repairs—were not marked on the main line, but were rather identified and detailed in the dependent tiers, which were customized for this study.

4.5.1 Categories for Analysis

Once transcribed into CHAT, the data was ready for CLAN. In this section we clarify and define the categories applied to both classroom and monolgic data. These categories were employed to facilitate the analysis of this research.

4.5.1.1 For student production of errors

Phonetics and phonology. "Phonemes are assumed to be stored and

retrieved as one unit, such as [b], and not as a list of features as in [+voiced] [+labial] [-nasal]" (Roelofs, 1999, 2003, in Robinson 2011, p. 28). Hence, mispronunciations may only affect a word in three ways: in terms of a vowel, a consonant, or an entire syllable. Therefore, errors made on pronunciation were classified into any of the three, which is a simplified version of Jarvis and Pavlenko's (2010) phonological taxonomy (see Section 1.3.1.1). These three make up the first level of the phonetic-phonological category.

Morphology and syntax. The fusion of morphology and syntax is a combination adapted from Morta (2005) (see Section 1.3.1.2), which is comprised of grammar categories: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, conjunctions, interjections, determiners, and prepositions. Regarding syntax, for as long as word order is acceptable albeit awkward, it is not considered erroneous. Only incomprehensible structures are tagged as non target-like. Hence, we have 10 options for the morphosyntactic category.

Lexicon and semantics. Lexical-semantic error categories are taken from Jarvis and Pavlenko (2010) (see Section 1.3.1.4). These are false cognates, lexical borrowings, coinages, improper use of target word, and calques.

4.5.1.2 For teacher corrective feedback

For the analysis of feedback, Lyster & Ranta's (1997) taxonomy is adapted in this dissertation to eventually determine prompted self-repairs.

Reformulations include the teacher's total or partial reformulation of the

student's utterance, minus the error. Sometimes it is made less noticeable when the modification is incorporated in the discourse. Recasts are generally implicit in nature. Other times they are quite explicit, given that they are introduced by phrases such as, "You have to use this word," or "You must say…" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). On other occasions, the target form is simply provided, especially in cases when the student does not know or is unsure of the answer. For example: S: *Ella compró fruta y…* (Student is unable to finish his answer because she does not know how to say veggies) T: *fruta y verduras* (Teacher completes the answer with the target word.) (Ferreira, Moore & Mellish, 2007).

Prompts are for feedback that do not provide the student of the target form, may merely indicate the existence of an error or explicitly identify the area of trouble. A *clarification request* is indicative that an utterance of the student has not been fully understood (comprehension problem) or not properly formulated (precision problem), and requires a reformulation. It may include phrases like, *¿qué quieres decir?* or *¿qué es x?* (repeating the problematic utterance). (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ferreira, Moore & Mellish, 2007). *Metalinguistic feedback* is any comment related to the structure of the incorrect utterance of the student without giving the correct form. Can be in a form of a comment (ex. *Eso no es español* or *hay un error*) or of a question (ex. *¿Se usa el subjuntivo?*), informing of the agrammatical nature or a misuse of a word (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ferreira, Moore & Mellish, 2007). *Elicitation* is a technique to

directly elicit the correct form from the student. It includes strategic pauses that allow the student to "fill in the blanks" (ex. *Así no. Es...* or *A ver, repite. Quiero que hab...*) and requests of reformulation from the student (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Ferreira, Moore & Mellish, 2007). *Repetition* refers to the teacher's isolated repetition of an incorrect utterance of the student. Aside from emphasizing on the incorrect word, the teacher usually uses an interrogative tone (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

The identification of these teacher feedback categories is a crucial step in determining the types of student self-repair, since the latter is the consequence of the former. The taxonomy of student self-repair is detailed in the next section.

4.5.1.3 For student repairs

In the same study where Lyster and Ranta (1997) analyzed teacher feedback types, student self-repairs resulting from them were also identified and analyzed, and were called uptake. Uptake is considered *unsuccessful* when the student only verbally recognizes the correction and says *"Sí, eso"* or when the attempt to incorporate the teacher's correction results in the production of the same or a different error, a partial correction of the error, or an obvious avoidance of the error despite of having clearly perceived the correction by producing a simpler utterance, or when the student stutters in reaction to the given feedback (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

These student self-repair categories are likewise adapted in this study. Uptake of reformulations is called *repetition* as they are merely the student's repetition of the teacher's provision of the correct form (Lyter & Ranta, 1997), while uptake of prompts is labeled *prompted self-repair* in the present research. These are later on tagged as either successful or unsuccessful.

Aside from successful and unsuccessful uptake, two more categories are added: *non incorporation*—when the student does not verbally react towards the corrective feedback. And when the student is not given any chance to self-repair after having been corrected a category borrowed from Loewen (2005) *no opportunity*, is included. The coding of these adapted categories are explained in the following section.

4.5.2 Codes

As earlier mentioned, to facilitate the analysis of self-repair phenomena in this study and the two other crucial phenomena that lead to it, dependent tiers were added into the CHAT transcriptions. Dependent tiers are placed immediately after the main lines since they directly describe them.

For error dependent tiers, all codes have three levels, the first being the specifics of the error, e.g., if it is an error occurring in a vowel, a consonant, or a syllable, for the phonetic-phonological category. The second is the deduced SL that best explains the resulting CLI, providing information on the source of transfer, with the options being all the known languages of the participants,

except for the TL, such as: Bisaya, Cebuano, German, English, French, Ilocano, Italian, Japanese, Kapampangan, Pangasinense, and Tagalog. Another label is added to indicate if the SL is not identifiable. The third level is the error itself, presented with the target form, which is information that will greatly supplements the discussion of the qualitative analysis.

Feedback codes likewise have three levels: the first always indicates whether the correction is reformulation or a prompt, followed by a tag that specifies the kind of reformulation or prompt. The second level indicates the subtype of the phonetic-phonological, morphosyntactic, and lexical categories. The third level contains information on the error that was being reacted to—the error and its target form. This breadcrumb trail facilitates the tracing of the feedback to the non target-like utterance that caused it.

Lastly, self-repair codes also have three levels. The first labels the self-repair as unprompted, prompted, or a repetition. It is followed by a tag that indicates success of the repair. The second level provides the subtype of the phonetic-phonological, morphosyntactic, and lexical-semantic categories, and similar to the errors and feedback, the third level holds information on the error being repaired. Again, the repetition of the information serves as a breadcrumb trail that facilitates the tracing of the self-repair back to the two other phenomena of interest.

4.5.2.1 Of student production of errors

For the identification of phonetic-phonological, morphosyntactic, and lexical-semantic non target-like productions in both classroom and monologic data, the dependent tiers *%erp, %erm* and *%erl* were made, repectively. The *%erp* tier describes errors on pronunciation, whose three levels are separated by a colon (:). As earlier explained, the first level indicates the type of mispronunciation: it may either be of a vowel or a consonant, or a stress on the wrong syllable. The second level indicates the SL(s) that possibly influenced the production of the non target-like utterance. This responds to the third objective, which is to use CLI as a lens to further describe the participants' IL by examining their correlation. The third level contains the mispronounced word juxtaposed with the target word. Example 4-1 shows that informant **RAF* mispronounced a consonant, as represented by the code *$CON* on the first level. Based on the informant's spoken languages, such production was most probably influenced by one of his stronger L1,[21] Cebuano, written as *ceb* on the second level. To complete the information on the *%erp* tier, the mispronounced word *uniporme*, together with the target form *uniforme* are noted.

(4-1) *RAF: y el uniporme [:=t uniforme] de [/] de mi colegio era muy uh@fp grueso [=! riendo] .
%erp: $CON:ceb:uniporme|uniforme

The possible SLs are the reported L1s and/or L2s of the participants: Bisaya,

[21] All participants were asked to complete a sociolinguistic questionnaire, LEAP-Q, that included a perceived proficiency of their known languages.

Cebuano, English, Filipino, Ilocano, Kapampangan, and Pangasinense, or their other FLs: German, French, Italian and/or Japanese. The researcher's knowledge of all said languages, facilitates the identification of the SL. If the SL is not identifiable, the label *zid* is used, since there can be more than one SL, or the error is not caused by CLI.

The *%erm* tier contains grammar notes, where the first makes reference to the part of speech involved, as in 4-2:

(4-2) *PAT: entonces con eso &uh podía actuar en una manera me:jor .
%erm: $PREP:eng:en|de

The first level contains the code *$PREP* for preposition, where *en* is used instead of *de* in the collocation *de manera* + adverb. The second level marks the SL, which is English, in this case. The third merely identifies the error *en* and the target form *de*. To illustrate multiple errors in one utterance, we have Example 4-3:

(4-3) *CHR: entonces &um ^conti^continuaron sus gritos y nos &uh nos dijo que son realmente +/.
%erm: $V:zid:dijo|dijeron $V:zid:son|eran

There are three verbs in 4-3: *continuaron*, *dijo*, and *son*. Of the three, the second two are misconjugated. For *dijo*, the note *dijo|dijeron* that followed the first level *$V* means that the verb was conjugated in the third person singular, when it had to be in the third person plural. For the verb *son*, on the other hand, the unsatisfactory form *son* was juxtaposed with the more satisfactory form *eran*,

which means that the present tense was used instead of the imperfect.

The *%erm* tier also contains details on syntax, with the second level comprising the SL influencing such syntax construction, illustrated in 4-4:

(4-4) *SHE: uh@fp quiere [x3] lo uh@fp [/] quiere me darlo .
%erm: $SYN:zid:me_darlo|darmelo

The code *$SYN* represents syntax. The second level in 4-4 begins with the SL *zid,* which means that the SL was not identifiable. Ending the string is the non target-like construction *me_darlo* and the target *darmelo*.

When a single utterance contains errors of different language levels, the dependent tiers are coded as in Example 4-5:

(4-5) *MIG: y &luchab luchando con otras compañeros era muy prohíbido en mi insituto pero +...
%erm: $ADJ:zid:otras|otros
%erl: $LEX+V:eng:luchar|pelear $LEX+V:zid:ser|estar
%erp: $SYL:eng:proHIbido|prohiBIdo

Informant **MIG* makes errors on the morphosyntactic, lexico-semantic, and phonetic-phonological levels. From the *%erm* tier, we know that the affected part of speech is an adjective *$ADJ*, that the SL cannot be identified *zid*, and the erroneous utterance is *otras*, ideally replaced by *otros*.

The *%erl* tier informs us that he makes two errors, both of which are misuse of the target word as represented by *$LEX*. The tag *+V* tells of the affected part of speech, and the third level identifies the problematic and the target forms *luchar|pelear* and *ser|estar*. The two errors differ in the SL, where the first is clearly

an interference of *eng*, for the reason that *luchar* and *pelear* are both translatable to "to fight" in English. On the other hand, the confusion between *ser* and *estar* is attributable to intralingual causes (Richards, 1971; see Section 2.1).

Lastly, from the *%erp* tier, we know that it is an error affecting the entire syllable *$*SYL, influenced by English *eng* "prohibited," where the stress falls on the syllable *hi*, resulting to the non target form *proHIbido.*

Example 4-6 illustrates how informant **ANA* invents the word *respondes*, which case is presented on the first level with *$NEO* for neologism plus the tag *+N* for noun. It is transparently influenced by her one other foreign language, French, represented by the CHAT code *fra* on the second level. The French-inspired lexical invention *respondes* is placed alongside the Spanish word *respuestas*.

(4-6) *ANA: de coger los respondes [: respuestas] a su ↫am↫amigos uh@fp uh@fp .
%erl: $NEO+N:fra:respondes|respuestas

For all lexical-semantic subcategories, the non target and target forms are indicated, except for the category of borrowings, when there is no cultural counterpart for the loan word, as shown in 4-7:

(4-7) *MAR: mis compis uh@fp siempre me decían baboy, baboy [:=t cerdo] or [:=e o] kapre kapre [:=t monstruo mítico y grande que habita en árboles y fuma porros] .
%erl: $BORR+CONJ:eng:or|o $BORR+N:tgl:baboy|cerdo $BORR+N:tgl:kapre

In sum, the information relevant to the analysis of the distribution of non

target-like productions are taken from the codes assigned to first and second levels of each dependent *%er** tier—with the first level reporting on the subcategories of the phonetic-phonological, morphosyntactic, and lexical-semantic errors, and the second level reporting on the SL affecting the non target-like production.

4.5.2.2 Of teacher corrective feedback

For the identification of teacher provided corrective feedback, the dependent tiers *%fbp, %fbm* and *%fbl* were created. These are parallel to the previous tiers presented, which correspond to the feedback made on phonetic-phonological, morphosyntactic, and lexical-semantic errors, respectively. These tiers were only used in the codification of classroom interaction data, where teacher feedback was available. For all of these feedback tiers, level one marks the type of feedback, which may either be a reformulation or a prompt, with a tag specifying the feedback subtype. For reformulations, it may either be an explicit correction or a recast. For prompts, it may be a clarification request, a metalinguistic comment, an elicitation, or a repetition of the non target-like structure. The content of the third level varies. For *%fbp*, the third level refers to the mispronunciation specifications (4-8):

(4-8)
*TIN: me odio las cucarathchas /+.
%erp: $CON:zid:cucarathchas|cucarachas
%com: risas
*PRF: cucarachas .
%fbp: $REF+REC:CON:cucarathchas|cucarachas

In Example 4-8 informant **TIN* produces the non target word *cucarathchas,* whose occurrence is broken down in the *%erp* tier. The professor corrects this by recasting, interpreted in the first level of the *%fbp* tier. The code *$REF* stands for reformulation, and *REC* for recast, a reformulation subtype. The second level says *CON*, for mispronunciation of a consonant sound. The words *cucarathchas|cucarachas* are the non target and target forms, respectively.

For *%fbm*, the feedback type and subtype, and parts of speech are coded as illustrated in 4-9:

(4-9) *MIG: todavía su novia uh@fp vivo con su amiga y +/.
%erm: $V:zid:vivo|vive
*PRF: vivo ?
%fbm: $PRO+REP:V:vivo|vive

As with Example 4-9, *$PRO* is for prompt, and the tag *+REP* means the teacher repeated the incorrectly conjugated verb *vivo*. On the second level, the part of speech is identified with a *V*, for verb. The non target and target forms are likewise coded in the third level: *vivo|vive.*

Lastly, for *%fbl*, as previously enumerated, the options are: improper use of target word, lexical inventions, borrowings, calques, or false cognates. Example 4-10 shows an incident where the professor does not provide feedback in verbal form, but rather a nonverbal one:

(4-10) *FRE: me gusta hacer al jorno [:: horno] .
%erp: $CON:zid:jorno|horno
*PRF: &=pone mala cara .
%fbl: $PRO+PAR:LEX:jorno|horno
*FRE: hacer al jorno [=! preguntando] (.) to bake ?

In sum, the information that consequently leads to the identification of prompted self-repairs, is seen in the first level of the *%fb** tiers, that includes a tag that provides the information to be analyzed for the distribution of the professors' feedback preference in relation to the type of error, which is, in turn, found in the second level. Likewise, the correlation between student error production and teacher feedback is obtained through the comparison of *%er** and *%fb** distributions and frequencies.

4.5.2.3 Of student repairs

The final set of created dependent tiers are *%srp, %srm* and *%srl*, which were made for the identification of all student self-repairs. Similar to the feedback tiers, these were devised to correspond to the error tiers, also containing three levels each. The first level indicates type of self-repair: unprompted (self-initiated), repetition only and repetition with production (brought about by feedback type reformulation of the teacher), and prompted (initiated by verbal and nonverbal prompting of the teacher). It is immediately followed by a tag that marks if the repair was successful or not, i.e. if the same error was committed, a different one was made, or if the attempt only resolved the issue in part. The tag also marks hypercorrection (when the initial utterance is correct, but an unnecessary repair was made), as well as when no attempt to repair (as in no effort of uptake of teacher feedback), or when only recognition of the feedback took place (may either be a verbal *"sí, eso"* or a nonverbal nodding). The content of level three is identical to that of errors and

feedback. Example 4-11 illustrates independent and successful self-repairs on lexicon:

(4-11) *INA: no per(che) [//] porque no [/] no quiero haber [=! preguntando] [//] no quiero tener relaciones negativos con personas [//] con mis amigos.
%erl: $BORR+CONJ:ita:perche|porque $LEX+V:zid:haber|tener $NEO+N:ita:personas|personas
%srl: $USR+SS:BORR+CONJ:perche|porque $USR+SS:LEX+V:haber|tener

For both *$* codes in the *%srl* tier, the first level says *$USR*, which means that it is an unprompted self-repair. The tag says *+SS*, for successful self-repair. In the second level we find *BORR*, which stands for borrowing, together with the tag *+CONJ*, for conjuction. In the third we find the juxtaposition of the Spanish *porque* and the Italian *perche*. In this specific order this means that informant **INA* was able to use the target form in lieu of the initial borrowed Italian conjunction. Example 4-12 shows another resolved problem, but this time self-repair is related to grammar and is realized with the help of the professor:

(4-12) *SHA: ah@fp si le encontrase voy a a:gradece:r +…
%erm: $V:zid:voy_a_agradecer|agredeceria
*PRF: condicional .
%fbm: $PRO+MET:V:voy_a_agradecer|agredeceria
*SHA: ah@i ah@i le agredecería .
%srm: $PSR+SS:V:voy_a_agradecer|agredeceria

The prompting of the professor via metalinguistic comment—*$PRO+MET*—in the first level on the improperly conjugated verb—*V* second level—*voy a agradecer* is taken advantage of by informant **SHA* as evidenced by his uptake move in the next speech turn. The code *$PSR* is an indication that his self-repair was prompted. Likewise, from the +SS tag, the researcher is informed

that the informant was successful in his attempt, replacing the original near future verbal phrase with the more appropriate conditional *agradecería*.

Therefore, the information necessary for the analysis of relevant self-repairs are broken down through the codes assigned to the first and second levels of the *%sr** tiers, where attempts of pertinent self-repair phenomena, the success of the repair and the type of error repaired are distinguished, respectively.

4.5.3 Statistical Analyses

Through the execution of the FREQ command[22] in the CLAN program, we were able to extract the frequencies of the errors, feedback, self-repairs, and the total number of tokens. The extracted frequencies were analyzed with the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 20 for Windows. The statistical analyses applied are described in this section. Results of these statistical tests are briefly presented in this chapter, but are discussed in more detail in the next.

4.5.3.1 Preliminary analysis of classroom interaction data

In order to determine whether to use a parametric or nonparametric test, a preliminary analysis was carried out. All incidences of student error production, teacher feedback, and student error self-repair of the four

[22] The FREQ command was the only CLAN command used in this study. It allows the CLAN data to be exported to Microsoft Excel as a spreadsheet, providing the details and the totals of each dependent tier, which represent each phenomena of interest in this study.

proficiency groups were analyzed through measures of central tendency, spread, and distribution and examined for normality through Shapiro-Wilk tests of normality. In this dissertation, the *p-value* is set at 0.05, which allows for a 20% risk of concluding that a difference exists when there is no actual difference. However, as the sample size is small, we shall also consider marginally significant differences, that is, if a p-value falls between >0.05 and <0.10. The exact value will always be given, whether or not it is significant. Results showed that not all of the classroom interaction data is normally distributed, since in majority of the cases skewness and kurtosis are not close to zero and tests of normality produced significant results all proficiency groups.

Table 4.4 Tests for normality of classroom interaction data: errors

		Descriptive Statistics								Shapiro-Wilk		
		Mean	*SD*	*Median*	*Min*	*Max*	*Range*	*Skew.*	*Kurtosis*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
1	Phon[a]	1.70	1.61	1.03	0.00	4.17	4.17	0.977	0.660	0.9254	5	0.5653
	Morph[b]	6.09	2.13	5.22	4.17	8.72	4.55	0.522	-2.815	0.8448	5	0.1786
	Lex[c]	3.65	3.10	3.59	0.00	8.33	8.33	0.698	0.988	0.9683	5	0.8639
	Total	11.43	3.66	10.98	8.00	16.67	8.67	0.640	-0.931	0.9157	5	0.5027
2	Phon	.48	.16	.53	.24	.62	.38	-1.178	0.740	0.8948	5	0.3818
	Morph	7.40	1.66	7.19	4.96	9.18	4.22	-0.611	-0.081	0.9404	5	0.6688
	Lex	2.60	.35	2.48	2.29	3.12	0.82	0.987	-0.273	0.8939	5	0.3771
	Total	10.48	1.75	10.49	7.85	12.54	4.69	-0.670	0.838	0.9702	5	0.8764
3	Phon	.77	1.46	.16	0.00	3.70	3.70	2.302	5.401	0.6270	6	0.0010
	Morph	3.01	1.99	3.37	0.00	5.45	5.45	-0.501	-0.566	0.9732	6	0.9131
	Lex	1.07	1.50	.33	0.00	3.70	3.70	1.418	0.958	0.7745	6	0.0342
	Total	4.85	2.30	4.57	1.53	7.50	5.97	-0.091	-0.885	0.9276	6	0.5620
4	Phon	.21	.22	.16	0.00	.52	.52	1.160	1.603	0.9318	4	0.6051
	Morph	1.80	.78	1.54	1.17	2.94	1.77	1.650	2.997	0.8399	4	0.1952
	Lex	.44	.16	.48	.21	.58	.37	-1.461	2.666	0.8741	4	0.3142
	Total	2.45	.78	2.30	1.75	3.43	1.68	0.634	-2.230	0.9073	4	0.4681

[a] Phonetic-phonological
[b] Morphosyntactic
[c] Lexical-semantic

Table 4.5 Tests for normality of classroom interaction data: prompts

		Descriptive Statistics								Shapiro-Wilk		
		Mean	*SD*	*Median*	*Min*	*Max*	*Range*	*Skew.*	*Kurtosis*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
1	Phon	20.00	44.72	0.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	2.236	5.000	.5522	5	.0001
	Morph	6.99	10.01	0.00	0.00	21.62	21.62	0.981	-1.205	.7717	5	.0467
	Lex	5.62	5.95	6.67	0.00	14.29	14.29	0.595	-0.386	.8884	5	.3490
	Total	10.45	9.96	7.89	0.00	25.00	25.00	0.744	-0.460	.9519	5	.7507
2	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	2.51	2.84	1.49	0.00	5.93	5.93	0.460	-2.901	.8332	5	.1470
	Lex	4.06	4.73	3.23	0.00	11.32	11.32	0.997	0.347	.8903	5	.3587
	Total	2.81	3.10	1.89	0.00	6.57	6.57	0.413	-2.801	.8488	5	.1907
3	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	.71	1.75	0.00	0.00	4.29	4.29	2.449	6.000	.4961	6	.0000
	Lex	4.63	7.38	0.00	0.00	16.67	16.67	1.207	-0.459	.7021	6	.0065
	Total	1.27	2.03	0.00	0.00	4.60	4.60	1.219	-0.389	.7027	6	.0066
4	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	2.00	2.39	1.61	0.00	4.76	4.76	0.345	-4.041	.8470	4	.2167
	Lex	6.25	12.50	0.00	0.00	25.00	25.00	2.000	4.000	.6298	4	.0012
	Total	3.07	2.83	2.81	0.00	6.67	6.67	0.472	-0.157	.9882	4	.9482

Table 4.6 Tests for normality of classroom interaction data: unprompted self-repair attempts

		Descriptive Statistics								Shapiro-Wilk		
		Mean	*SD*	*Median*	*Min*	*Max*	*Range*	*Skew.*	*Kurtosis*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
1	Phon	5.71	12.78	0.00	0.00	28.57	28.57	2.236	5.000	.5522	5	.0001
	Morph	35.89	38.13	26.67	0.00	100.00	100.00	1.581	3.037	.8590	5	.2246
	Lex	11.24	11.90	13.33	0.00	28.57	28.57	0.595	-0.386	.8884	5	.3490
	Total	17.87	11.26	19.23	0.00	29.31	29.31	-1.123	1.457	.9287	5	.5874
2	Phon	11.50	11.40	12.50	0.00	25.00	25.00	0.009	-2.570	.8843	5	.3290
	Morph	12.38	3.22	11.11	9.76	17.78	8.02	1.614	2.555	.8388	5	.1617
	Lex	9.42	10.59	6.45	0.00	27.27	27.27	1.632	3.002	.8516	5	.1996
	Total	11.33	1.37	11.17	9.43	12.96	3.53	-0.286	-0.566	.9757	5	.9101
3	Phon	3.03	7.42	0.00	0.00	18.18	18.18	2.449	6.000	.4961	6	.0000
	Morph	26.16	17.07	27.08	0.00	50.00	50.00	-0.244	0.367	.9744	6	.9205
	Lex	8.33	13.94	0.00	0.00	33.33	33.33	1.537	1.429	.7013	6	.0064
	Total	24.62	17.31	24.61	0.00	50.00	50.00	0.072	-0.018	.9834	6	.9670
4	Phon	8.33	16.67	0.00	0.00	33.33	33.33	2.000	4.000	.6298	4	.0012
	Morph	16.89	10.32	16.40	4.76	30.00	25.24	0.285	1.532	.9511	4	.7231
	Lex	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Total	12.83	5.58	11.95	7.41	20.00	12.59	0.692	-1.012	.9537	4	.7394

Table 4.7 Tests for normality of classroom interaction data: successful prompted self-repairs

		Descriptive Statistics								Shapiro-Wilk		
		Mean	*SD*	*Median*	*Min*	*Max*	*Range*	*Skew.*	*Kurtosis*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
1	Phon	20.00	44.72	0.00	0.00	100.00	100.00	2.236	5.000	.5522	5	.0001
	Morph	1.62	3.63	0.00	0.00	8.11	8.11	2.236	5.000	.5522	5	.0001
	Lex	1.33	2.98	0.00	0.00	6.67	6.67	2.236	5.000	.5522	5	.0001
	Total	6.56	10.53	2.63	0.00	25.00	25.00	2.014	4.158	.7197	5	.0152
2	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	1.25	1.76	0.00	0.00	3.70	3.70	0.840	-1.999	.7631	5	.0392
	Lex	2.54	3.12	1.92	0.00	7.55	7.55	1.281	1.453	.8649	5	.2462
	Total	1.55	1.75	.94	0.00	3.76	3.76	0.500	-2.640	.8506	5	.1964
3	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	.24	.58	0.00	0.00	1.43	1.43	2.449	6.000	.4961	6	.0000
	Lex	4.63	7.38	0.00	0.00	16.67	16.67	1.207	-0.459	.7021	6	.0065
	Total	.89	1.40	0.00	0.00	3.03	3.03	1.086	-1.170	.6911	6	.0050
4	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	2.00	2.39	1.61	0.00	4.76	4.76	0.345	-4.041	.8470	4	.2167
	Lex	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Total	1.41	1.78	.96	0.00	3.70	3.70	0.791	-1.620	.8642	4	.2754

Table 4.8 Tests for normality of classroom interaction data: successful unprompted self-repairs

		Descriptive Statistics								Shapiro-Wilk		
		Mean	*SD*	*Median*	*Min*	*Max*	*Range*	*Skew.*	*Kurtosis*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
1	Phon	5.71	12.78	0.00	0.00	28.57	28.57	2.236	5.000	.5522	5	.0001
	Morph	31.31	39.26	18.92	0.00	100.00	100.00	1.979	4.251	.7286	5	.0186
	Lex	9.81	11.87	7.14	0.00	28.57	28.57	1.180	0.968	.8745	5	.2850
	Total	14.93	9.37	17.24	0.00	25.00	25.00	-1.122	1.775	.9307	5	.6012
2	Phon	11.50	11.40	12.50	0.00	25.00	25.00	0.009	-2.570	.8843	5	.3290
	Morph	10.26	2.16	9.76	7.46	13.33	5.87	0.314	0.689	.9736	5	.8980
	Lex	8.78	10.91	3.77	0.00	27.27	27.27	1.720	3.007	.8133	5	.1035
	Total	9.68	2.46	9.23	6.60	12.96	6.36	0.207	-0.711	.9864	5	.9654
3	Phon	3.03	7.42	0.00	0.00	18.18	18.18	2.449	6.000	.4961	6	.0000
	Morph	23.82	17.45	23.54	0.00	50.00	50.00	0.214	-0.074	.9933	6	.9957
	Lex	8.33	13.94	0.00	0.00	33.33	33.33	1.537	1.429	.7013	6	.0064
	Total	22.84	17.85	22.31	0.00	50.00	50.00	0.349	-0.287	.9884	6	.9850
4	Phon	8.33	16.67	0.00	0.00	33.33	33.33	2.000	4.000	.6298	4	.0012
	Morph	16.89	10.32	16.40	4.76	30.00	25.24	0.285	1.532	.9511	4	.7231
	Lex	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Total	12.83	5.58	11.95	7.41	20.00	12.59	0.692	-1.012	.9537	4	.7394

Since Shapiro-Wilk tests for normality yielded significant results and the descriptive analyses yielded skewed distributions on classroom interaction data, the decision to apply nonparametric tests was made. A third reason for choosing nonparametric analyses is the fact that the sample size of each proficiency group is unequal and small (n=5 being the smallest).

4.5.3.2. Preliminary analysis of monologic data

The same data screening was done to verify if, like classroom interaction data, a nonparametric test is applicable for monologic data. All incidences of student error production, teacher feedback, and student error self-repair of the four proficiency groups were analyzed through measures of central tendency and Shapiro-Wilk tests of normality. Descriptive analyses showed that monologic data is not normally distributed, since in majority of the cases skewness and kurtosis were not close to zero. Again, a word of caution on the results of the Shapiro-Wilk tests must be made since none of the results on the totals showed significant for normality. Significant results can be observed in the breakdown of the totals, which is presented in the next chapter.

Table 4.9 Tests for normality of monologic data: errors

		Descriptive Statistics								Shapiro-Wilk		
		Mean	*SD*	*Median*	*Min*	*Max*	*Range*	*Skew.*	*Kurtosis*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
1	Phon	1.35	1.34	.72	0.00	3.33	3.33	0.880	-0.445	0.9137	5	0.4899
	Morph	13.39	7.02	10.33	7.19	25.00	17.81	1.516	2.277	0.8575	5	0.2193
	Lex	5.78	3.44	4.68	1.67	9.92	8.25	0.192	-2.054	0.9311	5	0.6041
	Total	20.52	7.31	22.31	12.59	30.00	17.41	0.092	-1.750	0.9215	5	0.5395
2	Phon	.35	.44	.23	0.00	1.05	1.05	1.329	1.492	0.8577	5	0.2203
	Morph	7.33	1.98	7.44	4.92	9.52	4.60	-0.140	-2.344	0.9329	5	0.6162
	Lex	2.32	1.44	1.86	1.23	4.74	3.51	1.603	2.534	0.8242	5	0.1258
	Total	10.00	2.43	10.26	6.15	12.47	6.32	-1.096	1.357	0.9300	5	0.5961
3	Phon	.08	.17	0.00	0.00	.38	.38	2.236	5.000	0.5522	5	0.0001
	Morph	6.88	2.14	6.87	4.15	9.84	5.68	0.206	-0.055	0.9972	5	0.9978
	Lex	1.52	.97	1.88	.34	2.46	2.12	-0.459	-2.802	0.8665	5	0.2524
	Total	8.48	3.02	9.54	4.79	12.30	7.50	-0.080	-1.513	0.9391	5	0.6593
4	Phon	.21	.42	0.00	0.00	.96	.96	2.190	4.822	0.6138	5	0.0010
	Morph	5.16	1.66	5.60	3.35	7.09	3.74	-0.166	-2.565	0.8915	5	0.3647
	Lex	1.23	.73	.99	.62	2.40	1.78	1.320	1.315	0.8714	5	0.2721
	Total	6.59	1.69	6.93	4.12	8.16	4.04	-0.776	-0.639	0.9165	5	0.5076

Table 4.10 Tests for normality of monologic data: unprompted self-repair attempts

		Descriptive Statistics								Shapiro-Wilk		
		Mean	*SD*	*Median*	*Min*	*Max*	*Range*	*Skew.*	*Kurtosis*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
1	Phon	15.00	22.36	0.00	0.00	50.00	50.00	1.258	0.313	.771	5	.046
	Morph	25.21	13.16	30.00	6.67	40.00	33.33	-0.585	-0.812	.952	5	.751
	Lex	10.86	15.48	7.69	0.00	37.50	37.50	1.832	3.572	.767	5	.042
	Total	20.61	10.60	22.86	5.56	31.48	25.93	-0.639	-1.011	.945	5	.698
2	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	27.81	2.68	28.13	23.81	31.25	7.44	-0.488	1.550	.960	5	.808
	Lex	2.50	5.59	0.00	0.00	12.50	12.50	2.236	5.000	.552	5	.000
	Total	21.14	4.54	21.82	13.64	25.00	11.36	-1.469	2.324	.859	5	.226
3	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	23.01	6.86	23.08	16.00	33.33	17.33	0.784	0.230	.938	5	.652
	Lex	13.33	21.73	0.00	0.00	50.00	50.00	1.714	2.664	.735	5	.021
	Total	20.71	5.71	23.33	12.90	26.67	13.76	-0.623	-1.645	.914	5	.489
4	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	41.50	25.06	33.33	18.99	71.43	52.44	0.424	-2.904	.838	5	.159
	Lex	6.67	14.91	0.00	0.00	33.33	33.33	2.236	5.000	.552	5	.000
	Total	31.96	17.42	33.33	13.33	55.00	41.67	0.234	-1.638	.940	5	.665

Table 4.11 Tests for normality of monologic data: successful unprompted self-repairs

		Descriptive Statistics								Shapiro-Wilk		
		Mean	*SD*	*Median*	*Min*	*Max*	*Range*	*Skew.*	*Kurtosis*	*Statistic*	*df*	*Sig.*
1	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	17.87	9.99	20.00	6.67	30.00	23.33	-0.065	-2.229	.9243	5	.5578
	Lex	10.13	15.67	5.45	0.00	37.50	37.50	1.983	4.083	.7302	5	.0193
	Total	15.27	9.40	14.29	5.56	27.78	22.22	0.385	-1.774	.9354	5	.6336
2	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	19.91	7.75	25.00	9.09	26.19	17.10	-0.839	-1.882	.8111	5	.0996
	Lex	2.50	5.59	0.00	0.00	12.50	12.50	2.236	5.000	.5522	5	.0001
	Total	15.80	7.26	20.00	4.55	21.95	17.41	-1.177	0.208	.8496	5	.1933
3	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	18.27	9.31	16.67	7.69	33.33	25.64	1.146	2.646	.8767	5	.2947
	Lex	13.33	21.73	0.00	0.00	50.00	50.00	1.714	2.664	.7348	5	.0214
	Total	16.71	4.45	16.67	12.90	24.00	11.10	1.389	2.115	.8465	5	.1838
4	Phon	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00					
	Morph	35.93	27.69	25.93	9.52	71.43	61.90	0.524	-2.481	.8813	5	.3154
	Lex	6.67	14.91	0.00	0.00	33.33	33.33	2.236	5.000	.5522	5	.0001
	Total	27.42	18.57	26.67	6.67	50.00	43.33	0.122	-2.302	.9366	5	.6419

Aside from the significant results yielded by Shapiro-Wilk tests for normality, the skewed distributions, the positive and negative values of kurtosis, and the small number of students in each proficiency group indicated the need to apply a nonparametric analysis on monologic data as well.

4.5.3.3 Analysis of the effect of TL proficiency on errors

The analysis of the effect of TL proficiency on the production of errors responds to the first research question. First, to determine the frequency of error and their corresponding subtypes, their mean percentage, taken from the measures of central tendency, was considered.

However, to test if the independent variable TL proficiency has a significant effect on the dependent variable of rate of error production Kruskal-Wallis One-Way ANOVA was applied. As the first level of this statistical test only indicates the existence of any significant difference among the mean ranks of the proficiency groups, the second level, Pairwise Comparisons, was likewise carried out. It is this second level of the Kruskal-Wallis test which determines which groups are significantly different from one another. The existence of a statistical difference between groups is substantiated by their respective effect size, represented by Cohen's *d*. In this study we interpret the results according to conventional standards as established by Cohen (1969, p. 23), where d=0.2 is considered small, d=0.5 is medium, and d=0.8 is large. Effect sizes are presented in the next chapter.

Figure 4.1 Boxplot of total errors produced by the four proficiency groups from classroom interaction data

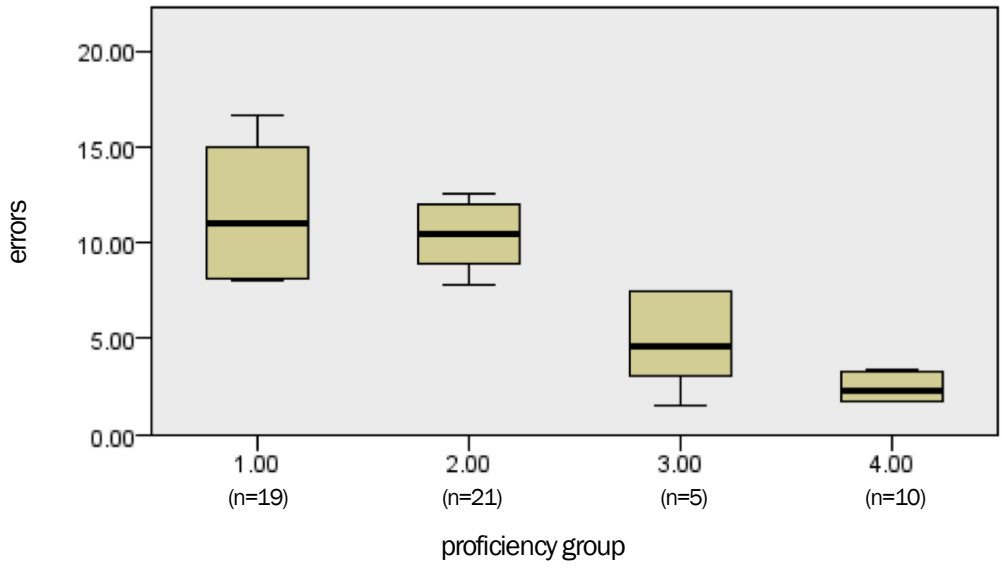
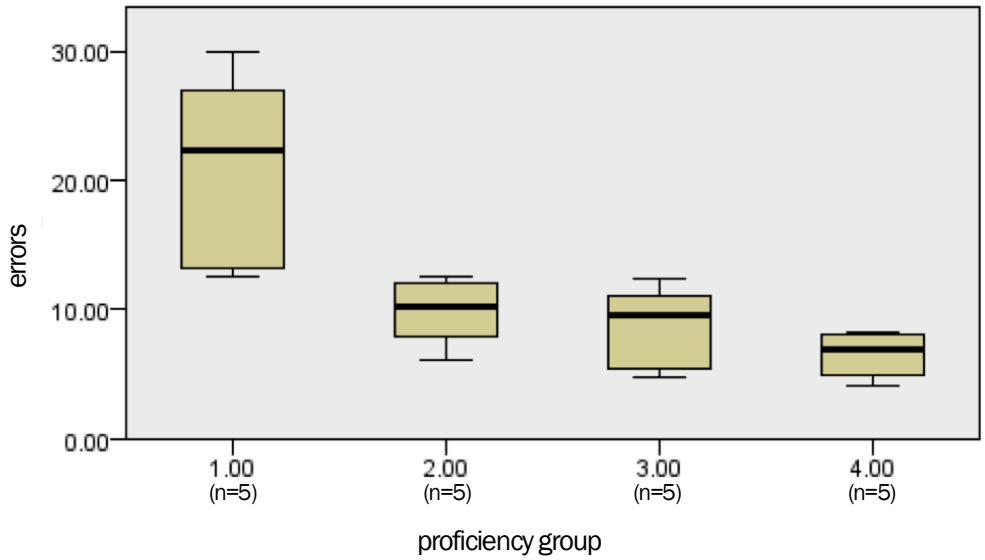


Figure 4.2 Boxplot of total errors produced by the four proficiency groups from monologic data



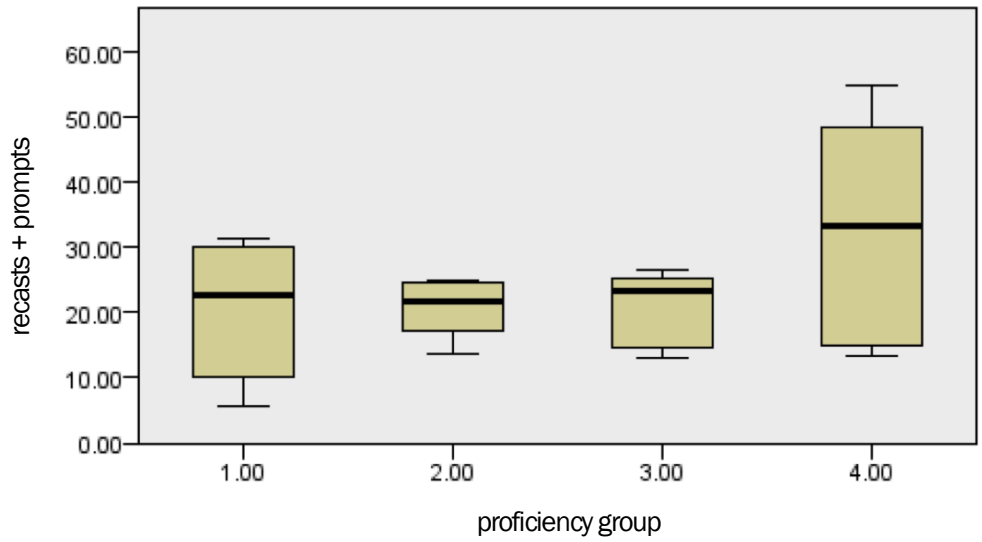
The Kruskal-Wallis boxplots of errors in classroom interaction and monologic data illustrate that the spread of data tends to be wide, especially in the beginners' group. Though we recognize that this affects the reliability of the results, it is not recommendable to remove any data since the already small sample size cannot afford to get any smaller. None of the participants is considered an outlier, as the boxplots likewise show, since each of the five participants, specifically in monologic data, represent every line of the boxplot: the minimum and maximum values, the median, and the standard deviation above and below the median. Every participant is, hence, essential. It is worth highlighting that in spite of the wide spread of the data, it suggests that TL proficiency has an effect on error production, as boxplots of both classroom

interaction and monologic data clearly display a descending trend in error production in relation to TL proficiency.

4.5.3.4 Analysis of the effect of TL proficiency on error recognition

The analysis of the effect of TL proficiency on the recognition of errors responds to the second research question. To determine how frequent teachers verbally recognized the errors produced by the students, which is only observable in classroom interaction data, their mean percentage was considered. Likewise, to determine how frequent students independently recognized their own errors, which is observable in both classroom interaction and monologic data, their respective mean percentage was studied. Similar to the case of the dependent variable of error production, to test if the independent variable TL proficiency has a significant effect on the dependent variable of rate of error recognition Kruskal-Wallis One-Way ANOVA was applied. Pairwise Comparisons were also applied to determine which groups are significantly different from one another. As with error data, the effect size between groups will be presented to complement the statistical analyses. The effect size aims to illustrate how big or small the difference is between groups, regardless if they are significantly different from each other or not.

Figure 4.3 Boxplot of teacher feedback (combination of recasts and prompts) in classroom interaction data



The boxplots of teacher recognition of errors likewise show that the spread of the data of teacher feedback on students' errors is wide. While the magnitude of spread puts the validity of the data in question, it is worth noting that the data still cast light on how much of student errors are made salient through teacher feedback, which is almost the same amount across proficiency groups.

Figure 4.4 Boxplot of student unprompted self-repairs in classroom interaction data

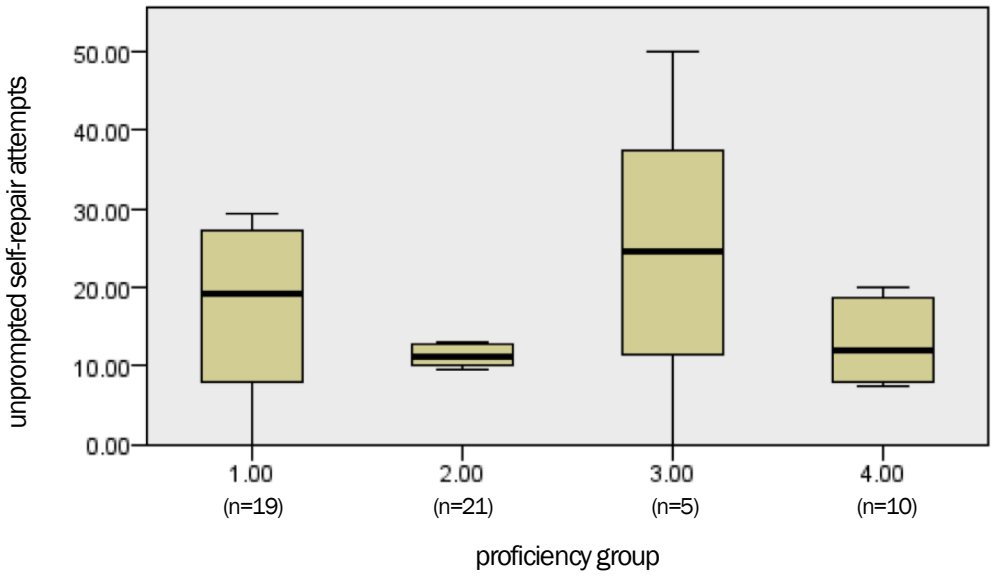
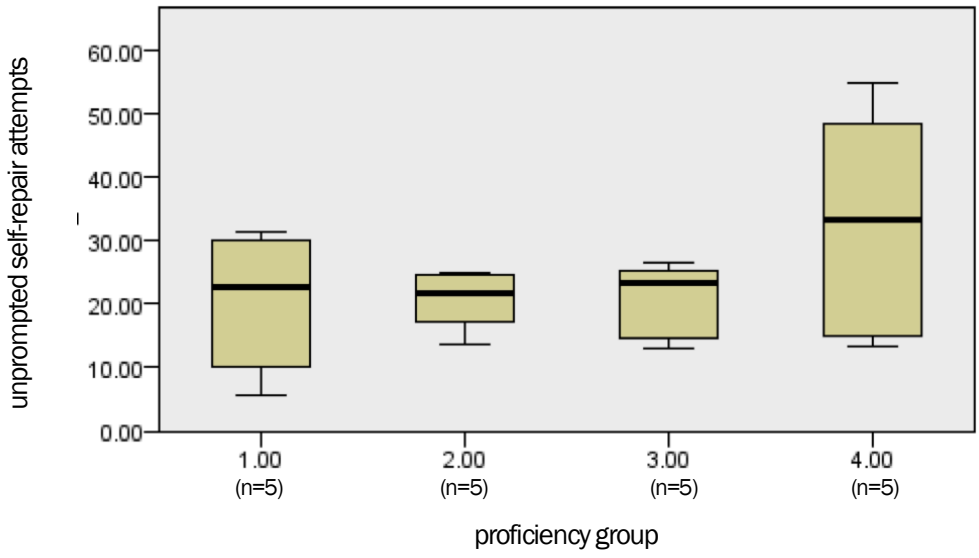


Figure 4.5 Boxplot of student unprompted self-repairs in monologic data



Similarly, albeit the wide spread of the data shown by the boxplots of unprompted self-repairs, the data cannot simply be dismissed as invalid since it provides a general representation of how much the students are capable of independently detecting their own errors, in relation to their TL proficiency. Like teacher recognition of student errors, unprompted attempts to self-repair also appear to be the same amount across proficiency groups. Although this is not too evident in the boxplot of classroom interaction data, it is in monologic data, and even more evident when the averages of classroom interaction and monologic data are combined.

4.5.3.5 Analysis of the effect of TL proficiency on self-repair attempts

The analysis of the effect of TL proficiency on the rate self-repair attempts in general, as well as on the success rate of these attempts, responds to the third research question. To determine the frequency of unprompted self-repair attempts their mean percentage, from descriptive analyses, was examined. The same is done to determine the rate of success in prompted and unprompted self-repairs. Similar to error production and error recognition, to test if the independent variable of TL proficiency has a significant effect on the dependent variables of rate of self-repairs Kruskal-Wallis One-Way ANOVA was applied. Pairwise Comparisons were also applied to determine which groups are significantly different from one another. Like error production and error recognition, data on self-repairs will also be studied based on the effect size between groups.

Figure 4.6 Boxplot of successful student prompted self-repairs in classroom interaction data

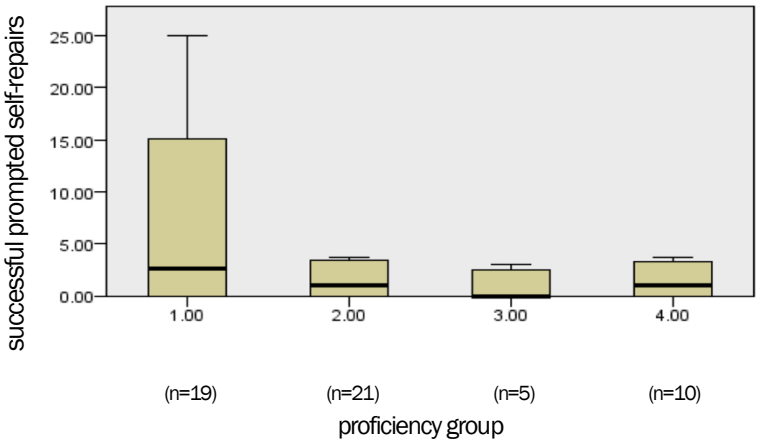


Figure 4.7 Boxplot of successful student unprompted self-repairs in classroom interaction data

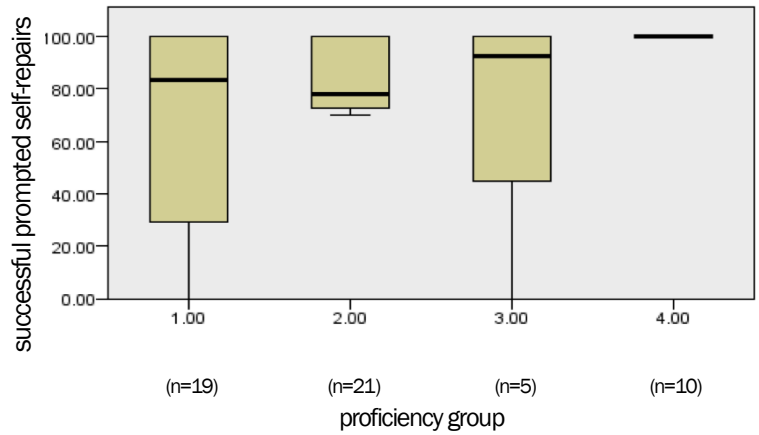
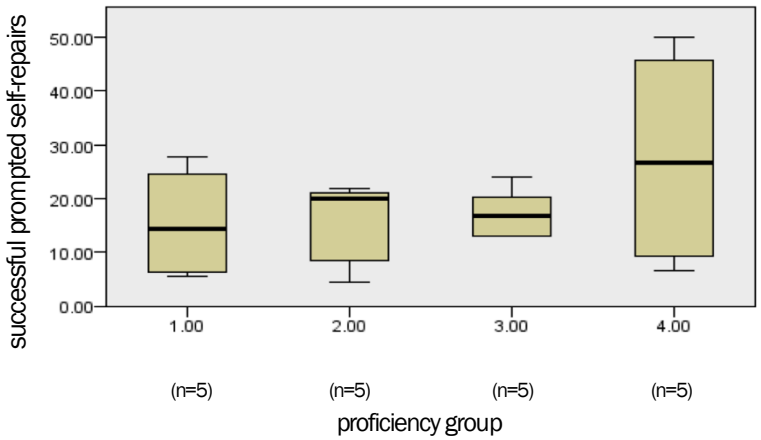


Figure 4.8 Boxplot of successful student unprompted self-repairs in monologic data



Once again the boxplots show that the spread of data of successful self-repairs is also wide. However, despite the apparent irregularity of the distribution of data, results suggest that the success rate of self-repairs seem similar across proficiency groups. More importantly, the results demonstrate that the success rate of unprompted self-repairs are relatively higher than that of prompted self-repairs.

4.5.3.6. Analysis of the effect of crosslinguistic similarity and SL proficiency on errors

To determine if the independent variable of crosslinguistic similarity among the languages that the participants speak and the independent variable of their corresponding proficiency levels have a significant effect on the dependent variable of rate of error production, Multiple Regression Model was employed. The results of this test respond to the fourth research question, since they establish the relationship among the variables, identify which among the independent CL factors best predicts the result of the dependent variable of error production, and determine the relative effect of each of the predictors to the total variance. The regression outputs used for this study were coefficient of determination (R^2) and beta coefficients whose significance are both set at ($p < 0.05$). Results yielded a high R^2, which means that the independent variables of crosslinguistic similarity and language proficiency can be held accountable for the outcome of the dependent variable of error production. Meanwhile, the standardized beta coefficients not only ranked the

languages according to their influence on the outcome of error production, but also showed how significantly they affect it.

After identifying which of the informants' known languages served as SL, the proficiency that these informants had in each language was examined in relation to the production errors, in order to determine if SL proficiency plays a significant role in the frequency of their production. Proficiency in five different languages was used in creating the Multiple Regression model against the dependent variables of TL and SL proficiency. These five languages are (1) Spanish, (2) Tagalog, (3) English, (4) other European languages and (5) other Philippine languages. The category *other European languages* is the combined proficiency of students concomitantly learning French, German, and Italian, while *other Philippine languages* is the combined proficiency of students in Cebuano, Kapampangan, Ilocano, and Pangasinense. These languages were combined into their respective groups since only a few of the informants coincided in knowing all of these languages. The procedure was done in order to assess the individual effects of the proficiency levels in different languages on error production.

In the chapter that follows the detailed results of these statistical analyses are presented and explored.

5
RESULTS

In this chapter we answer our research questions in order to check the hypotheses put forward in Chapter 3 by first presenting findings pertinent to classroom interaction data, followed by those of monologic data. Since each data set offers a unique pool of information on error recognition and repair, discussion of these two will not entirely be parallel. We close this chapter with a brief comparison of interaction and monologic data results.

5.1 Classroom Interaction Data

Results from classroom interaction data come from a tagged transcription of a total of approximately 40 hours of classroom sessions; roughly ten class hours were audio recorded for each of the four proficiency groups. Each class varied in size, making the number of participants per group unequal. As explained in Chapter 4, this has been disregarded since the sole purpose of collecting classroom interaction data was to be able to observe prompted self-repair phenomena, which is absent in monologic data. Since the differing numbers would make it difficult to analyze any personal information, the participants in the classroom interaction data were not asked to answer the sociolinguistic questionnaire that the participants of monologic data did. The presentation of classroom data results is hence limited to the identification of the possible SLs of the errors and the exploration of the relationship of errors and self-repairs with TL proficiency.

5.1.1 Errors

This section centers on analyses of error production. The results of these analyses allow us to observe the frequency and distribution of errors vis-à-vis the CLI factors of interest.

5.1.1.1 Frequency of Errors

To determine how TL proficiency affects the frequency and distribution of errors, which responds to the first research question, the mean percentage of the errors produced per group was computed for by dividing the total number of errors by the total number of utterances by the same group. The descriptive analyses of the errors produced by the four proficiency groups suggest that TL proficiency has a reverse effect on error production (see Table 5.1). The average number of errors produced by the least proficient Group 1 (M=11.43, SD=3.660) is only slightly higher than that of Group 2 (M=10.48, SD=1.760). Similarly, the mean of Group 3 (M=4.85, SD=2.300) is only slightly higher than that of Group 4 (M=2.45, SD=0.790).

Table 5.1 Distribution of errors according to error type and proficiency group*

	Group 1 n=19	*Group 2 n=21*	*Group 3 n=5*	*Group 4 n=10*
Phonetic-phonological	1.70	0.48	0.77	0.21
	(1.606)	(1.560)	(1.457)	(0.224)
Morphosyntactic	6.09	7.40	3.01	1.80
	(2.127)	(1.663)	(1.986)	(0.785)
Lexical-semantic	3.65	2.60	1.07	0.44
	(3.104)	(0.345)	(1.502)	(0.158)
Total	11.43	10.48	4.85	2.45
	(3.660)	(1.760)	(2.300)	(0.790)

*SD in parentheses

Results of Kruskal-Wallis One-Way ANOVA ($p<0.05$) inform us that at least one of the groups produced significantly more errors than the rest ($kw=15.119$, $p=0.002$). To explore the significant differences among the four proficiency groups, Pairwise Comparison tests were carried out, which indicate that there is no significant difference between Groups 1 and 2 ($kw=1.000$, $p=0.789$), and no significant difference between Groups 3 and 4 ($kw=3.333$, $p=0.383$). However, the two lower proficiency groups produced significantly more errors compared to the two higher proficiency groups: Group 1 made significantly more errors than Group 3 ($kw=9.167$, $p=0.011$) and Group 4 ($kw=12.500$, $p=0.002$). Likewise, Group 2 made significantly more errors than Group 3 ($kw=8.167$, $p=0.023$) and Group 4 ($kw=11.500$, $p=0.004$). Meaning, the beginners and low intermediates produced one error for every ten words uttered, while the high intermediates and advanced students produced around one error for every 20 words uttered.

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the existence of a statistical difference between the lower and higher proficiency groups is substantiated by their respective effect size, represented by Cohen's *d*. Between Groups 1 and 2, the two lowest proficiency groups, the effect size is quite small ($d=0.332$), which is, in a way, consistent with the results of the statistical analyses. In contrast, between Groups 3 and 4, the two highest proficiency groups, the effect size is quite large ($d=1.3978$). It is interesting to note that the statistical tests suggest otherwise, i.e. there is no significant difference between Groups 3 and 4. Lastly, the effect size between Groups 1 and 3 ($d=2.1519$) and 1 and 4 ($d=3.3955$) is very large. Likewise, the effect size between Groups 2 and 3 ($d=2.7481$) and 2 and 4 ($d=5.9110$) is as substantial, which are consist with the statistical outcomes. Hence, based on the effect sizes, the differences among groups are all visible, although the statistical results say otherwise.

As for the specific nature of the errors produced, majority of the errors were

morphosyntactic in nature, followed by lexical-semantic, and then by phonetic-phonological errors. With regards phonetic-phonological errors, descriptive analyses show that a negligible amount of errors was produced across all proficiency groups, with Group 1 having the highest mean at below 2.00 (M=1.70, SD=1.606), and Groups 2 (M=0.48, SD=1.560), 3 (M=0.77, SD=1.457), and 4 (M=0.2, SD=0.224) at less than 1.00. Kruskal-Wallis tests further confirm that there is no significant difference among them (*kw*=5.185, *p*=0.159).

Contrary to the results yielded by the descriptive and statistical analyses, the effect sizes of phonetic-phonological errors are visible. Precaution must be taken, however, as occurrence of this error type is very low, which may yield distorted effect size values. Only one registered as small, that of Groups 2 and 3 (*d*=0.2808). The others are medium, such as that of Groups 1 and 3 (*d*=0.6044), and Groups 3 and 4 (*d*=0.5367). The rest are large, such as that of Groups 1 and 2 (*d*=1.0674), Groups 1 and 4 (*d*=1.2963), and Groups 2 and 4 (*d*=1.3892).

With regards morphosyntactic errors, the trend of this category slightly deviates from the general descending pattern: Group 2 had the highest mean (M=7.40, SD=1.663), closely followed by Group 1 (M=6.09, SD=2.127), then Group 3 (M=3.01, SD=1.986), and Group 4 (M=1.80, SD=0.785). Kruskal-Wallis tests indicate that at least of one of the groups is significantly different from the others (*kw*=12.198, *p*=0.007). Similar to the general trend, the results of Pairwise Comparison tests indicate that the mean of morphosyntax errors of Group 1 is marginally significantly different from Group 3 (*kw*=6.267, *p*=0.080) and from Group 4 (*kw*=9.350, *p*=0.018), and the mean of morphosyntax errors of Group 2 is significantly different from Group 3 (*kw*=8.867, *p*=0.013) and from Group 4 (*kw*=11.950, *p*=0.003). In other words, the lower proficiency groups produced morphosyntax errors twice more often than the higher proficiency groups.

To illustrate how large the marginal significant difference is between groups, their respective Cohen's *d* is presented. The effect size between Groups 1 and 3 in terms of morphosyntactic errors is large (*d*=1.4938), and between Groups 1 and 4 even larger (*d*=2.6758). Meanwhile, the effect size between Groups 2 and 3 is comparable to that of Groups 1 and 4 (*d*=2.3942), and that between Groups 2 and 4 even much larger (*d*=4.3070). Simply, the difference among all proficiency groups are evident.

Next to morphosyntactic errors, a considerable amount of lexical-semantic errors was also produced. Group 1 has the highest mean (M=3.65, SD=3.104), followed by Group 2 (M=2.60, SD=0.345), then by Group 3 (M=1.07, SD=1.502), and lastly by Group 4 (M=0.44, SD=0.158). According to Pairwise Comparison analyses, between the two lower proficiency groups and between the two higher ones there is no significant difference. However, Group 1 produced marginally significantly more vocabulary errors than Group 3 (*kw*=6.267, *p*=0.080) and than Group 4 (*kw*=6.600, *p*=0.096). Similarly, Group 2 is marginally significantly different from Group 3 (*kw*=6.667, *p*=0.062) and from Group 4 (*kw*=7.000, *p*=0.077). Again, on the average, the lower proficiency groups produced lexical-semantic errors twice more often than the higher proficiency groups.

The effect of the TL proficiency on lexical-semantic error production is as evident as its effect on morphosyntactic errors, though smaller in comparison. The effect size between Groups 1 and 2 (*d*=0.4744), and between Groups 3 and 4 (*d*=0.5911) is only medium while the rest are large, with that of Groups 2 and 4 exceptionally large (*d*=8.0593). Like morphosyntactic size effect values, the difference among all proficiency groups in terms of lexical-semantic errors are sizeable, albeit the significant differences being only marginal.

These results will be compared and contrasted with those of monologic data in Chapter 6. We continue this section with the results on crosslinguistic similarity.

5.1.1.2 Source Languages

In answer to the fourth research question, a precursory step in analyzing the effect of crosslinguistic similarity is identifying the languages that might have influenced the production of the errors, which is the last research question. For this, a statistical test was not deemed necessary. In the transcription, every error was tagged together with the most possible SL, and results show that Spanish itself was the most identifiable SL of the errors, followed by English—a far second. An average of 68% of the errors were intralingual. English was responsible for a mere 15.5% of the errors, while Filipino was for roughly 3%. Some 6.5% were influenced by other known European languages, and the remaining 10% had an unidentifiable SL.

Among the error types, those of phonetic-phonological and morphosyntactc errors were largely intralingual, with an average of 76 and 78%, respectively. For lexical-semantic errors, the SL was mostly English, scoring an average of 54%., The percentages from this section will supplement the discussion on the effect of crosslinguistic similarity in Chapter 6.

Meanwhile, we continue this section with the exploration of the subsequent linguistic phenomena to error production in the classroom: teacher corrective feedback and students' recognition of error and their successful attempts to self-repair.

5.1.2 Prompted Self-Repairs

This section, which deals with analyses of prompted self-repairs, is comprised of two parts: teacher corrective feedback, and successfully accomplished prompted self-repairs. The

results of these analyses allow us to observe the frequency and distribution of such repairs in accordance to the effects of TL proficiency.

5.1.2.1 Frequency of Teacher Corrective Feedback

First, we present the analyses done on teachers' recognition of student errors as manifested by their recasts. Though this research does not focus on such corrective feedback, we believe that the presentation of their results will later prove relevant in the discussions in Chapter 6. After presenting the results on recasts we proceed to prompts, which lead to the results of prompted self-repair. It is this last component of this subsection that sheds light on which errors are recognized with the prompting of the teacher, which answers the second research question.

5.1.2.1.1 Recasts

On average, the teachers recasted 10% to 20% of the total errors of their students. The mean percentage of recasts was computed for by dividing the total number of recasts by the total number of errors, and based on the descriptive analyses (see Table 5.2), it appears that the teacher of Group 1 (M=16.63, SD=21.683) made the most recasts, followed by that of Group 3 (M=14.66, SD=21.650), and then those of Groups 4 (M=12.88, SD=11.874) and 2 (M=12.62, SD=10.158). This suggests that the teacher of the beginners group recasted more frequently than others, thus providing her students more opportunity to repeat the corrected erroneous utterance. However, based on results of Kruskal-Wallis tests, there is no significant difference among them (kw=0.206, p=0.977). Likewise, the effect size among all groups is nil. Only two groups registered a small effect size, between Groups 1 and 2 (d=0.2369) and Groups 1 and 4 (d=0.2144). However, this account on effect size comes with a caveat—that the standard

deviation of recasts is wide—a warning on the limitation of the results that has been heeded in the previous chapter. For this reason the effect size in the subcategories will not be presented.

Table 5.2 Distribution of recasts according to error type and proficiency group*

	Group 1 n=19	*Group 2 n=21*	*Group 3 n=5*	*Group 4 n=10*
Phonetic-phonological	5.00	21.50	1.52	5.00
	(11.180)	(22.333)	(3.711)	(10.000)
Morphosyntactic	15.37	9.51	5.79	7.47
	(20.138)	(8.047)	(13.504)	(10.000)
Lexical-semantic	23.24	19.82	22.22	35.80
	(30.406)	(14.320)	(40.369)	(44.084)
Total	16.63	12.62	14.66	12.88
	(21.683)	(10.158)	(21.650)	(11.874)

*SD in parentheses

The least frequently recasted was phonetic-phonological errors, with the low intermediates documented as having received the most amount of recasts on mispronunciation (M=21.50, SD=22.333), followed by beginners (M=5.00, SD=11.180) and advanced learners (M=5.00, SD=11.180), and lastly by high intermediates (M=1.52, SD=3.711). Albeit the apparent disparity in the averages, there is no significant difference among them, as revealed by results of Kruskal-Wallis tests (kw=3.890, p=0.274). Aside from being the least occurring error type, it was also the category that obstructed communication the least.

The second most frequently recasted error type was morphosyntactic, with the Group 2 documented as having received the most amount of recasts on grammar errors (M=10.90), followed by low intermediates (M=9.51, SD=8.047), then by the advanced learners (M=7.47, SD=40.369), and lastly by high intermediates (M=19.82, SD=13.504). Kruskal-Wallis tests show that the difference among them is not significant (kw=2.165, p=0.539).

Lexical-semantic errors were the most frequently recasted by the teachers, with Group 2 documented having received the highest amount of recasts (M=16.43), followed by Group 1 (M=11.54) then by Group 4 (M=11.47), and lastly by Group 3 (M=2.30). Kruskal-Wallis tests once again illustrate that their respective averages do not have any significant difference among them (kw=0.816, p=0.846).

The lack of any visible trend in the mean proportions and of any significant difference suggest that TL proficiency has no evident effect on the distribution of recast. However, the effect size illustrates that Groups 1 and 4 have an observable difference, which suggests that the TL might have an effect, though very little, on the distribution of recasts. These suppositions are explored in the following chapter.

5.1.2.1.2 Prompts

As previously stated, in this section the results will illustrate which errors were recognized by the teachers in the form of prompts, which responds to the second research question. Like with recasts, the mean of prompts was computed for by dividing the total number of prompts by the total number produced errors. On average, the teachers prompted only 1% to 10% of the student errors, which must be the result of the teachers' predilection for recasts over prompts (cf. Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The low amount of prompts has a direct repercussion on our prompted self-repair data: the less prompts teachers make, the less chances the students have for prompted self-repair. This is alarmingly low compared to the already low percentage of recast, which was previously estimated between 10% and 20%. In general, based on the descriptive analyses (see Table 5.3), the teacher of beginners made the most amount of prompts (M=10.45, SD=9.959), followed by that of advanced (M=3.07, SD=2.833), then by that of low intermediates (M=2.81,

SD=3.102), and lastly by that of high intermediates (M=1.27, SD=2.031). There is no significant difference among the groups as confirmed by Kruskal-Wallis results (*kw*=5.077, *p*=0.166). Contradictory to the statistical results, the effect sizes show that the difference between groups is evident, except for one, that of Groups 2 and 4 (*d*=0.0891). The rest of the groups have medium effect sizes, except for three, whose effect sizes are large: Groups 1 and 2 (*d*=1.0362), 1 and 3 (*d*=1.2774), and 1 and 4 (*d*=1.0078). As the standard deviations in prompts are also wide, the effect sizes in the subcategories will not be presented.

Table 5.3 Distribution of prompts according to error type and proficiency group*

	Group 1 n=19	*Group 2 n=21*	*Group 3 n=5*	*Group 4 n=10*
Phonetic-phonological	20.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	(44.721)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Morphosyntactic	6.99	2.51	0.71	2.00
	(10.011)	(2.835)	(1.750)	(2.390)
Lexical-semantic	5.62	4.06	4.63	6.25
	(5.951)	(4.725)	(7.384)	(12.500)
Total	10.45	2.81	1.27	3.07
	(9.959)	(3.102)	(2.031)	(2.833)

*SD in parentheses

Similar to recast results, the least frequently prompted to be repaired was phonetic-phonological, with Group 1 documented as the most frequent (M=20.00, SD=44.721). There is no significant difference among them, as revealed by results of Kruskal-Wallis tests (*kw*=3.00, *p*=0.392).

The second most frequently prompted to be repaired was morphosyntactic, with Group 1 documented as having the highest number (M=6.99, SD=10.011), followed by Group 2 (M=2.51, SD=2.835), then by Group 4 (M=2.00, SD=2.390), and lastly by Group 3 (M=0.71,

SD=1.750). Kruskal-Wallis tests show that the difference among them is not significant (*kw*=2.255, *p*=0.521).

On the average, lexical-semantic errors were most frequently prompted to be repaired, with Group 1 documented as receiving the most number of vocabulary-related prompts (M=5.62, SD=5.951), followed by Group 4 (M=6.25, SD=12.500), then by Group 3 (M=4.63, SD=7.384), and lastly by Group 2 (M=4.06, SD=4.725). Kruskal-Wallis tests once again illustrate that their respective averages do not have any significant difference among them (*kw*=0.533, *p*=0.912).

Comparable to recast results, prompt distribution appears to not follow any clear trend, which suggests that TL does not strongly affect the frequency of prompts. However, also like recast results, the effect size illustrates that Groups 1 and 4 have an observable difference, which suggests that the TL might have an effect on the distribution of recast after all, despite the statistical results. This will also be explored in the next chapter.

5.1.2.2 Frequency of Successful Prompted Self-Repairs

In this section, results on successful prompted self-repairs demonstrate how TL proficiency affects the frequency and distribution of attempts to self-repair, which also responds to the second research question. The mean percentage of successful prompted self-repairs was computed for by dividing the total number of successful prompt uptakes by the total number of produced errors. By dividing the mean of successful prompted self-repairs by the mean of teacher prompts, we can observe that the students successfully self-repaired approximately 60% of the errors that were called out on by the teachers by means of prompts. In general, based on the descriptive analyses (see Table 5.4), Group 1 made the most amount of successful prompted self-

repairs (M=6.56, SD=10.529), followed by Group 2 (M=1.55, SD=1.752), then by Group 4 (M=1.41, SD=1.780), and lastly by Group 3 (M=0.89, SD=1.395). Again, there is no significant difference among the groups as confirmed by Kruskal-Wallis results (*kw*=1.894, *p*=0.595). Although the statistical tests indicate that the difference is not significant, the effect sizes appear to be substantial. Three appear to be medium, those of Groups 1 and 2 (*d*=0.6640), 1 and 3 (*d*=0.7553) and 1 and 4 (*d*=0.6826); two appear to be small, those of Groups 2 and 3 (*d*=0.4173) and 3 and 4 (*d*=0.3243). This suggests that the teachers of the lower proficiency groups prompted much more than those of the higher proficiency ones.

Table 5.4 Distribution of successful prompted self-repairs according to error type and proficiency group*

	Group 1 *n=19*	*Group 2* *n=21*	*Group 3* *n=5*	*Group 4* *n=10*
Phonetic-phonological	20.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	(44.721)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Morphosyntactic	1.62	1.25	0.24	2.00
	(3.626)	(1.763)	(0.583)	(2.390)
Lexical-semantic	1.33	2.54	4.63	0.00
	(2.981)	(3.116)	(7.384)	(0.000)
Total	6.56	1.55	0.89	1.41
	(10.529)	(1.752)	(1.395)	(1.780)

*SD in parentheses

The trend of the mean totals is almost identical to that of the sums of teacher prompts seen in the previous subsection. This implies that the overall rate of student success in self-repair is positively proportional to the overall rate of teacher prompts. However, the mean of the different linguistic categories in isolation depict otherwise.

For phonetic-phonological repairs, only Group 1 recorded having successful attempts (M=20.00, SD=44.721). These descriptive statistics inform us that while the most successfully

self-repaired error type by Group 1 is phonetic-phonological, those of Groups 2 and 3 are mainly lexical-semantic, and Group 4 appears to be most successful in self-repairing prompted morphosyntactic errors. It is important to note that Group 1 appears to be the most successful in self-repairing phonetic-phonological errors for the reason that phonetic-phonological errors are scarce, and the unusual successful prompted self-repair transposed into a distorted success percentage. It must be underscored that Group 1, like the other proficiency groups, also showed difficulty in self-repairing prompted phonetic-phonological errors. Hence, for phonetic-phonological prompted self-repairs it is best that the effect size between the groups is not reported since the standard deviation is exceptionally wide. Given the value of the standard deviation, the resulting effect size will not be distorted.

Among the three, it was only in the category of morphosyntax that all four proficiency groups were able to successfully repair, maintaining the same positive ratio observed in the total averages of successful attempts and attempts in general. The beginners recorded the highest (M=1.62, SD=3.626), followed by the advanced (M=2.00, SD=2.390), then by the low intermediates (M=1.25, SD=1.763), and lastly by the high intermediates (M=0.24, SD=0.583). There is no significant difference among the groups as confirmed by Kruskal-Wallis results (*kw*=1.871, *p*=0.600). Again, the effect sizes depict otherwise, as that of Groups 3 and 4 appears to be large (*d*=1.0112), and those of Groups 1 and 3 (*d*=0.5327) and 2 and 3 (*d*=0.7733) appear to be medium. Meaning, there is generally an observable difference among proficiency groups, not only between Group 1 and Group 4: between the beginners and low intermediates, between low intermediates and high intermediates, and between high intermediates and advanced. Hence, by and large, the rate of success in self-repair increases as the TL proficiency of the participants increases. However, contrary to the trend in effect size that has been manifesting so far is that of

Groups 1 and 4 (d=0.1222), which often shows to be consistently observable, but is not in this particular case.

For lexical-semantic repairs, Groups 1, 2, and 3 recorded having successful attempts, with Group 3, the high intermediates, scoring the highest (M=4.63, SD=7.384), then by Group 2, the low intermediates (M=2.54, SD=3.116), and lastly by Group 1, the beginners (M=1.33, SD=2.981). However, Kruskal-Wallis tests show that the difference among them is not significant (kw=3.235, p=0.357). However, all groups appear to have sizeable effect sizes. Those of Groups 2 and 4 (d=1.1526) and 3 and 4 (d=0.8867) are large, those of Groups 1 and 3 (d=0.5854) and 1 and 4 (d=0.6325) are medium, while those of Groups 1 and 2 (d=0.3955) and 2 and 3 (d=0.3689) are small. The large effect size involved with Groups 2 and 3 suggests that the low and high intermediate learners, those from Groups 2 and 3, are most successful in lexical-semantic self-repair, while the low effect size observed in Groups 1 and 4, suggest that they struggled in carrying out such self-repair.

5.1.3 Unprompted Self-Repairs

This section presents the results of unprompted self-repairs, beginning with unprompted self-repair attempts and closing with successfully accomplished ones, allowing us to observe the frequency and distribution of such repairs in accordance to the effects of TL proficiency.

5.1.3.1 Frequency of Unprompted Self-Repair Attempts

Results in this subsection will illustrate which errors were recognized without the prompting of the teacher, in response to the second research question, and, concomitantly,

demonstrate how TL proficiency affects the frequency and distribution of attempts of this type of self-repair, which answers the third research question.

The mean percentage of unprompted self-repairs was computed for by dividing the total number of unprompted self-repair attempts by the total number produced errors. On average, the students recognized 10% to 30% of their own errors. Meaning, for every ten errors committed, at least one, and at most three, of them were independently recognized and were attempted to be repaired. Based on the descriptive analyses (see Table 5.5), Group 3 made the most number of attempts (M=24.62, SD=17.312), followed by Group 1 (M=17.87, SD=11.261), then by Group 4 (M=12.83, SD=5.576), and lastly by Group 2 (M=11.33, SD=1.372). There is no significant difference among the groups as confirmed by Kruskal-Wallis results (kw=3.670, p=0.299). Contrary to the statistical results, the effect sizes appear considerable. Three appear to be large, those of Groups 1 and 2 (d=0.8143), 2 and 3 (d=1.0817) and 3 and 4 (d=0.9167). One appears to be medium, that of Groups 1 and 4 (d=0.5671). The remaining two appear to be small, those of Groups 1 and 3 (d=0.4623) and 2 and 4 (d=0.3677). However, these must be interpreted with much caution since the standard deviation in almost all groups is wide. It is for this same reason that the effect size in the subcategories will not be reported.

Table 5.5 Distribution of unprompted self-repair attempts according to error type and proficiency group*

	Group 1 n=19	*Group 2 n=21*	*Group 3 n=5*	*Group 4 n=10*
Phonetic-phonological	5.71	11.50	3.03	8.33
	(12.778)	(11.402)	(7.423)	(16.667)
Morphosyntactic	35.89	12.38	26.16	16.89
	(38.133)	(3.223)	(17.070)	(10.321)
Lexical-semantic	11.24	9.42	8.33	0.00
	(11.903)	(10.905)	(13.944)	(0.000)
Total	17.87	11.33	24.62	12.83
	(11.261)	(1.372)	(17.312)	(5.576)

*SD in parentheses

The least frequently attempted to be repaired was phonetic-phonological, with Group 2 documented as the most frequent (M=11.50, SD=11.402), followed by Group 4 (M=8.33, SD=16.667), then by Group 1 (M=5.71, SD=12.778), and lastly by Group 3 (M=3.03, SD=7.423). There is no significant difference among them, as revealed by results of Kruskal-Wallis tests (*kw*=2.790, *p*=0.425).

All groups were able to recognize their morphosyntactic errors to a substantial degree, with Group 1 scoring the highest (M=35.89, SD=38.133), followed by Group 3 (M=26.16, SD=17.070), then by Group 4 (M=16.89, SD=10.321), and lastly by Group 2 (M=11.33, SD=1.372. Despite Group 1 independently identifying much more errors than the others, Kruskal-Wallis tests illustrate that there is no significant difference among them (*kw*=3.772, *p*=0.287).

Next to identifying their own grammar errors, all groups except for Group 4 independently recognized errors pertaining to vocabulary the most, with Group 1 scoring the highest once more (M=11.24, SD=11.903), followed by Group 2 for this category (M=9.42,

SD=10.905), and lastly, but not too far behind, Group 3 (M=8.33, SD=13.944). As Kruskal-Wallis tests would confirm it, the difference among them is not significant (*kw*=5.419, *p*=0.144).

5.1.3.2 Frequency and Distribution of Successful Unprompted Self-Repairs

This section ends the series of classroom interaction results that further the illustration of how TL proficiency affects the frequency and distribution of attempts to self-repair, which responds to the third research question. While the mean percentage of successful unprompted self-repairs was computed for by dividing its total by the sum of produced errors, the success rate was computed for by dividing the total mean of successful attempts by the total mean of efforts to self-repair. By and large, the students successfully self-repaired about 80% of their own non target-like utterances. Based on the descriptive analyses (see Table 5.6), Group 3 made the most amount of successful prompted self-repairs (M=22.84, SD=17.850), followed by Group 1 (M=14.93, SD=9.371), then by Group 4 (M=12.83, SD=5.576), and lastly by Group 2 (M=9.68, SD=2.458). Again, there is no significant difference among the groups as confirmed by Kruskal-Wallis results (*kw*=3.670, *p*=0.299). Contrastingly, the effect sizes show otherwise, as they all appear to be big enough to be observed. The effect size between Groups 2 and 3 is the largest (*d*=1.0327), followed by those of Groups 1 and 2 (*d*=0.7653), 1 and 3 (*d*=0.5552), 2 and 4 (*d*=0.0.7297), and 3 and 4 (*d*=0.7572), which are all medium. The smallest effect size is that of Groups 1 and 4 (*d*=0.2722), which indicates that in terms of success in unprompted self-repairs, the advanced learners were similar to the beginners. At this point it is interesting to note that the effect size between Groups 1 and 4 has been consistently substantial, i.e. for errors, recasts, prompts, and prompted self-repairs, the effect size between the lowest and the highest proficiency groups is often one of the largest. By contrast, in the case of unprompted self-repairs, the effect size is small, if observable at all. This observation may be telling of how TL proficiency relates

with unprompted self-repairs from a more qualitative perspective, which will be explored in the next chapter. However, the warning made regarding the wide standard deviation recorded in unprompted self-repair attempts, already taken into account in the previous section, must also be made for successful unprompted self-repairs. For this reason, the effect size in the subcategories will not be presented.

Table 5.6 Distribution of successful unprompted self-repairs according to error type and proficiency group*

	Group 1 n=19	*Group 2 n=21*	*Group 3 n=5*	*Group 4 n=10*
Phonetic-phonological	5.71	11.50	3.03	8.33
	(12.778)	(11.402)	(7.423)	(16.667)
Morphosyntactic	31.31	10.26	23.82	16.89
	(39.264)	(2.160)	(17.448)	(10.321)
Lexical-semantic	9.81	8.78	8.33	0.00
	(11.874)	(10.905)	(13.944)	(0.000)
Total	14.93	9.68	22.84	12.83
	(9.371)	(2.458)	(17.850)	(5.576)

*SD in parentheses

Phonetic-phonological errors appear to be the least successfully self-repaired, with Group 2 having the highest average (M=11.50, SD=11.402), followed by Group 4 (M=8.33, SD=16.667), then by Group 1 (M=5.71, SD=12.778), and lastly by Group 3 (M=3.03, SD=7.423). There is no significant difference among them, as revealed by results of Kruskal-Wallis tests (*kw*=2.790, *p*=0.425).

On the other hand, morphosyntax errors appear to be the most successfully self-repaired without the prompting of the teacher. The trend for the average percentage of successful repairs for morphosyntax errors is the same of that of the total except for Group 1, which doubled (M=31.31, SD=39.264). This may be explained by the fact that grammar is explicitly taught in

class, which makes this particular linguistic category salient, and even much more in the case of Groups 1 and 2 since the participants are students of a language course (in contrast to those from the other proficiency groups who belong to content-based courses where grammar is no longer the focus of the lessons). After Group 1, the mean of Group 3 is second highest (M=23.82, SD=17.448), followed by Group 4 (M=16.89, SD=10.321), and lastly by Group 2 (M=10.26, SD=2.160). However, despite Group 1 successfully self-repairing much more errors than the others, Kruskal-Wallis tests illustrate that there is no significant difference among them (*kw*=3.772, *p*=0.287).

Next to morphosyntactic errors, all groups except for Group 4 were able to successfully self-repair lexical-semantic errors, with Group 1 having the highest mean (M=9.81, SD=11.874), followed by Group 2 (M=8.78, SD=10.905), and lastly Group 3 (M=8.33, SD=13.944). As Kruskal-Wallis tests would confirm it, the difference among them is not significant (*kw*=5.419, *p*=0.144).

A detailed comparison of results on overall unprompted self-repair attempts and successful unprompted self-repair attempts from this data set and from monologic data will be done in Chapter 6, as these results in particular shed much light on the maximum limits of the participants' Spanish IL.

Before proceeding with presenting results on monologic data, it is important to note that in the classroom interaction data the participants were generally successful in making themselves understood, despite the errors. The self-repairs were mainly done for reasons of precision; barely as a consequence of a communication breakdown. This is actually reflected in the reactions of their teachers, which was observable through their feedback. The fact that clarification

requests—and prompts in general—were uncommon suggests that there were very few instances when the students were unable to get their message across. In addition, the teachers knew how to recast the errors. For them to provide the appropriate target form they should have understood the students' utterances. Another point to consider are the most occurring error types, which were determiners, verbs, and prepositions for morphosyntactic errors, and borrowings for lexical-semantic ones. Incorrect determiners, verb forms, and prepositions may do some harm in the intelligibility of a message, though not enough to make it incomprehensible. Borrowings did not present itself as a problem either, since the students borrowed words from languages that their teachers likewise spoke, ultimately serving to facilitate communication.

5.2 Monologic Data

Monologic data results are from transcribed and coded audio recordings of 40 oral texts produced by four proficiency groups (n=5). For having a more consistent number of participants, monologic data offers information lacking in classroom interaction data, i.e. the participants' opinion on the subjective similarity of their known languages (subjective similarity) and their respective proficiency (SL proficiency). The presentation of monologic data results shall follow a similar flow to the presentation of classroom interaction data by dealing with errors first and with unprompted self-repairs last.

5.2.1 Errors

This section focuses on analyses of error production, which allow us to observe their frequency and distribution according to TL proficiency, and likewise allow us to identify the languages that might have influenced their production.

5.2.1.1 Frequency and Distribution of Errors

The descriptive analyses indicate that the TL proficiency inversely affects error production (see Table 5.7), which answers the first research question. The mean percentage of errors of Group 1 is double (M=20.52, SD=7.320) than that of Group 2 (M=10.00, SD=2.430) and the numbers continue to decrease with Group 3 having a lower mean (M=8.48, SD=3.030), and with Group 4 having the lowest average of errors among the four (M=6.59, SD=1.690). The mean of each proficiency group was computed for by dividing their respective total number of errors produced by the total amount of utterances.

Table 5.7 Distribution of errors according to type and proficiency group

	Group 1 n=5	*Group 2 n=5*	*Group 3 n=5*	*Group 4 n=5*
Phonetic-phonological	1.35	0.35	0.08	0.21
	(1.606)	(1.560)	(1.457)	(0.224)
Morphosyntactic	13.39	7.33	6.88	5.16
	(7.016)	(1.981)	(2.144)	(1.664)
Lexical-semantic	5.78	2.32	1.52	1.23
	(3.443)	(1.445)	(9.972)	(0.730)
Total	20.52	10.00	8.48	6.59
	(7.320)	(2.430)	(3.030)	(1.690)

*SD in parentheses

Results of Kruskal-Wallis tests inform us that Group 1 produced significantly more errors than Group 2 (kw=7.200, p=0.054), of Group 3 (kw=9.800, p=0.009), and Group 4 (kw=13.000, p=0.001). There is no significant difference among the other groups. Meaning, the lowest proficiency group produced one error for every five words, while the three other more proficient groups only produced one error for every ten words. Across all groups, a vast majority of the

errors pertained to morphosyntax, followed by lexical-semantic errors. Phonetic-phonological errors were recorded, but their averages are not significantly different from each other.

In concordance with the yielded statistical result in that Group 1 produced significantly more errors than the other groups are the effect sizes found among them as they are all very large. Between Groups 1 and 2 (d=1.9300), 1 and 3 (d=2.1518), and 1 and 4 (d=2.6240) the effect size is undoubtedly evident. Between Groups 2 and 4 (d=1.6282), the effect size is large, while between Groups 2 and 3 (d=0.5551) and 3 and 4 (d=0.7696) the effect size is medium. Though not all effect sizes are large, they are just as evident. This mitigates the statistical finding that there is no significant difference among the other groups, since these effect size values may mean that the TL proficiency has an effect on error production, a relationship that is not illustrated statistically.

With regards to phonetic-phonological errors, descriptive analyses show that a negligible amount of errors was produced across all proficiency groups: Group 1 had M=1.35 (SD=1.606), Group 2 with M=0.35 (SD=1.560), Group 3 with M=0.08 (SD=1.457), and Group 4 with M=0.21 (SD=0.224). Kruskal-Wallis tests further confirm that there is no significant difference among them (kw=5.907, p=0.116). Despite the statistical result, the effect sizes show otherwise, since the values are largely sizeable. Groups 1 and 2 (d=1.0067), 1 and 3 (d=1.3346), 1 and 4 (d=1.1499), and 2 and 3 (d=0.8184) are all large, while Groups 2 and 4 (d=0.3231) and 3 and 4 (d=0.4151) are small.

The bulk of the errors was related to morphosyntax. Results of Kruskal-Wallis and Pairwise Comparison tests indicate that the mean of morphosyntax errors of Group 1 (M=13.39, SD=7.016) is significantly greater (kw=9.800, p=0.020) than that of Groups 2 (M=7.33,

SD=1.981; *kw*=6.400, *p*=0.087), 3 (M=6.88, SD=2.144; *kw*=7.200, *p*=0.054), and 4 (M=5.16, SD=1.664; (*kw*=11.600, *p*=0.002). In other words, the beginners produced morphosyntax errors twice more than the two highest proficiency groups. There is no significant difference among the other groups. Meaning, the higher the TL proficiency, the less morphosyntax errors were recorded. The effect size values are congruous with the statistical results, as all of them are big enough to be observed. Those of Groups 1 and 2 (*d*=1.1748), 1 and 3 (*d*=1.2545), 1 and 4 (*d*=1.6145), 2 and 4 (*d*=1.1893), and 3 and 4 (*d*=0.8986) are evidently large. Only one appears to be small, that of Groups 2 and 3 (*d*=0.2187).

A substantial amount of lexical-semantic errors was also produced, albeit much less than the morphosyntactic errors. According to Kruskal-Wallis analyses, there is only significant difference between Group 1 and Groups 3 (*kw*=8.000, *p*=0. 033) and 4 (*kw*=9.800, *p*=0.009), despite the steady decreasing mean. According to the descriptive analyses, the beginners (M=5.78, SD=3.443) produced this type of error twice more than the low intermediates (M=2.32, SD=1.445), three times more than the high intermediates (M=1.52, SD=9.972), and four times more than the advanced (M=1.23, SD=1.664). To a certain extent the size effect values coincide with the statistical results, as the size effect between Groups 1 and 3 (*d*=1.6850) and 1 and 4 (*d*=1.8306) is very large. However, the other groups that have been found to have no statistical difference also have large effect sizes. For example, those of Groups 1 and 2 (*d*=1.3112) and 2 and 4 (*d*=0.9561). The two remaining, Groups 2 and 3 (*d*=0.6506) and Groups 3 and 4 (*d*=0.3412) have small effect sizes.

5.2.1.2 Source Languages

As with classroom interaction data, we begin looking at the effects of crosslinguistic similarity on errors by identifying the languages that might have influenced their production, which answers the last research question. The results of the tagged data show that for every two of three errors, the SL was Spanish. Like in classroom interaction data, Spanish appears to be the primary SL and English the second across all groups. In general, around 76% of the errors were intralingual. English was responsible for a mere 12% of the errors, Filipino comprised 3.5%, 5% was influenced by other known European languages, and the remaining 3.5% had no identifiable SL.

Among the error types, those of morphosyntax were mostly intralingual, with an average percentage of 87%. For lexical-semantic errors, the groups varied. For Group 1, the SL was almost evenly distributed among four languages: French with 32%, Spanish with 21%, English with 19%, and Italian with 17%. For Groups 2 and 3, it was mostly Spanish at 54% and 71%, respectively. For Group 4, it was English at 41%. With regards phonetic-phonological errors, the lower proficiency groups (1 and 2) registered almost equal percentages in all known languages. In contrast, the higher proficiency groups (3 and 4) only had Spanish as SL. These percentages will be discussed in the section on the effect of crosslinguistic similarity in Chapter 6.

We continue this section with the exploration of the subsequent linguistic phenomena to error production in monologic discourse: the students' independent recognition of their own errors and the successful attempts at self-repair.

5.2.2 Unprompted Self-Repairs

This section, which centers on analyses of unprompted self-repairs, will first deal with attempts in general, followed by successful ones. The results of these analyses allow us to observe which errors were independently identified according to the effects of TL proficiency, which responds to the second and third research questions.

5.2.2.1 Frequency and Distribution of Unprompted Self-Repair Attempts

The descriptive analyses indicate that the TL proficiency somehow affects the occurrence of attempts to self-repair that can be observed from the averages' seemingly rising pattern (see Table 5.8). While an elevated mean percentage was recorded for Group 4 (M=31.96, SD=17.417), Groups 2 (M=21.14, SD=4.537), 3 (M=20.71, SD=5.711), and 1 (M=20.61, SD=10.604) had averages that were not too far apart from each other. This implies that for every ten errors committed, two to three of them were recognized and were attempted to be repaired. The unprompted self-repair mean percentage of each proficiency group was computed for by dividing their respective total number of self-repair attempts by the total amount of errors. These averages, though varied, show no significant difference among them, as shown by the results of Kruskal-Wallis tests (kw=1.400, p=0.706). However, the effect size values demonstrate otherwise, since between Groups 2 and 4 (d=0.8508) and 3 and 4 (d=0.8679) they are large, and between Groups 1 and 4 (d=0.7876), it is medium. The rest show no evident effect size. The effect sizes in the subcategories will not be presented for the same reason given in the previous sections, that the standard deviation is too wide.

Table 5.8 Distribution of unprompted self-repair attempts according to error type and proficiency group*

	Group 1 *n=5*	*Group 2* *n=5*	*Group 3* *n=5*	*Group 4* *n=5*
Phonetic-phonological	15.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	(22.361)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Morphosyntactic	25.21	27.81	23.01	41.50
	(13.160)	(2.684)	(6.864)	(25.059)
Lexical-semantic	10.86	2.50	13.33	6.67
	(15.482)	(5.590)	(21.731)	(14.907)
Total	20.61	21.14	20.71	31.96
	(10.604)	(4.537)	(5.711)	(17.417)

*SD in parentheses

Attempts to repair phonetic-phonological errors deviate from the previous patterns, with Group 1 (M=15.00, SD=22.361) being the sole proficiency group with a registered attempt at repairing a pronunciation error. This disparity is confirmed to be significant by Kruskal-Wallis tests, which indicated that one of the groups is significantly different from the other three (*kw*=6.316, *p*=0.097). To supplement the Kruskal-Wallis result, Pairwise Comparison tests were carried out where it was found that Group 1 is significantly different from Group 2 (*kw*=4.000, *p*=0.40), Group 3 (*kw*=4.000, *p*=0.040), and Group 4 (*kw*=4.000, *p*=0.040).

The similar zigzag pattern can be observed in the descriptive analyses of attempts to repair morphosyntax errors. The highest mean was recorded for Group 4 (M=41.50, SD=25.059), followed by Group 2 (M=27.81, SD=2.684), with Groups 1 (M=25.21, SD=13.160) and 3 (M=23.01, SD=6.864) not too far behind. Again, no significant difference was found among the groups as shown by the results of Kruskal-Wallis tests (*kw*=2.313, *p*=0.510).

The jagged slope varies a little for the attempts to repair lexical-semantic errors, with Groups 3 (M=13.33, SD=21.731) and 1 (M=10.86, SD=15.482) having a higher mean and

Groups 4 (M=6.67, SD=14.907) and 2 (M=2.50, SD=5.590) having a lower mean. These averages, though changing and varied, show no significant difference among them, as shown by the results of Kruskal-Wallis tests (*kw*=1.849, *p*=0.604).

We complete our presentation of unprompted self-repair results with those of successful attempts, which immediately follows this subsection.

5.2.2.2 Frequency and Distribution of Successful Unprompted Self-Repairs

The same rising pattern observed in overall attempts can likewise be observed in successful attempts, based on the descriptive analyses (see Table 5.9), although in the case of successful attempts, the slope appears to be more consistent. This implies that TL proficiency has a positive correlation with success in unprompted self-repairs. In fact, success rate is around 80% meaning that the participants' ability to independently self-repair is high. While the mean of successful unprompted self-repairs was computed for by dividing its total by the sum of produced errors, the success rate was computed for by dividing the total mean of successful attempts by the total mean of efforts to self-repair. Group 4 (M=27.42, SD=18.569) had the highest incidences of successful repair, followed by Group 3 (M=16.71, SD=4.445), then by Group 2 (M=15.80, SD=7.257), and lastly by Group 1 (M=15.27, SD=9.400). However, Kruskal-Wallis tests indicate that there is no significant difference among the four groups (*kw*=1.105, *p*=0.776). As opposed to the statistical results, there are groups that have substantial effect sizes, such as Groups 1 and 4 (*d*=0.8257) and 2 and 4 (*d*=0.8241), both of which are large, and Groups 3 and 4 (*d*=0.7928), which is medium.

Table 5.9 Distribution of successful self-repairs according to error type and proficiency group*

	Group 1 *n=5*	*Group 2* *n=5*	*Group 3* *n=5*	*Group 4* *n=5*
Phonetic-phonological	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)	(0.000)
Morphosyntactic	17.87	19.91	18.27	35.93
	(9.987)	(7.745)	(9.313)	(27.685)
Lexical-semantic	10.13	2.50	13.33	6.67
	(15.670)	(5.590)	(21.731)	(14.907)
Total	15.27	15.80	16.71	27.42
	(9.400)	(7.257)	(4.445)	(18.569)

*SD in parentheses

In contrast to classroom interaction data, there were no successful self-repairs registered for phonetic-phonological errors in monologic data, a non result that is as much telling on the IL of the participants as the other results.

The same positive effect of TL proficiency can likewise be observed in the successful self-repairs of morphosyntax errors, with Group 4 having the highest (M=35.93, SD=27.685), followed by Group 2 (M=19.99, SD=7.745), then Group 3 (M=18.27, SD=9.313), and lastly Group 1 (M=17.87, SD=9.987). Kruskal-Wallis tests show, nevertheless, that these averages have no significant difference among them (kw=1.493, p=0.684).

In the case of successful self-repairs of lexical-semantic errors, the pattern deviates completely with Group 1 (M=40.00, SD=54.772) scoring the highest, followed by Group 3 (M=13.33, SD=21.731), then by Group 4 (M=6.67, SD=14.907), and lastly by Group 2 (M=2.50, SD=5.590). It seems to be a zigzag pattern with shallow slopes. Kruskal-Wallis tests confirm that there is no significant difference among them (kw=1.849, p=0.604).

An in-depth and qualitative analyses of these figures will be carried out in Chapter 6. Meanwhile, we present the results that allow us to examine how both language proficiency (SL and TL) and crosslinguistic similarity (objective and subjective) come into play in speech.

5.3 Synthesis: Crosslinguistic similarity vs. language proficiency

To determine how crosslinguistic similarity of previously learned languages and their corresponding proficiency levels affect the configuration of the IL as manifested by errors—the fourth and last research question—Multiple Regression Models were applied. Before we present the results on Multiple Regression tests, it would be worthwhile to present precursory information on language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity.

TL proficiency, detailed in Chapter 4, was defined according to the CEFR levels. This is supported by the results of the participants' self-evaluations of their known languages, which were obtained through the questionnaire. According to descriptive analyses, Spanish comes last in rank in language proficiency for Group 1, and third in rank for Groups 2, 3, and 4. With regards *SL proficiency*, which is based on the participants' self-evaluation of their other known languages, Filipino and English occupy the first two ranks for all proficiency groups; while other European languages take the fourth slot, and other Philippine languages come last for Groups 2, 3, and 4. Group 1 puts other Philippine languages as third, and other European languages (tied with Spanish) as last.

No information from the participants was elicited on *objective similarity* among their known languages since the resemblance is factual and established by linguists. It is hence safe to claim that among the known languages, French and Italian are most objectively similar to Spanish. English comes next. Filipino and other Philippine languages come third, for being lexically

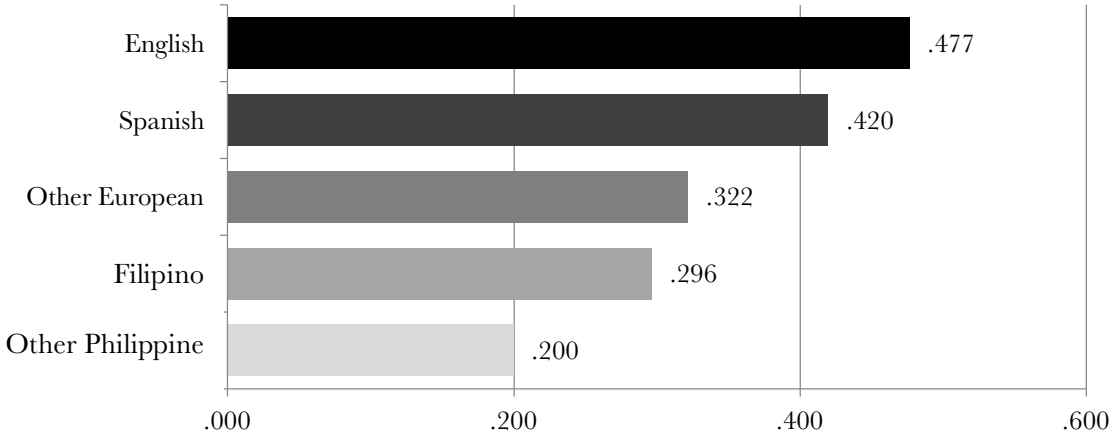
comparable to Spanish due to the integrated Spanish-based lexicon. With regards *subjective similarity*, the participants ranked these language according to how similar to Spanish they perceive them to be, and based on the descriptive analyses, French and Italian are first, Filipino is second, English is third, and other Philippine languages come last. However, it is interesting to note that French, Italian, and Filipino are not significantly different at 0.10 level of significance. This means that all three are statistically tied in first place.

Table 5.10 Multiple Regression results for total error production

R	*R square*	*Adjusted R Square*
0.83	0.69	0.57

Language	*Unstandardized Coefficients*		*Standardized Coefficients*	*t*	*Sig.*
	B	*Std. Error*	*Beta*		
(Constant)	4.22	13.25		0.32	0.76
Spanish	-2.19	0.92	-0.42	-2.38	0.03
Filipino	-1.82	1.08	-0.30	-1.68	0.12
English	3.88	1.49	0.48	2.61	0.02
Other European Languages	0.68	0.36	0.32	1.92	0.08
Other Philippine Languages	0.31	0.27	0.20	1.18	0.26

Figure 5.1 Standardized coefficients (Comparison of effect) for total error production



The Regression Model for total error production resulted to R^2=0.691 which means that on the average 69% of the total variation of total error production can be explained by the total variation of the independent proficiency variables in the model. In other words, the independent variables of language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity are reliable predictors of any change in error production overall. Proficiency in Spanish, English and other European languages are found to be significant in explaining total error production. On the other hand, proficiency in Filipino and other Philippine languages are found to be not significant. Proficiency in Spanish, as expected, has a negative coefficient, indicating an inverse relationship with total error production. An increase in proficiency in Spanish will yield a decrease in total error production; a decrease in proficiency in Spanish will yield an increase in total error production. Proficiency in English and other European languages have a positive coefficient, indicating a direct relationship with total error production. An increase in the proficiency in any of these languages will also yield an increase in total error production. Likewise, a decrease in proficiency in any of these languages will also yield a decrease in total error production. On the average,

while holding proficiency in other languages constant (*ceteris paribus*), we can conclude the following:

A 2.2% decrease (or increase) in total error production is expected for every one level increase (or decrease) in proficiency in Spanish.

A 3.8% increase (or decrease) in total error production is expected for every one level increase (or decrease) in proficiency in English.

A 0.7% increase (or decrease) in total error production is expected for every one level increase (or decrease) in proficiency in other European languages.

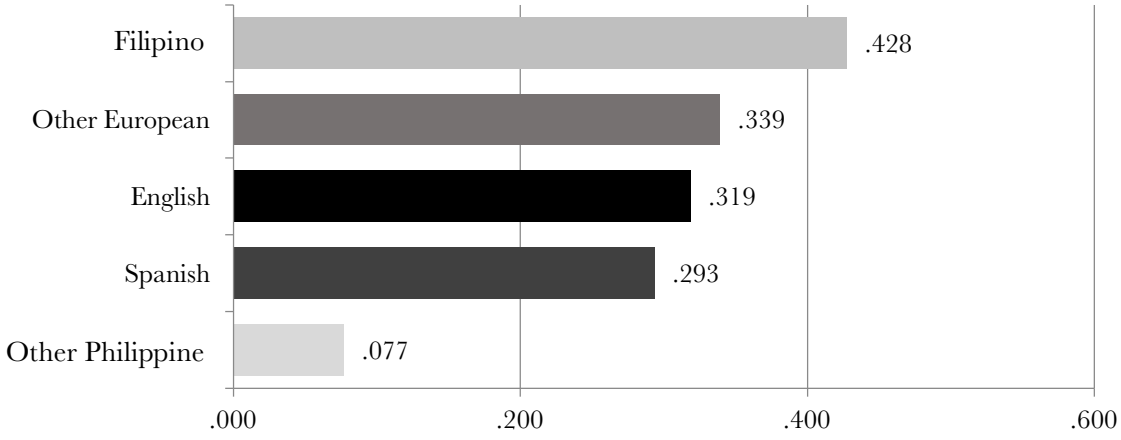
Comparing the standardized coefficients of the independent proficiency variables, we can see that English has the strongest effect on total error production, followed by Spanish and other European languages. Spanish comes as second, with a negative effect on total error production. English and other European languages come as first and third, respectively, with a positive effect on total error production. Filipino and other Philippine languages come as fourth and fifth with no significant effect on total error production.

Table 5.11 Multiple Regression results for phonetic-phonological error production

R	*R Square*	*Adjusted R Square*
0.68	0.46	0.25

Proficiency	*Unstandardized Coefficients*		*Standardized Coefficients*	*t*	*Sig.*
	B	*Std. Error*	*Beta*		
(Constant)	1.17	1.81		0.65	0.53
Spanish	-0.16	0.13	-0.29	-1.26	0.23
Filipino	-0.27	0.15	-0.43	-1.82	0.09
English	0.27	0.20	0.32	1.32	0.21
Other European Languages	0.07	0.05	0.34	1.52	0.15
Other Philippine Languages	0.01	0.04	0.08	0.34	0.74

Figure 5.2 Standardized coefficients (Comparison of effect) for phonetic-phonological error production



The Regression Model for phonetic-phonological error production resulted to R^2=0.457 which means that, on the average, 46% of the total variation of phonetic-phonological error production can be explained by the total variation of the independent proficiency variables in the model. This means that the independent variables of language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity could be reliable predictors of any change in phonetic-phonological error production. Only proficiency in Filipino is found to be significant in explaining phonetic-phonological error production. Proficiency in Spanish, English, other European languages and other Philippine languages are found to be not significant in explaining phonetic-phonological error production. Proficiency in Filipino has negative coefficients, indicating an inverse relationship with phonetic-phonological error production. An increase in proficiency in Filipino will yield a decrease in phonetic-phonological error production. Likewise, a decrease in proficiency in Filipino will yield an increase in phonetic-phonological error production.

On the average, while holding proficiency in other languages constant (*ceteris paribus*), we can conclude the following:

A 0.3 percent decrease (or increase) in phonetic-phonological error production is expected for every one level increase (or decrease) on proficiency in Filipino.

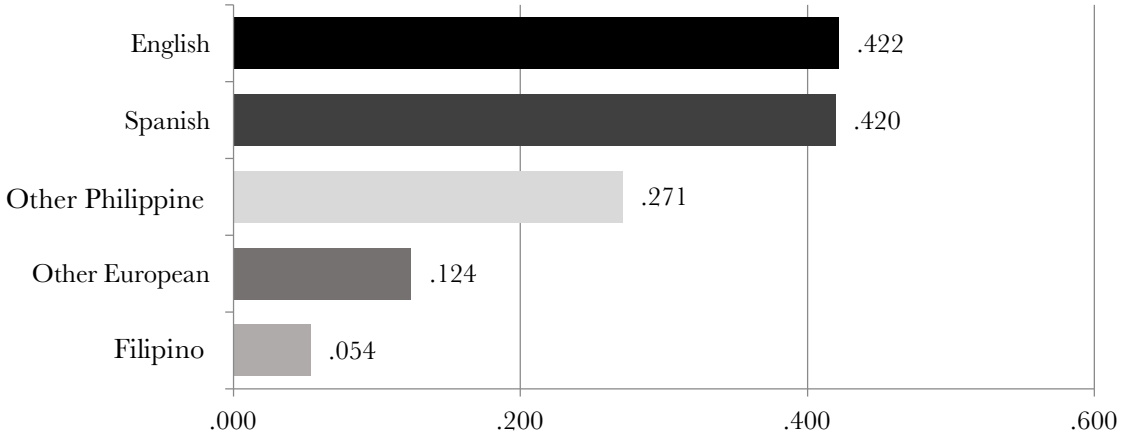
Comparing the standardized coefficients of the independent proficiency variables, we can see that only Filipino has a strong effect on phonetic-phonological production. Filipino comes as first with a negative effect on phonetic-phonological error production. Other European languages, English and Spanish come as second, third and fourth, respectively, with no significant effect on phonetic-phonological error production. Other Philippine languages come last as fifth with no significant effect on phonetic-phonological production.

Table 5.12 Multiple Regression results for morphosyntactic error production

R	*R Square*	*Adjusted R Square*
0.75	0.57	0.40

Proficiency	*Unstandardized Coefficients*		*Standardized Coefficients*	*t*	*Sig.*
	B	*Std. Error*	*Beta*		
(Constant)	-0.13	8.19		-0.02	0.99
Spanish	-1.15	0.57	-0.42	-2.01	0.07
Filipino	-0.17	0.67	-0.05	-0.26	0.80
English	1.79	0.92	0.42	1.95	0.07
Other European Languages	0.14	0.22	0.12	0.62	0.54
Other Philippine Languages	0.22	0.16	0.27	1.35	0.20

Figure 5.3 Standardized coefficients (Comparison of effect) for morphosyntactic error production



The Regression Model for morphosyntactic error production yielded R^2= 0.567 which means that on the average 57% of the total variation of morphosyntactic error production can be explained by the total variation of the independent proficiency variables in the model. In other words, the independent variables of language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity are reliable predictors of any change in morphosyntax error production. Proficiency in Spanish and English are found to be significant in explaining error production of this type. On the other hand, proficiency in Filipino, other European languages and other Philippine languages are found to be not significant in explaining morphosyntax error production. Proficiency in Spanish, as expected, has a negative coefficient indicating an inverse relationship with morphosyntax error production. An increase in proficiency in Spanish will yield a decrease in morphosyntax error production, and a decrease in proficiency in Spanish will yield an increase in morphosyntax error production. Proficiency in English has a positive coefficient indicating a direct relationship with morphosyntax error production. An increase in proficiency in English will also yield an increase in morphosyntax error production. Likewise, a decrease in proficiency in English will also yield a

decrease in morphosyntax error production. On the average, while holding proficiency in other languages constant (*ceteris paribus*), we can conclude the following:

A 1.1 percent decrease (or increase) in morphosyntax error production is expected for every one level increase (or decrease) in proficiency in Spanish

A 1.8 percent increase (or decrease) on morphosyntax error production is expected for every one level increase (or decrease) in proficiency in English.

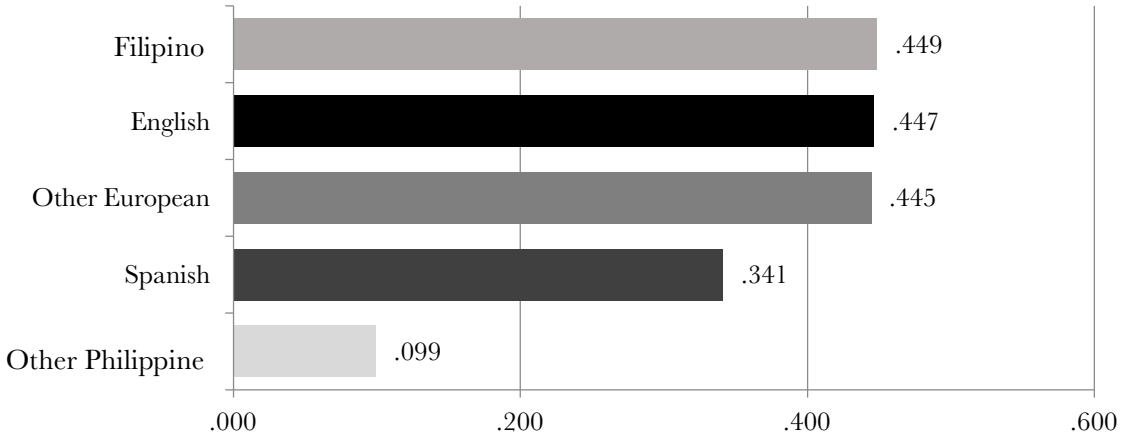
Comparing the standardized coefficients of the independent proficiency variables, we can see that English and Spanish have the strongest, almost similar, effect on morphosyntax error production. Spanish comes as second with a negative effect on morphosyntax error production. English comes as first with a positive effect on morphosyntax error production. Other Philippine languages, other European languages and Filipino come as third, fourth and fifth, respectively, with no significant effect on morphosyntax error production.

Table 5.13 Multiple Regression results for lexical-semantic error production

R	*R Square*	*Adjusted R Square*
0.82	0.68	0.55

Language	*Unstandardized Coefficients*		*Standardized Coefficients*	*t*	*Sig.*
	B	*Std. Error*	*Beta*		
(Constant)	3.20	6.79		0.47	0.65
Spanish	-0.89	0.47	-0.34	-1.89	0.08
Filipino	-1.38	0.56	-0.45	-2.48	0.03
English	1.82	0.76	0.45	2.39	0.03
Other European Languages	0.47	0.18	0.45	2.58	0.02
Other Philippine Languages	0.08	0.14	0.10	0.57	0.58

Figure 5.4 Standardized coefficients (Comparison of effect) for lexical-semantic error production



The Regression Model for lexical-semantic error production yielded R^2=0.676 which means that on the average 68% of the total variation of lexical-semantic error production can be explained by the total variation of the independent proficiency variables in the model. Hence, like in the case of general production of errors, the independent variables of language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity are reliable predictors of any change in error production relating to lexicon. Proficiency in Spanish, Filipino, English and other European languages are found to be significant in explaining lexical-semantic error production. On the other hand, proficiency in other Philippine languages is found to be not significant. Proficiency in Spanish and Filipino have negative coefficients, indicating an inverse relationship with lexical-semantic error production. An increase in proficiency in any of these languages will yield a decrease in lexical-semantic error production, and a decrease in proficiency in any of these languages will yield an increase in lexical-semantic error production. Proficiency in English and other European languages have a positive coefficient, indicating a direct relationship with lexical-semantic error production. An

increase in proficiency in any of these languages will also yield an increase in lexical-semantic error production. Likewise, a decrease in proficiency in any of these languages will also yield a decrease in lexical-semantic error production. On the average, while holding proficiency in other languages constant (*ceteris paribus*), we can conclude the following:

A 0.9 percent decrease (or increase) in lexical-semantic error production is expected for every one level increase (or decrease) in proficiency in Spanish.

A 1.4 percent decrease (or increase) in lexical-semantic error production is expected for every one level increase (or decrease) in proficiency in Filipino.

A 1.8 percent increase (or decrease) in lexical-semantic error production is expected for every one level increase (or decrease) in proficiency in English.

A 0.5 percent increase (or decrease) in lexical-semantic error production is expected for every one level increase (or decrease) on proficiency in other European languages.

Comparing the standardized coefficients of the independent proficiency variables, we can see that Filipino, English and other European languages have the strongest, almost similar, effect on lexical-semantic error production. Filipino and Spanish come as first and fourth, respectively, with a negative effect, while English and other European languages come as second and third, respectively, with a positive effect. Other Philippine languages comes as fifth with no significant effect on lexical-semantic production.

The Multiple Regression results not only shed light on how crosslinguistic similarity of previously learned languages and their corresponding proficiency levels affect the configuration of the IL as manifested by errors, but they also demonstrate which among the two CLI factors has a stronger effect on error production. Likewise, we have observed how the TL Spanish itself

as one of the SL of errors, i.e., the lower the proficiency in the TL, the more the production of intralinguistic errors. The better the command of the TL, the less the production of intralinguistic errors. This was seen in the Multiple Regression results on the total number of errors, but was most evident in the morphosyntactic category. This unanticipated discovery will be explored in Chapter 6.

5.4 Summary of Results

In this chapter we responded to the research questions by presenting the results of the various analyses performed on the two data sets, which mostly supported our hypotheses.

The first research question, concerned with the correlation between TL proficiency and frequency of errors, was answered by statistical tests, which confirm that TL proficiency does negatively affect error production (see Morta, 2005). The least proficient group produced the highest amount of errors—high enough to be significantly different from the others. In both classroom interaction data and monologic data, as expected, morphosyntax errors were registered as most frequently occurring across all proficiency groups, lexical-semantic as second most frequent, and phonetic-phonological as least frequent (see Morta, 2005; Sibayan, 2011). Though the distribution of error types is dissimilar, their individual trends reflect the same correlation between TL proficiency and error production.

The second research question, which involved analyzing which errors are recognized with and without the prompting of the teacher, was answered in three parts: through descriptive analyses of prompted and unprompted self-repairs from classroom interaction data, and unprompted self-repairs from monologic data. On average, the teachers called out only 1% to 10% of the students' errors by means of prompts: lexical-semantic errors were the most

frequently prompted to be repaired, followed by morphosyntactic, and finally, phonetic-phonological (see Sibayan, 2011). With regards to errors recognized without the prompting of the teacher, both data sets showed that the students recognized 10% to 30% of their own errors. Among the three, morphosyntax errors received the highest amount of attention, followed by lexical-semantic errors. Least independently recognized were phonetic-phonological errors, with no recorded attempts, except for Group 1 (see Sibayan, 2011).

The third research question, which concerns the effect of TL proficiency on error recognition, was inevitably addressed in responding to the second, and in effect, it was also answered in three parts. TL proficiency does not appear to play a role on the production of prompted self-repairs in classroom data, as this is more dependent on teacher peculiarities than on the TL proficiency of the students. However, and perhaps alarmingly, TL proficiency still seems to play no role at all in unprompted self-repairs from both classroom and monologic data. Since TL proficiency constantly affects error production, it was thought highly likely that the behavior of self-repairs would follow a similar pattern. Interestingly, though TL proficiency seems to have very little effect on self-repairs in general, quite the opposite can be said about their success rate, specifically that of unprompted self-repairs. For prompted self-repair in classroom interaction data no correlation between TL proficiency and success rate was observed. In contrast, for unprompted self-repair in both classroom and monologic data a positive correlation was found: the higher the TL proficiency, the higher the rate of successful independent attempts to repair. Moreover, while only 60% of the errors were successfully repaired with the prompting of the teacher, a much higher 80% of the errors were successfully repaired without, based on results from both data sets.

Lastly, the fourth research question, which inquires the effect of crosslinguistic similarity of other known languages and their respective proficiency levels on error production, was not immediately answered by any statistical test. Instead, languages that seemed to have influenced the errors were first identified, and both data sets gave the same results. For one, majority of the errors had Spanish itself as their SL. However, it was also observed that if there was any other language that had evident influence on the errors, it was English (see Morta, 2005; Nogra & Rodriguez, 2013; Salazar, 2007; Sánchez, 2010; Sibayan, 2011). A finding unique to Group 1 of monologic data was the influence of French and Italian on some lexical-semantic errors, and Italian on a few phonetic-phonological errors. As all the identified SLs are objectively similar to Spanish to a certain degree, their recognition confirms that crosslinguistic similarity does affect error production. Intimately related to the factor of crosslinguistic similarity is SL proficiency, which is likewise considered in the second question. Statistical analyses show that SL proficiency correlates with error production, positively and negatively, depending on the language and error type. Proficiency in Filipino, English and other Romance languages are found to be significant in explaining lexical-semantic error production, while it was English for morphosyntactic errors, and Filipino for phonetic-phonological errors.

As this chapter deals with the mere presentation of quantitative results, the chapter that follows offers a more qualitative discussion to these results.

6
DISCUSSION

In this chapter we discuss the results in light of the language learning theories and existing CLI research reviewed earlier in this work. By having a more qualitative approach in discussing the results, we hope to describe the IL of Filipino learners of Spanish as FL as influenced by TL and SL proficiencies, and objective and subjective similarities of their known languages. We begin by dealing with results related to errors, which provide us the points of departure for each proficiency group, and then move on to results on self-repairs, which illustrate how far the IL boundaries of each proficiency group stretch.

6.1 Characterizing the Spanish IL of Filipinos through errors

As expected, TL proficiency inversely affects the production rate of errors, as results from both classroom interaction data and monologic data demonstrate (see Figures 6.1 and 6.2). From a cross-sectional perspective, the total percentages show a descending trend in the production of errors in relation to proficiency level, a result that is consistent with that of Morta (2005). If we zoom in on the breakdown of the totals, the same reverse proportion exists, meaning, the higher the language proficiency, the lower the rate of error production. However, it is important to note that this trend is not observed in Group 2 of classroom interaction data, whose percent of errors in morphosyntax exceeds that of Group 1 (see Figure 6.1).

Figure 6.1 Trend of errors according to type and proficiency group (Classroom Data)

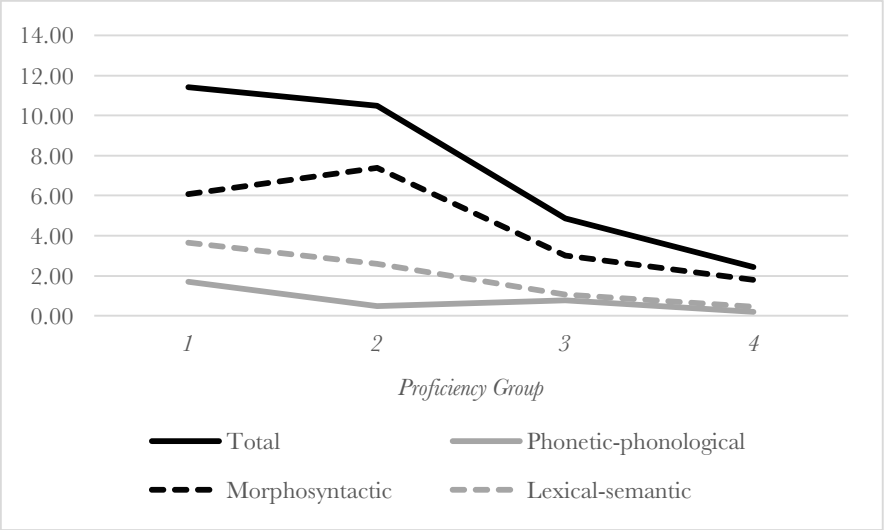
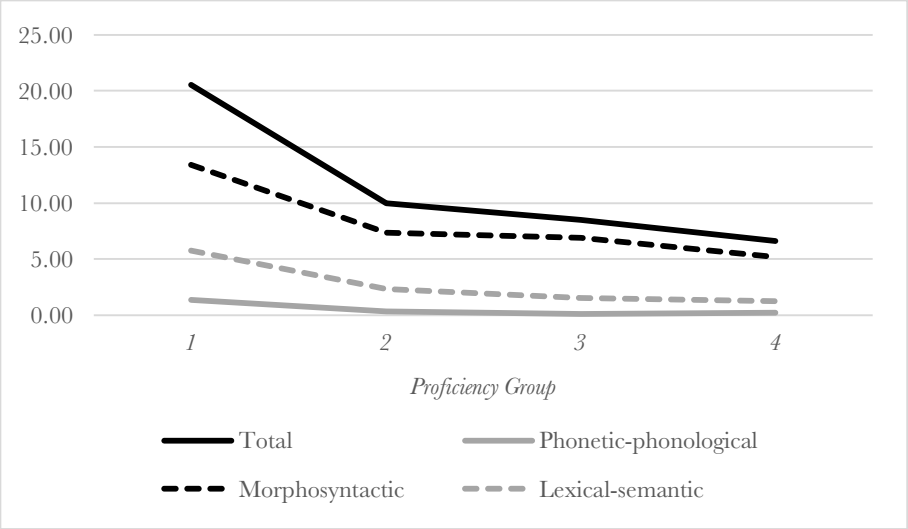


Figure 6.2 Trend of errors according to type and proficiency group (Monologic Data)



This trend is likewise consistent with Morta's, a result which she alluded to confidence in risk taking (2005, p. 141). However, we also allude this increase to the learning environment (see Section 1.3.2.4 Factors related to the learning environment). While the Spanish classes of Group 1 were largely comprised of grammatical lessons, Group 2 had classes that were heavy on oral practice, meaning, they had more opportunities to speak and produce than their lower

proficiency counterparts, and hence, ran a higher risk in committing mistakes.

In terms of distribution of error types within each proficiency group, there also exists a general trend in both classroom interaction and monologic corpora, where morphosyntactic errors were most frequent, followed by lexical-semantic errors, and lastly by phonetic-phonological errors. This distribution can also be found in the studies of Morta (2005) and Sibayan (2011), who, unfortunately, both failed to provide a general explanation for the said result. Nonetheless, they dealt with the matter by looking into the specific grammatical errors produced, and identified the top most contributors to the elevated number of morphosyntactic errors. For both authors these were: nominal and gender agreement, subject-verb agreement, and misuse of preposition. With regards the lower rate of lexical-semantic errors, Morta (2005) and Sibayan (2011) attributed this to positive transfer, since English shares a substantial number of lexicon with Spanish, owing to the Latinate roots of many English words. Likewise, the vocabulary of many Philippine languages, such as those spoken by the participants of this study, were imported from Spanish. Lastly, the almost negligible number of instances of phonetic-phonological errors is largely due to the phonetic resemblance between L1 Filipino and FL Spanish, as explained by Sibayan (2011) and Sánchez (2006).

Most errors were intralingual in nature, a result that substantiates Ellis' (2008a) claim. However, those which were caused by interference were largely influenced by English, a result that is consistent with that of Nogra and Rodriguez (2012), Morta (2005), Sánchez (2006), and Sibayan (2011). Because of its incontestable CLI effect, and because existing literature claims that it is subjective similarity and not objective similarity that provokes transfer (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010), we assumed that Filipinos perceive English as closest to Spanish. However, the survey results revealed that it is Filipino, together with other Romance languages, that the participants

perceive to have the most semblance to Spanish, not English. This discovery, which is consistent with Ringbom's (1987) findings on the activation of objectively similar languages in lexicon and semantics, challenges studies that lend credence to the claim of subjective similarity as a better predictor of CLI.

For phonetic-phonological errors, none of the subcategories—syllable, vowel, consonant—was registered to have a substantial number of occurrences to be considered for separate descriptive statistical testing. Nevertheless, a closer look at the mispronounced utterances themselves informs us that the SL was split among Spanish, Filipino, English, French, and Italian.

Morphosyntax errors were mostly intralingual. For determiners and verbs, the first two most occurring subtypes, the errors were primarily caused by linguistic features that are particular to Spanish, such as nominal agreement and conjugation. For prepositions, the third most occurring type, English was identified as the primary SL. A subcategory that did not figure in the top three, but deserves to have a share in the spotlight, is syntax, where it is evident that English likewise heavily influences the way the participants organize Spanish words into sentences, which resulted in incomprehensible structures (cf. Morta, 2005; Sánchez, 2006; Sibayan, 2011). Having said this, next to the Spanish TL, English appears to be the most identifiable SL of morphosyntax errors.

The same can be said in the case of lexical-semantic errors, most especially for wrong lexicon and neologisms, the second and third most occurring subtypes in monologic data.[1] Spanish was the principal SL, followed by English. In contrast, for the top most occurring

subtype for both classroom interaction and monologic data, borrowings, the SL was mainly English (cf. Nogra & Rodriguez, 2013). Whether the participants borrowed on purpose or not, a vast majority of the words came from English, save for a few from Filipino, and a handful from French and Italian. Influence from Romance languages was most observed in monologic data.

The identification of French, Italian, and English as SLs not only tells us that objective similarity appears to have more weight in CLI than subjective similarity, but also indicates how important SL proficiency is for a language to make its mark in a learner's IL. It confirms that a few years of formal instruction in a language can lead to its influence on the production of another as evidenced by French and Italian CLI (cf. Odlin & Jarvis, 2004). Though it supports Odlin's (1989) claim that "imperfectly" acquired languages can influence the acquisition of a new language, it also shows that the higher the SL proficiency, the more imposing it becomes, as shown by English.

We therefore conclude that while TL proficiency primarily affects the frequency of errors, it is the combination of objective similarity and SL proficiency that influences the distribution of error types and variety. Our discussions in the subsections that follow substantiate this claim.

6.1.1 Phonetic-phonology

This section deals with phonetic-phonological errors. However, occurrence of this type was too low to have at least 1% of incidence in any of its subcategories in both classroom and monologic data. However, it should still be interesting to have a look at the examples of errors.

6.1.1.1 Vowels

For errors related to vowel production, there were recorded cases of interchange between /o/ and /u/, and between /i/ and /e/ as in Examples 6.1 and 6.2, and combination of vowel sounds as if they form a diphthong, such as /o/ for /au/ and /u/ for /eu/, illustrated by Example 6.33 (cf. Sibayan, 2011). There were also mispronunciations that were not a result of either confusion or simplification but of clear interference, such as Example 6.4.

(6.1)	**discubrir*	SL: Filipino	*diskubre*	TL: *descubrir*
(6.2)	**enforme*	SL: Filipino		TL: *informe*
(6.3)	**sudónimo*	SL: English	pseudonym	TL: *seudónimo*
(6.4)	**queótica*	SL: English	chaotic	TL: *caótica*

6.1.1.2 Consonants

Errors related to consonant production has its share of sound pair confusion, such as exchange between /p/ and /f/ as seen in Example 6.5 (cf. Fernández, 1998), overgeneralization of the sounds [θ] in /s/ contexts and [ʎ] in /l/ contexts as shown by Examples 6.6 and 6.7, respectively (cf. Sibayan, 2011), and a general relaxation in pronunciation as illustrated by Examples 6.8 and 6.9 (cf. Sánchez, 2010). Like with vowels, there were also errors that were due to neither confusion nor simplification, but of transfer, like Examples 6.10 and 6.11. There were errors that we expected to appear but did not, such as the fricatization of /b/ into /v/ and the pronunciation of the silent letter h as /h/ (cf. Sibayan, 2011).

(6.5)	**uniporme*	SL: Filipino	*uniporme*	TL: *uniforme*
(6.6)	**converzación*	SL: Spanish	*conversación*	TL: *conversación*

(6.7)	**abueya*	SL: Spanish	*abuela*	TL: *abuela*
(6.8)	**solushonar*	SL: Filipino	*solusyon*	TL: *solucionar*
(6.9)	**cueschón*	SL: English	*question*	TL: *cuestión*
(6.10)	**coza*	SL: Italian	*cosa*	TL: *cosa*
(6.11)	**acceptado*	SL: French	*accepter*	TL: *aceptado*

6.1.1.3 Syllable

Lastly, errors that affected the entire syllable were limited to the stressing of the wrong syllable, as in Example 6.12, and the addition or subtraction of one, illustrated by Example 6.13 (cf. Sibayan).

(6.12)	**proHIbido*	SL: English	*prohibited*	TL: *prohibido*
(6.13)	**stricto*	SL: Filipino	*strikto*	TL: *estricto*

As mentioned in the previous section, the SL of phonetic-phonological errors was spread out among the languages that the participants know, as shown by the examples, with Spanish being the primary source of the errors, closely followed by Filipino and English, and then by other Romance languages. The emergence of Filipino and English as most influential on interference errors on the phonetic-phonological level validates Hammarberg and Hammarberg's (1993) conclusion that L1 phonetics presents itself as a constraint in the acquisition of a new language.

Although the amount of phonetic-phonological errors appeared to be negligible, the few occurrences seem enough to inform us that most errors are generally caused by the existence of similar words in the TL and the SL. When the target word is a cognate with a word from another

language, the pronunciation of the latter is more susceptible to transfer. On the other hand, most intralingual errors are caused by overdoing sounds that are particular to the Peninsular Spanish language, such as the [θ] sound. In addition, our results are consistent with those of previous studies. As such, we echo their explanations for Filipinos' low error rate in pronunciation: aside from the similarity between the Spanish and Filipino phonetic systems (Sibayan, 2011), the knowledge of English of educated Filipinos also positively contributes to the acquisition of Spanish pronunciation (Sánchez, 2010). However, we would also like to point out that the languages that seemingly aid the acquisition of Spanish phonetics are the same ones that impede it.

6.1.2 Morphosyntax

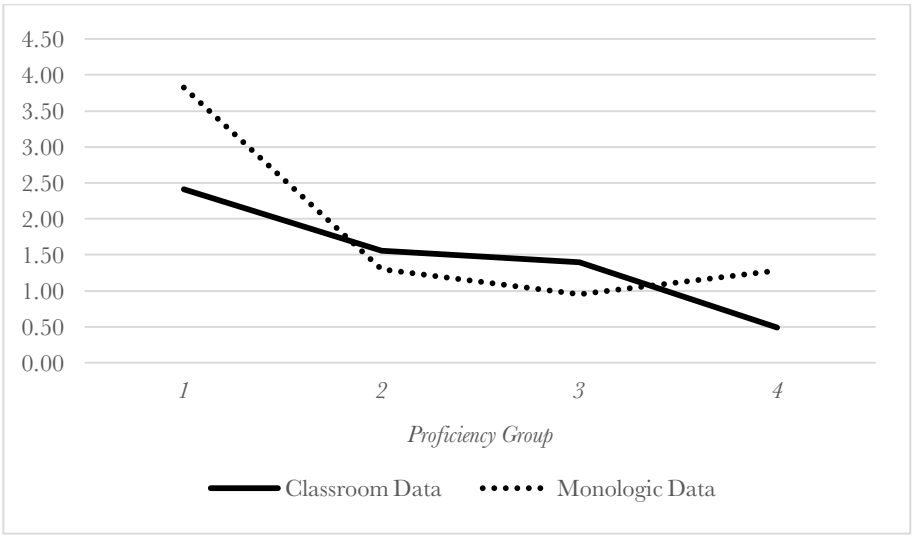
This section deals with morphosyntactic subcategories that have been considered major contributors to the total amount of morphosyntactic errors based on descriptive analysis results, wherein at least 1% of incidence was recorded in at least one of the four proficiency groups. For classroom data, only three of ten subcategories obtained at least 1% of incidence, which were determiners, verbs, and prepositions. For monologic data, there were five: determiners, verbs, prepositions, pronouns, and adjectives. In the discussion, only the top three subcategories of both classroom and monologic data shall be tackled, since these were the only error types with significant occurrence in nearly all proficiency groups (see Annex H), aside from consistently being identified in previous studies as the subcategories where Filipino learners of FL Spanish make the most number of morphosyntactic errors (see Morta, 2015; Sibayan, 2011).

6.1.2.1 Determiners

Similar to the results seen in the studies of Morta (2005) and Sibayan (2011), the

participants of this present study also produced the most number of errors under the subcategory of *determiners*, under which nominal and gender agreement fall, since determiners need to agree with their corresponding noun in terms of number and gender.[2]

Figure 6.3 Trend of production of erroneous determiners according to proficiency group



This subcategory likewise reflects the same descending trend in both classroom interaction and monologic data, where the mean of Group 1 is statistically higher than the rest of the groups.[3] We can thus likewise claim that TL proficiency contributes to the improvement in command of determiner use, that is, the better the TL proficiency, the less mistakes on determiners are produced (see Figure 6.3). Isolating the incorrect determiners made by Groups 1 and 2 of both classroom interaction and monologic data enables us to see that despite the descending trend, there is a stark difference in variety. While Group 1 apparently produced more errors, they were

[2] In Morta's (2005) study, "agreement in gender and number" is one subcategory under grammar that covers both determiners and adjectives. In this study, as can be observed in the results, determiners on their own already contributed much to the elevated occurrence of morphosyntactic errors. As such was the case, we found it unnecessary to consider adjectives, which ranked only fifth most occurring in both classroom interaction and monologic data.

[3] Group 4 of monologic data, however, registered a percentage that is higher than that of Group 3, which caused the otherwise consistently descending trend to rise.

largely limited to the omission and confusion of the definite articles, indefinite articles, and other determiners:

(6.14) **el ultimo parte* [SP1EEsmena]

(6.15) **una examen* [SP1NMalino]

(6.16) *después de* *0 *clase* [SP1EMalino]

(6.17) **los otras cosas* [SP1ECentino]

(6.18) *0 *niños estaban* [SP1ECentino]

(6.19) **algún compañeros* [SP1EMalino]

(6.20) **muchas estudiantes* [SP1ESagum]

(6.21) **los actividades* [SP1EZarraga]

On the other hand, although Group 2 produced less errors, they were much more diverse. These include confusion among demonstratives, possessive adjectives, and other determiners:

(6.22) **la mensaje* [SP2EMiciano]

(6.23) **muchas *aspetos* [SP2EBuada]

(6.24) **todos las cosas* [SP2EMarano]

(6.25) **una estamina* [SP2NFugnit]

Moreover, aside from omission, there were cases of overuse, meaning the participants used a determiner when it was not needed, an evident influence of English:

(6.26) *mi vida como *un estudiante* [SP2NMiciano]

Between Groups 2 and 3 there is not much of a leap in either rate or variety in errors. The same determiners were observed:

(6.27) **otros personas* [SP3NMirador]

Although a more notable regression can be observed between Groups 3 and 4 there is no remarkable difference in the variety of determiners between the two.

(6.28) **nuestras vida* [SP4NFernandez]

(6.29) **este necesidad* [SP4EConta]

It is interesting to note that overuse and omission seem to be limited to definite and indefinite articles. There is no apparent overuse of other determiners, such as possessives and demonstratives. Likewise, an interesting decreasing pattern can be observed in the omission of determiners in both classroom interaction and monologic data. This suggests that omission is characteristic of lower proficiency groups, which, in turn, implies that knowledge of when to use Spanish determiners improves along with one's command of the said language.

Another apparent characteristic error of the lower proficiency groups is the production of a nonbinary error, such in Example 6.30 from from Group 1 of classroom data, and Example 6.31 from Group 2 of monologic data.

(6.30) **muchos (verdura)* [SP1_20150422]

(6.31) **la jóvenes* [SP1EMalino]

If we look closely at erroneous determiners in both data sets, the immense majority is limited to one kind of fault, either of gender (e.g. *una* instead of *un*) or of number (e.g. *toda* instead of *todas*). Of this case more were found in lower proficiency groups and almost none in the higher proficiency ones, a result that may be linked to another CLI factor mentioned in passing in Chapter 1: attentional resources. Based on this result we may say that the attentional resources of

the participants, especially the higher proficiency ones, are enough for monitorization of at least one linguistic feature—either gender or number—which allows for an almost accurate production of the determiners (cf. Odlin, 1989; Kormos, 1999). As Kormos explains, when a task becomes less of an effort—the selection of gender and number in this case—attentional resources become available for other processing needs (1999, p. 333). Making a mistake in both gender and number is rare. It is quite interesting to note, however, that the binary nature of agreement errors appears much more often in gender than in number, a characteristic of all proficiency groups.

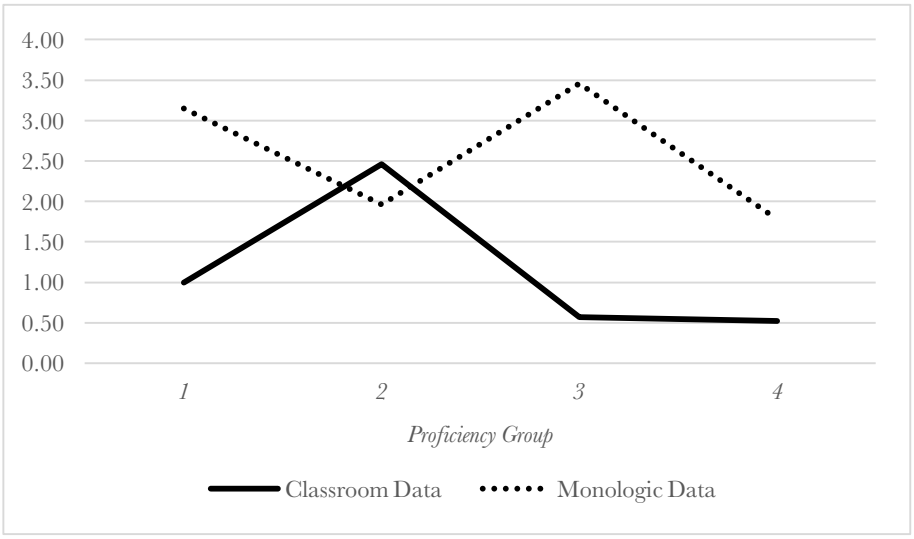
We therefore conclude this section on determiners by claiming that foremost, TL proficiency has a generally inverse effect on error production, as can be observed in the cases of omission and overuse, and in the overall production rate of errors. Second, TL proficiency also has an effect on the variety of errors, as we found a rising bell curve on the variety of errors produced across the groups. Third, TL proficiency likewise affects the production of nonbinary errors, for example *muchos* for *mucha*, for we have observed a decline of such case as the proficiency of the TL increased. Finally, we conclude that TL proficiency has no apparent effect on production of binary errors of gender or number, as this type seems to persist despite the improvement in the command of the TL, which we allude to the CLI factor of markedness, briefly explained in Chapter 2. Based on this observation, we presume that the markedness of a linguistic feature is a main constraint in the acquisition of the TL.

6.1.2.2 Verbs

Verbs produced the second highest occurrences of errors, perhaps for being a content word whose presence is essential to complete a thought. This result is comparable to that of Morta's (2005), who observed that subject-verb agreement comes after gender and number

agreement in producing the most number of errors. For Sibayan (2011), subject-verb agreement comes third in the list. Although their categorization does not exactly correspond to that of the present study, it is important to mention that for classroom data a rise in errors can be observed in Group 2 (see Figure 6.4).

Figure 6.4 Trend of production of erroneous verbs according to proficiency group



Although the individual trends of classroom and monologic data for this subcategory do not form a consistent decline, their averages do produce a descending trend, which allows us to claim that TL proficiency also contributes to the improvement in the use of verbs. It is interesting to note that although error production has an inverse relationship with TL proficiency, error variety appears to have the opposite.

Under this category we considered all errors related to the verb: on person (i.e., subject-verb agreement), voice, mood, and tense. Unlike determiners, which only have two aspects (i.e. gender and number) with two ramifications each (i.e. masculine, feminine; singular, plural), verbs

offer an overwhelming array of choices. There are the active and passive voices; the imperative, indicative, and subjunctive moods; and the tenses: present, present progressive, future, present perfect, preterite past, imperfect past, compound preterite, compound imperfect, and conditional[4]; plus, the six appropriate verb endings for each of the aforementioned aspects to choose from. That having been said, one might think that it is more likely that the language user commits an error on verbs than on determiners. However, the lower number of incidences of verbs does not suggest that verbs are easier to handle than determiner since it is in the nature of determiners to be used more often. Additional descriptive analyses are inevitably included to aid in the discussion of the results on verbs.

With regards agreement, there is evident alternation between first and third person conjugation both in the singular and the plural forms,[5] as seen in the following examples:

(6.32) ***hace*** instead of ***hacen*** [SP1_20150417]

(6.33) ***adiviné*** instead of ***adivinó*** [SP2_20150218]

(6.34) ***somos*** instead of ***son*** [SP2_20150205]

(6.35) ***alaban*** instead of ***alaba*** [SP3_20150508]

(6.36) ***tendré*** instead of ***tendrá*** [SP3_20150508]

(6.37) ***desarrolló*** instead of ***desarrollaron*** [SP4_20150415]

This alternation between first and third person conjugation seems to persist even in the higher proficiency groups (see Examples 6.32-6.37), however, as mentioned earlier, while occurrence lessens, variety widens. To illustrate: Group 2, which has the highest number of error

[4] These are the only tenses that are expected of a BA European Language Spanish major to learn
[5] First person = 1, third person = 3, singular = s, plural = p

productions, registered four combinations,[6] while Group 4, which has the least, registered seven combinations.[7] We would like to point out, however, that the apparent susceptibility of certain verbal endings to error may be due to the fact that most utterances in class mostly involved the self (i.e. first person) and the other (i.e. third person). To speak with peers, which is the only time the second person conjugation would be necessary, Filipino and English were often used. Hence, almost no alternation involving the second person was observed. In sum, it can be said that subject-verb agreement errors can be found even in the most proficient of the language learners. There are, however, two kinds of error that seem to be specific to lower proficiency groups, which are the use of the infinitive in lieu of the conjugated form and the omission of the verb, as illustrated by Examples 6.38 and 6.39.

(6.38) **llevarse* instead of *nos llevamos* [SP1_20150417]

(6.39) *0 instead of *ser* [SP1_20150422]

In terms of voice, Group 1 seemed to limit their utterances to structures that only require the active voice, since errors of omission of *se* and overuse of *se* to form the passive can be observed in higher proficiency groups, beginning with Group 2.

(6.40) **estaba cortada* instead of *se cortó* [SP2_20150218]

(6.41) **necesita* instead of *se necesita* [SP2_20150205]

Example 6.40 reflects an influence from English *was cut*, and Example 6.41 illustrates an omission of the pronoun *se* to form the passive. Such errors steadily declined as proficiency improved,

[6] These were: use of first person singular for third person singular and vice versa, third person singular for third person plural and vice versa.
[7] These were: use of first person singular for third person singular and vice versa, first person singular for third person plural, third person plural for first person plural, third person singular for third person plural and vice versa, and third person plural for second person plural.

another observed result that contributes to the claim that TL proficiency is inversely related to error production.

Likewise, manifestations of errors related to mood started with Group 2, with a predilection for the present indicative over the present subjunctive.[8] While in Group 2 error combinations of this type are limited to present indicative and present subjunctive, Groups 3 and 4 have recorded more combinations that involve the subjunctive in the past tenses, as illustrated by the following examples:

(6.42) **dejaría* instead of *deje* [SP2_20150220]

(6.43) **he ayudado* instead of *haya ayudado* [SP2_20150218]

(6.44) **tendrá* instead of *tenga* [SP3EHernandez]

(6.45) **hicieran* instead of *hicieron* [SP3ERuiz]

(6.46) **tuvieramos* instead of *hubiera tenido* [SP4NConta]

Nevertheless, despite the increase in variety along with the increase in TL proficiency, the total tally of the errors decreased, a finding that was likewise observed in errors pertaining to agreement.

Regarding tense, Group 1 errors was largely limited to the present tense, while Groups 2, 3 and 4 errors were on the present, present progressive, future, present perfect, preterite past, imperfect past, compound preterite, compound imperfect, and conditional. A more pronounced error produced by Group 2 participants is the use of the imperfect past and the present perfect tenses of in lieu of the preterite past, which could be attributable to their knowledge of French, of

[8] Only one incidence of error on the imperative was recorded, and it was found in Group 4, where perhaps the students are more comfortable in using Spanish to carry out commands to peers, instead of their usual meta languages.

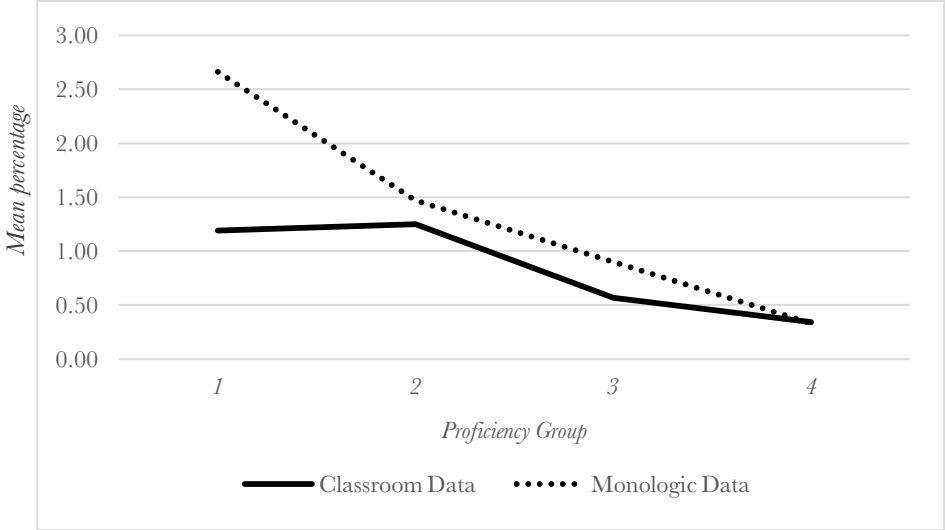
which half of the class had better command in comparison to Spanish. As presented in the previous chapter, SL proficiency and objective similarity appear to directly influence error production. The same past tense confusion was found in Groups 3 and 4, albeit with less occurrence, which could be a finding that supports our claim that the higher the proficiency level in the TL, the less mistakes are produced.

In conclusion, TL proficiency has a reverse effect on the production of errors related to verbs, but has a positive relationship with error variety. However, TL proficiency does not seem enough to eradicate agreement errors, as they were observed to be frequently occurring even in the higher proficiency groups. Also, most conjugation errors were limited to only one aspect of the verb: either in agreement, voice, mood, or tense. There were instances when two aspects were erroneous, such as agreement and tense, e.g. *dijo* instead of *he dicho*, or agreement and mood, e.g. *dejamos* instead of *dejadnos*, however, these were rare. The fact that there are no errors affecting all four aspects of the verb and the fact that most errors only affect just one aspect are telling of how much the participants are monitoring their speech, their linguistic knowledge, and their attentional resources.

6.1.2.3 Prepositions

The third most occurring subtype for morphosyntax are prepositions, a result that can be anticipated in any NNS speech, since they prove to be one of the most difficult to master by any FL learner (Muñoz, 2006), a classic source of confusion in any language learner (Fernández, 1997). The error rates in this subcategory are descending, with the exception of the error rate of Group 2 in classroom data, for reasons that have previously been explained. In other words, prepositions likewise benefit from improvement in TL proficiency (see Figure 6.5).

Figure 6.5 Trend of production of erroneous prepositions according to proficiency group



Prepositions came out as third most occurring in Morta's (2005) study and second in Sibayan's (2011). In both, *en* and *a* were identified to be the two most misused, a finding that emerged in the present study as well. These two seem to have a default function whenever there was doubt in which preposition to use, regardless of TL proficiency. While the preposition *en* was mostly used in lieu of *de* and *a*; the preposition *a* frequently replaced *de* and *en.*

A closer look at the erroneous usage of *en* as a replacement of *de* shows that creativity and CLI both contribute to its production. For utterances like *fue el presidente *en la clase* [SP2NFugnit] and *las personas *en esta edad* [SP1EEsmena], the alternation was most probably intralingual. However, for utterances like *actuar *en una manera diferente* [SP3ERuiz] and *graduar *en tiempo* [SP2_20150220], a clear influence from English can be detected, as these are translations of *act in a different manner* and *depending on*.

On the other hand, *en* as a stand in for *a* was often found after verbs of movement, such as *vuelvo *en casa* [SP1_20150417] or *llegar *en otro sitio* [SP4EConta]. This was also found by Madamba (2012), for which she explained that Filipino might be responsible, since the Filipino

pronoun *sa* covers both Spanish *en* and *a*. This is highly likely, since transfer of prepositions does not seem to be particular to the acquisition of Spanish by Filipinos, but a phenomenon that occurs in the acquisition of other languages by other speakers as well (cf. Jarvis & Odlin, 2001).

With regards the use of *a* for *de,* most errors appear to be due to English influence, such as *fácil *a resolver* [SP2EBuada] and *la oportunidad *a realizar mi sueño* [SP2_20150220], direct translations of *easy to resolve* and *opportunity to realize my dream*. Some, however, seem to be due to intralingual causes, like overgeneralization in the case of *estaban burlando *a él* [SP3NAmor] and creativity in the case of **a la misma edad* [SP2_20150220] where English could have easily facilitated positive transfer.

The use of *a* in lieu of *en* appears to be caused by the same factors. For example, *recibí *un patada *a mi mandíbula* [SP2_20150220] is an intralingual production, while *el profesor estaba *a la clase* [SP1ESagum] and *en la escuela secundaria y *a la universidad* [SP2NFugnit] have influences from French and English, respectively.

Despite the decrease in error production, omissions and redundancies of prepositions persist even in higher proficiency groups. More interesting, however, is that the prepositions which were usually omitted were also the ones that were used when they were not needed: *a* and *de.* Omissions of *a* and *de* were often found in expressions that required them in Spanish, but not in Filipino or English, such as *jugamos * fútbol* [SP4NConta], *necesitamos entender * sus padres* [SP2EMiciano], *yo quiero * mis amigos* [SP1_20150422], *después * mi trabajo* [SP1_20150422] and *antes * la muerte* [SP3_20150417]. This partly confirms Madamba's (2012) statement that errors pertaining to the preposition *a* were generally due to its omission before the personal direct object. On the other hand, overuse of *a* is mostly a result of transfer from known languages, like

in *es *a la fuera* [SP1ESagum] and in *es dificil *a tratar* [SP3NRuiz], which would be grammatically correct in French *c'est à l'extérieur* and English *it is difficult to discuss*. In contrast, overuse of *de* appears to be more intralingual, as illustrated by the following examples: *es sobre *de las malas actividades* [SP2EBuada], *había muchos casos *de así* [SP3NAmor], and *tiene una clase *de a las siete* [SP4_20150513]. The first two could possibly be cases of overgeneralization, where *es sobre *de* was comes from *se trata de* and *casos *de así* from *casos de este tipo.* Meanwhile, *clase de a las siete* could be an attempt to turn 7 o'clock into an adjective, as normally done in English, and *a las siete* a chunk derived from Filipino, since telling the time in Filipino is same as how it is told in Spanish, but with the inclusion of the preposition *a.*

To conclude, errors on prepositions also decline as the TL proficiency rises, however, the use of *en* and *a* as default prepositions and the omission and overuse of *a* and *de* can be expected to persist in the IL of even the most advanced Filipino learners of Spanish as FL.

6.1.3 Lexicon-semantics

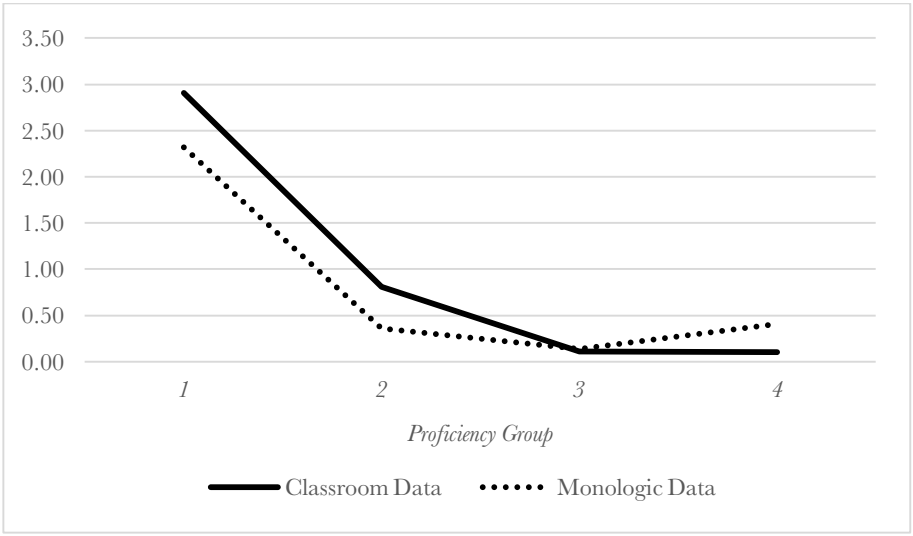
This section deals with lexical-semantic subcategories that have been considered major contributors to the total amount of lexical-semantic errors based on descriptive analysis results wherein at least 1% of incidence was recorded in at least one of the four proficiency groups. For classroom data, only one of the five subcategories obtained at least 1% of incidence, which was borrowing. For monologic data, three obtained at least 1% of incidence, which were borrowing, incorrect lexical choice, and neologism.

6.1.3.1 Borrowings

Borrowings are the most occurring non target-like production in the lexical-semantic

category (cf. Nogra & Rodriguez, 2013). In both classroom interaction and monologic data, Group 1 borrowed significantly more than Groups 2, 3 and 4, contributing to the findings that support the inverse relationship of TL proficiency with error output (see Figure 6.6).

Figure 6.6 Trend of production of borrowings according to proficiency group



All words used by the participants that do not form part of Spanish and were not altered to approximate the target form were tagged as borrowing, regardless of their intentionality;[9] and according to the descriptive analyses, content words nouns were the most frequently borrowed. Nouns and adjectives, above all. While the lower proficiency groups borrowed from both Filipino and English in the lower proficiency groups, borrowings in the higher proficiency groups were primarily from English (cf. Nogra & Rodriguez, 2013). Here are a few examples of borrowings from Groups 1 and 2:

(6.47)	noun	SL: Filipino	*aspetos*	TL: *aspectos*
(6.48)	adjective	SL: Filipino	*seryoso*	TL: *serio*

[9] Entire sentences spoken in Filipino or English were disregarded.

(6.49)	noun	SL: Filipino	*eksena*	TL: *escena*
(6.50)	noun	SL: English	*rebel*	TL: *rebelde*
(6.51)	adjective	SL: English	*special*	TL: *especial*
(6.52)	noun	SL: Filipino	*pitaka*	TL: *cartera*
(6.53)	noun	SL: English	*bully*	TL: *mandón*
(6.54)	noun	SL: Filipino	*jabar*	TL: *axilas mojadas*

From Examples 6.47 through 6.54 one can observe how Filipino and English both contribute to overcoming vocabulary insufficiency. Examples 6.47 to 6.49 are words that might have been mistaken as identical in Filipino and in English, due to their similarity with their Spanish counterpart (cf. Salazar, 2007). Examples 6.50 and 6.51 inform us of the metalinguistic awareness of lower proficiency students, or the lack thereof. On the one hand, the Spanish *rebelde* (Example 4) might have been correctly produced had the participant chosen the Filipino *rebelde* over the English *rebel*—a demonstration of unawareness that this lexicon is already part of her vocabulary as a cognate. On the other hand, the use of the Filipino *pitaka* (Example 6.52) reflects knowledge on the part of the participant of this lexicon's Hispanic roots. Credit must then be given to the participant for choosing Filipino as SL for this particular lexical challenge. However, there is lack of knowledge that some Spanish words integrated into the Philippine languages during the colonial period might have either fallen into disuse in the country of origin or have taken new meaning in the adoptive culture. The Spanish *petaca* might have been widely used in the 1800s before it was taken over by *cartera*. This example represents use of other outdated Spanish lexicon, such as the Filipino *kandila* from *candela*, and *tsinelas* from *chinela*. Lastly, Example 6.53 is clearly an intention to use the English word to fill vocabulary gap. As these participants only use the word *bully* even when speaking in Filipino, they are limited to their English

knowledge of the word. Likewise, Example 6.54 is another intentional switch, as the Filipino *jabar*, a very colloquial, very specific word for "sweat stains on the armpits of one's shirt" has no known counterpart in English or in Spanish. Examples 6.53 and 6.54 reflect the role of code switching in Filipinos' daily speech, as Salazar puts it, "instances of code-switching are just a characteristic of Filipinos itself" (2007, p. 12).

Statistical results presented in the previous chapter illustrated that known languages are most likely to become sources of transfer when their proficiency is high. It is hence very likely that Filipino and English are assigned a supplementary role for Spanish lexicon. This is also most likely the reason for the occasional transfers from French and Italian of two Group 1 participants of monologic data who had better command of these Romance languages than of Spanish. The following are a couple of examples of their borrowings:

(6.55)	noun	SL: French	*classe*	TL: *clase*
(6.56)	noun	SL: Italian	*studente*	TL: *estudiante*

More switches specific only to Group 1 are borrowings of function words—prepositions, conjunctions, and determiners—whose SLs are almost all known languages of which they have a better command than Spanish (cf. Poulisse, 1999), evident in Group 1 monologic data:

(6.57)	conjunction	SL: French	*qui*	TL: *que*
(6.58)	conjunction	SL: Italian	*ma*	TL: *pero*
(6.59)	conjunction	SL: English	*or*	TL: *o*
(6.60)	determiner	SL: French	*cette*	TL: *este*
(6.61)	determiner	SL: French	*des*	TL: *de los*
(6.62)	preposition	SL: French	*après*	TL: *después*

(6.63)	preposition	SL: Italian	*di*	TL: *de*
(6.64)	pronoun	SL: Filipino	*kaysa*	TL: *que*

It is quite interesting that most of the borrowings in lower proficiency groups are similar to their corresponding target forms, and more interesting still that such cases decrease in higher proficiency groups, as can be observed in the following are examples of switches produced by Groups 3 and 4:

(6.65)	noun	SL: English	accountant	TL: *contable*
(6.66)	noun	SL: English	bully	TL: *mandón*
(6.67)	noun	SL: English	bullying	TL: *acoso escolar*
(6.68)	noun	SL: English	cyberbullying	TL: *intimidación por Internet*
(6.69)	noun	SL: English	mood	TL: *estado de humor*
(6.70)	noun	SL: English	stigma	TL: *estigma*
(6.71)	noun	SL: English	shutter sound	TL: *sonido del obturador*
(6.72)	noun	SL: English	wacky shot	TL: *foto informal*

This difference between proficiency groups suggests that students of higher TL proficiency may have already integrated such cognates into their vocabulary, a component of the the acquisition process of Spanish as FL that the lower TL proficiency students have yet to undergo.

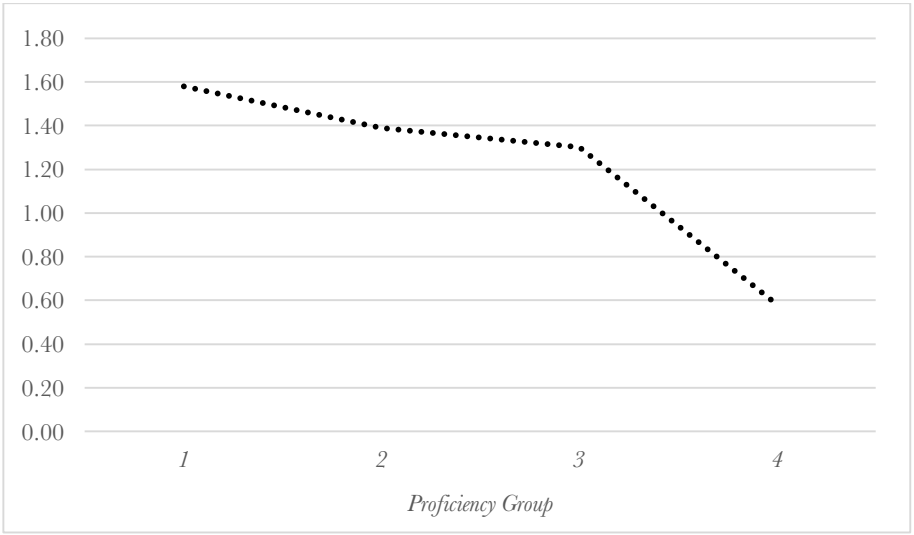
In sum, borrowings tended to lessen as TL proficiency improved, even despite other CLI factors coming into play, such as learning environment for Group 2, which caused them to speak more and therefore resort to borrowing more; and the effect of the interlocutor for Group 3,

which caused them to lessen their use of other languages. Though most borrowings were mostly content words and from the participants' L1 and L2, there were some cases of borrowings of function words from languages that were formally similar to Spanish. These cases were, however, particular to the lower proficiency students who spoke better French and Italian and FLs. In other words, SL proficiency might play a role in susceptibility of certain parts of speech to being borrowed.

6.1.3.2 Error in lexicon

Error in lexicon is the second most occurring non target-like production in the lexical-semantic category in monologic data (cf. Sibayan, 2011), where Groups 1 and 2 made significantly more errors relating to word choice than Groups 3 and 4, a result that illustrates inverse relationship of TL proficiency with error production (see Figure 6.7).

Figure 6.7 Trend of the production of error in lexical choice according to proficiency group



Like borrowings, error in lexicon mostly occurred in content words,[10] however, unlike borrowings, the influencing language seems to be the TL itself, as most of the errors were intralingual—a result of confusion between words that have similar forms and/or meanings, such as:

(6.73) *verdades* instead of *verdaderos* [SP1EEsmena]

(6.74) *delincuentes* instead of *delincuencias* [SP3EMirador]

(6.75) *estresado* instead of *estresante* [SP2NMiciano]

(6.76) *deber* instead of *deberes* [SP3NRodriguez]

(6.77) *también* instead of *tampoco* [SP1ECentino]

(6.78) *ser* instead of *estar* [SP3NAmor]

(6.79) *saber* instead of *conocer* [SP1NSagum]

(6.80) *tener* instead of *haber* [SP1NSagum]

(6.81) *mirar* instead of *ver* [SP1NMalino]

(6.82) *hacer* instead of *hacerse* [SP3NRodriguez]

(6.83) *quedar* instead of *quedarse* [SP3NMirador]

(6.84) *terminar* instead of *parar* [SP4NConta]

(6.85) *comportar* instead of *comportarse* [SP2NMiciano]

Participants seem to mix up different parts of speech, like choosing the noun in place of the adjective, like Example 6.73 *verdades* for *verdaderos* and vice versa, like Example 6.74 *delincuentes* for *delincuencias*. Confusion also appears to be caused by words pertaining to the same part of speech, but having a nuance in meaning, like Example 6.75 *estresado* for *estresante*, Example 6.76 *deber* for

[10] We see this as a result of the tagging process, where confusion between function words that share similar meanings, like *por – para* and *los – las*, were tagged as morphosyntactic errors, under the subcategory of prepositions and determiners, respectively.

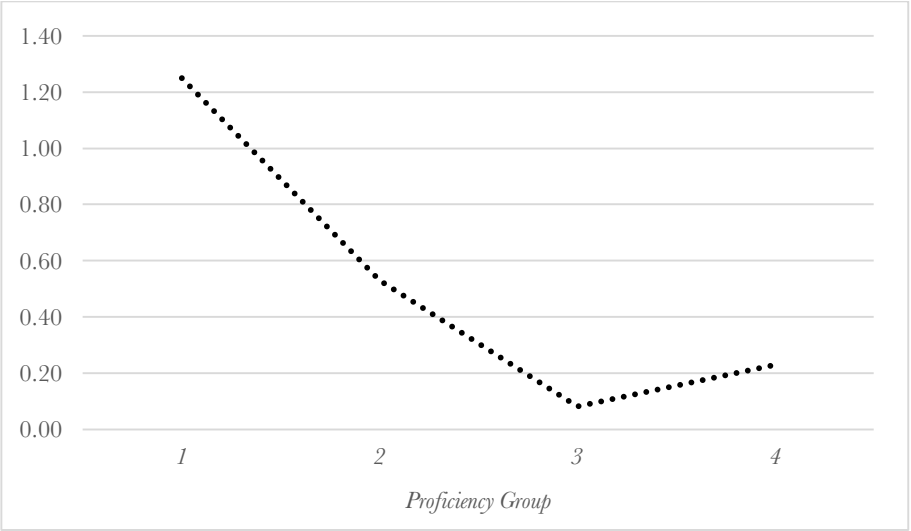
deberes, and Example 6.77 *también* for *tampoco*. More examples of this case can be observed in verbs, such as the two "to be" verbs *ser* and *estar* (Example 6.78) (cf. Fernández, 1997), the two "to know" verbs *saber* and *conocer* (Example 6.79), the two "to have" verbs *tener* and *haber* (Example 6.80), and the two verbs pertaining to sight, *to look* and *to see* (Example 6.81). Lastly, participants seem to choose the transitive verb over the pronominal one when the context calls for the latter, like Example 6.82 *hacer* (to do) instead of *hacerse* (to become), Example 6.83 *quedar* (to meet) versus *quedarse* (to stay), Example 6.84 *terminar* (to end) in lieu of *parar* (to stop), and Example 6.85 *comportar* (to carry) over *comportarse* (to behave), a confusion that can be alluded to the reflexive pronoun.

To conclude, error in lexicon is consistent with the trend we have been seeing with the other error categories: as the TL proficiency improves, error production decreases. And despite the decrease in quantity, the reason for its production remain the same across proficiency groups: the confusion brought about by lexical units that have a similar form or meaning.

6.1.3.3 Neologisms

Neologisms are the third most occurring non target-like production in the lexical-semantic category in monologic data, where Group 1 made significantly more lexical inventions than Groups 2, 3 and 4 (see Figure 6.8).

Figure 6.8 Trend of production of neologisms according to proficiency group



This result likewise contributes to the findings that support the inverse relationship of TL proficiency with non target-like output. The following are a few examples from the different proficiency groups:

(6.86)	**evidamente*	adverb	SL: French	*évidemment*	TL: *evidentemente*
(6.87)	**rompado*	adjective	SL: Spanish	*roto*	TL: *roto*
(6.88)	**fisicalmente*	adverb	SL: English	physically	TL: *fisicamente*
(6.89)	**estamina*	noun	SL: English	stamina	TL: *resistencia*

Like borrowings and error in lexicon, neologisms were mostly content words, which is suggestive of its use as a strategy for overcoming vocabulary deficiency. And like borrowings, neologisms are based on languages that the participants have better command of.

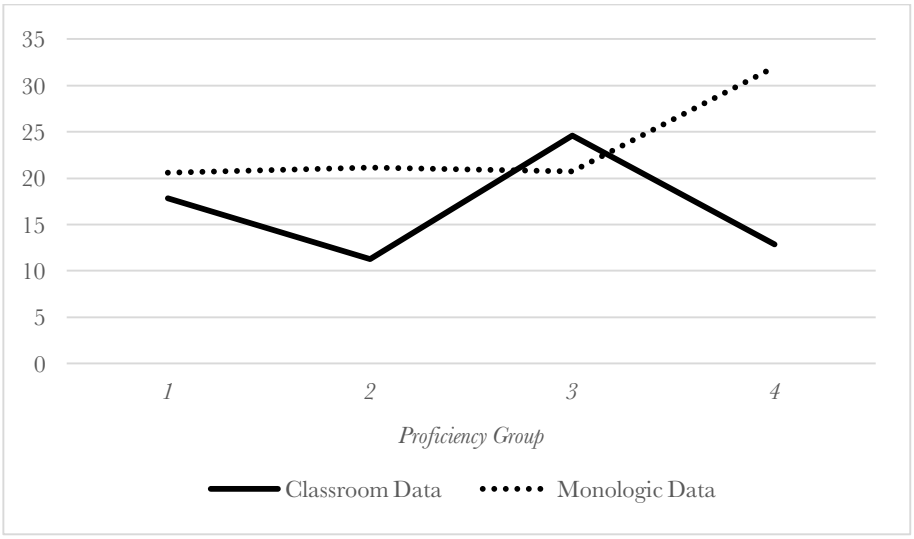
We continue the discussion with the self-repairs carried out by the students on the errors we have just presented.

6.2 Characterizing the Spanish IL of Filipinos through Self-Repairs

In this section we take up both prompted and unprompted self-repairs with the aim of further delineating the IL configuration of each proficiency group. First we deal with recognized errors and then move on to discussing the successfully repaired ones.

While TL proficiency appears to inversely affect the production rate of errors, it does not seem to have much effect on error recognition in general. On the one hand, error recognition made by the teachers in the form of recasts and prompts are, in principle, more dependent on the teachers' individual characteristics than on the students' TL proficiency. On the other hand, even the amount of independently recognized errors appears to be unaffected by TL proficiency (see Figure 6.9).

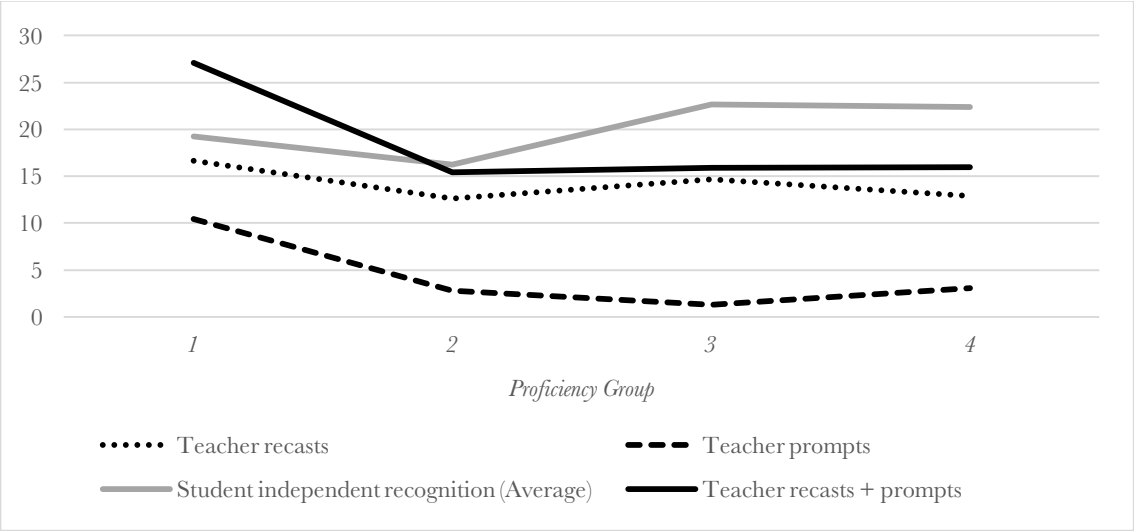
Figure 6.9 Trend of students' independent recognition of error according to proficiency group (Classroom and Monologic Data)



By combining the results from classroom and monologic data we can observe that across proficiency groups, students are only able to independently detect an average of 20% of their own errors. Interestingly, teachers appear to notice about the same amount of student errors (see

Figure 6.10).

Figure 6.10 Average trend of students' independent recognition of error according to proficiency group vis-à-vis teachers' error recognition through recasts and prompts

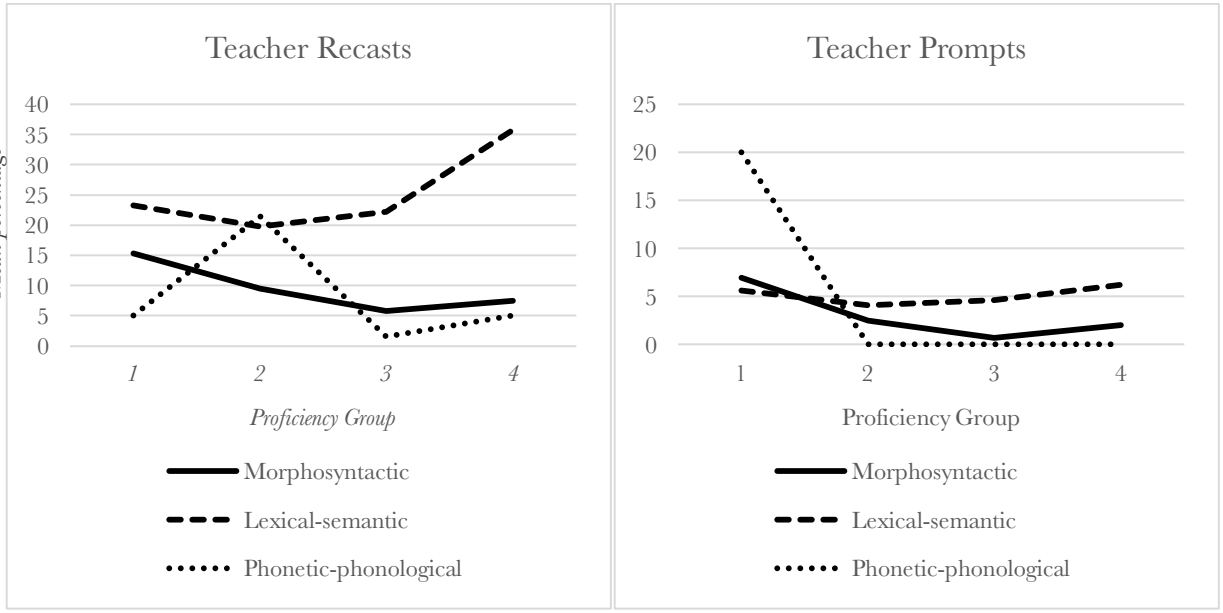


When teacher recasts and prompts are combined, we can observe that the amount of errors noticed by the teachers and the amount of errors independently noticed by the students are approximately equal: 20%. This finding may have substantial implications in developmental and universal processes of language acquisition (see Section 1.3.2.2 Cognitive, Attentional, and Developmental Factors). The fact that across proficiency groups students and teachers alike only reacted to less than a quarter of the errors is suggestive of an important detail in the reconfiguration of the IL, which can further be explored. Furthermore, this finding may be a considerable contribution to research on cognitive language learning abilities, which are believed to be distinct from person to person (see Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010). The development of control of attentional resources (see Segalowitz & Freed, 2004), classified under cognitive language learning ability (see Section 1.3.2.2 Cognitive, Attentional, and Developmental Factors), might not entirely be distinct to a learner, after all.

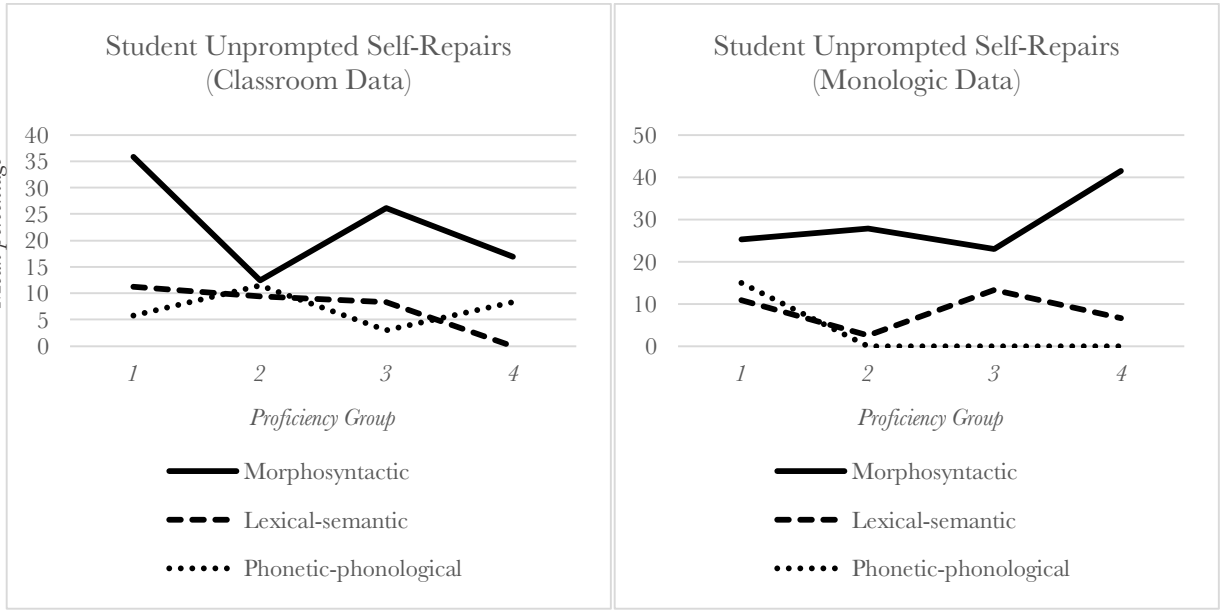
Earlier it was stated that TL proficiency has very little effect on error recognition, if any, and the lack of steepness of the slopes in Figure 6.12 illustrates this claim. But, however gentle the slopes may be, they are suggestive of the nature of effect that TL proficiency has on error recognition: the higher the TL proficiency, the less the teachers correct the students and the more the students are able to detect their own errors. Perhaps a further study with more data can give credence to this observation. What can be irrefutably stated is that across proficiency groups students and teachers recognize approximately 20% of the total errors produced.

Another difference between teacher and student error recognition is the error type they are mindful of. Both teachers and students watch out for all types of error, however, teachers seem to prioritize lexicon and phonetics, and students seem to prioritize morphology (cf. Sibayan, 2011). From the section on errors we saw that morphosyntactic errors were registered to be the most frequent type, followed by lexical-semantic errors, and finally, by phonetic-phonological errors. This trend is reflected in the unprompted self-repair attempts (see Figures 6.11c and 6.11d), which may explain for the apparent predilection of students for correcting morphosyntactic errors. Nevertheless, while errors made on any of the three linguistic categories may result in a communication breakdown, those relating to vocabulary and pronunciation errors are more predisposed to misunderstanding, which may explain for teacher feedback results (see Figures 6.11a and 6.11b).

Figures 6.11a and 6.11b. Trends in teacher recasts and prompts according to error type and proficiency group (Classroom Data)



Figures 6.11c and 6.11d Trends in student unprompted self-repair attempts according to error type and proficiency group (Classroom and Monologic Data)

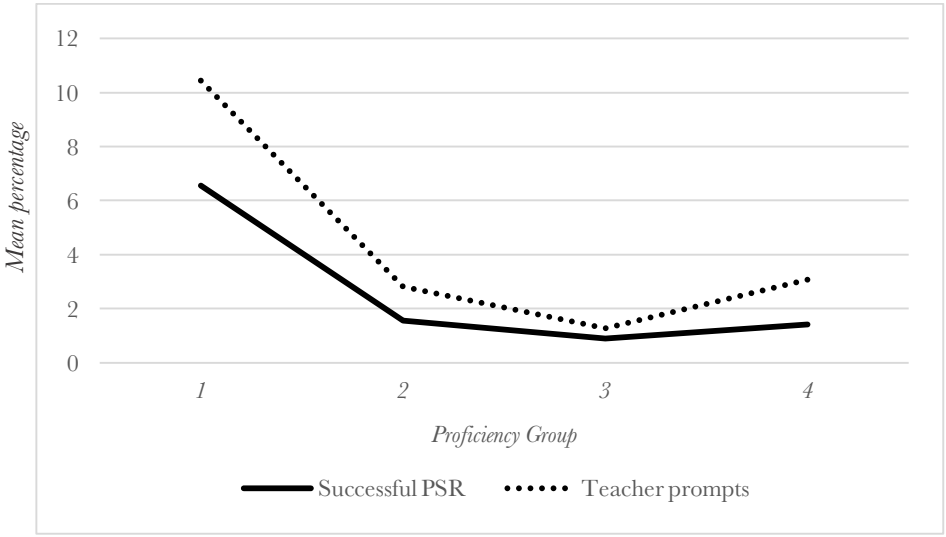


Another dependent variable that seems to be uninfluenced by TL proficiency is the success rate of prompted self-repairs (see Figure 6.12). Across all proficiency groups, it appears

that students are only able to successfully repair an average of 60% of teacher-detected errors. The almost parallel lines in Figure 6.12 indicate that students consistently take advantage of the teachers' feedback by making an effort to extract the correct form from their linguistic repertoire. Likewise, the identical slopes of teacher prompts and successful student prompted self-repairs show that the success rate is dependent on the amount of opportunities that the students have to self-repair, not on TL proficiency. The less prompts the teachers make, the less chances the students have to correct their own mistakes. As rationalized by the Interaction Hypothesis, if and when a learner takes advantage of teacher feedback to revise his original utterance, he inevitably spots his error and reformulates his existing hypothesis in the IL. It is only through the conscious and explicit process of noticing are rules become internalized (Maxwell, Masters, Kerr & Weedon, 2001; Schmidt, 1990; Skehan, 1998). The explicit processing of rules will become less of an effort through proceduralization.

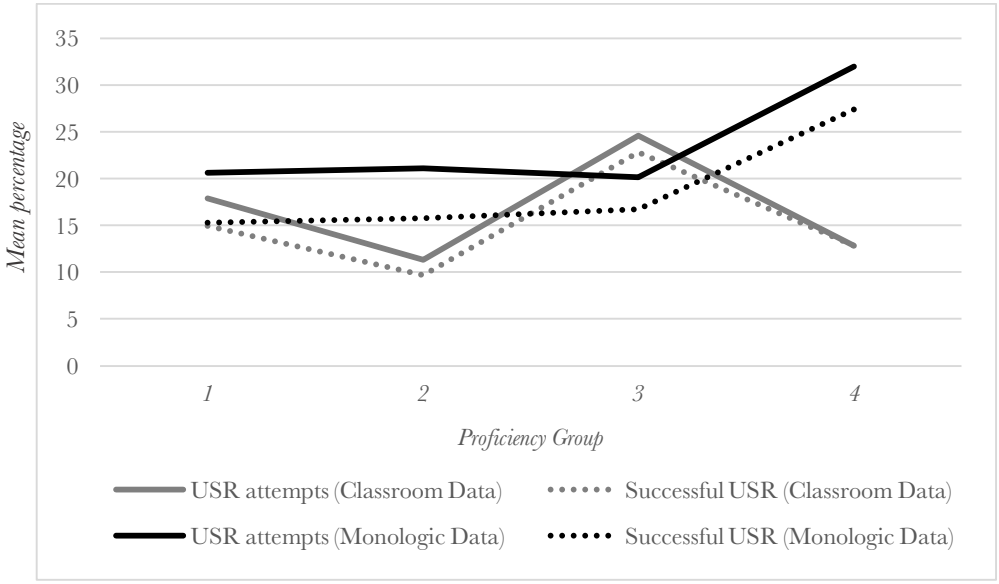
To recapitulate: out of all the errors the students produce, the teachers only prompt 1% to 10% of them for repair, and out of that small percentage, the students are able to successfully repair a little more than half. These numbers, however small, are far from negligible, as these great efforts to produce the correct form are what shed light on the current maximum limits of their IL. Moreover, the unsuccessful efforts to produce the correct form after being prompted to do so are far from futile, as these challenge the limits their respective ILs.

Figure 6.12 Trend of students' successful prompted self-repairs (PSR) vis-à-vis the teachers' prompts (Classroom Data)



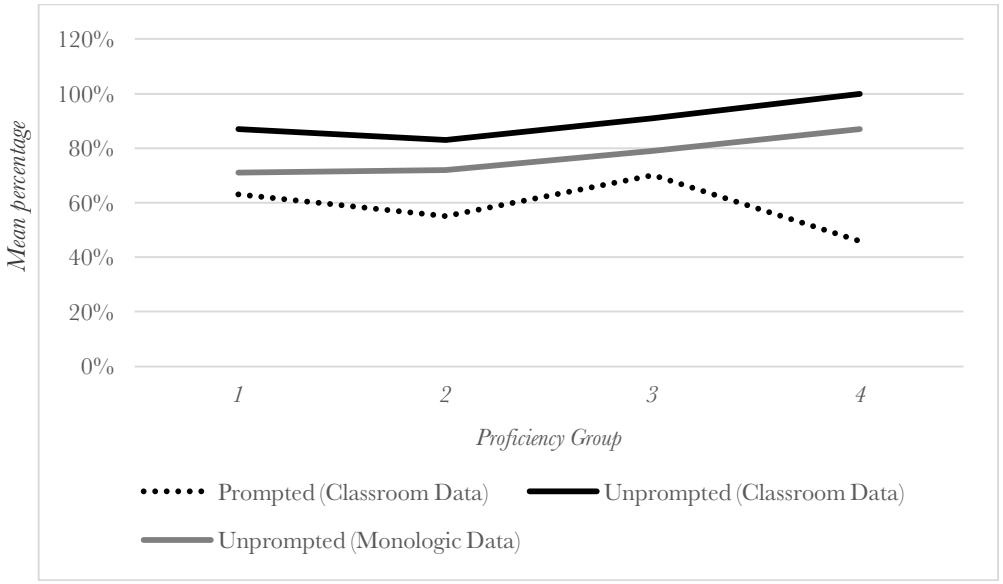
Lastly but perhaps most importantly, TL proficiency appears to have a positive effect on the success rate of unprompted self-repair. From the narrowing of the space between the slopes of both classroom and monologic data we observed that the higher the TL proficiency the students have, the more independently recognized errors they are able to successfully repair (see Figure 6.13). An elevated average of 80% success rate was recorded in the successful unprompted self-repair attempts, which implies that the errors that they are capable of detecting on their own are also the ones that they can successfully repair. In other words, their recognition of certain errors is most probably due to their certainty of the errors' corresponding target form.

Figure 6.13 Trend of students' successful unprompted self-repairs (USR) vis-à-vis their attempts (Classroom and Monologic Data)



On the one hand, from Figure 14 we can observe the erratic slope of successful prompted self-repairs, which had been discussed earlier, i.e. TL proficiency has no effect on the success rate of prompted self-repairs. On the other hand, we can also observe that the two unprompted self-repair lines from classroom and monologic data are rising, an observation we have noted previously, i.e. unprompted self-repair success rises as TL proficiency rises. Just as noteworthy is the difference between the two lines: as successful unprompted self-repair percentages of classroom data appear to be consistently higher than those of monologic data. This difference may be attributed to language environment. It is most likely that the students in the classroom were more anxious to produce the correct form than those who were simply recorded for the monologue, and therefore were more successful in repairing their own errors. Interaction in itself proved to be a factor, as it is the primary objective of active communication to be understood.

Figure 14. Trend of students' successful prompted and unprompted self-repairs (Classroom and Monologic Data)



In conclusion, TL proficiency has very little effect on recognition of errors, if at all, and has no effect on the success rate of prompted self-repairs. Conversely, it appears to have a positive effect on the success rate of unprompted self-repairs. Teachers call out about 20% of student errors for repair through a combination of recasts and prompts, which is comparable to the 20% of the students' independently recognized errors. However, of the 20% of teacher recognized errors, only 1% to 10% are prompts—which provides students little opportunity to repair. Out of the very few chances for teacher prompted self-repair, only 60% of them are successfully carried out. In contrast, out of the 20% of independently recognized errors or unprompted self-repair attempts, 80% of them are successful. In the subsections that follow we will explore how these self-repair episodes behave with the errors discussed in the previous section.

6.2.1 Phonetic-phonology

Phonetic-phonological errors were given little attention. From the classroom data, only 21% of them were called on by the teachers and only 15% were independently noticed by the students. From the monologic data, two occurrences of hypercorrection were documented, but none of recognition. Of the 21% of teacher-recognized errors only one teacher feedback was a prompt; the rest were recasts. As noteworthy as the low rate of mispronunciation recognition is the 100% success rate in producing pushed output.

Worth mentioning are the two recorded incidents of hypercorrection, Example 6.90 and 6.91:

(6.90)	**experiensha*	SL: Filipino	*eksperyensya*	[SP1NSagum]
(6.91)	**encontra*	SL: Spanish	*encuentra*	[SP1ECentino]

These hypercorrections were made by participants from Group 1, who might know that the correct pronunciation, but overcompensated out of anxiety brought by the pressures of online processing in speech. Though too few for any conclusive statements, the fact that the two incidences of hypercorrection were produced by Group 1 students might be suggestive that vacillating between the correct and incorrect phonetic forms is a characteristic of the lower proficiency groups.

6.2.1.1 Vowels

In the previous section, vowel errors were caused by transfer from known languages, e.g., the exchanging of vowel pairs (Filipino) and the blending of certain vowel combinations (English), and intralingual reasons. Self-repair data tells us that when these errors are produced, they are

not likely to be recognized and even less likely to be repaired. Example 6.92 is the only unprompted self-repair attempt made to correct a vowel mispronunciation, found in Group 1 classroom data:

(6.92)	**ki*	SL: Filipino	*que*	[SP1_20150417]

The successful repair from **ki* to *que* may suggest that errors of this nature (i.e. exchanging of /e/ and /i/ or /o/ with /u/ are detected as early as during the first year of learning Spanish. However, we recognize that one incident is far from being conclusive.

6.2.1.2 Consonants

Like vowel errors, consonant errors were identified in the form of transfers, e.g., interchanging certain sounds, specifically of /p/ and /f/ (Filipino) and relaxation in pronunciation (English), and of intralingual constructions, e.g., overgeneralization.

(6.93)	**abieron*	SL: Spanish	*abrieron*	[SP2_20150220]
(6.94)	**esilio*	SL: Spanish	*exilio*	[SP4_20150513]
(6.95)	**abueya*	SL: Spanish	*abuela*	[SP1_20150417]
(6.96)	**profecional*	SL: Spanish	*profesional*	[SP2_20150218]
(6.97)	**perezzosa*	SL: Italian	*perezosa*	[SP2_20150220]

While Examples 6.93 and 6.94 might be mere slips that were successfully recognized and repaired, Examples 6.95 and 6.96 are clearly the overproduction of the sounds that are particular to Spanish, such as the [ɪ] and [θ], respectively, and Example 6.97 is an evident influence from Italian. From the examples we can also observe that only one of the five successful unprompted self-repairs was made by Group 1, while three were made by Group 2 participants.

This may mean that while pronunciation awareness can begin in the early stages of Spanish acquisition, confidence in self-repairing is built in the second year of learning—a claim that is congruous to the statement we made earlier on hypercorrections.

6.2.1.3 Syllable

Last but not least, syllable errors were identified as those incorrectly stressed, omitted, or added, presented in the following examples:

(6.98)	**coMAS*	SL: Spanish	*comas*	[SP1_20150512]
(6.99)	*CREo	SL: Spanish	*creó*	[SP3_20150417]
(6.100)	**TUtela*	SL: English	tutelage	[SP3_20150417]
(6.101)	**moVIL*	SL: English	automobile	[SP2_20150205]

Similar to vowel and consonant repairs, we applaud the students for successfully recognizing and self-repairing syllable errors. However, we would also like to identify similar mispronunciations that they failed to notice (and hence failed to fix):

(6.102)	**alaBA*	SL: Spanish	*alaba*	[SP3_20150508]
(6.103)	**haCIa*	SL: Spanish	*hacia*	[SP3_20150417]
(6.104)	**maYORia*	SL: Filipino	*mayorya*	[SP4_20150519]
(6.105)	*carNE	SL: Filipino	*karne*	[SP1_20150422]

The juxtaposition of successfully repaired and unsuccessfully repaired syllable errors shows that correct and incorrect forms coexist in the IL of the participants regardless the TL proficiency, which is a typical characteristic of the IL. It is interesting how students succeed in retrieving the target phonetic form of a word but fail to do so for another that has a similar

phonetic structure. Perhaps phonetic encoding is unique to every lexical unit, which makes phonetic repair a case to case basis. Only errors that students are most certain of are noticed and when they are noticed, are perfectly repaired. Phonetic errors are few, but successful unprompted self-repairs are fewer, which make these spot-on corrections unique in their own right. Unfortunately, there were not enough teacher prompts to verify if students can identify and repair errors that are brought to their attention.

In conclusion, though phonetic awareness may develop as early as the first year of learning, phonetic errors are unique to a speaker and may not be a good basis to describe an IL stage. This supposition is based on their apparent inability to self-repair pronunciation errors that are similar to those that they were successfully able to identify and correct on their own. Hence, the polarized results tell us that certain words will go undetected and therefore already represent the IL boundary for Spanish phonetics. However, those that do get noticed are for sure to be repaired, and these likewise represent the IL phonetic limits of the speakers. Students, language teachers, and linguists must bear in mind that each mispronunciation will be corrected in time as these errors seem to diminish as TL proficiency improves despite not being given the same amount of attention as morphosyntactic and lexical-semantic errors.

6.2.2 Morphosyntax

Morphosyntax errors, though the most frequently occurring type, were the least noticed by the teachers. From the classroom data, a mere 3% of them were call on by the teachers and 23% were independently noticed by the students. Of the 3% of teacher-recognized errors only 32 were prompts; the rest were recasts. From the monologic data, 29% were independently noticed by the students. From both data sets a total of 22 occurrences of hypercorrection were

documented. In this section we look at examples of these recognized and repaired errors to understand the percentages. For the discussion to be parallel with errors, we begin with determiners, followed by verbs, and end with prepositions.

6.2.2.1 Determiners

Although determiners were the most frequently produced error subtype across all proficiency groups, it was the least prompted for repair by the teachers, with only three registered. We attribute the low number of prompting by the teachers to the fact that incorrect determiners barely interfere in communication, if at all. Of the three, only one was successfully repaired by the students. Conversely, it was the most independently noticed by the students and most successfully repaired, with a success rate of 100% and 95.5% from the classroom and monologic data, respectively. In addition, there were only 10 recorded of sporadic instances of hypercorrection. These findings on prompted and unprompted self-repairs suggest that when the students recognize an error, not only are they most certain that it is one, but are also sure of how to correct it. In contrast, when they recognize an error only because the teacher pointed it out, they are least likely able to repair it. The occurrences of hypercorrection, albeit almost negligible, demonstrate that despite the apparent certainty of the students, their knowledge in nominal agreement may still benefit from reinforcements.

In the discussion of errors on determiners we identified three salient peculiarities of lower proficiency groups: omission, overuse, and production of nonbinary errors, e.g., *la* instead of *los*. Aside from these distinctive errors there were others that were observed even in higher proficiency groups, like errors in agreement, specifically of gender.

Omission and overuse episodes were neither noticed by the students nor called out on by the teachers, meaning, Filipino learners of Spanish are expected to omit a determiner when it is needed and use one when it is not, but only during the initial stages of learning. Although there are no recorded instances of self-repair of omission and overuse, these two considerably disappear.

The production of nonbinary errors, though a characteristic of lower proficiency groups, appear to be, not only independently detected, but successfully repaired as well, beginning the second year of learning the language. The following examples are the only self-repair episodes recorded, which all happen to be successfully carried out:

(6.106) *ST2: entonces no hay ramas aquí en nuestra [//] nuestros estudios . [SP2_20150220]

(6.107) *ST3: con los la &uh@fp la muerte de su padre la desaparición de hermano. [SP3_20150417]

With regards repairs made on agreement, gender is found to be prioritized by the students. In other words, there were more repairs on gender agreement than on number agreement, a result that mirrors its error results. More interestingly, in both classroom interaction and monologic data, all unprompted self-repair attempts made on gender errors were successful. It is therefore imperative, especially for this subtype, for us to look beyond the initial erroneous production, as these self-repair results suggest that the students are truly aware of rules on grammatical gender. Though nominal agreement per se is something new to Filipino-English bilinguals, the concept of singular and plural nouns is not, which we think facilitates the acquisition of number agreement. In contrast, the idea that even inanimate objects have gender is entirely foreign to them, which, in our opinion, explains for the elevated number of gender

errors across all proficiency groups. Although many of them do not go undetected and revised, the fact that their initial utterance is incorrect shows a struggle in making declarative knowledge procedural.

There were a handful of instances of hypercorrection from classroom interaction and monologic data combined, majority of which were on gender. Hypercorrections primarily indicate uncertainty, a manifestation of the learners' insecurity in their linguistic knowledge. As (Alarcón, 2013) claims, gender is an aspect that even advanced learners will have difficulty in. At the same time, hypercorrections illustrate how much the students monitor their use of determiners, specifically their assignment of gender on their chosen determiner.

In conclusion, although determiners are the most frequently erred morphosyntactic subcategory, it is also the most independently self-repaired by the students. This is perhaps owing to the binary nature of majority of errors (Sibayan, 2011), that is, students only had to choose between singular or plural in the case of number errors or between feminine and masculine in the case of gender errors. Of the two, gender agreement appears to be the most difficult to integrate into the procedural knowledge of the students (cf. Alarcón, 2013).

6.2.2.2 Verbs

The most interesting finding in self-repairs of verbs is that in both prompted and unprompted attempts only about half of them were carried out successfully. In comparison to determiners, verbs received more prompting from the teachers: a total of 19 recorded incidences. This result could have been anticipated since teachers seem to have a tendency to dedicate more time in teaching verb forms than determiners. Although half of such prompts were successfully self-repaired, this only led to the correction of a mere 9% of the total number of errors on verbs,

an amount that is not too insignificant for us to presume that students find it difficult to self-repair an error that they did not notice on their own. This is substantiated by the higher success rate of unprompted self-repairs, 18% for classroom interaction data and 12% for monologic data. Though these success rates are far from the remarkable ones in determiners, they are consistent with the result in that when students autonomously recognize their mistakes, they are more likely to make the appropriate correction.

As mentioned in the previous subsection, a student may make a mistake in any (or a combination) of the components of a verb: its person, mood, voice, and tense. Majority of the errors involved only one component, with person being the most successfully repaired. As previously identified, errors related to person were mostly due to the alternation between the first and third. Though these errors were hardly prompted by the teachers for repair, they were mostly recognized and successfully repaired by the students on their own:

(6.108) **estarán* instead of *estará* [SP1EMalino]

(6.109) **enseña* instead of *enseñan* [SP2EFugnit]

(6.110) **compartí* instead of *compartió* [SP3_20150417]

(6.111) **tuve* instead of *tuvo* [SP3_20150417]

This alternation as well as their self-repairs were produced by all proficiency groups. This means that awareness of this error begins in low proficiency levels. However, three years of learning the language and attempting to self-repair this error are not sufficient, because although less of it is found in Group 4, it still persists.

Next most independently recognized and successfully self-repaired are errors of tense, however, these were mostly corrections of the use of the present tense. It seemed that the students

used the present tense as the default tense and corrected themselves when they realized that they had to use a past tense instead. When a past tense is needed to be changed to another kind of past tense, the chances of success were low:

(6.112) **ha intentado* instead of *intenté*	[SP2_20150218]	PSR ZE
(6.113) **encontraría* instead of *encontrase*	[SP2_20150218]	USR DE
(6.114) **ha perdido* instead of *perdió*	[SP3_20150417]	USR DE
(6.115) **hice* instead of *hacía*	[SP3NHernandez]	USR HYP

Errors on voice were not much as the students primarily chose the active voice and used it well. However, for the times that an error related to the passive voice was produced, it was neither called out on by teacher nor recognized by the students as needing of repair. In fact, only a handful were identified and were successfully repaired (Examples 6.116 to 6.118). The rest were either completely overlooked or were inappropriately self-repaired:

(6.116) **necesita* instead of *se necesita*	[SP2_20150206]
(6.117) **comparó* instead of *se comparó*	[SP4_20150515]
(6.118) **había visto* instead of *se había visto*	[SP3EHernandez]

The students' utterances were overwhelmingly formed in the indicative mood; very few in the subjunctive, and even much less in the imperative. As mentioned earlier, the students used Filipino and English when speaking with their peers, therefore affecting production of utterances in the imperative mood. On the other hand, the low amount of utterances in the subjunctive might be a result of a combination of the fact that the use of the subjunctive is naturally scarce even in L1 production (Rosado, Aparici, Salas & Perera, 2014), and the use of the strategy of avoidance. Despite the low number, the few self-repair episodes can still paint us a picture of the

participants' IL limits on this particular component of the verb. The first two examples illustrate that when students are prompted to repair, they are incapable of doing so. In Example 6.119, the student produced a different error, while in Example 6.120, the student produced the same one. In contrast, when a student realizes a mistake on his own, he is most likely capable of producing the target form, as shown in Example 6.121:

(6.119) **sepa* instead of **sabría* [SP1_20150507]

(6.120) **da* instead of **diera* [SP2_20150218]

(6.121) **hicieran* instead of *hicieron* [SP3ERuiz]

The examples are also interesting in that they reflect the tense and mood that the students are learning during the time of data gathering. Group 1, for example, had just learned the present subjunctive and the conditional. Hence, the fact that the student vacillated between the two (Example 6.119) does not come a surprise. Similarly, Group 2 had just learned the past subjunctive, and so it is understandable that the student used it incorrectly (Example 6.120). Lastly, the successful unprompted self-repair found in Group 3 does not mean that students in their third year of learning the language have perfectly acquired the past subjunctive, but suggests an improvement of its grasp.

There were quite a number of verb errors that involved multiple components, in contrast to determiners where errors were largely binary (i.e., either of gender only or of number). Curiously enough, error on person is always one of the erroneous components in these multiple-type errors, which is reminiscent of an earlier observation—that errors on person were the most frequently identified and self-repaired by the students. Based on these two outcomes, we can say that the students are primarily conscious if their verb agrees with the subject.

There were cases where both person and tense were needed to be repaired (Examples 6.122 to 6.127), or both person and mood (Examples 6.128 to 6.131), and all three (Examples 6.132 and 6.133):

(6.122) **dijo* instead of *he dicho*	[SP4_20150515]	person+tense
(6.123) **dice* instead of *decían*	[SP3NAmor]	person+tense
(6.124) **pasaron* instead of *pasaba*	[SP4NCarpio]	person+tense
(6.125) **cambia* instead of *cambiaban*	[SP2_20150205]	person+tense
(6.126) **daba* instead of *han dado*	[SP2_20150220]	person+tense
(6.127) **desempeña* instead of *desempeñaron*	[SP3_20150417]	person+tense
(6.128) **gana* instead of *ganen*	[SP3_20150514]	person+mood
(6.129) **podáis* instead of *puede*	[SP2_20150204]	person+mood
(6.130) **puedes* instead of *pueda*	[SP1_20150507]	person+mood
(6.131) **peleis* instead of *pelea*	[SP1ECentino]	person+mood
(6.132) **está recordando* instead of *recuerden*	[SP2EMariano]	person+tense+mood
(6.133) **trabajan* instead of *trabajáramos*	[SP3NRodriguez]	person+tense+mood

Of the twelve examples, none of these errors were independently recognized by the students, and only the last was prompted by the teacher to be repaired, which the student attempted in vain. The nonrecognition of these errors does not mean that the students are unaware of the grammar rules involved in them, since we have previously seen successfully similar ones that were repaired. However, the fact that multiple errors were committed in one verb shows how much of a luxury self-monitoring is. Self-monitorization is dependent on the attentional resources of the speaker, and as these examples illustrate, to speak of a topic that they had not spoken of while keeping

track of the form of a grammatical item that has not yet become procedural knowledge (such as the subjunctive and the past tenses), is evidently too great a task (cf. Odlin, 1989; Kormos, 1999).

In conclusion, verb conjugation remains a highly declarative procedure even for higher proficiency learners. Repairing verb errors appears to be a great challenge for them, as they were only able to successfully repair less than a quarter of their errors. This is probably due to the many details that they had to consider when conjugating: person, tense, voice, and mood. While errors on subject-verb agreement (or on person) were the most frequently produced and most frequently successfully corrected, errors on voice and mood were the least produced and least likely to be noticed and repaired. We attribute the low production of the latter errors to avoidance strategies.

6.2.2.3 Prepositions

For being the third most frequently occurring morphosyntactic error, one would assume that preposition errors would be given the attention it deserves. However, only a handful of self-repair attempts and one teacher prompt were recorded, which, altogether, resulted in the correction of 10% of erroneous prepositions. Prepositions, are easily overlooked, as shown by Example 6.134:

(6.134) *ST2: &uh@fp &uh@fp jugaría el tenis [/] tenis de mesa +/.
*PRF: jugaba .
*ST2: ah@i ?
*PRF: jugaba .
*ST2: jugaba al tenis de mesa .

[SP2_20150204]

In this example although two errors were produced by the student, only the verb received negative feedback from the teacher. Nevertheless, the student was able to repair both.

Another successful self-repair related to the preposition *a* is Example 6.135, where the personal *a* was originally missing:

(6.135) *FRZ: pero &uh@fp 0 mi [//] a mí también ellos me llamaban <taba> [:=tgl gorda] .

[SP2NMarano]

The use of the preposition *a* in Examples 1.134 and 1.135, though illustrating different functions, is unique to Spanish. While Example 1.134 shows *a* as a preposition inseparable from the verb *jugar* and Example 1.135 shows the function of *a* as an indicator of an animate direct object, their lack of a counterpart in the languages the participants know and its markedness may explain for both why students inadvertently omit it and why they police themselves of its use. Two other prepositions distinct to Spanish are *por* and *para*, which are not usually omitted but rather interchanged, as illustrated by Example 6.136:

(6.136) *ST2: por [/] por &uh@fp para utilizar este &eh@fp televisión .

[SP2_20150204]

On the other hand, there are also Spanish prepositions that are comparable to those of English, like *en* and *que*, which respectively function as "in" and "that". It is perhaps for this reason that they were successfully repaired, as we can observe in Examples 6.137, 6.138, and 6.139:

(6.137) *GIL: es más importante a: [//] que: [/] que otras cosas .

[SP2EBuada]

(6.138) *NAT: como 0 el [//] el como en el vídeo .

[SP1NMalino]

(6.139) *ANA: es muy evidente de [//] es evidente que la &uh@fp la relación es muy caótica .

[SP1NSagum]

Lastly, aside from errors of omission, the students have shown that they can also detect errors of overuse, or at least this singular evidence of such repair tells us so:

(6.140) *ST2: &um@fp tenéis una problema con transportes con la [//] el transporte MRT a cada [/] cada día [/] cada día .
[SP1_20150507]

These examples are all the successful unprompted self-repairs done on preposition errors that were recorded in the data. There were no successful prompted self-repairs. Based on the paucity of repairs alone we can presume that prepositions do not receive the same attention that students give on determiners and verbs, and the fact that teachers themselves ignore them, whether on purpose or not, does not help in making this wallflower of grammar salient.

6.2.3 Lexical-semantics

Lexical-semantic errors received the most attention from the teachers. From the classroom data, 38% of them were called on by the teachers and only 7% were independently noticed by the students. From the monologic data, only 8% were independently noticed by the students. Of the 38% of teacher-recognized errors, 16 were prompts and the rest were recasts. There were no recorded hypercorrections. For the discussion to be parallel with errors, we begin with borrowings, followed by error in lexicon, and end with neologisms.

6.2.3.1 Borrowing

From the discussion on errors we observed that students borrowed from both Filipino and English to fill in their lexical gaps. Likewise, we saw how Italian and French influence lexical production in Spanish of those students who had better command of the said languages. In this section we shall explore how the teachers and students treated such borrowings.

All errors noticed by both the teachers and the students were limited to English, as such, no borrowings from Filipino was attempted to be repaired. There was a total of eight teacher prompts recorded: six from the lower proficiency groups and two from the higher proficiency ones. This may mean that the students borrow less as their command of the TL improves, and therefore the teachers find themselves pushing the students to produce the target form less frequently. Examples 6.141 to 6.143 are successful prompted self-repairs while Example 6.144 a successful unprompted self-repair:

(6.141) **picky*	adjective	SL: English	TL: *quisquillosa*	[SP2_20150220]
(6.142) **guess*	verb	SL: English	TL: *adivinar*	[SP2_20150218]
(6.143) **monitor*	verb	SL: English	TL: *controlar*	[SP2_20150205]
(6.144) **amounts*	noun	SL: English	TL: *raciones*	[SP1_20150422]

Words borrowed from Filipino (see Examples 6.47 to 6.59) might be perceived as perfect cognates by the students and, as a result, are not detected as deviations from the TL. Moreover, these English words that were repaired do not resemble the target words in any way, which may mean that the students knew the target word to begin with, but could not retrieve it soon enough, hence utilizing the immediately available English counterpart and providing the target form if they could.

On the other hand, most words borrowed from Italian and French were successfully self-repaired, as we can observe in Examples 6.145 to 6.148:

(6.145) **pourquoi*	verb	SL: French	TL: *porque*	[SP2_20150220]
(6.146) **cette*	verb	SL: French	TL: *este*	[SP1ESagum]
(6.147) **perche*	noun	SL: Italian	TL: *porque*	[SP1NEsmena]

(6.148)	**di*	noun	SL: Italian TL: *de*	[SP1NEsmena]

The fact that the students did not need the help of the teacher to retrieve the TL equivalents of the borrowed function words suggests that they might have been produced as slips, a finding similar to that of Poulisse (1999), where he concluded that due to the high frequency of these words, they easily become part of one's implicit knowledge and get accidentally inserted when producing the TL.

6.2.3.2 Error in lexicon

Although teachers called out on lexical-semantic errors the most, we must be reminded that the feedback type of choice was the recast, which explains for the low turnout of prompts. In the subcategory of errors in lexicon, for example, only three prompts were found, and of the three, two were successfully repaired:

(6.149)	**contemporáneos*	adjective	TL: *de la misma edad*	[SP2_20150220]
(6.150)	**año*	noun	TL: *edad*	[SP3_20150417]

There were more instances of unprompted self-repair, 14 in total, 11 of which were successful:

(6.151)	**músico*	noun	TL: *música*	[SP3_20150508]
(6.152)	**gustar*	verb	TL: *querer*	[SP2_20150220]
(6.153)	**pedir*	verb	TL: *dar*	[SP2_20150218]
(6.154)	**ver*	verb	TL: *viajar*	[SP2_20150206]
(6.155)	**fin*	noun	TL: *final*	[SP1NEsmena]
(6.156)	**le*	pronoun	TL: *el*	[SP1ESagum]

(6.157) **escuela*	noun	TL: *colegio*	[SP1ECentino]
(6.158) **película*	noun	TL: *video*	[SP3EHernandez]
(6.159) **haber*	verb	TL: *tener*	[SP1NEsmena]
(6.160) **ser*	verb	TL: *haber*	[SP1ESagum]
(6.161) **deber*	noun	TL: *deberes*	[SP3NRodriguez]

We must also be reminded that the most common cause of lexical errors is similarity among lexical items, usually in terms of meaning, but can also be in terms of function and pronunciation. Though examples are limited, it is evident that the students can successfully self-repair some lexical items with similar meanings whose nuances they are knowledgeable of as the majority of the examples illustrate, with the exception of Example 6.153 *pedir* and *dar,* which are actually opposites, Example 6.154 *ver* and *viajar,* which share similar sounds, and Example 6.160 *ser* and *haber*, which are both auxiliary verbs. We would like to point out that none of the verbs with reflexive pronouns was recorded to be corrected, not even by the advanced learners.

While errors in lexical choice decline as the TL proficiency increases, the number of successful self-repairs appear to be constantly low across proficiency groups. The success in self-repairing the confusion between *ser* and *haber* by a participant from Group 1, for instance, does not indicate that *ser* and *haber* are correctly acquired by beginners. The inconsistency in successfully repairing these lexical errors, especially in the higher proficiency groups, implies that accuracy in meaning will always pose itself as a challenge. Since it is through this lexical category that we see how participants also give importance to meaning, the paucity in successful lexical repairs illustrate how much of a struggle it is to attend to both form and meaning. However, we would like to underscore that the data shows that the desire to be articulate transcends TL proficiency.

6.2.3.3 Neologism

Interestingly, by contrast to errors in lexicon, there were more teacher prompts recorded for the subcategory of neologisms, based on their very limited occurrence. Although the low number of incidence makes it difficult to make any generalizations, the five teacher prompts versus four unprompted student self-repairs in the classroom data suggest that this error type is more susceptible to prompting. Of the five prompted errors, three were successfully repaired (Examples 6.162 to 6.164), and of the four unprompted self-repair attempts, all of them were successfully repaired (Examples 6.165 to 6.169). There are two more incidences of unprompted self-repair attempts in monologic data, which were likewise successfully repaired (Examples 6.170 and 6.171):

(6.162) **enviar*	verb	SL: English	TL: *envidiar*	[SP2_20150220]
(6.163) **preguntaró*	verb	SL: Spanish	TL: *preguntó*	[SP2_20150218]
(6.164) **telefonar*	verb	SL: English	TL: *llamar*	[SP2_20150218]
(6.165) **privacia*	noun	SL: English	TL: *privacidad*	[SP2_20150218]
(6.166) **hacio*	preposition	SL: Spanish	TL: *hacia*	[SP2_20150220]
(6.167) **sabería*	verb	SL: Spanish	TL: *sabría*	[SP1_20150507]
(6.168) **promové*	verb	SL: Spanish	TL: *promueve*	[SP2_20150206]
(6.169) **privacia*	noun	SL: English	TL: *privacidad*	[SP2_20150206]
(6.170) **verdades*	noun	SL: Spanish	TL: *verdaderos*	[SP1EEsmena]
(6.171) **estamina*	noun	SL: English	TL: *resistencia*	[SP2NFugnit]

The number of successful self-repairs appears to be concentrated in the lower proficiency groups, which is understandable since it is the lower proficiency participants who produced the

most number of neologisms. As the TL proficiency increased, we saw less production of neologisms.

The fact that the learners who coined neologisms the most were also the ones who successfully produced the target forms illustrates that the neologisms were produced in a conscious manner, and it was only a matter of time that they could retrieve the appropriate lexical item.

In the following chapter we summarize and consolidate the discussions in order to conclude this dissertation.

7
CONLUSIONS

The present dissertation comes to a close with this final chapter, where conclusions drawn from the research made on the effects of language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity in foreign language learning as manifested by the learners' errors and self-repairs are presented. Inevitably, a reflection on the limitations of the study and implications for further research are included.

7.1 Concluding Remarks

Although there are already quite a number of research carried out to describe the IL based on learner errors, there are few studies that consider the role of self-repairs in the development of the IL. Likewise, despite the many investigations done on the effects of language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity on error production especially those found in phonological, morphological, syntactic and lexical levels, little is known on their effects on error recognition and self-repair success, and much less in the case of Filipinos learning Spanish as a foreign language.

As such, the principal objectives of this dissertation were to present an exploratory description of the Spanish IL of Filipino learners based on the formal errors produced in their speech as influenced by target and source language proficiency levels as well as crosslinguistic similarity of their other known languages, and to identify the thresholds of their IL based on the

self-repair of these errors. For this, a pseudolongitudinal design was adopted in order to study the speech of the students at different developmental stages for the examination of the effect of the aforementioned CLI factors on error production, error recognition, and self-repair.

As detailed in the chapter on method, two oral corpora were built for this dissertation: one of classroom interaction and another of monologic production. For the classroom interaction data five class sessions of four different proficiency groups, or approximately seven hours, were recorded. For the gathering of monologic data elicitation procedures from an international project on literacy development was adopted, which had writing and speaking components. The students were individually given time to write a narrative and expository text after having watched a visual stimulus. After accomplishing the written tasks, they were asked to produce their texts verbally. Of the four tasks only the oral forms were considered in this study. All oral data was transcribed according to the conventions of a transcription program.

The findings obtained from the descriptive and statistical analyses of student errors, teacher feedback, student prompted self-repairs and unprompted self-repairs were reported in the results chapter and qualitatively explored in light of reviewed related literature in the discussions chapter. The conclusions about the identified CLI factors influencing the evolution of the IL as manifested by errors and self-repairs were drawn from these chapters and are presented in the sections that immediately follow.

Research question 1

How does TL proficiency affect the frequency and distribution of errors?

TL proficiency negatively affects error production in general (cf. Morta, 2005). However, it does not affect the distribution of error types. By and large, across all groups, morphosyntactic

errors were the most frequently occurring, followed by lexical-semantic errors, and lastly, by phonetic-phonological errors (cf. Morta, 2005; Sibayan, 2011). What appears to be affected by TL proficiency is the production of error subtypes of these three categories, as it likewise declines as TL proficiency improves. These findings conform with Odlin's (1989) statement in that low proficiency learners tend to transfer negatively as a general coping strategy to fill knowledge gaps in the TL.

There were not many phonetic-phonological errors produced, however, the few cases suggest that mispronunciations are generally brought about by the influence of similar words between the TL and other known languages and intralingual causes. It is interesting to note that while Filipino and English mainly facilitate the production of target-like pronunciations (cf. Sánchez, 2006; Sibayan, 2011), it is the same languages that bring on mispronunciations.

The top three most occurring morphosyntactic errors are determiners, verbs, and prepositions (cf. Morta, 2005; Sibayan, 2011). With regard to determiners, the beginners and low intermediates produced the most number of errors, which included omission and overuse of articles, and the production of nonbinary errors (ex. **muchos verdura*). The latter is attributed to the drawing on attentional resources, which possibly improves along with the improvement of TL proficiency. By contrast, TL proficiency appears to have little effect on the production of gender and number agreement errors as they persist even in the speech of the high intermediates and advanced learners. Worth mentioning is the more frequent occurrence of faults on gender, an intralingual error that is perhaps reinforced by the lack of such linguistic feature in any of the spoken languages of the participants. With regard to verbs, TL proficiency also seems to have a negative effect on frequency, but a positive one on variety. The higher the TL proficiency, the more the errors differed in terms of agreement, voice, mood, and tense. Errors on agreement were

largely due to the alternation between first and third person in the singular and the plural forms, an error that persists even in the higher proficiency groups. Errors distinct to the lower proficiency groups are the use of the infinitive in place of the conjugated target form or the complete absence of a verb. As regards voice, errors on the passive are in the form of either omission or overuse of the pronoun *se,* which is observable in almost all proficiency groups starting with the low intermediate learners. As for mood, errors on the subjunctive are also observable in almost all proficiency groups, beginning with the low intermediate learners. Lastly, with respect to tense, a steep rise in the incorrect use of the past tenses can be observed in the low intermediates, which slowly decreases in the high intermediates and the advanced learners. There were some errors that involved all four aspects of the verb, though very few. Lastly, with regard to prepositions, the number of errors likewise declines with the rise of the TL, but they were mostly due to the omission of *a* and *de*, ann to d the use of *en* and *a* as coverall prepositions (cf. Madamba, 2012).

The top three most occurring lexical-semantic errors are borrowings (cf. Nogra & Rodriguez, 2013), incorrect lexical choice (cf. Sibayan, 2011), and neologisms. With regard to borrowings, the TL appeared to have an inverse effect on its production. However, across all proficiency groups the same patterns were observed: most content word borrowings came from either the L2 English (cf. Nogra & Rodriguez, 2013) or L1 Filipino, while function word borrowings were largely influenced by a Romance language that the speakers were much more proficient in, as observed in the beginners who spoke better French or Italian. With regard to incorrect lexical choice, its frequency likewise decreases as the TL proficiency increases. However, there appears to be no other reason for its occurrence aside from confusion between lexical units that share a similar form or meaning. Neologisms, like borrowings and incorrect lexical choice, are based on languages

that the participants are more proficient in, and mostly involved content words. Likewise, its frequency declines in relation to development of the TL knowledge.

These conclusions confirm all three hypotheses stated in Chapter 3. First, that TL proficiency is inversely related to the rate of error production. Second, that the distribution of errors among the linguistic levels is uneven—morphosyntactic errors most frequently occur, next to lexical-semantic and phonetic-phonological errors. Third, that a constant decline will manifest across all error subtypes according to the participants' improving command of the TL, despite their unequal distribution.

Research question 2

Which of the errors will be recognized with and without the prompting of the teacher?

While teachers mostly prompted lexical-semantic errors for repair, students mostly independently recognized morphosyntactic errors (cf. Sibayan, 2011). This was unsurprising, as vocabulary errors normally result to misunderstanding, and in such cases interlocutors instinctively ask for clarification, which is a form of prompting. On the other hand, in all classes there was an evident predilection to focus on accuracy than fluency (cf., Muranoi, 2007; van Lier, 1988). Most students tended to heavily monitor their own grammar, which is alluded to the fact that language teachers themselves focus on grammar when teaching. Interestingly, students were able to recognize 10% to 30% of their errors, which is relatively high compared to the mere 1% to 10% of teacher prompts. These conclusions likewise confirm the hypotheses made for this research question: that all error types will receive a relevant amount of attention from both the teacher and the students who committed them, with the teachers focusing more on lexical-semantic errors, and the students on morphosyntactic errors.

Research question 3

How does TL proficiency affect the frequency and distribution of attempts to self-repair?

The effect of TL proficiency on error recognition is not too evident, although discussions in the previous chapters suggest that they may have a positive correlation with students' attempts to self-repair, and an inverse correlation with teachers' feedback on errors. Across proficiency groups students approximately independently recognized 20% of their errors. Comparably, the combination of teacher recast and prompts show that teachers verbally recognized 20% of the student errors. Similarly, TL proficiency does not appear to have any influence on the success rate of prompted self-repairs. Across all proficiency groups students were only able to successfully repair an average of 60% of teacher-detected errors. By contrast, TL proficiency appears to have a positive effect on the success rate of unprompted self-repair, with an average rate of 80%, which implies that the errors they are capable of detecting on their own are also the ones they can successfully repair. In sum, the students are more likely to successfully repair an error that they recognized on their own than an error that the teacher prompted them to repair.

Phonetic-phonological self-repairs were likewise too limited for any conclusion to be made. Like incorrect function words, mispronounced words do not receive much attention from both the teachers and the students (cf. Sibayan, 2011). Nevertheless, the number of mispronunciations declines as the TL proficiency improves despite the lack of error recognition and repair shows. It is interesting to note, however, that phonetic awareness develops as early as the first year of learning, based on the unsuccessful independent attempts to self-repair.

Under the category of morphosyntax, determiner errors were not only the most frequently occurring, but also the most independently self-repaired due to their binary nature, which

facilitated error detection and repair (cf. Sibayan, 2011). Verbs, on the other hand, were hardly successfully repaired, with and without the prompting of the teacher, which is attributed to the many elements that a language learner has to consider, such as the person, tense, voice, and mood. While errors on person were the most frequently produced and most frequently successfully corrected, errors on voice and mood were the least produced and also least likely to be noticed and repaired. Lastly, prepositions did not receive much attention from either the students or the teachers perhaps because of the discreet nature of function words. As such, the success rate of their repair was almost negligible.

For lexical-semantics, the little evidence suggests that students borrowed less as their TL proficiency improved. Consequently, teachers prompted less as they had less reason to push for the production of the target form. While majority of borrowed content words, by and large from the L1 and L2, were left undetected, the borrowed function words that were from other Romance languages were mostly successfully self-detected and self-repaired. As such was the case of the latter, they were considered slips instead of efforts to overcome vocabulary gaps. With respect to incorrect lexical choice and neologisms, the too few numbers of self-repairs fail to lead any conclusive claim.

These conclusions confirm the hypothesis that the ratio of errors to self-repair attempts is similar across proficiency groups, but not across error types. However, though they confirm that the success rate of attempts to repair, prompted self-repairs and unprompted self-repairs vary, they do not fully support the notion that self-repairs in general have a positive correlation with TL proficiency, since this was only evident in successful unprompted self-repairs.

Research question 4

How do crosslinguistic similarity of previously learned languages and their corresponding proficiency levels affect the configuration of the IL as manifested by errors?

Formal crosslinguistic similarity, in comparison to perceived crosslinguistic similarity, is a more influential CLI factor, contrary to claims made in existing literature (e.g., Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010). It must be recalled that the participants in this study ranked L1 Filipino, together with FL French and FL Italian, as closest to Spanish. However, since transfers were from L2 English more than any other language, formal relatedness between languages must be a more determining factor than perceived relatedness. Language proficiency in the SL is also very strong CLI factor, as seen in the negative transfers from L2 English and L1 Filipino in the FL Spanish production of the participants of this study, especially of the lower proficiency participants. Negative transfers from other formally similar languages, such as FL French and FL Italian, also exerted influence on FL Spanish, but only when the participants' command of these Romance languages was better than their command of Spanish (cf. Ringbom, 1987). Therefore, the language that had the combination of both formal crosslinguistic similarity and proficiency—English—manifested to be the most influential on the development of the Spanish TL as manifested by the errors.

Perhaps a more important conclusion is how the SLs affect the errors. Proficiency in English, Filipino, and other Romance languages—in this order—are most influential in lexical-semantic error production, where English and Filipino manifest the most in content words, and Romance languages in function words. English has the most influence on the production of morphosyntactic errors, and Filipino for phonetic-phonological errors (cf. Hammarberg & Hammarberg, 1993). Though these negative influences on the Spanish IL decline as the command of the Spanish TL improves, certain errors, by and large intralingual, appear to persist in the IL of

the higher proficiency students. This coincides with Ellis' (2008a) claim that the errors of lower proficiency students are more of transfer than intralingual, while the errors of higher proficiency students are more intralingual than of transfer.

These conclusions confirm the hypotheses that English was to take precedence over Filipino and other known languages in influencing TL production; that the other known languages would only be sources of transfer if they were formally similar to Spanish; and if the learners' command of them was better than their command of the Spanish language.

To summarize, language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity both substantially contribute to the configuration of the Spanish IL of multilingual Filipino learners. On the one hand, we firmly conclude that while TL proficiency has a negative effect on the production of intralingual and transfer errors, it has no effect on the distribution of error types nor in the recognition of these errors. Both teachers and students alike seem to detect not more than a quarter of the errors, allowing a vast majority of errors slip away. Interestingly, teachers call out lexical-semantic errors the most, which is most probably because among the three linguistic categories, vocabulary errors are most susceptible to communication breakdown. By contrast, students most independently recognize and successfully self-repair morphosyntactic errors, which reflects the reality of language teaching, where grammar is given special attention by the teachers. Of the errors that are detected, only a little more than half of teacher-prompted errors and around four-fifths of independently recognized errors are successfully repaired. TL proficiency may have a positive effect on success in self-repair, but this is rather inconclusive. On the other hand, our results suggest that SL proficiency has a positive effect on the production of transfer errors, however, if the learner is very proficient in two or more languages, he mostly transfers from the more

objectively similar language and not from the language that he perceives to be more similar to the TL, as it was the L2 English that appeared to have the most influence on transfer errors.

7.2 Implications for Future Research

In this last section of the dissertation we outline the issues encountered throughout the research process which we recommend to be considered in future research.

First and foremost, to confirm the found correlations among the CLI factors in question and error and self-repair phenomena a bigger sample size is needed as some of the results of this study are largely suggestive and far from conclusive. In the present study the number of students that conformed to all the conditions was very limited, which likewise limited the availability of participants that could produce the data to be analyzed. However, since the linguistic and educational profile of these participants are unique to the University of the Philippines, this issue might remain a major constraint in future studies.

Secondly, to make up for the low number of participants, more oral data could have been gathered. However, in this study, the acoustics of the classrooms was the main drawback of recording more classroom hours, which discouraged the collection of any more language output that was going to be equally difficult to understand and transcribe. Although neither the background noise nor the lack in clarity of the voices caused any real distortion on the data which might have affected its analysis, a better quality would be beneficial to the future researcher.

However, despite its limitations we believe that this research offers relevant findings on the role that language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity play in the reconfiguration of the IL, which can be further explored not only in terms of negative transfer but also in terms of positive

transfer. Also, in this study we pointed out how similar languages appear to both facilitate and hinder the acquisition of a new language, which can be examined in more detail, whose findings can be of great service to pedagogy. We can likewise extend this study to other language levels where transfer takes place, such as in the discursive, pragmatic, and conceptual levels (Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010); or in conjunction with other CLI factors that are intricately linked with error recognition, such as language awareness and attentional resources. In addition, our observations on the occurrence of recasts and prompts could contribute to the understanding of these teacher feedback, not only with regards their effectiveness, efficiency, or explicitness, but with regards their very nature, as they seem to be heavily dependent on the type of error being corrected. Moreover, the data on error recognition and self-repair behavior patterns can be studied to a greater extent as they could provide more answers as to what learners observe and notice, how, and why. Last but not the least, as we adopted a methodology for the gathering of monologic data that was originally designed to analyze how children and adults alike develop literacy, the participants as FL learners could also be analyzed in terms of the compositional nature of their narrative and expository texts and/or the overall structure of their compositions.

Lastly, for subsequent research on the effects of language proficiency and crosslinguistic similarity on the configuration of the IL we recommended the adoption of a longitudinal design, which linguists have been urging the past decade (e.g., Jarvis & Pavlenko, 2010). Although the pseudolongitudinal design employed in this study is a valid assessment of the progress of the IL, a longitudinal design traces the reconfiguration of the participants' IL in a more faithful and systematic manner, as the progress of one learner is neither assumed to be similar to nor measured against the progress of another.

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ANNEX A

Northwestern Bilingualism & Psycholinguistics Research Laboratory
Marian, Blumenfeld, & Kaushanskaya (2007). The Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q): Assessing language profiles in bilinguals and multilinguals. *Journal of Speech Language and Hearing Research, 50* (4), 940-967.
Adapted to pencil-and-paper version by Marilyn Logan

Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q)

Last name		First name		Today's Date	
Age		Date of Birth		Male ☐	Female ☐

(1) Please list all the languages you know **in order of dominance**:

1	2	3	4	5

(2) Please list all the languages you know **in order of acquisition** (your native language first):

1	2	3	4	5

(3) Please list what percentage of the time you are *currently* and *on average* exposed to each language. (*Your percentages should add up to 100%*):

List language here:					
List percentage here:					

(4) When choosing to read a text available in all your languages, in what percentage of cases would you choose to read it in each of your languages? Assume that the original was written in another language, which is unknown to you. *(Your percentages should add up to 100%*):

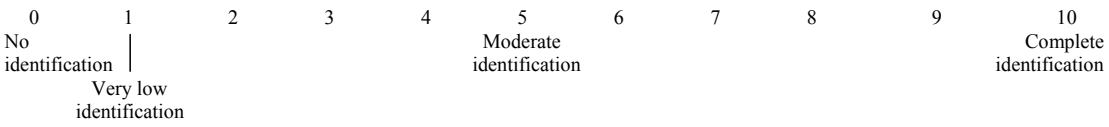
List language here:					
List percentage here:					

(5) When choosing a language to speak with a person who is equally fluent in all your languages, what percentage of time would you choose to speak each language? Please report percent of total time. (*Your percentages should add up to 100%*):

List language here					
List percentage here:					

(6) Please name the cultures with which you identify. On a scale from zero to ten, please rate the extent to which you identify with each culture. (Examples of possible cultures include US-American, Chinese, Jewish-Orthodox, etc.):

Culture: _____



Culture: _____

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
No identification | Very low identification — Moderate identification — Complete identification

Culture: _____

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
No identification | Very low identification — Moderate identification — Complete identification

Culture: _____

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
No identification | Very low identification — Moderate identification — Complete identification

Culture: _____

0 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
No identification | Very low identification — Moderate identification — Complete identification

(7) How many years of formal education do you have? _____

Please check your highest education level (or the approximate US equivalent to a degree obtained in another country):

☐ Less than High School ☐ Some College ☐ Masters
☐ High School ☐ College ☐ Ph.D./M.D./J.D.
☐ Professional Training ☐ Some Graduate School ☐ Other:

(8) Date of immigration to the USA, if applicable _____

If you have ever immigrated to another country, please provide name of country and date of immigration here.

_____

(9) Have you ever had a vision problem☐, hearing impairment☐, language disability☐, or learning disability ☐? (Check all applicable).

If yes, please explain (including any corrections):

_____

Language:

This is my (**native second third fourth fifth**) language.

(1) Age when you…

began acquiring this language:	*became fluent in this language*:	*began reading in this language*:	*became fluent reading in this language*:

(2) Please list the number of years and months you spent in each language environment:

	Years	Months
A country where this language is spoken		
A family where this language is spoken		
A school and/or working environment where this language is spoken		

(3) Please circle your *level of* ***proficiency*** in speaking, understanding, and reading in this language:

Speaking

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
None	Very low	Low	Fair	Slightly less than adequate	Adequate	Slightly more than adequate	Good	Very good	Excellent	Perfect

Understanding spoken language

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
None	Very low	Low	Fair	Slightly less than adequate	Adequate	Slightly more than adequate	Good	Very good	Excellent	Perfect

Reading

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
None	Very low	Low	Fair	Slightly less than adequate	Adequate	Slightly more than adequate	Good	Very good	Excellent	Perfect

(4) Please circle how much the following factors contributed to you learning this language:

Interacting with friends

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not a contributor	Minimal contributor				Moderate contributor					Most important contributor

Interacting with family

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not a contributor	Minimal contributor				Moderate contributor					Most important contributor

Reading

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not a contributor	Minimal contributor				Moderate contributor					Most important contributor

Language tapes/self-instruction

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not a contributor	Minimal contributor				Moderate contributor					Most important contributor

Watching TV

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not a contributor	Minimal contributor				Moderate contributor					Most important contributor

Listening to the radio

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not a contributor	Minimal contributor				Moderate contributor					Most important contributor

(5) Please circle to what extent you are currently exposed to this language in the following contexts:

Interacting with friends

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Never	Almost Never				Half of the time					Always

Interacting with family

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Never	Almost Never				Half of the time					Always

Watching TV

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Never	Almost Never				Half of the time					Always

Listening to radio/music

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Never	Almost Never				Half of the time					Always

Reading

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Never	Almost Never				Half of the time					Always

Language-lab/self-instruction

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Never	Almost Never				Half of the time					Always

(6) In your perception, how much of a foreign accent do you have in this language?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
None	Almost none	Very light	Light	Some	Moderate	Considerable	Heavy	Very heavy	Extremely heavy	Pervasive

(7) Please circle how frequently others identify you as a non-native speaker based on your <u>accent</u> in this language:

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Never	Almost Never				Half of the time					Always

ADDITIONAL QUESTIONS

From *Developing Literacy in Different Contexts and Different Languages* (Berman and Verhoeven, 2002):

	Filipino	*English*	*Spanish*	*Others*
At home				
you speak to your mom in				
you speak to your dad in				
you speak to your siblings in				
you speak to your grandparents in				
In school you speak to your teachers in				
With friends from school you speak to them in				
With friends from outside school you speak to them in				
When you read books or magazines outside school you read them in				
You watch TV programs in				
You normally watch movies in				
You write to your family in				
You write to your friends in				
You normally visit web pages in				

Do you visit the home town of your parents? YES NO

If you go, do you speak in the local language? YES NO

How often do you go?

_____ More than once a month

_____ Once a month

_____ Less than once a month

What is your mom's profession? _____

What is your dad's profession? _____

ANNEX B

INSTRUCTIONS (Order B)

Session	*Text 1*	*Text 1*	*Others*
1	Narrative Written	Narrative Spoken	---
2	Expository Written	Expository Spoken	Sociolinguistic Questionnaire

First Session – Narrative Texts

Introduction by the interviewer:
Estamos haciendo un trabajo sobre la vida en las escuelas e institutos en distintos países. Estamos recogiendo material sobre esto. Así que te pediremos que hables y escribas. Espero que no te moleste que te grabe. Para empezar, te voy a mostrar un vídeo muy corto sobre distintas situaciones desagradables que se filmó en una escuela/instituto.

Interviewer plays the video. Once the video ends, he gives the instructions for the production of the texts.

Narrative Written

Interviewer:
Seguro que reconoces algunas de las situaciones que aparecen en el video. ¿Te ha ocurrido a ti alguna vez algo desagradable de este tipo? ¿Podrías explicar por escrito lo que te ha pasado, escribir la historia de lo que te pasó? Puedes estar todo el tiempo que necesites. Puedes tomar notas antes de escribir. Yo estaré por ahí fuera, avísame cuando hayas terminado.

If the participant asks "Does it have to be a story that happened in school?" say yes; if he insists that nothing similar happened to him elsewhere but not in school, ask him to explain. If he asks "Can it be a story of another school?" say yes. If the participant asks how long the text should be, ask to write at least 10 lines.

Remember: You can never say "what you saw in the video." Our objective is for the participant NOT to retell any of the situations seen but to explain a personal story.

Provide pen (or pencil) and paper. Exit. When the participant says that he is finished, we collect the paper on which he wrote and proceed to the next part of the session.

Narrative Spoken

Recording starts at this point of the session. The interviewer sits in front or beside the participant in an attempt to create a friendly atmosphere.

Interviewer:
Muchas gracias. ¿Ahora podrías contarme lo que te pasó?, seguro que me interesará. Cuéntame, por favor, la historia de lo que a ti te ha sucedido.

If the participant asks, "*¿Tengo que contar la misma historia?"* say yes. If he asks how much time he has to retell it, tell him not to worry about it. There is no time limit, but if by the end of 10 minutes and he has not finished, encourage him to wrap up, as what he has told is probably sufficient. Throughout the narration, the interviewer listens and does not intervene. Only in cases when it is very simple or brief, or can contribute to the expounding or clarification of what has been said, with sentences such as: *¿Esto es todo? ¿Y no pasó nada más?*

Once it ends, stop the recording and say goodbye to the participant, with an expression like:

Interviewer:
Muy bien. Nos volveremos a ver la semana próxima (o mañana u otro día) para completar este trabajo. Gracias.

Second Session – Expository Texts

Expository Written

Introduction by the interviewer:
Hace una semana (o ayer) te mostramos un vídeo y tú nos contaste una historia sobre algo parecido que te había ocurrido. Estamos recogiendo también material para entender este tipo de problemas. Supongo que recuerdas el vídeo. Ahora me gustaría saber qué nos puedes decir sobre el tema.

Queremos recoger una colección de redacciones sobre este tema. Por favor, escribe una redacción. Piensa cuidadosamente sobre el tema, toma el tiempo que necesites, y luego escribe. Puedes tomar notas antes de escribir. Yo estaré por ahí fuera, avísame cuando hayas acabado.

If the participant asks, "*¿Qué tema?*" answer, "*Bueno, este tipo de problemas*" (avoid specifying the topic); if he insists, answer, "*Problemas de la vida en la escuela o instituto*" (for the expository task avoid expressions like "*situaciones desagradables como las que has visto*"; also avoid, "*queremos saber tu opinión*"). If the participant asks how long the text should be, ask to write at least 10 lines.

Provide pen (or pencil) and paper. Exit. When the participant says that he is finished, we collect the paper on which he wrote and proceed to the next part of the session.

Expository Spoken

Recording starts at this point of the session. The interviewer sits in front or beside the participant in an attempt to create a friendly atmosphere.

Interviewer:
Muchas gracias. Nos gustaría también tener una colección de discursos sobre este tema. ¿Podrías hacer un discurso sobre el tema, como si estuvieras delante de un público? Piensa cuidadosamente sobre lo que dirías y luego empieza. Si quieres tomar alguna nota antes de empezar, puedes hacerlo.

If the participant asks, "*¿Cuánto tiempo tengo?*" say "*Uno o dos minutos."* If he asks "*¿Qué es un discurso?*" answer "*Hablar seriamente del tema*." If he asks if it can or if it must be the same speech, say yes.

If he wishes to take notes prior to speaking, give a few minutes to do so. After, we say: "*Qué*, *¿empezamos?*" There is no time limit, but if by the end of 10 minutes and he has not finished, encourage him to wrap up, as what he has told is probably sufficient. Throughout the speech, the interviewer listens and does not intervene. Only in cases when it is very simple or brief, or can contribute to the expounding or clarification of what has been said, with sentences such as: *¿Esto es todo? ¿No quieres añadir nada más?*

Once it ends, stop the recording and proceed to the third part of the session.

Third Part – Sociolinguistic Questionnaire

Interviewer:
Muy bien. Ahora, para terminar, te pediré que respondas las preguntas de este cuestrionario sobre tus datos personales, el centro donde estudias, las lenguas que conoces y otras cosas parecidas. Si tienes alguna duda, puedo ayudarte. Gives the questionnaire and remains seated with the participant.

Once the questionnaire is completed, say goodbye to the participant, thanking him for his cooperation:

Muchas gracias. Tus respuestas nos ayudarán mucho a entender qué pasa en las escuelas y los institutos.

INSTRUCTIONS (Order D)

Session	*Text 1*	*Text 1*	*Others*
1	Expository Written	Expository Spoken	---
2	Narrative Written	Narrative Spoken	Sociolinguistic Questionnaire

First session – Expository Texts

Introduction by the interviewer:
Estamos haciendo un trabajo sobre la vida en las escuelas e institutos en distintos países. Estamos recogiendo material sobre esto. Así que te pediremos que hables y escribas. Espero que no te moleste que te grabe. Para empezar, te voy a mostrar un vídeo en el que aparecen todo tipo de problemas, que se filmó en una escuela/instituto.

Interviewer plays the video. Once the video ends, he gives the instructions for the production of the texts.

Expository Written

Interviewer:
Estamos recogiendo material para entender este tipo de problemas. Nos gustaría saber qué nos puedes decir sobre el tema. Por favor, escribe una redacción. Piensa cuidadosamente sobre el tema, toma el tiempo que necesites, y luego escribe. Puedes tomar notas antes de escribir. Yo estaré por ahí fuera, avísame cuando hayas acabado.

If the participant asks, "*¿Qué tema?*" answer, "*Bueno, este tipo de problemas*" (avoid specifying the topic); if he insists, answer, "*Problemas de la vida en la escuela o instituto*" (for the expository task avoid expressions like "*situaciones desagradables como las que has visto*"; also avoid, "*queremos saber tu opinión*"). If the participant asks how long the text should be, ask to write at least 10 lines.

Provide pen (or pencil) and paper. Exit. When the participant says that he is finished, we collect the paper on which he wrote and proceed to the next part of the session.

Expository Spoken

Recording starts at this point of the session. The interviewer sits in front or beside the participant in an attempt to create a friendly atmosphere.

Interviewer:
Muchas gracias. Nos gustaría también tener una colección de discursos sobre este tema. ¿Podrías hacer un discurso sobre el tema, como si estuvieras delante de un público? Piensa cuidadosamente sobre lo que dirías y luego empieza. Si quieres tomar alguna nota antes de empezar, puedes hacerlo.

If the participant asks, "*¿Cuánto tiempo tengo?*" say "*Uno o dos minutos."* If he asks "*¿Qué es un discurso?*" answer "*Hablar seriamente del tema*." If he asks if it can or if it must be the same speech, say yes.

If he wishes to take notes prior to speaking, give a few minutes to do so. After, we say: "*Qué*, *¿empezamos?*" There is no time limit, but if by the end of 10 minutes and he has not finished, encourage him to wrap up, as what he has told is probably sufficient. Throughout the speech, the interviewer listens and does not intervene. Only in cases when it is very simple or brief, or can contribute to the expounding or clarification of what has been said, with sentences such as: *¿Esto es todo? ¿No quieres añadir nada más?*

Once it ends, stop the recording and say goodbye to the participant, with an expression like:

Interviewer:
Muy bien. Nos volveremos a ver la semana próxima (o mañana u otro día) para completar este trabajo. Gracias.

Second session – Narrative Texts

Written Narrative

Introduction by the interviewer:
Hace una semana (o ayer) te mostramos un vídeo y tú nos hablaste sobre el tema. Nos gustaría tener también una historia que te haya ocurrido a ti. Supongo que recuerdas el vídeo. Alguna vez puede que te haya ocurrido algo parecido, ¿verdad?

Seguro que reconoces algunas de las situaciones que aparecen en el video. ¿Te ha ocurrido a ti alguna vez algo desagradable de este tipo? ¿Podrías explicar por escrito lo que te ha pasado, escribir la historia de lo que te pasó? Puedes estar todo el tiempo que necesites. Puedes tomar notas antes de escribir. Yo estaré por ahí fuera, avísame cuando hayas terminado.

If the participant asks "Does it have to be a story that happened in school?" say yes; if he insists that nothing similar happened to him elsewhere but not in school, ask him to explain. If he asks "Can it be a story of another school?" say yes. If the participant asks how long the text should be, ask to write at least 10 lines.

Remember: You can never say "what you saw in the video." Our objective is for the participant NOT to retell any of the situations seen but to explain a personal story.

Provide pen (or pencil) and paper. Exit. When the participant says that he is finished, we collect the paper on which he wrote and proceed to the next part of the session.

Spoken Narrative

Recording starts at this point of the session. The interviewer sits in front or beside the participant in an attempt to create a friendly atmosphere.

Interviewer:
Muchas gracias. ¿Ahora podrías contarme lo que te pasó?, seguro que me interesará. Cuéntame, por favor, la historia de lo que a ti te ha sucedido.

If the participant asks, "Do I have to tell the same story?" say yes. If he asks how much time he has to retell it, tell him not to worry about it.
There is no time limit, but if by the end of 10 minutes and he has not finished, encourage him to wrap up, as what he has told is probably sufficient. Throughout the narration, the interviewer listens and does not intervene. Only in cases when it is very simple or brief, or can contribute to the expounding or clarification of what has been said, with sentences such as: *¿Esto es todo? ¿Y no pasó nada más?*

Once it ends, stop the recording and proceed to the third part of the session.

Third Part – Sociolinguistic Questionnaire

Interviewer:
Muy bien. Ahora, para terminar, te pediré que respondas las preguntas de este cuestrionario sobre tus datos personales, el centro donde estudias, las lenguas que conoces y otras cosas parecidas. Si tienes alguna duda, puedo ayudarte. Gives the questionnaire and remains seated with the participant.

Once the questionnaire is completed, say goodbye to the participant, thanking him for his cooperation:

Muchas gracias. Tus respuestas nos ayudarán mucho a entender qué pasa en las escuelas y los institutos.

ANNEX C

@Begin
@Languages: spa
@Participants: ST2 Participant, INV Sibayan Investigator, PRF Teacher
@ID: spa|SibayanELE|ST2|19;||Licenciatura||Participant|L1_tgl_eng|L2|
@ID: spa|SibayanELE|PRF|||||Teacher|||
@ID: spa|SibayanELE|INV|||||Investigator|||
@Filename: SP2_20150220
@Date: 04-FEB-2015
@Location: Universidad de Filipinas
@Version: standardized
@Transcriber: Anna Sibayan
@Coder: Anna Sibayan
@Recording Quality: 2
@Warning: only pertinent error-feedback-uptake and
unprompted self-repair moves transcribed
*ST2: pero y a veces soy perezzosa [/] perezosa .
%erp: $CON:ita:perezzosa|perezosa
%srp: $USR+SS:CON:perezzosa|perezosa
*ST2: &um@fp desportes son volibol .
%erl: $NEO+N:eng:desportes|deportes
*PRF: deportes .
%fbl: $REF+REC:NEO+N:desportes|deportes
*ST2: ay@i deportes son volibol y .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:NEO+N:desportes|deportes
*ST2: ano@s:tgl yon@s:tgl ?
*ST2: volante ?
*ST2: bádminton ?
*ST2: cómo_se_dice badminton@s:eng ?
%erl: $BORR+N:eng:badminton|badminton
*PRF: badminton .
%fbl: $REF+EXP:BORR+N:badminton|badminton
*ST2: bádminton .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:BORR+N:badminton|badminton
*ST2: odiar es un gran palabra para mí .
%erm: $DET:esp:un|una
%com: risas
*ST2: no me gusta odiar .
*ST2: sí, pero yo disgustar .
%erm: $PRON:esp:yo|me $V:esp:disgustar|disgusta
*ST2: sólo disgustar .
*PRF: eh ?
%fbm: $PRO+CLA:V:disgustar|disgusta
*ST2: sólo disgustar .
*ST2: no me gusta usar odiar .
*PRF: ah@i !
*ST2: sólo disgustar .
*ST2: me disgustar .
%srm: $PSR+SE:V:disgustar|disgusta
*ST2: me disgusta los guerras .
%erm: $V:esp:disgusta|disgustan $DET:esp:los|las
*PRF: los guerras ?
%fbm: $PRO+REP:DET:los|las

*ST2: las [/] las guerras y malas cosas .
%srm: $PSR+SS:DET:los|las
*ST2: &um@fp me gustaría viajar con mis familias .
%erm: $N:esp:familias|familia
*PRF: mi familia .
%fbm: $REF+REC:N:familias|familia
*ST2: mi familias y amigos .
%srm: $RPZ+SE:N:familias|familia
*ST2: nada más .
*ST2: hola buenos días me llamo Kuya_Carl .
*ST2: soy una persona optimista sencilla un poco introvertida un poco tímida .
*ST2: siempre intento complacer los demás porque me &afec [/] me afecta facilmente lo que dice sobre mí .
%erm: $PREP:esp:0|a $V:esp:dice|dicen
*ST2: no juego nada deporte pero me gusta ver los tornamientos de tenis y bádminton .
%erm: $PREP: esp:0|de
%erl: $NEO+N:eng:tornamientos|torneos
*ST2: también los insectos y el olor de los cigarillos .
%erl: $LEX+ADV:eng:tambien|tampoco
*PRF: el ?
*ST2: el olor de los cigarillos .
*PRF: ah@i vale .
*ST2: nos queremos bien pero pienso que estoy más cómodo compartir mis secretos, mis problemas, con mis amigos que a mi familia porque .
%com: sin transcribir
*ST2: y especialmente optimista e intento a buscar las buenas en cada desgracia .
%erm: $PREP:esp:x|a
%erl: $NEO+N:esp:las_buenas|lo_bueno
*ST2: me gusta hacer los por_ejemplo ziplines@s:eng .
*ST2: <me gusta> [/] me gusta hacer unas actividades nuevas .
*ST2: sí (.) sky_diving@s:eng también y <sueño que> [//] sueno con haga esto .
%erm: $V:esp:haga|hacer
%erl: $BORR+N:eng:skydiving
*PRF: con hacer esto .
%fbm: $REF+REC:V:haga|hacer
*ST2: ay@i con hacer esto .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:V:haga|hacer
*ST2: y mi deporte favorito <cuando era> [/] cuando era en mi escuela secundaria .
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:ser|estar
*ST2: &uh@fp &uh@fp jugaría el tenis [/] tenis de mesa +/.
%erm: $V:esp:jugaria|jugaba $PREP:esp:0|a
*PRF: jugaba .
%fbm: $REF+REC:V:jugaria|jugaba
*ST2: ah@i ?
*PRF: jugaba .
*ST2: jugaba al tenis de mesa .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:V:jugaria|jugaba $USR+SS:PREP:0|a
*ST2: soy un atleta de mi escuela .
%erm: $DET:esp:x|un $V:esp:soy|era $PREP:tgl:de|en
*PRF: sigue siendo ?
*PRF: sigue siendo atleta ?

*PRF: entonces era atleta de [//] en tu escuela .
%fbm: $REF+EXP:V:soy|era $REF+REC:PREP:de|en
*ST2: sí cuando era en mi escuela .
%srm: $RPZ+ZE:V:soy|era $RPZ+ZE:PREP:de|en
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:ser|estar
*PRF: estaba .
%fbm: $REF+REC:LEX+V:ser|estar
*ST2: &ah@fp estaba, estaba .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:LEX+V:ser|estar
*ST2: para mí odio [/] odio los serpientes .
%erm: $DET:esp:los|las
*PRF: las serpientes .
%fbm: $REF+REC:DET:los|las
*PRF: las serpientes solamente ?
*ST2: todos los reptiles .
%srm: $RPZ+SE:DET:los|las
*ST2: por_ejemplo estoy viendo un programa en National@s:eng [//] Geográfico_Nacional .
*ST2: yo [/] yo tengo una sentiemiento que las serpientes esta [/] esta alrededor de mi .
%erm: $DET:esp:una|un $V:esp:esta|estan $SYN:eng:estan_alrededor_de_mi|me_rodean
*ST2: y [/] y tengo miedo de [/] de los serpientes .
%erm: $DET:esp:los|las
*PRF: de las .
%fbm: $REF+REC:DET:los|las
*ST2: <de los> [//] de las serpientes .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:DET:los|las
*ST2: cuando [/] <cuando ya> [//] cuando estoy tu amigo .
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:estar|ser
*ST2: sí, tu amigo o +/.
*PRF: soy yo .
*PRF: cuando yo soy .
%fbm: $REF+REC:LEX+V:estar|ser
*ST2: soy, cuando ya soy .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:LEX+V:estar|ser
*ST2: intentó a apreciar [/] &apre apreciarte [/] apreciarte con todo mi corazón .
%erp: $SYL:esp:intenTO|intento $PREP:esp:x|a
*ST2: sí sí sí es verdad y mis amigos .
*ST2: intento a ayudarlas [//] ayudarlos &ah@fp en cualquier cosa que puedo hacer .
%erm: $PREP:esp:x|a $PRON:esp:las|los $V:esp:puedo|pueda
%srm: $USR+SS:PRON:las|los
*ST2: y por_eso yo pienso que soy un [/] un buen persona .
%erm: $DET:eng:x|un $ADJ:esp:buen|buena
*ST2: &uh@fp yo soy un persona introvertida [/] introvertida tímida .
%erm: $DET:esp:un|una
*ST2: y no me gusta hablar [//] no me gusta hacerse amigos .
%erm: $PRON:esp:hacerse|hacerme
*PRF: hacerme .
%fbm: $REF+REC:PRON:hacerse|hacerme
*ST2: de todos porque soy picky@s:eng .
%srm: $RPZ+ZE:PRON:hacerse|hacerme
%erl: $BORR+ADJ:eng:picky|quisquillosa
*PRF: soy ?

%fbl: $PRO+CLA:BORR+ADJ:picky|quiquillosa
%com: risas
*ST2: picky@s:eng .
%srl: $PSR+SE:BORR+ADJ:picky|quiquillosa
*ST2: &em@fp me gusta hacer los actividades creativas .
%erm: $DET:esp:los|las
*PRF: las .
%fbm: $REF+REC:DET:los|las
*ST2: las actividades creativas como pintar bailar escribir cantar dibujar .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:DET:los|las
*ST2: &um@fp y es lo que me hace cuando tengo tiempo libres .
%erm: $PRON:esp:x|me $V:esp:hace|hago $ADJ:esp:libres|libre
*PRF: lo que cómo ?
%fbm: $PRO+CLA:V:hace|hago $PRO+CLA:PRON:x|me
*ST2: son los que .
%srm: $PSR+ZE:PRON:x|me $PSR+ZE:V:hace|hago
*PRF: hago .
*ST2: son lo que me hago cuando .
*PRF: son los que hago .
*ST2: ah@i que hago cuando tengo libres .
*PRF: mhmm .
*ST2: porque yo no [/] yo no sé pero no soy muy íntimo con mis contemporácneos ?
%erl: $LEX+ADJ:eng:contemporaneos|de_la_misma_edad
*PRF: a que te refieres ?
%fbl: $PRO+CLA:LEX+ADJ:contemporaneos|de_la_misma_edad
*ST2: a la misma edad .
%srl: $PSR+SS:LEX+ADJ:contemporaneos|de_la_misma_edad
%erm: $PREP:esp:a|de
*PRF: ah@i .
*PRF: no te identificas muy ah@i mucho con las que tienen tu edad .
*ST2: uhhuh@i .
*ST2: entonces cuando salgo con mis &ami mis amigos son las citas con mis ates@s:tgl .
*ST2: y lo que yo odio es sentirse .
%erm: $PRON:esp:sentirse|sentirme
*ST2: sentirme solitario .
%srm: $USR+SS:PRON:sentirse|sentirme
%erm: $ADJ:esp:solitario|solitaria
*ST2: pero a veces me gusto la soledad también .
%erm: $V:esp:gusto|gusta
*ST2: &ah@fp me gusto mucho cantar porque cuando canto todos mis preocupaciones desaparecen .
%erm: $V:esp:gusto|gusta $ADJ:esp:todos|todas
*PRF: todas .
%fbm: $REF+REC:ADJ:todos|todas
*ST2: todas mis preocupaciones desaparecen .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:ADJ:todos|todas
*ST2: no hago deportes pero lo que más cerca yo puedo decir como mi deporte favorito es bowling@s:eng .
%erm: $PRON:esp:lo_que|lo $PRON:esp:0|que
%erl: $BORR+N:eng:bowling|bolos $LEX+ADJ:esp:cerca|cercano
*PRF: bolos, los bolos .
%fbl: $REF+REC:BORR+N:bowling|bolos
*ST2: cómo ?

*ST2: P_E .
%srl: $RPZ+ZE:BORR+N:bowling|bolos
*ST2: yo trato mis amigos como los hermanos que nunca tenía .
%erm: $PREP:esp:0|a $V:esp:tenia|tuve
*ST2: ahora solo me gustaría graduarme con honores porque quiero alcanzar mis sueños paso a paso .
*ST2: estaban en [/] en los ziplines@s:eng .
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:estar|ser
%erm: $PREP:esp:x|en
*PRF: eran eran .
%fbl: $REF+REC:V:estar|ser
*ST2: eran .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:V:estar|ser
*PRF: o se hicieron .
*PRF: en la escuela .
*ST2: y &um@fp me gusta dormir y comer y .
*ST2: no soy una persona deportiva .
*ST2: pero me gusta intentar las deportes intentar .
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:intentar|probar
%erm: $DET:esp:las|los
*PRF: probar .
%fbl: $REF+REC:LEX+V:intentar|probar
*ST2: probar los deportes como bowling@s:eng y Boggle@s:eng .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:LEX+V:intentar|probar
%erl: $BORR+N:eng:bowling|bolos
*PRF: qué es boggle@s:eng?
*ST2: yung@s:tgl ganun@s:tgl?
*PRF: es un deporte?
%com: risas
*ST2: sí sí .
*ST2: me odio las cucarazchas .
%com: risas
%erm: $PRON:esp:x|me
%erp: $CON:esp:cucarazchas|cucarachas
*PRF: cucarachas .
%fbp: $REF+REC:CON:cucarazchas|cucarachas
*ST2: voladoras .
%srp: $RPZ+ZE:CON:cucarazchas|cucarachas
*ST2: porque cuando una cucarazcha está .
*PRF: cucaracha .
*ST2: cucaracha está grande <me gusta> [/] me gusta matar con [/] con Baygon &uh@fp .
*ST2: me gusta ahora [/] me gusta sobrevivir este semestre .
%com: risas
*ST2: y después &uh@fp .
*ST2: quiero [/] quiero sobrevivir .
*ST2: y después &uh@fp graduar &uh@fp a tiempo .
%erm: $PRON:esp:graduar|graduarme
*PRF: graduarte a tiempo .
%fbm: $REF+REC:PRON:graduar|graduarme
*PRF: vale muy bien .
*PRF: siguiente Monica .
*ST2: y &um@fp mis amigos &di dijen que soy una persona agradable porque tengo un ánimo de aventura .
%srm: $RPZ+ZE:PRON:graduar|graduarme
%erl: $NEO+V:esp:dijen|dicen

*ST2: me gusta [/] me gusta maquillarme .
%com: risas
*ST2: y maquillar las otras personas también .
%erm: $PREP:esp:0|a
*ST2: y me gusta ver los ánimes y las películas .
*ST2: juego [/] juego &uh@fp al bádminton y juego al tenis también y &uh@fp nado .
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:nadar|hacer_natacion
*PRF: hago natación .
%fbl: $REF+REC:LEX+V:nadar|hacer_natacion
*ST2: ah@i hago natación .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:LEX+V:nadar|hacer_natacion
*ST2: quiero [/] quiero mi [/] mi familia, mis amigos .
%erm: $PREP:esp:0|a
*PRF: a mi .
%fbm: $REF+REC:PREP:0|a
*ST2: quiero a mis amigos, a mi familia y a mi novio .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:PREP:0|a
*ST2: mucho .
%com: risas
*ST2: pienso que la vida no es completa sin ellos .
*ST2: y &uh@fp pienso [/] pienso primero en ellos .
*ST2: porque si [/] si son feliz &uh@fp soy feliz también .
%erm: $ADJ:esp:feliz|felices
*PRF: felices .
%fbm: $REF+REC:ADJ:feliz|felices
*ST2: si son felices soy feliz también .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:ADJ:feliz|felices
*ST2: &um@fp mi sueño .
*ST2: mi sueño es hacerme una modelo .
%com: risas
*ST2: pero es imposible porque no soy alta .
*ST2: &uh@fp &uh@fp no me gusta hablo con mis hermanos y &ah@fp y mi madre .
%erm: $V:esp:hablo|hablar
*PRF: no me gusta cómo?
*PRF: no me gusta ?
%fbm: $PRO+ELI:V:hablo|hablar
*ST2: no me gusta hablar con mis hermanos y mi madre .
%srm: $PSR+SS:V:hablo|hablar
*ST2: &uh@fp pero me gusta cantar y fumar cigarillos y beber cervezas y escuchar la música .
*ST2: &um@fp &um@fp do_n(o)t@s:eng judge@s:eng me@s:eng .
*ST2: mi deportes favorito es gimnástica ?
%erm: $N:esp:deportes|deporte
*ST2: porque antes [/] antes .
*ST2: &uh@fp ay@i &uh@fp porque soy muy flexible ?
*ST2: odio comer las verduras como ampalaya@s:tgl kangkong@s:tgl ugh@i.
*ST2: no hay muchos amigos .
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:haber|tener
*PRF: no tengo .
%fbl: $REF+REC:LEX+V:haber|tener
*ST2: no tengo muchos amigos pero tengo muchos confianzas con ellos .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:LEX+V:haber|tener
%erm: $ADJ:esp:muchos|mucha $N:esp:confianzas|confianza
*ST2: &uh@fp quiero &uh@fp viajar en xxx y buscar la razón de mi vida .

*ST2: buscar la razón de mi vida .
%erl: $LEX+N:eng:razon|motivo
*PRF: el motivo de .
%fbl: $REF+REC:LEX+N:razon|motivo
*ST2: me encantan el judo y .
%srl: $RPZ+ZE:LEX+N:razon|motivo
%erm: $V:esp:encantan|encanta
*PRF: me encanta .
%fbm: $REF+REC:V:encantan|encanta
*ST2: el judo y la natación .
%srm: $RPZ+ZE:V:encantan|encanta
*ST2: &um@fp soy una persona muy amable .
*ST2: y fiel &um@fp &eh@fp y &fide fidedigna [?] .
*PRF: hmm?
*PRF: fidedigna [?] .
*ST2: fidedigna .
*ST2: &um@fp como loyal@s:eng .
*PRF: fiel .
*ST2: fidel .
*PRF: fiel fiel .
*ST2: fiel .
*ST2: &uh@fp &uh@fp cuando eres mi amigo eres mi amigo para siempre .
%com: burlas
*ST2: Miss_Congeniality@s:eng .
*ST2: &um@fp yo odio [/] yo odio las personas quien [//] quienes son
mentirosos .
%erm: $PREP:esp:0|a $PRON:esp:quien|quienes
%srm: $USR+SS:PRON:quien|quienes
*PRF: a las personas .
%fbm: $REF+REC:PREP:0|a
*ST2: a las personas .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:PREP:0|a
*ST2: me llevo bien con mi familia y &uh@fp tengo muchas [//] mucha [//]
muchos amigos también .
%erm: $ADJ:esp:muchas|muchos
%srm: $USR+SS:ADJ:muchas|muchos
*ST2: &um@fp en mi familia y yo son muy íntimo .
%erm: $V:esp:son|somos $ADJ:esp:intimo|intimos
*PRF: somos .
%fbm: $REF+REC:V:son|somos
*ST2: &so somos muy íntimo .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:V:son|somos
*ST2: para mi sueño me gusta ser [/] ser una artista famosa .
*ST2: &uh@fp artista &pintor pintora famosa y &um@fp &eh@fp .
*ST2: y graduar en tiempo [/] en tiempo .
%erm: $PRON:esp:0|me $PREP:esp:en|a
*ST2: es la razón porque soy complicada .
%erl: $LEX:eng:porque
*ST2: &um@fp me gusta [/] me gusta bailar cantar escuchar el música .
*ST2: y me encanta &uh@fp [/] me encanta escribir poemas y historias cortas
.
%erp: $VOW:esp:y|e
*ST2: &um@fp &um@fp me &gu [/] &um@fp mi deporte favorito es volibol porque
en mi primer año en U_P Tacloban era un atleta de volibol .
%erm: $DET:esp:x|un
*ST2: me gusta &uh@fp [//] quiero publicar mi libro de poemas y historias

cortas y viajar .
%erl: $LEX+V:tgl:gustar|querer
%srl: $USR+SS:LEX+V:gustar|querer
%erp: $VOW:esp:y|e
*ST2: tengo muchos estratos y &uh@fp para conocerme bien &uh@fp vosotros &uh@fp &uh@fp tienen [//] tenéis que pelar los estratos de mí .
%com: burlas
%erm: $V:esp:tienen|teneis
%srm: $USR+SS:V:tienen|teneis
*ST2: &uh@fp me gusta pasar tiempo con mis amados y amigos pero ahora &uh@fp &uh@fp estoy muy &uh@fp ocupada con [/] con la estudia &uh@fp &uh@fp .
%erl: $NEO+N:esp:estudia|estudios
*PRF: los estudios .
%fbl: $REF+REC:NEO+N:estudia|estudios
*ST2: los estudios .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:NEO+N:estudia|estudios
*ST2: &uh@fp no hago deportes pero me dísfruto caminar y veo partidos de fútbol cuando yo puedo .
%erp: $SYL:esp:DISfruto|disFRUto
%erm: $V:esp:puedo|pueda
*ST2: &uh@fp no tengo muchos amigos pero mi relación con mis &uh@fp con mis &uh@fp pocos amigos &uh@fp es muy bien .
%erl: $LEX+ADJ:esp:bien|buena
*PRF: es muy buena .
%fbl: $REF+REC:LEX+ADJ:bien|buena
*ST2: es muy buena &uh@fp .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:LEX+ADJ:bien|buena
*ST2: &uh@fp me gusta &uh@fp me gusta dibujar porque cuando era pequeño tenía muchas cursos en bellas artes .
%erm: $ADJ:esp:muchas|muchos
*ST2: so@s:eng &um@fp a veces &uh@fp me gusta pintar o dibujar .
*ST2: también me gusta escuchar a música .
%erm: $PREP:esp:x|a
*ST2: ahora no en la universidad pero &uh@fp cuando &uh@fp era pequeño desde mi colegio hasta mi instituto hacía karate .
*ST2: porque &uh@fp [/] porque mi padre tenía un cinturón negro en karate .
*ST2: pero yo yo solo tenía un cinturón purpurea [?] purple@s:eng .
%erl: $NEO+ADJ:esp:purpurea|purpura
*PRF: ah@i púrpura .
%fbl: $REF+REC:NEO+ADJ:purpurea|purpura
*ST2: púrpura .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:NEO+ADJ:purpurea|purpura
*ST2: sí &um@fp &uh@fp cuando era en mi instituto &uh@fp &uh@fp jugaba &uh@fp el flag_football@s:eng pero ahora no .
%erm: $PREP:esp:0|a
*ST2: pero no tengo mucho tiempo para los [//] las actividades porque ahora tiene muchos cursos en &uh@fp en .
%erm: $DET:esp:los|las $V:esp:tiene|tengo
%srm: $USR+SS:DET:los|las
*PRF: tiene tiene ?
%fbm: $PRO+REP:V:tiene|tengo
*ST2: tengo muchos cursos en &uh@fp en las lenguas .
%srm: $PSR+SS:V:tiene|tengo
*ST2: &uh@fp en dos mil siete &uh@fp &resi recibe un &uh@fp

[//] recibí un patada a mi mandilla ?
%erm: $PREP:esp:a|en $V:esp:recibe|reciBI
%srm: $USR+SS:V:recibe|reciBI
*ST2: en &karat [//] cuando hacía karate en sparring@s:eng y no podía comer por tres días .
%erm: $PREP:esp:por|durante
*ST2: &uh@fp en [/] en la universidad soy miembro de U_P Círculo_Hispánico pero antes era miembro de U_P R_O_T_C .
*ST2: hacío [//] hacía muchos servicios para la universidad cuando era miembro &uh@fp .
%erl: $NEO+V:esp:hacio|hacia
%srl: $USR+SS:NEO+V:hacio|hacia
*ST2: hacía para [/] para llevar la bandera de la universidad o de las Filipinas para &uh@fp flag_raising@s:eng o flag_retreat@s:eng cada mes .
%erm: $SYN:esp:hacia_para_llevar|llevaba
*ST2: en &uh@fp en dos mil trece &uh@fp abrimos &uh@fp la desfile &uh@fp &lin linterna [?] .
%erm: $DET:esp:la|el
*PRF: el .
%fbm: $REF+REC:DET:la|el
*ST2: &ah@fp lantern@s:eng parade@s:eng .
*PRF: el el el .
*ST2: el desfile .
%srm: $RPZ+SS:DET:la|el
*ST2: &uh@fp pero con mi familia creo que soy diferente de mis [/] de mis otras [//] otros miembros .
%erm: $ADJ:esp:otras|otros $DET:esp:mis|los
%srm: $USR+SS:ADJ:otras|otros
*ST2: porque &uh@fp &uh@fp estudiaba [//] &uh@fp estudiaban química y biología .
%erm: $V:esp:estudiaba|estudiaban
%srm: $USR+SS:V:estudiaba|estudiaban
*ST2: estudio lenguas europeas .
*ST2: porque no me gusta [//] no me gustan ciencias .
%erm: $V:esp:gusta|gustan
%srm: $USR+SS:V:gusta|gustan
*ST2: es muy aburrido por [/] por [//] para mí .
%erl: $LEX+PREP:esp:por|para
%srl: $USR+SS:LEX+PREP:por|para
*ST2: &uh@fp &uh@fp a veces ha [/] ha &uh@fp &much mucho de tiempo hablo más en francés que en español .
%erl: $LEX+ADJ:eng:mucho_de_tiempo|la_mayoría_del_tiempo
*ST2: no sé por pourquoi@s:fra por qué !
%erl: $BORR+PRON:fra:pourquoi|por_que
%srl: $USR+SS:BORR+PRON:pourquoi|por_que
%com: risas
*ST2: &uh@fp me odio &uh@fp me odio el &tráf [//] &uh@fp odio el tráfico aquí.
%erm: $PRON:esp:x|me
%srm: $USR+SS:PRON:x|me
%erl: $LEX+N:eng:trafico|atasco
*PRF: atasco .
%fbl: $REF+REC:LEX+N:trafico|atasco
*ST2: &uh@fp c(e)_est_tout@s:fra .
%srl: $RPZ+ZE:LEX+N:trafico|atasco

%erl: $BORR+EXP:fra:cest_tout|es_todo
%com: risas
*ST2: cómo_se_dice that_(i)s_all@s:eng ?
*ST2: j(e)_ai@s:fra estoy terminado .
*PRF: ya está .
%fbl: $REF+REC:BORR+EXP:cest_tout|es_todo
*ST2: ah@i ya está .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:BORR+EXP:cest_tout|es_todo
*ST2: soy Mia y tengo muchos personalidades depende de la persona conmigo &um@fp .
%erm: $ADJ:esp:muchos|muchas
%erl: $CLQ+PRON:eng:conmigo|con_quien_estoy
*ST2: tengo una tendencia estar agresiva .
%erm: $PREP:esp:0|a
*ST2: tengo miedo que toda la persona me dejaría un día .
%erm: $PREP:esp:0|de $V:esp:dejaria|deje
%erl: $LEX+N:esp:toda_la_persona:todo_el_mundo $LEX+EXP:eng:tengo_miedo|me_da_miedo
*ST2: no soy cómico .
%erm: $ADJ:esp:comico|comica
%erl: $LEX+ADJ:esp:comico|gracioso
*ST2: actualmente soy una persona serioso .
%erl: $COG+ADV:eng:actualmente|en_realidad $NEO+ADJ:tgl:serioso|serio
%erm: $ADJ:esp:serio|seria
*ST2: ser honesto cuando no quiero algo y nada menos de la verdad .
%erm: $V:esp:ser|soy
*ST2: odio personas que me dejan y que mentiran .
%erm: $PREP:esp:0|a $DET:esp:0|las
%erl: $NEO+V:esp:mentiran|mienten
*ST2: prefiero quedar en la casa para leer libros de Pablo Neruda &um@fp .
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:quedar|quedarse
*ST2: siempre creo que hay una luz en cada situación oscuro .
%erm: $ADJ:esp:oscuro|oscura
*ST2: no tengo deportes favoritas porque no [/] no soy un atleta .
%erm: $ADJ:esp:favoritas|favoritos $DET:esp:x|un
*ST2: aparte de bailar aunque no soy un &baila bailador ?
%erm: $DET:esp:x|un $N:esp:bailador|bailadora
*PRF: bailadora .
%fbm: $REF+REC:N:bailador|bailadora
*ST2: bailadora?
%srm: $RPZ+SS:N:bailador|bailadora
*ST2: &um@fp quiero mejorar mi habilidad de bailar .
*ST2: pero ojalá que un día encontre el amor de mi vida en la universidad porque mis padres encontraban uno del otro durante su &um@fp su tiempo aquí en U_P .
%erl: $NEO+EXP:esp:uno_del_otro|uno_al_otro
%erp: $VOW:esp:encontre|encuentre
%erm: $V:esp:encontraban|se_encontraron
*ST2: &um@fp quiero tener cuidado a mi esposo en el futuro .
%erl: $CLQ+V:eng:tener_cuidado|cuidar_de
*ST2: me trate &com [//] y quiero que me trate como su princesa .
*ST2: porque siempre veo mi vida como una historia de una princesa .
*ST2: pero me odio trabajar en grupos .
%erm: $PRON:esp:x|me $CONJ:esp:x|pero
%erl: $CLQ+V:eng:trabajar_en_grupos|trabajar_en_equipo
*ST2: &uh@fp trabajar en solo donde estoy seguro que no hay espacio para

cometer errores .
%erm: $PREP:esp:x|en $ADJ:esp:solo|sola
*ST2: no trabajo bien con &prez con presión .
*ST2: pero siempre &um@fp yo doy la mejor que puedo y ayudar las mujeres y hombres quien sufren injusticia &uh@fp a causa de la inegualidad de opresión .
%erm: $PRON:esp:la|lo $PREP:esp:0|a $PRON:esp:quien|quienes
*ST2: pero en la mismo tiempo &uh@fp quiero tener la oportunidad a realizar &uh@fp mi sueño a ser un actriz en Broadway .
%erm: $DET:esp:la|el $DET:esp:x|un $PREP:esp:a|de
*ST2: y tener éxito en el teatro .
*ST2: como un soñador tengo metas altas .
*ST2: y no permito nada o nadie para a pararme obtenerlos .
%erm: $PREP:esp:x|para $PREP:esp:0|de
*ST2: quiero graduar como un magna_cum_laude .
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:graduar|graduarse
*ST2: &um@fp cualquier pasará en mi futuro .
%erm: $SYN:esp:cualqueir_pasara|pase_lo_que_pase $V:esp:pasaRA|pase
*ST2: la cosa importante para mí es_que tendré suficiente para dar a mis padres &um@fp más que me daba en mi vida .
%erl: $CLQ+N:eng:la_cosa_importante|lo_importante
%erm: $V:esp:daba|han_dado
*PRF: &um@fp vale no he podido pillar todos tus errores no pero repasa la concordancia vale bien .
*ST2: &um@fp en_primer_lugar &uh@fp soy &uh@fp [//] quiero ser una persona de cultura .
*ST2: como una persona cultivada .
%com: untranscribed
*ST2: &uh@fp es una escuela muy muy burgués porque .
%erm: $ADJ:esp:burgues|burguesa
*ST2: &uh@fp mis [/] mis compañeros de &c de &cl [/] de clase son todo ricos burgueses y &uh@fp .
%com: risas
%erm: $ADJ:esp:todo|todos
*ST2: sí y jugan &uh@fp jugan jugan a los deportes muy interesantes .
%erp: $VOW:esp:jugan|juegan
%erm: $V:esp:juegan|jugaban
*PRF: juegan .
%fbl: $REF+REC:$VOW:jugan|juegan
*ST2: &jue &jue juegan a los deportes interesantes porque tienen dinero .
%srl: $RPZ+SS:VOW:jugan|juegan
%erm: $V:esp:juegan|jugaban $V:esp:tienen|tenian
*ST2: &uh@fp sí (.) viajan &uh@fp [/] viajan &uh@fp [//] viajaban mucho porque tienen dinero .
%erm: $V:esp:tienen|tenian
%com: risas
*ST2: sí sí y por_eso &uh@fp por_eso cuando era más joven quería ser como ellos .
*ST2: y es la razón porque &um@fp &estu estudio mucho y &uh@fp trabajo mucho .
%erm: $CONJ:esp:porque|por_la_que
*ST2: y &uh@fp gracias a Dios .
*ST2: &um@fp y [/] y por [/] por ser [//] para ser una persona cultivada .
%erl: $LEX+PREP:esp:por|para
%srl: $USR+SS:LEX+PREP:por|para

*ST2: es importante de hablar &uh@fp lenguas .
%erm: $PREP:fra:x|de
*ST2: es la razón también porque estudio &uh@fp las lenguas europeas .
%erm: $CONJ:esp:porque|por_la_que
*ST2: &uh@fp la comunicación &uh@fp y las lenguas son &uh@fp &uh@fp las &uh@fp [//] explican bien una persona cultivada .
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:explicar|representar
*ST2: porque &uh@fp cuando se habla una lengua &uh@fp &uh@fp .
*ST2: vive una [/] una otra vida .
%erm: $DET:esp:x|gen
*ST2: no me &g no me odio las [/] las ramas .
%erm: $PRON:esp:x|me
*PRF: hmmm?
*PRF: qué?
%fbm: $PRO+CLA:PRON:x|me
*ST2: no me gusta .
*ST2: odio?
%srm: $PSR+SS:PRON:x|me
*ST2: no me gustan las ramas entonces no tomí clases de biología .
%erl: $NEO+V:esp:tomi|tome
*ST2: entonces no hay ramas aquí en nuestra [//] nuestros estudios .
%erm: $DET:esp:nuestra|nuestros
%srm: $USR+SS:DET:nuestra|nuestros
*ST2: &uh@fp qué más &um@fp para ser una persona cultivada &um@fp .
*ST2: &uh@fp &uh@fp me hago muchos amigos trabajo como ayudante de Kuya_Pabs por tres años .
*ST2: para ser &uh@fp una persona &culti cultivada &uh@fp es necesario que se viajé .
%erp: $SYL:esp:viaJE|VIAje
*ST2: son los &ah@fp estaban los [//] las becas .
%erl: $LEX+V:esp:estar|haber
%erm: $DET:esp:los|las
%srm: $USR+SS:DET:los|las
*ST2: sí porque no tengo dinero .
*ST2: y &uh@fp como [/] como trabajo mucho como estudio mucho .
*ST2: no tengo tiempo para ser [/] para ser Y_O_L_O@s:eng .
*ST2: sí .
*ST2: &uh@fp &uh@fp quiero [/] quiero [/] quiero hacer los ziplines@s:eng .
*ST2: pero no tengo tiempo .
*ST2: tengo conocimientos de beisbol de baloncesto de [/] de [/] de nadar de gimnástica .
*ST2: porque &uh@fp estudiaba los deportes diferentes en la elementaria .
*ST2: pero si hay [//] pero hay campo de fuego hay [/] hay todas las &uh@fp &um@fp lugares donde se pueden hacer los juegos .
*ST2: &uh@fp qué más ?
*ST2: &siempr &uh@fp para ser una persona cultivada &uh@fp se tiene que leer mucho .
*ST2: pero yo no [/] yo no leo las novelas .
*ST2: solo cuando los profesores me dicen ah@i lee esto lee esto y esto .
*ST2: &so solo para esa [/] esa razón .
%erl: $PREP:esp:para|por
*ST2: &uh@fp siempre &uh@fp leo mucho &uh@fp los libros con hecho como enciclopedias almanacs@s:eng .
%erm: $N:esp:hecho|hechos
%erl: $BORR+N:eng:almanacs|almanaques

*ST2: y me gustan memorizar los hechos sí .
%erm: $V:esp:gustan|gusta
*PRF: almanac ?
%fbl: $PRO+REP:BORR+N:almanacs|almanaques
*ST2: quiero comprar [/] quiero comprar una nevera y una
[/] una lavadora a mi familia .
%erm: $PREP:esp:a|para
%srl: $PSR+ZE:BORR+N:almanacs|almanaques
*ST2: ya está .
*PRF: para [/] para mi familia .
%fbm: $REF+REC:PREP:a|para
*ST2: es la razón porque trabajo mucho .
%erm: $CONJ:esp:porque|por_la_que
%srm: $RPZ+ZE:PREP:a|para
*ST2: para &uh@fp para en el futuro ya puedo &uh@fp comprar esos .
%com: untranscribed irrelevant data
%erm: $V:esp:puedo|poder
*ST2: abieron ay@i abrieron las puertas .
%erp: $CON:esp:abieron|abrieron
%srp: $USR+SS:CON:abieron|abrieron
*ST2: abrieron las puertas y cuando [/] cuando necesitan algo .
%erm: $V:esp:necesitan|necesitaban
*ST2: y se cierron las puertas .
%erl: $NEO+V:esp:cierron|cerraron
*PRF: cerraron cerraron las puertas .
%fbl: $REF+REC:NEO+V:cierron|cerraron
%com: new topic
*PRF: qué es Tinder?
*ST2: es para buscar novio .
%srl: $RPZ+ZE:NEO+V:cierron|cerraron
*PRF: pero para qué lo usas ?
*ST2: para [x3] encontrar nueva persona .
%erm: $N:esp:persona|personas
%com: risas
*PRF: para encontrar qué quién?
%fbm: $PRO+CLA:N:persona|personas
*ST2: nueva persona .
*ST2: nuevas personas .
%srm: $PSR+SS:N:persona|personas
%com: untranscribed
*ST2: pero para [/] para comunicar a la otra persona
es necesario que cliquea cliquea .
%erl: $NEO+V:fra:cliquear|clicar
*PRF: que hagas clic .
%fbl: $REF+REC:NEO+V:cliquear|clicar
*ST2: lo dejo de usar eso porque .
%srl: $RPZ+ZE:NEO+V:cliquear|clicar
%erm: $V:esp:dejo|deJE
*PRF: dejé .
%fbm: $REF+REC:V:dejo|deJE
*PRF: por qué?
*ST2: porque no [/] no me gusta .
%srm: $RPZ+ZE:V:dejo|deJE
%erm: $V:esp:gusta|gustaba
*PRF: ah@i no te ha gustao .
%fbm: $REF+REC:V:gusta|gustaba

*ST2: y mucha persona solo quiere [/] quiere sí .
%srm: $RPZ+ZE:V:gusta|gustaba
%erl: $LEX+N:esp:persona|gente
*ST2: actividades por la noche .
%com: risas
*ST2: pero hay algunas personas también que [/] que tiene buen humor .
%erm: $V:esp:tiene|tienen $N:esp:0|sentido
*ST2: buen sentido de humor .
%srm: $USR+SS:N:0|sentido
@End

ANNEX D

@Begin
@Languages: spa, tgl, eng, fra, jpn
@Participants: CHR Conta Subject, INV Sibayan Investigator
@ID: spa|SibayanELE|CHR|21;|female|Licenciatura||Subject|L1_tgl_eng|L2_no|
@ID: spa|SibayanELE|INV|||||Investigator|||
@Filename: SP4EConta
@Text type: Expository Spoken
@Date: 01-FEB-2015
@Location: Universidad de Filipinas
@Version: standardized
@Transcriber: Anna Sibayan
@Coder: Anna Sibayan
*CHR: en cuanto al vídeo creo que los problemas que 0 han mostrado en las escenas son muy ↫com↫comunes .
%erm: $V:esp:han_mostrado|se_han_mostrado
*CHR: &uh@fp quiero decir que son problemas universales que existen en todas las escuelas del mundo porque para mí &uh la +...
*CHR: cómo_se_dice ?
*CHR: el tiempo de adolescencia es muy difícil para todos y que [/-] es que para mí la adolescencia es una [//] un periodo de [/] de cambio, de transición entre ser un niño y tambien algo del comienzo del (.) ser un adulto .
%erm: $DET:esp:una|un
%srm: $USR+SS:DET:una|un
*CHR: y también &uh@fp pasa muchas cosas &uh físicamente &sis sociológicamente y [/] y también y &in en tus &pensa [//] <en las pensamientos> [//] en los pensamientos de personas .
%erm: $V:esp:pasa|pasan $DET:esp:las|los
%srm: $USR+SS:DET:las|los
*CHR: y es un [//] &t creo que es un reto para los profesores, la familia y los maestros de identificar o resolver los problemas de los jóvenes porque forman [///] creo que este periodo es muy &um importante al construir la identidad o el comportimento de una persona en su adultez [=! preguntando] .
%erm: $PREP:esp:x|de $PREP:esp:a|para
%erl: $NEO+N:fra:comportimento|comportamiento
*CHR: creo que por_ejemplo los &uh los problemas [/-] ah@i el sentimiento de ser aceptado por un grupo o pertencer a un [///] &ah@fp sentir valorada o &uh@fp pertenecer en un grupo que tiene cierta identidad .
%srm: $USR+HYP:PREP:en|a
*CHR: creo que este [//] esta necesidad es muy grande cuando una persona está en la secundaria porque hacen pandillos y también tienen que hablar o interactuar a tus compañeros de clase o los &um@fp los &um@fp (.) cómo_se_dice [=! preguntando] .
%erm: $DET:esp:este|esta $PREP:esp:a|con
%srm: $USR+SS:DET:este|esta
%erl: $NEO+N:esp:pandillos|pandillas $LEX+DET:esp:tus|los
*CHR: los compañeros en la escuela también porque en este periodo de cambios es muy importe sentir &uh@fp la &em@fp [//] el sentimiento (.) cómo_se_dice [=! preguntando] (.) &um@fp tener una identidad propia y tener otras personas que comparten esta

identidad también .
%erm: $DET:esp:la|el
%srm: $USR+SS:DET:la|el
*CHR: y (.) incluso creo que otras personas o jóvenes (.) cómo_se_dice [=! preguntando] (.) hacen cosas que creo que no son buenas como los problemas que se encuentran en la &esc [//] en el vídeo .
%erp: $VOW:esp:y|e
*CHR: pero lo hacen para estar aceptado por un grupo .
*CHR: por [/] por_ejemplo es un reto ser mandón por una semana o no asistir a la clase o &uh@fp (.) cómo_se_dice [=! preguntando] (.) &um@fp <los que> [/] los que están &so [/] están sola en una cafeteria o un [/] una parte de la escuela &um van a hacer malas cosas con él o ella .
%erm: $PREP:eng:por|durante $ADJ:esp:sola|solas $DET:esp:un|una
%srm: $USR+SS:DET:un|una
*CHR: y esto creo que <es un> [/] es un reto para los [/] los maestros y para la familia porque es muy difícil &uh@fp sólo explicar o explicar <los &compo> [//] el comportamiento apropiado o &uh@fp (.) cómo se dice [=! preguntando] (.) bueno &conduct [//] la conducta buena durante este periodo .
%erm: $ADJ:esp:bueno|buena
%srm: $USR+SS:ADJ:bueno|buena $USR+HYP:SYN:bueno_conducto|conducta_buena
*CHR: porque el [//] la formación principal para mí viene de la casa y si los [/] <&uh los> [/] &uh los jóvenes <ya &lle> [/] ya van a la escuala sin tener ese [*] [//] esa formación sólida .
%erm: $DET:esp:ese|esa $DET:esp:el|la
%srm: $USR+SS:DET:ese|esa $USR+SS:DET:el|la
*CHR: es muy difícil .
*CHR: aunque eso puede cambiar por [/] por el ayuda o apoyo de los maestros creo que hay que tener una conexión entre la familia y los maestros para identificar o resolver estos problemas porque por_ejemplo hay casos que los jóvenes [/-] (.) por_ejemplo hay un mandón que actuó así porque creció en un ambiente &violen violente y creció viendo la violencia en la familia o un parte de la sociedad que [/] que pasan muchas cosas violentas por_eso en [///] cuando llega en otra [//] ↫o↫otro ámbito u otro sitio de su vida también lleva a su misma ese [*] agresión .
%erm: $V:esp:puede|pueda $DET:esp:el|la $CONJ:esp:que|donde $PREP:esp:en|a $DET:esp:ese|esa $PRON:esp:a_su_misma|consigo
*CHR: o no sé .
*CHR: y puede ser que &um@fp &uh@fp actúa como_así para tener compañeros de seguidores porque el temor es muy fuerte cuando [//] especialmente cuando una persona es joven .
%erm: $PREP:eng:x|como
*CHR: entonces por el temor de &um (.) cómo_se_dice [=! preguntando] tener &uh ese [///] o por temor de [/] de ser (.) cómo_se_dice [=! preguntando] &um herida [=! preguntando] .
*CHR: o no sé +...
*CHR: por otras personas tiene que seguir o sentir temor a esta [//] este mandon .
%erm: $V:esp:tiene|tienen $PREP:esp:por|para $DET:esp:esta|este
*CHR: eso .
*CHR: eso es todo .
@End

ANNEX E

CODES

ADJ	adjective
ADV	adverb
bis	Bisaya
BORR	borrowing
ceb	Cebuano
CLA	clarification request
CLQ	calque
COG	false cognate
CON	consonant
CONJ	conjunction
DE	different error
DET	determiner
deu	Deutsch
ELI	elicitation
eng	English
ERL	error - lexical-semantic
ERM	error - morphosyntax
ERP	error - phonetic-phonological
esp	Español
EXP	explicit correction
FBL	feedback - lexical-semantic
FBM	feedback - morphosyntax
FBP	feedback - phonetic-phonological
FL	foreign language
fra	Français
HYP	hypercorrection
ilo	Ilocano
ita	Italiano
jpn	Japanese
kap	Kapampangan
LEX	error choice in lexicon
MET	metalinguistic comment
N	noun
NEO	neologism
NVR	non-verbal acknowledgment of FB
O	omission
pan	Pangasinense
PE	partial error
PREP	preposition
PRO	feedback prompt
PRON	pronoun
PSR	uptake: prompted self-repair
REC	recast
REF	feedback reformulation
REP	repetition of non-target form
RPD	uptake: repetition + production
RPZ	uptake: repetition only
SE	same error
SL	source language
SRL	self-repair - lexical-semantic
SRM	self-repair - morphosyntax
SRP	self-repair - phonetic-phonological
SS	successful
SYL	syllable
SYN	syntax
tgl	Tagalog
TL	target language
USR	unprompted self-repair
V	verb
VOW	vowel
VR	verbal acknowledgment of FB
x	excess
ZE	no effort / no chance to repair
zid	SL not identifiable

PHONETIC-PHONOLOGICAL LEVEL

%erp

Level 1: Error type

Level 2: Source language

Level 3: Error|target details

$VOW	vowel
$CON	consonant
$SYL	syllable
:bis	Bisaya
:ceb	Cebuano
:deu	Deutsch
:eng	English
:esp	Español
:fra	Français
:ilo	Ilocano
:ita	Italiano
:jpn	Japanese
:kap	Kapampangan
:pan	Pangasinense
:zid	SL not identifiable
:tgl	Tagalog
:O	omission
:x	excess

:sampleerror|sampletarget

%fbp

Level 1: Feedback type + subtype

Level 2: Error type being corrected

Level 3: Error|target details

$REF	feedback reformulation
+EXP	explicit correction
+REC	recast
$PRO	feedback prompt
+CLA	clarification request
+ELI	elicitation
+MET	metalinguistic comment
+REP	repetition of non-target form
:VOW	vowel
:CON	consonant
:SYL	syllable

:sampleerror|sampletarget

%srp

Level 1: Repair type + subtype

Level 2: Error type repaired

Level 3: Error|target details

$USR	unprompted self-repair
$RPZ	uptake: repetition only
$RPD	uptake: repetition + production
$PSR	uptake: prompted self-repair
+SS	successful
+SE	same error
+DE	different error
+PE	partial error
+HYP	hypercorrection
+ZE	no effort / no chance to repair
+VR	verbal acknowledgment of FB
+NVR	non-verbal acknowledgment of FB
:VOW	vowel
:CON	consonant
:SYL	syllable

:sampleerror|sampletarget

MORPHOSYNTACTIC LEVEL

%erm
Level 1: Error type
Level 2: Source language
Level 3: Error|target details

$ADJ	adjective
$ADV	adverb
$CONJ	conjunction
$DET	determiner
$N	noun
$PREP	preposition
$PRON	pronoun
$SYN	syntax
$V	verb
:bis	Bisaya
:ceb	Cebuano
:deu	Deutsch
:eng	English
:esp	Español
:fra	Français
:ilo	Ilocano
:ita	Italiano
:jpn	Japanese
:kap	Kapampangan
:pan	Pangasinense
:zid	SL not identifiable
:tgl	Tagalog
:O	omission
:x	excess
:sampleerror|sampletarget	

%fbm
Level 1: Feedback type + subtype
Level 2: Error type being corrected
Level 3: Error|target details

$REF	feedback reformulation
+EXP	explicit correction
+REC	recast
$PRO	feedback prompt
+CLA	clarification request
+ELI	elicitation
+MET	metalinguistic comment
+REP	repetition of non-target form
:ADJ	adjective
:ADV	adverb
:CONJ	conjunction
:DET	determiner
:N	noun
:PREP	preposition
:PRON	pronoun
:SYN	syntax
:V	verb
:O	omission
:x	excess
:sampleerror|sampletarget	

%srm
Level 1: Repair type + subtype
Level 2: Error type repaired
Level 3: Error|target details

$USR	unprompted self-repair
$RPZ	uptake: repetition only
$RPD	uptake: repetition + production
$PSR	uptake: prompted self-repair
+SS	successful
+SE	same error
+DE	different error
+PE	partial error
+HYP	hypercorrection
+ZE	no effort / no chance to repair
+VR	verbal acknowledgment of FB
+NVR	non-verbal acknowledgment of FB
:ADJ	adjective
:ADV	adverb
:CONJ	conjunction
:DET	determiner
:N	noun
:PREP	preposition
:PRON	pronoun
:SYN	syntax
:V	verb
:O	omission
:x	excess
:sampleerror|sampletarget	

LEXICAL-SEMANTIC LEVEL

%erl

Level 1: Error type

Level 2: Source language

Level 3: Error|target details

$LEX	error choice in lexicon
$NEO	neologism
$BORR	borrowing
$CLQ	calque
$COG	false cognate
+ADJ	adjective
+ADV	adverb
+CONJ	conjunction
+DET	determiner
+N	noun
+PREP	preposition
+PRON	pronoun
+V	verb
:bis	Bisaya
:ceb	Cebuano
:deu	Deutsch
:eng	English
:esp	Español
:fra	Français
:ilo	Ilocano
:ita	Italiano
:jpn	Japanese
:kap	Kapampangan
:pan	Pangasinense
:zid	SL not identifiable
:tgl	Tagalog
:O	omission
:x	excess

:sampleerror|sampletarget

%fbl

Level 1: Feedback type + subtype

Level 2: Error type being corrected

Level 3: Error|target details

$REF	feedback reformulation
+EXP	explicit correction
+REC	recast
$PRO	feedback prompt
+CLA	clarification request
+ELI	elicitation
+MET	metalinguistic comment
+REP	repetition of non-target form
+NNV	non-verbal prompt
:LEX	error choice in lexicon
:NEO	neologism
:BORR	borrowing
:CLQ	calque
:COG	false cognate
+ADJ	adjective
+ADV	adverb
+CONJ	conjunction
+DET	determiner
+N	noun
+PREP	preposition
+PRON	pronoun
+V	verb

:sampleerror|sampletarget

%srl

Level 1: Repair type + subtype

Level 2: Error type repaired

Level 3: Error|target details

$USR	unprompted self-repair
$RPZ	uptake: repetition only
$RPD	uptake: repetition + production
$PSR	uptake: prompted self-repair
+SS	successful
+SE	same error
+DE	different error
+PE	partial error
+HYP	hypercorrection
+ZE	no effort / no chance to repair
+VR	verbal acknowledgment of FB
+NVR	non-verbal acknowledgment of FB
:LEX	error choice in lexicon
:NEO	neologism
:BORR	borrowing
:CLQ	calque
:COG	false cognate
+ADJ	adjective
+ADV	adverb
+CONJ	conjunction
+DET	determiner
+N	noun
+PREP	preposition
+PRON	pronoun
+V	verb

:sampleerror|sampletarget

ANNEX F

Group 1 - Beginners

CHAT name	*Age*	*Sex*	*L1s*	*L2s*	*FLs*	*Mother's occupation*	*Father's occupation*	*Major*	*Minor*
RAF	19	M	CEB ENG	FIL	ESP FRA	industrial engineer	colonel	ESP	Politcal Science
INA	19	F	FIL CEB ENG		ITA ESP	house wife	gov't employee	ITA	ESP
NAT	20	M	FIL	ENG	ESP FRA DEU			DEU	ESP
ANA	20	F	KAP FIL	ENG	FRA ESP			FRA	ESP
SHE	30	F	FIL ENG		ESP DEU			ESP	DEU

Group 2 – Low Intermediates

CHAT name	*Age*	*Sex*	*L1s*	*L2s*	*FLs*	*Mother's occupation*	*Father's occupation*	*Major*	*Minor*
MAR	19	M	FIL	ENG ILO PAN	ESP FRA	business woman	elec. engineer	ESP	FR
REM	18	M	FIL ENG		ESP FRA	broad-caster	columnist	ESP	FR
MIG	21	M	FIL ENG		ESP FRA DEU	music teacher	consultant	ESP	FR
FRE	17	F	FIL CEB ENG		ESP FRA		passed away	ESP	TOURISM
KRI	18	F	FIL	ENG BIS	ESP FRA	retired accountant	engineer	ESP	TOURISM

Group 3 – High Intermediates

CHAT name	*Age*	*Sex*	*L1s*	*L2s*	*FLs*	*Mother's occupation*	*Father's occupation*	*Major*	*Minor*
TAN	19	F	FIL ENG		ESP	chemistry professor	auditor	ESP	English Studies
AUG	23	M	FIL	ENG	ESP FRA	house-wife	jeepney driver	ESP	FRA
EMN	23	M	FIL	ENG	ESP DEU	realtor	construction foreman	ESP	DEU
NIC	21	F	FIL ENG		ESP DEU	house-wife	pilot	ESP	DEU
PAT	20	F	FIL ENG	ILO	ESP DEU	economist	consultant	ESP	DEU

Group 4 - Advanced

CHAT name	*Age*	*Sex*	*L1s*	*L2s*	*FLs*	*Mother's occupation*	*Father's occupation*	*Major*	*Minor*
ALE	21	F	FIL ENG		ESP ITA	nurse	geodetic engineer	ESP	ITA
CHR	21	F	FIL ENG		ESP FRA JPN	teacher	security guard	ESP	FRA
ANN	20	F	FIL ENG	KAP	ESP FRA			ESP	FRA
BEL	20	F	FIL ENG KAP		ESP FRA			ESP	FRA
DYA	19	M	FIL	ENG	ESP FRA			ESP	FRA

ANNEX G

The BA EL program for Spanish majors[1]

Year level	*Semester*	*Course Number*	*Course Name*	*Prerequisite*	*CEFR Equivalent*
1	1	Spanish 10	Elementary Spanish I	none	A1 – A2-
	1	Spanish 11	Elementary Spanish II	Spanish 10	A1 – A2-
	2	Spanish 12	Intermediate Spanish I	Spanish 11	A2
	2	Spanish 13	Intermediate Spanish II	Spanish 12	A2 – A2+
2	1	Spanish 14	Intermediate Spanish III	Spanish 13	A2+
	1	Spanish 15	Intermediate Spanish IV	Spanish 14	A2+ – B1-
	2	Spanish 30	Advanced Spoken Spanish I	Spanish 15	B1-
	2	Spanish 31	Advanced Spoken Spanish II	Spanish 30	B1 – B1+
	2	Spanish 40	Advanced Spanish Grammar	Spanish 31	B1 – B1+
3	1	Spanish 45	Spanish Phonetics and Phonology	28 units	B1+ – B2-
	1	Spanish 60	Spanish Composition	28 units	B1+ – B2-
	1	Spanish 80	Spanish Stylistics	28 units	B1+ – B2-
	1	Spanish 100	Spanish Culture & Civilization	28 units	B1+ – B2-
	2	Spanish 101	Contemporary Spanish Culture & Civilization	39 units	B2- – B2
	2	Spanish 110	Survey of Hispanic Literature	39 units	B2- – B2
4	1	Elective		45 units	B2 – B2+
	1	EL 199	Intro to Research Methods	4th yr status	B2 – B2+
	2	Elective		45 units	B2+ – C1-
	2	EL 200	Undergraduate Thesis	EL 199	B2+ – C1-

[1] Unofficially, the Spanish Section curriculum follows the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) for Languages since the textbooks used in all of the classes are those which were designed in accordance with the CEFR levels.

Electives offered solely to Spanish majors[2]

Course Number	*Course Name*
EL 172	Translation of non-literary texts: Practicum
EL 174	Translation of literary texts: Practicum
EL 181	Foreign language teaching: Practicum
Spanish 115	Philippine Prose in Spanish
Spanish 116	Works of Apolinario Mabini
Spanish 117	Philippine Poetry in Spanish
Spanish 125	Latin American Literature
Spanish 105	Latin American Culture & Civilization
Spanish 106	Contemporary Latin American Culture & Civilization

[2] EL electives are open to all BA EL students, for as long as prerequisites are met, and Spanish electives limited to Spanish majors. These courses are seasonal and offered depending on the availability of the professors. The translation electives EL 172 and 174 are to be taken only when the obligatory translation theories course EL 170 has been taken. Likewise, the teaching practicum EL 181 is only offered to those who have taken the mandatory theories course on language acquisition and language teaching, EL 180. The rest of the electives, evidently heavy on literature, are only offered to those who have 45 units of their major language courses, which include Spanish 110, A Survey of Hispanic Literature. These courses reflect the three academic domains that characterize the BA EL program, namely: literary and cultural studies, translation studies, and didactics.

ANNEX H

AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION DATA ERRORS

% of ERROR PRODUCTION (with at least 1% incidence on any of the SP Group)	**SP Group**			
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**
	(A)	**(B)**	**(C)**	**(D)**
Total	**11.43**	**10.48**	**4.85**	**2.45**
	CD	**CD**		
Morphosyntax	**6.09**	**7.4**	**3.01**	**1.8**
	CD	**CD**		
Determiner	2.41	1.56	1.4	0.49
	D	D		
Verb	1	2.46	0.57	0.52
		ACD		
Preposition	1.19	1.25	0.57	0.34
Lexical - Semantic	**3.65**	**2.6**	**1.07**	**0.44**
	CD	**CD**		
Borrowing	2.91	0.81	0.11	0.1
	CD	D		
Noun	1.18	0.49	0.04	0.1
	C	C		
Adjective	1.12	0.15	0.08	0
	CD	D		
Phonetic - Phonological	**1.7**	**0.48**	**0.77**	**0.21**

AVERAGE PERCENTAGE OF MONOLOGIC DATA ERRORS

% of ERROR PRODUCTION (with at least 1% incidence on any of the SP Group)	**SP Group**			
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**
	(A)	**(B)**	**(C)**	**(D)**
EXPOSITORY + NARRATIVE	**20.52**	**10**	**8.48**	**6.59**
	BCD			
Morphosyntax	**13.39**	**7.33**	**6.88**	**5.16**
	BCD			
Verb	3.15	1.96	3.46	1.78
Determiner	3.83	1.3	0.95	1.28
	BCD			
Preposition	2.66	1.47	0.9	0.33
	CD	D		
Adjective	1.14	1.01	0.32	0.36
	CD	CD		
Pronoun	1.21	0.31	0.54	0.56
Lexical - Semantic	**5.78**	**2.32**	**1.52**	**1.23**
	CD			
Borrowing	2.32	0.36	0.14	0.41
Error Choice in Lexicon	1.58	1.39	1.3	0.58
Neologism	1.25	0.53	0.08	0.23
	C	C		
Phonetic - Phonological	**1.35**	**0.35**	**0.08**	**0.21**